An Analysis of the Effect of Internal Communication Satisfaction on Organizational Commitment in the Turkish National Police (TNP)

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Public Administration

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by

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my father and mother who passed away during my education at the University of Baltimore. My father was the most patriotic and heroic person I have ever known. I have been very fortunate to have such an outstanding father.
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There are many people, including colleagues, friends, and family, that I would like to thank for their support and encouragement, which made it possible for me to complete this dissertation. I also owe a special thanks to my country, Turkey, and my organization, the Turkish National Police, that provided me with an opportunity to attend graduate school abroad.

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ABSTRACT

An Analysis of the Effect of Internal Communication Satisfaction on Organizational Commitment in the Turkish National Police

Hilmi Seven

The main purpose of this study, which used two different survey questionnaires for data collection, was to examine the relationship between organizational-communication satisfaction, as measured by the Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ), and organizational commitment, as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) in the Turkish National Police (TNP). The target population for this study was Turkish officers who were pursuing a master’s degree or a doctoral degree and those who already had one of these degrees from an institution of higher learning. Therefore, this is a study of officers aspiring to the command level of the TNP. The quantitative data were collected by an electronic version of the translated two research questionnaires, which were sent through e-mail as a hyperlink to the Web page for recipients to record their responses. The survey yielded 358 usable responses, equating to approximately a 55.5 percent response rate.

The statistical results showed that Turkish officers rated their overall satisfaction with communication practices at the midrange on a scale of 1 (very dissatisfied) to 7 (very satisfied). The mean score of the overall communication satisfaction for the entire data set was 4.01, which was very close to the “indifferent” category. This means that Turkish officers were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the overall communication practices of the TNP. They actually reported neutral attitudes toward the degree of satisfaction with overall communication procedures. TNP officers were more satisfied with certain communication practices within their organization. For example, they were more satisfied with Horizontal Communication than they were with other communication aspects within the TNP. On the other hand, satisfaction with communication concerning Organizational Perspective received the lowest score.

The Turkish officers rated their level of agreement with the commitment questions above the midrange on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The mean score of commitment for the entire data set was 4.88, which was near the “somewhat agree” category. This means that highly educated Turkish officers were committed to their organization.
In stepwise multiple-regression analysis, three communication-satisfaction factors (i.e., Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, and Relationship and Communication with Superiors) and their corresponding items were found to have the most statistically significant predictive power for organizational commitment to the TNP. The Pearson correlation coefficients between the communication-satisfaction factors and overall organizational commitment show that all communication-satisfaction factors have moderately strong positive correlation with the overall organizational-commitment composite. The Pearson correlation coefficients between these variables for the entire data set range from 0.537 to 0.313 and significant at the 0.01 level.

In addition, the data showed that there is a positively and moderately strong relationship between the overall organizational-commitment and the overall communication satisfaction of highly educated officers in the TNP. A positive value of the Pearson correlation coefficient (0.567) suggests that the nature of the relationship is moderately strong and linearly positive.

The Pearson correlation coefficient between the commitment composite score and Intent to Remain (0.670) shows that Intent to Remain and the commitment-composite variables are positively and linearly correlated variables. Eventually, the intentions of Turkish officers to remain with the TNP tend to increase positively and linearly as their commitment goes up to the TNP. Briefly, Communication satisfaction has a positive impact on organizational commitment and eventually intent to remain with the TNP.

The key demographic and professional characteristic (e.g., tenure, rank, educational level, unit assignment, and age) exhibited too small of a correlation with overall organizational commitment to be considered, and none of results were significant. Therefore, the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that tenure, rank, educational level, unit assignment, age, and overall organizational commitment were not correlated variables in the TNP. These variables have no effect on the level of officers’ commitment to the organization. Similarly, the results showed that there were no significant relationship between the key demographic and professional characteristics and overall communication satisfaction. Hence, officers’ overall level of satisfaction with communication practices of the TNP is not changed by length of tenure, educational level, and unit assignment.

In conclusion, Turkish officers’ job outcomes, such as organizational commitment and intention to remain, are affected by their perceptions of communication within the TNP. The more satisfied officers are with communication procedures within the TNP, the higher their commitment level; conversely, the less satisfied that officers are with TNP communication procedures, the less commitment they have to the organization. In other words, more committed officers are significantly more satisfied with communication practices than less committed officers in the TNP. Eventually, the intentions of highly educated Turkish officers to remain with the TNP tend to increase positively and linearly as their commitment goes up.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

This dissertation critically examines the impact of employee perception on the performance of employees in a public organization. Specifically, this study is interested in how changes in the level of communication satisfaction impact commitment to the Turkish National Police (TNP) among police officers who are pursuing a graduate degree and those who already have received at least one of graduate degrees from an institution of higher learning. Therefore, this is a study of officers aspiring to the command level of the TNP. Moreover, the purpose of understanding the correlation among the variables of communication satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to remain with the TNP is to understand how to reduce turnover and the costs associated with retaining highly qualified and skilled employees. Hence, in this study, organizational communication satisfaction was projected as an antecedent condition of organizational commitment.

While the primary intended outcome of this study is to advance the understanding of factors and forces affecting organizational commitment of targeted police officers, this study also is intended to identify strategies that will advance communication procedures and ultimately organizational commitment. Providing the upper management of the TNP with information about what affects organizational commitment permits the development and implementation of more effective communication strategies. The results may be used to enhance the level of organizational commitment among highly skilled and educated police officers aspiring to the command level of the TNP. It can be argued that without changes in organizational policies and procedures in police organizations, police officers will encounter difficulties in keeping public order and peace and may consider leaving their positions.
Officers’ participation in the study will serve as a way to inform all levels of administrators about the benefits of an efficient internal communication process for not only police officers’ job performance but also for overall organizational productivity. Therefore, the results of this study are likely to be used to develop new communication strategies and revise current organizational communication policies and practices that will help to maximize organizational commitment and ultimately the overall efficiency of the TNP. Successful organizations have learned that knowledge of employee opinions is essential for quality improvements and better services.

This study will aid in assessing current communication policies, satisfaction appraisals, and determining future directions for meeting the needs of highly educated and skilled police officers. The empirical findings of this study can also provide a better perception of the concepts of communication satisfaction and organizational commitment. Accordingly, by understanding the relationship between communication satisfaction and commitment within the organization, administrators may generate new strategies regarding current procedures, better identify and apply policies for organizational communication. These new policies are likely to improve the working conditions for police officers and facilitate the achievement of the organization’s objectives. Understanding the various antecedents of organizational commitment may help contemporary police managers to fulfill a multiplicity of demanding job roles.

An examination of officers’ attitudes toward and perceptions about communication at work has been determined to be a factor that influences the organizational commitment of police officers and their intention to remain with the organization. The confirmation of the relationship between communication satisfaction and commitment will provide strong evidence for TNP management as they seek and implement better communication procedures and policies within the TNP. In the end, organizational communication is likely to be more timely and efficient.
Moreover, the TNP will keep highly educated, skilled, and qualified police officers with the organization. Retaining qualified and highly educated police officers with the organization will reduce employee turnover and organizational cost.

The TNP is an extremely centralized police agency and one of the largest governmental organizations in Turkey. The main responsibility of the National Police Force is to provide public order and security services directly through 81 provincial branches across the country (Ozcan and Gultekin 2000). Over the past 12 years, the TNP has been experiencing constant changes such as City Security Management System (MOBESE), Police Information System and Network (PolNet), the harmonization activities with the European Union, combating transnational and organized crime, managing data for crime analysis, and International Police Training Center (IPTC).

While organizational changes and technological innovations have made important progress toward enhancing the functions of the organization, organizational commitment and internal communication satisfaction among highly educated and knowledgeable police officers should be examined to modify the current communication policies and applications. A police organization whose officials do not comprehend the importance of basic communication skills is not a modern and effective organization, no matter how extensively reorganized or reequipped it is.

A review of the literature relating to internal communication satisfaction and organizational commitment shows that these two concepts have received a great deal of attention from researchers in the United States (Varona 1996). However, there is a scarcity of such research studies in Turkey. In addition, a brief search of the literature focused on police studies in Turkey shows a lack of research conducted specifically to assess levels of police officers’ communication satisfaction and its relationship with other important organizational variables,
such as organizational commitment and employee turnover. Research studies designed to identify factors that affect organizational commitment have been largely overlooked. Such research would represent a significant contribution to the exploration of the relationships between communication satisfaction and commitment constructs in the TNP. Therefore, this research study represents the first effort as a holistic analysis of the attitudes of highly educated Turkish officers toward organizational communication satisfaction and organizational commitment.

This research study also is indented to aid TNP managers in responding to its subsidiaries’ needs in connection with planning for the organization’s future demands. The General Directorate of Security of Turkey, as the headquarters of the TNP in Ankara, has much to gain in building a capable police organization that responds to citizen needs and provides needed resources. Therefore, this study is important to the Directorate’s efforts to keep public order, fight crime and criminals, and maintain national peace in the country. Finally, this research is likely to be used as a tool to make better informed strategic decisions to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the TNP.

**Statement of the Problem and Focus of Inquiry**

A consensus in the literature supports the proposition that employees with a high level of commitment to the organization are likely to (a) have a strong belief in or acceptance and identification with the organization’s values and goals for affiliation, (b) have a willingness to exert additional individual effort on behalf of the organization to help it achieve its goals, and (c) have loyalty to the organization and show a strong desire to remain as a member of the employing organization (Mowday et al. 1982). From this perspective, employee commitment is critical for organizational success.

On the other hand, employees with a weak level of commitment are more likely to leave the organization for their own long-term benefit. Self-interest will certainly increase the turnover
rate. For example, in a meta-analysis researchers found a significant negative correlation between organizational commitment and turnover among employees in a variety of public and non-governmental organizations (Cohen and Hudeneck 1993). Apparently, among the possible explanations for turnover, as an adverse component of organizational life, the lack of commitment to the employing organization is important to examine. Thus, the nature and causes of lack of commitment are essential to identify and to analyze as a first step to building employee commitment to organizational mission, goals, and better performance.

The most important resource for any organization is its employees. This perception is commonly accepted by organizational scientists. From their perspective, the employee has received more attention than the employing organization itself (Shafritz and Ott 2001). Each organization implements various strategies to retain knowledgeable and skilled employees who can contribute to the organizational function as well as achieve its goals and objectives, while reducing employee resignations and job turnover. Research supports the idea that decreasing employee turnover and the desire to leave one’s place of employment is of interest to all types of organizations, including, public, private, and commercial (Mathieu and Zajac 1990).

Meyer, Allen, and Topolnytsky argue, “Historically, retention of employees has been an important objective and, therefore, fostering strong commitment was presumably in an organization’s best interest” (Meyer et al. 1992, 84). Furthermore, many organizational scientists have pointed out that workplace loyalty or organizational commitment has an enormous effect both on the productivity of employees and the efficiency of running an organization (Mathieu and Zajac 1990). Moreover, all of society is likely to benefit from employees who are committed to the principles of the organization for which they work (Mathieu and Zajac 1990).

In this context, having a number of employees with a high level of commitment to the organization is one of the main ingredients for the achievement of organizational goals,
objectives, and effectiveness. Without having such employees, organizations will not survive in the competitive world, nor can they succeed in achieving their objectives and goals (Rodwell et al. 1998). Many organizations in both the public and the private sectors have a great deal of concern about maintaining the ultimate level of commitment to the core principles and ideals of the organization (Meyer et al. 1989).

If commitment is perceived as a desirable outcome for an organization, it is necessary to examine the conditions needed to achieve this goal. Many predictor variables have been recognized regarding their effect on organizational commitment (Reichers 1985). Similarly, while there are a number of different strategies that organizations can use to increase the level of commitment among their staff, social scientists argue that an individual satisfied with organizational communication procedures is more likely to make extensive personal contribution to the organization and be converted into an employee with a high level of commitment for the employing organization (Putti et al. 1990).

Researchers recently have given attention to these relatively new concepts of organizational commitment and communication satisfaction. The major principle of the current research is that satisfaction with different communication factors is likely to produce higher levels of organizational commitment. Accordingly, an effective communication procedure is likely to play an essential role in employee commitment. On the contrary, poor organizational communication is likely to lead to reduced employee commitment, reduced productivity, and higher employee turnover (Putti et al. 1990).

Since communication satisfaction and organizational commitments are important processes in organizations, there is a need for the study of these variables within the TNP. However, no empirical study has directly examined the relationship between these two constructs in the national police organization in Turkey, known as the Turkish National Police (TNP).
Therefore, a study of the impact of organizational communication satisfaction has on employee commitment should provide a better understanding of the links between organizational communication and the commitment, influential organizational characteristic.

In addition, conflicts with superiors, conflict of roles, and uncertainty in role playing are among the issues confronting the TNP. It is more likely that many of these problems lead to job stress and psychological problems for the police professionals (Zabun 2000).

An examination of employee attitudes and perceptions about organizational variables, such as organizational commitment, and greater intent to remain with the organization as a result of being satisfied with communication procedures are important concepts for organizational studies (Putti et al. 1990). An organization may redesign its communication procedures to satisfy its employees and give them a desire to stay with and work for the organization longer, which in turn reduces job turnover and employee resignations.

Communication is vital in organizations because each employee and each division are connected through the communication process, by which crucial information is transmitted within the organization (Locker and Kienzler 2008). Accordingly, the overall function of the organization can be achieved along with improved employee productivity, better performance, and a high level of satisfaction (Goris et al. 2000). When an employee has a high level of satisfaction with various organizational communication aspects, it is likely that the level of organizational commitment will be high as well (Reichers 1985). According to many empirical studies, not only can satisfaction with the communication system improve the quality of employees’ job performance, but also it will decrease the likelihood of employee turnover and improve organizational success ( Clampitt and Downs 1993).

If a worker is employed in an organization that implements efficient communication practices at all levels, and if the administrators seek to construct an effective communication
environment within an organizational division, all of the employees are likely to have greater communication satisfaction and eventually greater organizational commitment (Allen 1992). On the contrary, if a worker is employed in an organization that does not implement effective communication procedures, and if the administrators do not provide an ideal communication climate, the subordinates are likely to be dissatisfied with organizational communication. In addition, they will have difficulty understanding the positive goals of the organization (Nakra 2006). Eventually, all employees may have poorer organizational commitment. As a result, they will begin to think of resigning (Somers and Birnbaum 1998).

**Research Questions**

**Central Research Question**

Based on the literature review, the following research questions are addressed in the study:

The central research question was stated as follows: What is the relationship between organizational commitment and communication satisfaction of educated officers within the TNP? This research question assessed whether a measurable relationship exists between communication satisfaction and organizational commitment and, if so, what is the nature of that relationship and the explanation for that patterns of communication and commitment reflected in the relationship.

**Subsidiary Research Questions**

Ten subsidiary research questions were addressed as well:

Research Question 1: Are Turkish officers satisfied with the communication processes at the TNP?

Research Question 2: What factors impede or enhance effective internal TNP communication?
Research Question 3: Which communication source or factor (e.g., Communication Climate, Media Quality, Relationship with Top Management, and so forth) has the most impact on organizational commitment?

Research Question 4: What is the relationship between supervisor-relationship satisfaction and overall organizational commitment?

Research Question 5: What impact does communication satisfaction have on organizational commitment and, eventually, intent to remain with the TNP?

Research Question 6: What is the relationship between satisfaction with personal feedback and overall organizational commitment?

Research Question 7: What is the impact of years of police service and management level on communication satisfaction and organizational commitment?

Research Question 8: What are the potential influences of TNP’s unit (division) assignment factor on organizational commitment and communication satisfaction?

Research Question 9: What are the underlying factors of Turkish officers’ organizational commitment and intent to remain with the TNP?

Research Question 10: Does organizational commitment mediate the relationship between communication satisfaction and intent to remain?

These research questions analyze satisfaction levels with communication practices to determine if police officers are satisfied or dissatisfied and to what degree. Moreover, they help to reveal commitment levels across the organization.

**Organizational Commitment and Communication Satisfaction**

Over the past three decades, organizational researchers have directed their attention to organizational commitment and communication satisfaction because of their roles in understanding employee attitudes toward organization, employee performance, and work life
(Allen 1992). Moreover, an employee who is committed to the employing organization will contribute to a decrease in employee turnover (Cohen and Hudeneck 1993). Thus, this relatively new concept has been the construct of variables on both communication satisfaction and organizational commitment. As a result, most of the recent studies have examined this relationship in the organizational settings to determine the impact of satisfaction with communication practices on organizational commitment—ultimately leading to increased organizational achievement and effectiveness (Putti et al. 1990).

The findings of several researchers that communication satisfaction is an important contributor to the prediction of behavior (including turnover) verifies the utility of an affective view of commitment (Varona 1996). The development of such a communication environment is one way to enhance commitment and develop a feeling of attachment to the organization. Therefore, if the Turkish National Police is successful in developing this attachment to the organization, it may reduce voluntary turnover and the cost associated with retaining qualified police officers. As a result, the TNP will have significant advantages in achieving its organizational goals and objectives.

Organizational effectiveness basically depends on maintaining highly committed staff who perform their duties reliably, engage in activities, and stay with the organization longer. Effective communication can strengthen these aspects and facilitate organizational improvement because it changes employee behavior and attitudes toward the organization (Gray and Laidlaw 2004). Furthermore, effective communication encourages employees to stretch their thinking and develop a sense of unity or identification for the sake of the employing organization (Gray and Laidlaw 2004).

One of the primary goals of an organization is to be effective and efficient. In this context, organizations want to employ personnel who show a higher level of commitment to the
organization so it can continue to functional at a maximum level. Having an employee with a high level of commitment has outstanding value for an organization. As Barnard, who earned a place in history as a management scholar, pointed out that “the individual is always the basic strategic factor in organization” (Barnard 1938, 93). Empirical studies have shown that insufficient communication procedures in organizational settings, such as not receiving vital information on organizational policies and procedures or being unable to convey personal opinions to top level management, may reduce the level of commitment among employees within the organization (Hargie et al. 2002).

Regardless of technological developments and new challenges in a competitive work environment, public, private, and commercial organizations have struggled to increase the number of committed individuals in their organizations (O’Reilly III and Chatman 1986). Having a large number of committed employees is of interest to all organizations (Mathieu and Zajac 1990). Achieving this objective has become one of the focal points for organizations. Consequently, how to advance a sense of commitment or loyalty among employees has become the policy of choice to achieve that basic goal.

Furthermore, progress in increasing the level of personal commitment to the organization is more likely to increase organizational effectiveness (Meyer and Allen 1991). As a general rule, the more involvement and commitment that employees have, the more satisfied the organization will be. It can be inferred that individual commitment is positively related to the degree with which desirable organizational outcomes are present in the organization (Mathieu and Zajac 1990).

On the negative side, an increase in the number of less committed employees is more likely to pose a number of serious problems for an organization, such as turnover, resignations, tardiness, failure to meet deadlines, failure to fulfill work responsibilities and absenteeism
A potential solution to the problem of less-committed employees may come from an examination of the relationship between communication satisfaction and organizational commitment in the workplace.

The answer to the problem of reduced employee commitment and improved organizational effectiveness may be achieved by establishing a dynamic internal communication and knowledge-sharing system in the organization after the potential communication problem areas have been determined (Gray and Laidlaw 2004). Accordingly, an organization’s communication system can be used as a way to collect and transfer basic and vital information to all individuals and units within the same organization. It is apparent that the clear and effective transfer of information among all members and departments is essential to keeping them connected (Wiesenfeld et al. 1999).

Communication functions as a nerve center in an organization that makes it possible for the organization to move toward its mission (William 1992). For example, where internal communication is poor, the effect is likely to lead to increased worker unrest, lower employee morale, reduced productivity, and a flawed image of the organization to outsiders (Brown 2002). If employees do not receive essential information about the organization or cannot send personal opinions upward to higher-level individuals within the organization, it is likely that employees will believe that they have no worth to the organization (Gray and Laidlaw 2004). It can be assumed therefore that the organization does not have an appropriately functioning process of communication. Accordingly, a failed communication network is more likely to have a negative impact on employee commitment to the organization that eventually could lead employees to resign because of the deficiency and weakness of the information flow (Gray and Laidlaw 2004).
Definition of Key Study Terms and Concepts

The meaning of the word *communication* in the organizational setting, according to Simon, a 1978 Nobel Prize winner, has been defined as, “… any process whereby decisional premises are transmitted from one member of an organization to another” (Simon 1997, 208). Accordingly, the main assumption underlying organizational communication thought is that healthy and effective internal communication systems result in maximum effectiveness and efficiency in organizations. Similarly, the term *communication satisfaction* is defined as the totality of an individual’s satisfaction with various aspects of communication practices within the organization (Crino and White 1981).

Although there is no consensus on the meaning of the term *organizational commitment*, it is commonly defined as “a psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization” (Allen and Meyer 1996, 254). Strength of commitment may determine some organizational behaviors. For example, highly committed employees are likely to perform better than less committed employees. First, an employee who is attached to the organization as a result of commitment is more likely to exert a great deal of extra individual effort for the employing organization in order to make it more successful, effective, and efficient (Meyer and Allen 1991). Second, committed employees may attempt to make more contributions to the employing organization through longevity, which decreases employee turnover (Somers 1995). These articulated dynamics help the organization expand its capabilities in carrying out its main organizational responsibilities. When taken together, it is expected that commitment will significantly influence behavior.

An organization is considered to be a combination of individuals who shape a social construction that is organized and activated to provide certain products or services (Mintzberg 1989). An organization of two or more people requires communication. Without an adequate
communication process among employees and units, it is exceedingly difficult for the organization to ensure that the overall organizational effectiveness, performance, and work efficiency are accomplished (Gray and Laidlaw 2004). Without open, dynamic, well-timed, relevant, and productive organizational communication, organizational and individual efforts will have little value (Simon 1997). At the heart of organization and management, communication is essential for the effective allocation of resources and for organize efforts that keep each unit connected (Shafritz and Ott 2001). In this framework, communication can be associated with coordinating and controlling activities of large numbers of employees and functions within an organization. In the same way, commitment can be associated with how to retain employees within the organization as either leaders or workers.

A Brief Profile of the Turkish National Police

The Turkish National Police (TNP) is a para-military national police force responsible for law enforcement and providing security throughout Turkey. In accordance with the Act on Duties and Powers of the Police of 1934, “the duties of the TNP are to provide public peace and order, provide security of persons, properties and the comfort of the public, detect, arrest and transfer both offenders and case evidence to the appropriate judicial bodies, and prevent crime in order to protect public safety and order” (Act on Duties and Powers of the Police 1934).

In addition, the TNP ensures the safety of transportation, maintains the safe flow of traffic, and prevents accidents on highways and roads. The TNP also plays an important role in terms of collecting intelligence and conducting counter-terrorist operations for the people and government of Turkey.
The Organizational Structure of the TNP

The TNP is a highly centralized organization, and it is organized as follows:

1- Central organization

   Principal Clerk

   Directorate of Press and Protocol & Public Relations

   33 Central departments

   Internal Investigation Board

   Legal Advisory Board

   Turkish National Police Academy

2- Provincial organization

   81 Directorates of Provincial Police

   751 Directorates of towns affiliated to provinces

   834 police stations

3- Organization Abroad

   The central organization and the high command of the TNP are located in Ankara (the Capital of Turkey). It is called the General Directorate of Security. Each of the 81 cities of Turkey also has a Provincial Directorate of Security.

   As of 2010, the total number of ranking and non-ranking police officers is approximately 213,787. Almost 16,317 ranking police officers, corresponding to 7.6 percent of all uniformed TNP officers, are currently employed in the TNP (Emniyet Genel Mudurlugu 2011). To be a ranked police officer in the TNP, the employee must earn a college degree. The Turkish police officers are allowed to carry firearms and their uniforms with a specific insignia shows the rank levels in the TNP.
Female officers comprise only 6% of all uniformed TNP officers. As of 2010, there are approximately 13,000 female police officers in the TNP (Emniyet Genel Mudurlugu 2011). Female police officers are indeed a complementary presence on the Turkish police force. The primary reason for their low representation on the TNP police force is likely that police work has traditionally been viewed as a male-oriented profession. However, Turkish public policy prescribes an equal opportunity both for male and female officers. Female police officers are allowed to compete head-to-head with male officers on competition for higher ranks or positions in the TNP. To determine the number of female officers required to serve the needs of the organization before recruiting officers, the TNP has been conducting a staffing analysis.

Source: The Turkish National Police (2012)
Therefore, recruiting limited numbers of female police officers has been considered adequate to meet the staffing needs of the TNP.

The Turkish National Police has been a member of the International Police Association (IPA) since 2000. The IPA is the largest and most well-known worldwide fraternal police organization with almost 380,000 members. Currently, 62 countries around the world are active members of the IPA (International Police Association 2012). According to the IPA Turkey Section Bylaws, “The purpose of the IPA Turkey is to arrange various programs to establish international cooperation and close relationship between members of the Turkish National Police and the members of the police organizations of other countries without distinction as to race, language, religion, gender, or rank. To contribute to the protection of peace in the World” (International Police Association Turkey 2012).

Turkey’s membership in the IPA provides the TNP with an opportunity to contribute to and learn from other national and specialized police organizations as well as to keep abreast of the most recent developments and advances in law enforcement science, technology and professional ethics, and standards.

**Turnover problem in the TNP**

Given the mandate, structure and professional culture of the TNP and given the interest of this study in the retention of senior, educated police officers, the nature and extent of officer turnover is important to consider. The type of turnover of the TNP is usually voluntary turnover, occurring when an officer chooses to end the working relationship with the TNP permanently (Kuean et al. 2010) for personal reasons, to pursue other occupational or professional opportunities or to retire within the TNP retirement rules.

Over the last five years, approximately 1,150 ranking and non-ranking police personnel voluntarily terminated their working relationship with the TNP. About 150 employees of those
were ranking police officers who chose to terminate employment (Emniyet Genel Mudurlugu 2011). Because reaching mandatory retirement age is regarded to constitute involuntary turnover, the number of retired police officer has been excluded (Kuean et al. 2010).

For the last five years, the TNP has experienced an average voluntary turnover rate of around 1.07 percent for ranking police officers and 0.55 percent for non-ranking police officer. The turnover rate of the ranking officers is clearly higher than the non-ranking officers’ in the TNP. The primary reason for a comparatively high turnover rate of 1.07 percent for the ranking police officers in the TNP is likely that: 1) they have vast alternative employment opportunities outside the organization; and 2) they leave the TNP under the circumstances of increased pay, status, and promotional opportunity offered by an outside organization.

Cooper and Ingram conducted a study of police turnover in England found that turnover rate in the police service was 6% in England (Cooper and Ingram 2004). In addition, a study of police turnover in the State of Virginia in the United States found that turnover rates fluctuated between 4 and 6 percent (Edwards 2007).

It is obvious that turnover rate is comparatively low for the TNP compared with other police organizations. But, it is important to bear in mind that the TNP is unique in many ways when compared with counterparts in other nations. Although turnover rate appears lower in the TNP than in some counterparts, officer turnover in Turkey costs the TNP more than turnover elsewhere because of the expense of educating officers. The TNP ranks among the top ten percent of national or local law enforcement agencies in the amount of financial and organizational investment in the education and training of its officers, including high ranking officers. The cost of educating police officers in the TNP is substantial; nevertheless, the TNP rarely examines the total cost of turnover as measured not only in financial investment and replacement but also on institutional memory and organizational continuity.
Increases in turnover are likely to result from inadequate salary and benefits of the TNP when compared to the private sector. Conversely, a study of police turnover in the U.S. clearly states that “as long as employees view compensation as fair in comparison to others in the same organization and to others in the field, it will not be the most significant contributor to turnover” (Wilson et al. 2010, 39).

Although the issue of salary and benefits may be substantial to understanding causes of officer turnover in the TNP, it can distract from other main issues such as job satisfaction, communication satisfaction, organizational structure, and commitment. Believing salary as an undoubted reason for leaving may lead TNP management to avoid addressing other crucial organizational problems.

Crucial issues related to officer turnover include its consequences for policy and administrative continuity, knowledge transfer, and stability in the TNP. For example, if the number of highly educated and ranking officers who terminate their working relationship increases, this will reduce effective decision-making in the TNP because critical leadership and management skills and experience cannot support the TNP at an adequate level.

**Performance Measurement in the TNP**

Although there is no agreement on procedures of how to conduct performance appraisal in policing (Wilson et al. 2010), performance evaluation in policing in Turkey is usually made by considering the annual number of operations conducted on crime or other related issues, such as human trafficking, cybercrime, fraud, and counter-terrorism by various units comprising the TNP. For example, according to an annual report of the TNP, in 2010, there were 1,490 operations and 7,047 people were arrested by the police because of terrorism. There were also 3,865 operations performed against Intellectual Property Rights (IPR) and piracy in 2010 (Emniyet Genel Mudurlugu 2011). Consequently, the focus of performance measurement in the
TNP is on outputs, such as number and type of operations, as well as on the ultimate outcomes of these operations.

It is also important to consider as a geographic fact that Turkey is a bridge between the Asian and European Continents. Consequently, the TNP must address smuggling, organized crime, and human trafficking on an intercontinental basis. In its struggle against smuggling and organized crime, the TNP conducted 24,634 operations in 2010. In addition, there were 332 operations in 2010 to address human trafficking that have gained increasing worldwide attention. In these operations 990 organizer and 2,364 illegal immigrants were captured and prosecuted (Emniyet Genel Mudurlugu 2011).

The Turkish Public Confidence in the Police

Given the mandate, structure and scope, and scale of the TNP, a key question is how much confidence of the citizens have in the TNP? Cao and Burton conducted a research study and examined how much confidence the public have in the police in Turkey. The researchers analyzed data from the European and World Values Surveys Integrated Data File and compared the levels of public confidence in the police between Turkey and the member states in the European Union (EU) as well as Turkey and its neighboring countries. This data file included both the European Values Surveys and World Values Surveys (Cao and Burton 2006).

The findings of the study showed that 71 percent of Turkish respondents had a clear and significant confidence in the police in Turkey. Data also showed that public confidence in the Turkish police was quite high when compared to member states of the European Union. The researchers said that “support for the Turkish police ranks highly among the 24 nations within the European Union, Turkey’s percentage is among the top 33 percent of all nations in the European Union” (Cao and Burton 2006, 457). Furthermore, public confidence in the police was highest for Turkey when it is compared with those found in neighboring countries (Cao and Burton 2006).
Some Problems with the TNP

However, despite substantial confidence in the TNP, there are some key issues confronting the TNP, such as extended work hours, heavy work load, supervisory practices, leadership, job satisfaction, group cohesiveness, role conflict, role ambiguity, and promotion opportunities. They are certainly related to organizational health and functioning and need to be addressed.

For example, the rest hours for officers are limited in the TNP. Therefore, officers frequently request that they have more time off to recover from strenuous duties and extended hours. Police officers usually work more than 40 hours in a week. A study of police use of force in Turkey found that extended work hours and heavy work load have negative influence on officers’ conceptions of reasonable force and officers are more inclined to use excessive force when taking suspects into custody (Dayioglu 2008).
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELEVANT LITERATURE

Introduction

To examine the effect of communication satisfaction as a part of organizational communication on organizational commitment of the police officers from the TNP, a comprehensive review of the literature pertaining to organizational communication satisfaction and organizational commitment will be articulated in this chapter. Organizational communication will be addressed by a review of various definitions and functions reflected in the literature. Literature relevant to the relationship of these constructs and both instrumentations will be discussed. Key theories and concepts will be identified in the literature. In addition, attention will be paid to various research methods authors utilize to generate the data supporting their analyses, observations, and findings.

The Nature of Organizational Communication

Communication has been defined as information that is transmitted within the organization for connecting employees and divisions (Simon 1997). Communication functions as a nerve center in an organization by which there is a possibility for the organization to move toward its mission (William 1992). The importance of communication in the organizational context has been explicitly stated by many organizational theorists. For example, Chester Barnard, who was one of the first authors to give serious consideration to organizational communication, strongly emphasizes, “The first executive function in organization is to develop and maintain a system of communication” (Barnard 1938, 226). As a result of its importance, the organizational communication construct has been a topic which has received significant consideration in recent years (Goris et al. 2000).
A communication system in an organization basically consists of three elements: a communicator, a transmission procedure, and a recipient. Generally, the communicator, as an initiator of the process in the organization, is at the top management level. Secondly, to ensure proper delivery and distribution of the necessary information, it is required to have a routine procedure. The third element is the individuals who receive information about the work environment. Every communication should go to all individuals whose behaviors will be affected by it (Jackson 1986).

The most important point is that communication materials have to arrive to the relevant persons. Any deterioration to the communication system may cause a poorer employee understanding of the relevant information. Ultimately, the employee will be unaware of organizational practices and sensitive information. The desired response from the recipient of a communication is vital as it activates the feedback flow of information and completes the information cycle (William 1992). The communication process in an organization is not so simple because neither the decision-making point nor the receiving organs are mechanical. Therefore, it is important to be aware of what we mean and how it is understood to convey our messages clearly and efficiently (Robbins 2003).

In Barnard’s analysis, management should improve coordination and control of organizational processes by establishing a dynamic communication system (Wren 1994). To explain how an organization can construct a cooperative system, Barnard put forward that executives should play a central role to keep employees informed (Fry 1998). From Barnard’s point of view, communication is regarded as the means by which people are linked together in an organization to achieve a central purpose (Fry 1998). In other words, communication connects employees in sharing the same objectives and goals. Receiving timely and sufficient information is likely to satisfy employees and make them willing to contribute to an organization’s objectives.
Group activity requires that a standardized system of information transfer be established for the coordination of activities in organizations (Wren 1994).

**Four Reasons for Communication in Organizations**

Communication is perhaps the most significant human skill because it sets people apart from all other creatures. Through communication, people have been able to discover their strengths and weaknesses, as well as express their feelings, emotions, expectations, demands, and overcome conflicts (Robbins 2003). In this section, four reasons for communication in organizations are explained.

1- **Meaning through communication**

The importance of communication is regarded by the social scientists as one of the most powerful and influential incentives that can be presented to an individual so that he or she can make a contribution to an organization to maintain its existence (Locker and Kienzler 2008). All organizations need shared meanings. Management of organizational communication is concerned with the sharing of mind by the employees and administrators for the achievement of maximum organizational productivity because organizations facilitate coordinated efforts. Communication is a way to transfer meaning. It is crucial that a transmitted idea be perceived by the receiver exactly as envisioned by its originator (Robbins 2003).

The importance of communication in organizational settings can be expressed in a way that communication is likely to contribute to member identification in satisfying organizational relationships and participation (Wiesenfeld et al. 1999). An employee with good communication skills is able to develop good organizational perceptions such as sharing and accepting the organization’s values and culture and making contributions in teams (Wiesenfeld et al. 1999).

To make individuals feel that they are an indispensable part of an organization, the communication network should be able to express the objectives of the organization in such a
manner that presents meaning for them. Receipt of critical information on time by all employees makes them feel a part of the organization (Rodwell et al. 1998).

2- Trust through communication

When communication channels are obstructed, so does trust. Both of these factors are linked together (Clutterbuck and Hirst 2002). In order to build a mutual understanding of the vision of organization by all members, open, free, and functional channels of communication should always be available. As a result of this process, the values, ethics, and strategies of the organization can be comprehended. Communication is central to the development and continuation of trust and integrity and thus, for the organization to live longer (William 1992).

3- Decisions through communication

Organizational decision making mechanisms function in direct relationship with the communication system (Frissen 2004). The quality of organizational communication can be measured whether the generated messages at the top can reach the bottom in the same content as intended. In the same manner, the administrator can be certain that feedback information is accurately conveyed from the bottom to the top (William 1992). Communication is critical for transferring a message across within organizations.

4- Feedback through communication

Accurate decisions in both directions mostly depend on appropriate communication channels. Employees need to receive adequate personal feedback regarding how they are being judged (Mausolff 2004). A precise feedback process is necessary because the flow of proper information to the decision making points all the way through the organization is one of the vital requirements for task accomplishment (Robbins 2003). This provides administrators with having accurate and precise information before making any decision on a critical subject (Greller and Parsons 1992).
Communication Channels in Organizations

To transfer information upward and downward in organizations, two different communication channels are used. Employees expect to send and receive information through one of these channels. In this section, formal and informal channels of communication flow are explained.

Formal Communication Channels

The formal communication channels comply with the organization’s official structure. Formal orders, directives, reports, correspondence, standard operating procedures, fiscal, and budgetary procedures are transmitted through formal channels. These types of messages are usually on the record (Weedman 1992). Strict compliance with formal communication channels takes a long time for a message to travel from the top to the subordinates. As a result, it is likely that free flow of ideas can be restricted (Pandey and Garnett 2006).

Formal communication channels should always be open to send sufficient information to sustain the structured nature of the organization (Gilsdorf 1998). From the administrative points of view, formal communication is safe and authoritative and indicates a rather serious situation. Since the formal communication is of an official nature, and the details behind it are in most cases kept secret, the subordinates in the organization are likely to consider it unexciting or monotonous. On the other hand, heavy reliance on formal channels of communication may block the flow of communication (Gilsdorf 1998).

Informal Communication Channels

Informal channels of communication always exist as a supplement to formal channels of communication flow in the organization (Simon 1997). For example, a high school friendship between two workers will provide a base for an informal communication channel. As a matter of fact, through informal communication, a new employee can be informed of the cultural, social,
and political features of the organizational community (Simon 1997). Moreover, by means of informal communication, workers can clarify the behind-the-scene reasons and methods for new policies and procedures. However, a greater amount of informal communication in any organization is detrimental in nature (Robbins 2003).

In some organizations, administrators can restrain the development of the informal communication by either physically separating people or directing employees not to exchange words with each other. Conversely, in doing so, trust and teamwork are reduced (Garnett 2005). In workplaces, the employees learn many of the concepts through engaging teamwork that allows them to work together to find new ways to solve problems (Garnett 2005). Interestingly enough, Simon argues, “in most organizations, the greater part of the information that is used in decision-making is informally transmitted” (Simon 1997, 208).

**Directions of Organizational Communication**

Generally, there are three different directions in the communication network of an organization: vertical, horizontal-diagonal, and circular communication.

**Vertical Communication**

This concept is the most traditional approach to organizational communication. It refers to information that descends directly from top to bottom through the subsidiary levels of hierarchy. The importance of the vertical communication pattern is articulated by Simon as achieving real organizational effectiveness is acquired through downward communication. Subordinate level employees must receive the same message that reaches the higher level positions in the organization (Simon 1997). If any obstruction develops in the implementation of the decisions at any point in the downward trip, it can be attributed to the shortcomings of the involved workers (Holzer 1995). An important aspect of communicating practices in organizational settings is that
the communication should be two way. Generally speaking, communication with subordinates or supervisors starts at the inception of the task and continues actively until its completion.

Communication from sender to receiver generally consists of five types of messages. The first type of message is about job instruction. This type of message is given most priority in organizations. Instructions about the position of workers in the organization are made known to the individual through direct order from the supervisor, the training manual and written directives (Simon 1997).

The second type of message is about information needed to produce the understanding of tasks and its relation to other organizational tasks. This information provides workers with the perception of their situation in relation to similar positions in the same organization (Friesen 2005). Many staff members know what they have to do but not why they have to do it.

The third type of message is about information concerning organizational procedures and practices. Information regarding organizational procedures endorses the role requirements of the organizational staff. Hence, the fourth type of message is feedback to the subordinate workers about his or her performance. Feedback is crucial in terms of understanding that the organization is operating properly beside the fact that it can be used as a tool for motivating the individual player (Greller and Parsons 1992). The last type of vertical directed information is to convey a sense of mission and organizational goals for the entire organization.

Communication from subordinates to supervisor can also follow an upward direction. In this type of vertical communication, information about the worker’s own performance and in this vein, the accusations or negative feedback/judgments of others, usually follow an upward direction. It typically takes place when an employee wants to send out some judgments or requests about the work (Simon 1997). In the same way, upward communication occurs when the staff thinks that they are being unfairly treated. Moreover, feedback regarding organizational
practices and policies is one form of two-way communication that follows an upward direction (Steers 1977).

For a variety of reasons, there are some major handicaps to vertical communication. The most prominent constraint is the bureaucratic structure or highly formalized organization (Simon 1997). It causes the slowness of movement. Distortion at each level of the organization can be seen as a barrier to vertical communication. Given the difference in attitude among supervisors and the inferior status of employees it is more likely that decisions or orders from the management can be altered by the time they reach the subordinate levels. Because of natural resentment toward the downward communication, the messages are likely to be negatively affected.

In the same manner, a remarkable amount of critical information never reaches the top level decision points, owing to the bureaucratic structure of organizations (Simon 1997). Furthermore, people in higher positions in the organizations are less likely to be in the habit of listening to their subordinates (Johnson 2006). This situation also puts a great amount of pressure on a healthy vertical communication.

**Lateral Communications**

Lateral communication takes place between administrative personnel at the same level of authority in organizations. It can also be termed horizontal or diagonal communication. Lateral communication may be one of most effective directions in facilitating operational coordination among units (Robbins 2003). For example, information through cooperation between the head of the criminal investigation division and the head of the intelligence division is more likely to provide a police team with guidance to solve the crime problem.

Lateral communication can promote better teamwork and instant feedback. It improves task coordination through the exchange of information throughout the organization. Sufficient
feedback makes staff feel motivated to do a better job (Garnett 2005). One of the most important problems in organizational procedures involving lateral communication is to establish a delicate balance between unlimited and over-controlled information among peers in the same organization. It is likely that a great deal of irrelevant information can be sent out in both directions (Pincus 1986).

**Circular Communications**

Circular communication refers to the information and views that are exchanged among all personnel including administrative staff through conferences or round tables. In some organizations, holding a conference on a regular basis is considered to be an essential part of the administration. A particular area in the building is usually assigned for conference meetings in order to hold a circular communication.

Not only do top or middle level administrators participate in these circular communications, but also first line supervisors and workers can share an important role and discuss on operational problem at their level (Bentley 1988). There is a possibility that these communications may be formal or informal in nature.

Circular communication in organizations may propose some advantages. First of all, unlike an organization having a strict authoritative structure, such as military or police organizations, circular communication can present a more democratic environment for participants to disclose and exchange their ideas. Secondly, it provides instant feedback and information for managers without wasting time (Robbins 2003).

As for disadvantages, participants may not be chosen among personnel who do not have enough experience in a certain area. Besides, it may cause disappointment and discouragement among workers. Moreover, it is possible that circular communication may turn into an endless session which can consume valuable working hours.
Message Typologies

Written Messages

Written communication is official, instructional, and authoritative. Therefore, most communication in public agencies is written which makes the process of understanding easy. Since the sender and receiver have a proof of the message, written communication is considered to be a dependable way of communication in governmental organizations. When any concern arises about the content of the message, physical confirmation is always available for the future reference (Gilsdorf 1998).

Written communication can be found in terms of routine reports, memorandums, inquiries, queries, proposals, and decisions. A routine report can be based both on the time interval, such as the weekly reports on the activities, or on events triggered, such as the case reports. A report must express all the necessary information in as few words as possible. Besides, it must be accurate and clear to prevent any misunderstanding by the reader. The most important point is that a report must be objective and not influenced by emotion, personal prejudice or opinion (Robbins 2003).

A memorandum is a message that is used as a way of providing information between management and subordinates, but it is not a part of a regular procedure. The main function of a memorandum is to inform the receiver about new procedures or to persuade the receiver to take a necessary action (Kiesler and Sproull 1986).

Inquiry refers to a message that requests information to enhance knowledge in evaluating a given problem or solving a problem before making recommendations for action. A query is a statement of information defining the nature of a problem and asking for instruction about routes of resolution.
Oral Messages

Spoken words are mostly used by people in communication with each other. The main advantage of oral communication is speed and feedback. On the other hand, verbal communication in public agencies is often regarded as informal and less authoritative. Oral messages can be transmitted in three ways: face-to-face meetings, ear to ear telephone conversation, and telecommunications through electronic visual image devices (Wiesenfeld et al. 1999).

A meeting is regarded as one of the vital means for oral communication in organizations. It involves a conversation among two or more persons. Meetings can be organized to discuss a particular issue on a routine or random basis. In order to make the meetings more productive, a team can build an agenda with time frames before the meeting, cautiously stick to it during the meeting, and close the event positively by reviewing what was covered after the meeting. In recent years, new types of meetings, such as videoconferencing or e-meetings, have been organized among people at different locations through telecommunication devices (Vincent and Camp 2004). An important warning also in these cases is that a communicator has to consider to whom he or she is speaking.

Nonverbal Messages

A nonverbal message refers to communication that is transmitted neither verbally nor in writing. A loud siren at an intersection, the clothes a person wears, a nod of a head or a raised eyebrow can tell us something without the use of any word.

The main types of nonverbal communication are verbal intonations and body language. Body language is considered to be body movements, such as gestures and facial configuration, to give an attitude on the message we are communicating. Hand motions and facial expressions can communicate emotions or temperaments such as aggression, fear, pleasant feelings, and anger.
The important problem is that it is likely that a nonverbal message, such as bowing, can carry different meanings depending either on the cultural or religious background of the person performing the action. In international organizations, this critical issue is never to be disregarded (Robbins 2003).

Verbal intonations refer to the variation we use in our voice to stress words or phrases. When we are using words to communicate, we unconsciously attach to them our emotions, values, or attitudes. A smoothly expressed tone generates a different meaning than an awkward sound. Changing the pitch on a word can completely alter the meaning of the message (Wiesenfeld et al. 1999).

**Using Information Technologies, Computer, and the Internet in Organizational Communication**

Traditional communication technologies are being replaced by new technologies, systems, and equipment. Organizations should understand the benefit of technology and they should be supportive of the adoption of new technologies (Shafritz and Ott 2001). In this context, computer and Internet technologies have given rise to new forms of communication in organizations. Today, computers are considered to be an essential part of modern societies, serving a vast variety of functions in science, business, government, and the home. For this reason, in the era of digital communications and networking, it is impossible for organizations to deal with the sharing of information without paying enough attention to technological improvements. However, the most important point is that the new information technologies should be able to function in harmony with the existing communication structure to accomplish organizational objectives (Burton and Obel 1998).

With the emergence of the Internet, the transfer of a massive amount of information and data became fast, free, and convenient (Friesen 2005). Organizations have been taking advantage
of the speed features of their Internet connection to communicate information among
organizational actors. All over the world, organizations are using the Internet to communicate
with their employees or other people.

In the same way, an intranet system allows users to send or receive e-mails to each other
within the same organization. The ability to share not only the text but also images, video, and
audio contributes to the growth of organizational intranets and the communication process. As
organizations develop these networks, they can serve as a toll for communication vertically and
horizontally. For example, Regional Information Sharing System (RISS) as an electronic
information sharing network that provides information for law enforcement agencies to improve
communications and integrates security entities nationwide in the U.S.A. (Carter 2004).

Electronic mail, as one of the information technologies, may be defined as an electronic
communication process through which information is arranged, transferred, and stored in two
directions (Burton and Obel 1998). All employees can receive up to date information following
important activities and changes in the organization, such as personal information or the
implementation of a new procedure (Frissen 2004). Contrary to the traditional working hours that
are limited to a certain period of time in a day, Internet communication can substantially expand
the time horizon by allowing workers to be anywhere at any time. When people are in the office
or at home or even on the road, they always know what is happening with their organizations
through the Internet and e-mail services (Vincent and Camp 2004).

Computer security is concerned with protecting the sensitive data stored in the system
from loss and unauthorized access. It is obvious that the safety and confidentiality of personnel
information is crucial in terms of maintaining a secure connection with the customers in
commercial organizations.
While the Internet, e-mail, and other technological devices have enhanced the flow of information, they are reducing the progress of interpersonal relations by face-to-face communication. As a matter of fact, there is no substitute for face-to-face communication (Yessian 1988). It is not easy to develop trust through an e-mail or any other electronic communication device. It can be argued that if all technological facilities are used properly, they can provide many advantages (Vincent and Camp 2004). Otherwise, they diminish an administrator’s chances of becoming a real leader, as well as the chances of achieving organizational goals.

**Barriers to Effective Communication**

Barriers to communication impede the flow of information within organizations (Pandey and Garnett 2006). They may generate a negative impact on morale and perceptions about organizational culture. Barriers to effective organizational communication are based either on behavioral factors caused by the failure of an individual to communicate effectively, or on organizational factors caused by the failure of the agency to establish adequate communication procedures (Jackson 1986). It is obvious that poor communication skills are likely to result in both interpersonal and organizational problems. When interpersonal problems arise, people begin to experience conflict, resistance, and avoid contact with each other. Similarly, poor communication that results from organizational procedures often leads to low morale and productivity (Pandey and Garnett 2006). Organization members need timely, quality, and sufficient information. In the course of time, they will be subject to a variety of negative perceptions because of not receiving quality information.

There is a presumption among managers that everybody should be aware of what they know. As a matter of fact, personnel cannot obtain and possess any information unless they are supplied an appropriate and sufficient quantity of quality information (McNamara 2006). As the
organization becomes larger, a more complex communication network is necessary. The complexity of so many bureaucratic levels in an organization decreases the speed of information flowing throughout the organization.

Communication problems can arise when subordinates simply regard some information as bad news or good news to pass on to the top levels (Jackson 1986). In doing so, many workers believe that they will get credit from the person supervising them. In fact, these actions are likely to hold back precise judgments of the supervisors and reduce the effectiveness of the whole organization.

Every organization member has a limited capacity to the extent that a certain amount of information can be dealt with in a certain period of time. It means that the length of a message can put the pressure on an individual beyond the endurable point. Obviously, an overloaded employee will be unable to comprehend the information.

Language is another type of barrier to effective communication. The wrong use of a word or an inappropriate expression is likely to lead to false impressions among subordinates. Most receivers may interpret a message they receive in terms of their past experience and future expectations (Jackson 1986).

Leadership at the highest levels and coordination are vital for successful communication and cooperation within the organization. One of the common characteristics of a leader is to know how to communicate effectively and in a timely way (Clutterbuck and Hirst 2002). Leaders in an organization have a fundamental position and responsibility to improve organizational communication. Leaders who have excellent communication skills are able to change organizations and inspire their subordinates to strive for perfection. In addition, a leader must communicate clearly with subordinates and always keep open proper communication channels in the organization. The real challenge for those in administrative positions is to take the time to get
information from all individuals including peers and line staff before making a comprehensive decision.

The intentional suppression of communication by leaders can cause a serious breach in the flow of information. It is apparent that the welfare of any organization depends on the acquisition of accurate information in a timely fashion. In addition, poorly coordinated organizational activities cannot result in desired benefits (Wiesenfeld et al. 1999). Organization members need to know about the organizational mission, goals, and objectives as they work toward common goals. Indeed, well coordinated organizational activities will save agency resources, such as time, money, and personnel. Administrators or the top management officials should convince their own personnel that the greater organizational communication that is built, the most likely a successful solution is attained (Aust 2004).

As organizations become more global in their operations, issues of nationality and cultural background may pose a significant obstruction in terms of team unity and productivity. The differences in language, values, ethics, belief systems, and behaviors can negatively impact organizational consistency to which managers are challenged to find an adequate solution (Jackson 1986).

It is quite apparent that the effective communication network discussed above is one of the most significant factors in organizational success in government, private or business organizations. Moreover, communication is essential to sustaining the strength of the organization structure because it facilitates critical organizational functions that cause a particular challenge for top management, such as the achievement of maximum productivity, coordination, and efficiency. When proper communication channels are restricted, it is extremely difficult to compel organizational regulations as well as compliance to the standard procedures (Gilsdorf 1998).
When organizations face a restricted communication process, this is most likely to produce terrible consequences, such as losing money, time, goodwill, cooperation, and coordination among individuals (Huff et al. 1989).

**Communication Satisfaction**

Crino and White define communication satisfaction as the totality of an individual’s satisfaction with various aspects of communication practices within the organization (Crino and White 1981). It is obvious that a healthy communication system in an organization will be helpful in flowing well-timed, sufficient, and accurate information. Accordingly, communication satisfaction is related to the satisfactory amount of general information, such as changes in organizational policies, procedures, mission, vision, objectives, performance, plans, structure, and working conditions. It also involves the possibility to communicate with supervisors or subordinates, and of being well informed about either organizational or personnel matters. Briefly, it can be asserted that communication satisfaction of employees is associated with the extent that there is a satisfying communication performance within the organization (Greenbaum et al. 1995).

In organizational studies, the communication satisfaction construct has been regarded as one of the crucial intervening organizational variables that have various levels of impact on the organizational outcome variables, such as productivity, job satisfaction, labor-management relations, profit, organizational commitment, and job performance (Clampitt and Downs 1993). As a result, the construct of communication satisfaction has generated a stream of interest in organizational communication literature during the last 30 years. A number of empirical studies have been conducted in this relatively new field. Accordingly, communication satisfaction has become one of the most commonly discussed subjects in organizational literature. For example, Clampitt and Downs examined the relationship between communication and productivity to
determine employee perception of the effect of various communication satisfaction dimensions on organizational productivity. The researchers used the Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) as the research tool in their study. The result revealed that employees in organizations perceived that all communication satisfaction dimensions are capable enough to make a great deal of impact, despite some differential, on productivity (Clampitt and Downs 1993). Also, the growing number of studies suggests that organizational achievement, employees’ behaviors and attitudes toward the organization are critically dependant on effective communication.

Researchers have approached the communication issue from several different perspectives to demonstrate some aspects of communication on organizational outcomes so that they can ascertain its role in the organizational context (Morreale et al. 2000). Because the communication process with all its features is such an important element of any organization, researchers have sought ways to measure the different characteristics of communication networks within organizations for theoretical and practical purposes (Mueller and Lee 2002). In this study, the communication satisfaction construct is used in an organizational context to reveal the importance of communication practices and determine the extent to which communication satisfaction influences the level of organizational commitment.

Communication satisfaction is the degree to which individuals perceive that satisfactory information about their work environment is distributed and they have adequate opportunities to send crucial messages to the upper levels within an organization (Mueller and Lee 2002). It is likely that communication can strengthen employees’ identification by providing an opportunity for them to share their perceptions regarding organizational matters (Wiesenfeld et al. 1999). For example, an employee may have a feeling of ownership if he or she has an active role in the decision making process within an organizational context. As a result, this will lead employees to
identify themselves with the employing organization (Huff et al. 1989). Various studies have revealed that quality of communication in organizations and communication characteristics, such as leader communication and taking a role in the decision making process were found to be more associated with employees’ commitment and organizational attachment (Allen 1992).

Effective communication can strengthen the organization’s vision because it provides employees with an opportunity to understand the goals, ethical values and achievements of the organization (Allen 1992). Communication channels certainly impact the ways of learning these organizational factors. Furthermore, communication may facilitate organizational improvement because it changes employees’ behaviors and attitudes toward the organization (Mueller and Lee 2002).

Furthermore, communication satisfaction has been found to play an important mediating role in reducing turnover rates in organizations (Hargie et al. 2002). I have included an example of research that surveyed employees’ opinions on this topic. The study, named “Effective Communication: A Leading Indicator of Financial Performance,” by Watson Wyatt Worldwide in 2006 is an important analysis of organizational communication. This study examines the relationship between communication effectiveness, organizational turnover, and financial performance. The findings revealed that there is a correlation among these variables. Accordingly, the results indicated that organizations with the highest levels of effective communication are 20 percent more likely to report lower turnover rates than organizations that communicate least effectively. Besides, organizations that are highly effective communicators are 4.5 times more likely to report high levels of employee engagement than their peer organizations with less effective communication (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2006). As a result, it has been confirmed that effective communication is an indispensable part of a successful organization.
Downs and Hazen emphasized the multidimensionality of communication satisfaction in the organizational environment. The CSQ was developed by Downs and Hazen as a research instrument for this purpose. The research instrument has proved useful and been one of the most generally utilized instruments in assessing communication procedures in organizational settings. A number of studies have been completed using this questionnaire either in the United States or outside of the United States such as Mexico, China, Australia, and Guatemala (Varona 1996).

The CSQ as a research instrument consists of ten factors concerning communication satisfaction in an organization. The original questionnaire included only eight factors. The eight factors were broadly described by Downs and Hazen (Downs and Hazen 1977). The CSQ was subsequently expanded by Downs with adding two more factors, which were Inter-Divisional Communication and Relationship and Communication with Top Management (Downs 1988). This study utilized an expanded version of the CSQ that had two additional factors. To make it simple and understandable by the Turkish reader, the Questionnaire with ten factors and 50 items was named as the CSQ for this study. These factors will be broadly explained in the following section.

1- **Communication Climate:** This dimension provides the description of attitudes of subjects toward the communication process at not only the organizational level but also the individual level. Questions in this dimension attempt to reveal whether communication provides a stimulus for employees to meet organizational goals and expectations. In addition, questions in this factor seek to explore the idea that employee perceptions about the communication system are based entirely on recognition criteria of communication styles. It helps to reveal the extent to which individuals’ attitudes towards communication practices are appropriate (Downs and Hazen 1977).

2- **Horizontal Communication:** This dimension is about informal and horizontal communication channels in organizations. The accuracy of information circulating through informal channels is
also examined by this dimension. Therefore, questions in this dimension analyze the amount of informal communication as well as satisfaction with these informal channels. Furthermore, this dimension evaluates whether or not employees are satisfied with communication with other employees at the same level (Downs and Hazen 1977).

According to Simon, informal communication is regarded as, “No matter how elaborate a system of formal communication is set up in the organization, this system will always be supplemented by informal channels” (Simon 1997, 213). As a matter of fact, through informal communication channels, a new employee may be informed of the cultural, social, and political features of the organizational community. Moreover, by means of informal communication, workers can clarify the behind-the-scene reasons and methods for new policies and procedures. However, a greater amount of informal communication in any organization is detrimental in nature.

3- Inter-divisional Communication: This dimension is about communication that takes place among departments to facilitate operational coordination among units. It is obvious that the clear and effective transfer of information among all departments and units in any organization is essential to keep them together. Questions in this dimension examine the team approach that is considered a key factor in problem solving. In addition, questions that are asked in this dimension attempt to explore that employee the perception about the communication system, whether it is helpful in the cooperation among units and provides more guidance to solve problems, or otherwise (Downs 1988).

4- Media Quality: This dimension is about the type of information channel that transfers messages across the organization. The information channel may include memos, meetings, publications, e-mails, and bulletin boards. Messages can be transferred in either written or verbal format. Written communication is official, instructional, and authoritative. Therefore, most
communication in public agencies is written, which makes the process of understanding easy. As a result, questions that arise in this case attempt to explore the notion that the messages are clear and understandable. Moreover, the general perception about the communication system whether functioning properly is evaluated (Downs and Hazen 1977).

5- Organizational Integration: This dimension is about the work environment. In an ideal environment, each employee should be aware of organizational long term or short term plans, policies, procedures, and job descriptions. Questions in this factor attempt to explore staff opinions ranging from organizational operations to personnel news. Thus, this factor assesses attitudes and satisfaction toward information about the organization’s mission, goals, objectives, policies and plans, as well as opportunities for employees to participate in the decision making process within the unit (Downs and Hazen 1977).

6- Organizational Perspective: This dimension is about general information regarding overall organizational functioning, such as the fiscal condition of the organization, setting goals, performance evaluations, determining working practices and changes. This factor assesses attitudes and satisfaction toward receiving information and getting explanations about the organization’s financial condition, organizational changes and practices, general facts, objectives, policies and plans, as well as government decisions affecting the organization (Downs and Hazen 1977).

7- Personal Feedback: This dimension is about making evaluations of current personnel status and position. This is particularly significant for reasonable accuracy if the efforts of staff have been appraised in a way that enables criteria to be clear and comprehensible. Therefore, questions in this factor attempt to explore staff opinions of whether the information channels are accessible and open to evaluate the performance of each employee before any decision is taken in the organization. In addition, this factor considers the opinion of how well an employee is
performing his or her basic responsibilities on the job. This type of feedback assists administrators in decision making and providing information to the employee (Downs and Hazen 1977).

8- **Relationship and Communication with Subordinates:** This dimension focuses on information that descends directly from the top to the bottom through the subsidiary levels of hierarchy. In this type of vertical communication, information about the worker’s own performance and the accusations of others usually follow an upward direction. Therefore, questions in this case attempt to explore staff perception at the superior level, and to determine whether decisions or orders from the management are altered by the time they reach the subordinate levels. In the same manner, it is examined whether a remarkable amount of critical information reaches the top level decision points (Downs and Hazen 1977).

9- **Relationship and Communication with Superiors:** This dimension focuses on information that ascends directly from the bottom to the top through the levels of hierarchy in the organization. Communication from subordinates to supervisors follows an upward direction. Therefore, questions in this case attempt to explore the subordinates’ perception of whether the ideas, demands, and messages from the subordinate level can reach the superior levels. In addition, this factor examines whether the superiors are open to new ideas and pay enough attention to the demands of the subordinates. In the same manner, it is examined whether a sufficient amount of information can be sent to the bottom levels to help solve problems in such a way that the superiors can depend on their subordinates (Downs and Hazen 1977).

10- **Relationship and Communication with Top Management:** This dimension is about the communication that takes place between top management and the rest of the members of the organization. Therefore, questions in this case attempt to explore staff perception of whether information is shared by top management with other employees. It also involves employee
perceptions regarding the extent to which top management welcomes employees’ opinions, values their contributions, and cares about their well-being (Downs 1988).

Organizational Communication in Police Organizations

The misunderstanding of a few words literally means the difference between life and death in policing (Gavigan 2008). Unlike in many occupations, the law enforcement profession that is one of the most demanding, complex, and lonely jobs makes life challenging because the threat of physical injury or death is a daily possibility (Terry 1985). This means that police work can be very dangerous. Therefore, communication plays a crucial role in police organizations to control, direct, and coordinate police officers and their activities to prevent crime, apprehend criminals, and perform a variety of helping services (Patterson 1992). Poor communication in policing probably leads to unwanted consequences, such as the death of a police officer or an innocent civilian. There are a number of examples that show how misunderstanding or miscommunication can have deadly consequences in police work (Terry 1985).

Communication keeps police agencies running smoothly and supporting law enforcement officers in the field (Whisenand 2004). Any deterioration to communication system may cause police officer dissatisfaction and could have dysfunctional consequences for a police organization when providing the community with needed enforcement-related services (Schmallager 2007). Effective communication means that vital and correct information are received and sent to save lives (Gavigan 2008). In policing, the essential discretion and the authority for decision making is vested in the judgment to the individual police officer to make an arrest; therefore, the first-line officers need to receive vital information in order to perform their normal duties. The officer cannot always predict the level of risk he or she may encounter when conducting the basic police mission on the street (Luen and Al-Hawamdeh 2001).
The following section explains how communication serves its major functions in a police organization:

1- Communication Climate: Officers differ in their basic motivational drive. But, communication is one of the most useful motivational approaches in police organizations (Hamilton 2001). It motivates officers by clarifying what needs to be done and how well they are doing to improve performance. A system of communication based on the idea that it would work toward the greater organization goals is needed in police organizations. Such a communication system provides officers with sufficient information to feel motivated to work organizational goals (Hamilton 2001). The more information administrators provide to officers, the more likely police officers are motivated to do better police job and meet organizational goals. Much of the clarification of role ambiguity can be achieved through establishing clear and open communication.

Insufficient supervisory communication is likely to lead to officer’s confusion on how to achieve organizational goals. Many officers rely on the communication with fellow officers or their supervisor during a crisis situation in order to receive vital information and save lives (Hestness and Russo 2001).

One research report on the nature and importance of current issues facing law enforcement noted that “Information must be regularly provided to command and front-line staff. They need and want to know what to expect. They also need to know what is expected of them in terms of performance and discipline” (Hestness and Russo 2001, 12). Additionally, the police may make mistakes, such as breaking into the wrong house and using force on innocent civilians if communication channels fail to provide an adequate amount of information.

2- Horizontal Communication: Along with the formal channel of communication, there is also an informal channel of communication in police organizations to fill the gaps that formal communication does not manage. Through informal communication channels, a new officer may
be informed of the cultural, social, and political features of the organizational community. But, the information that flows along the informal channel must be accurate (Nuss 2006). Moreover, by means of informal communication, police officers can clarify the behind-the-scene reasons and methods for new police tactics and procedures. On the other hand, the heavy reliance on informal communication may be detrimental in nature to functional organizational communication.

Police officers who spend the majority of their times answering emergency public-service calls depend on effective communication taking place with other officers. Communication is critical for them when responding to an emergency. Horizontal communications in police organization are often necessary to save time and facilitate coordination. Lateral communication can be beneficial if they occur with the knowledge, permission and support of police administrators. However, heavy reliance on horizontal channel suggests that administrators may find out that decisions are made without their knowledge. At this time, horizontal communication may lead to dysfunctional conflicts and hinder healthy organizational communication (Robbins 2003).

3- Inter-divisional Communication: Communication that takes place among police departments to facilitate operational coordination among units. It is obvious that the clear and effective transfer of information across divisions in any police organization is essential to keep them functioning. The team approach that is considered a key factor in problem solving and the communication system should be helpful in the cooperation among units. To emphasis the importance of communication in the team building process, Whisenand claimed that “I have conducted more than 2,000 team-building workshops for police and sheriff departments. With rare exceptions, the number one issue in the workshop is the failure to communicate with one another” (Whisenand 2004, 126). To solve the problem, each officer should feel a part of the team and willingly show a
desire to positively communicate the information to each other. Police officers may be willing to
give their ideas and feelings about day-to-day operations through team briefings. The goals of
crime prevention and safety are easier to achieve when the police officers of the same team
coordinated their effort.

4- Media Quality: The information channel may include memos, meetings, publications, e-mails,
and bulletin boards. Messages can be transferred in either written or verbal format. Verbal and
informal communications are important part of any police organization’s communication
networks. Written communication is official, instructional, and authoritative in police
organizations. Written communications have advantages because they can be stored and if a
question arises concerning the content of communication, it is verifiable. However, written
communication is lack of feedback.

One research report on the internal and external communication of knowledge of an
English police force found that the internal workshop participants of a police study ranked the
intranet, publications, IT system, meetings and e-mail as most effective processes and the
primary communication channel for internal organizational communication (Collier et al. 2004).
The workshop participants also wanted more electronic or written communication than verbal or
informal communication. Hence, the intranet was ranked as most effective approach for the
internal communication of knowledge about performance in an English police force (Collier et al.
2004). After the workshops, the force developed a new communication strategy by using the
results of the workshops. The researchers also noted that “to effectively disseminate knowledge
about performance, the medium needs to be the best method for the recipient, not the most
convenient way for you to issue it” (Collier et al. 2004, 464).

In addition, the style of intelligence-led policing, radio, intranet and verbal methods were
ranked as the most effective techniques for operational purposes in the war on crime (Collier et
al. 2004). For the intelligence-led policing model, the information that is gathered from many informant sources is analyzed and integrated into a useful perspective for operational purposes (Schmalleger 2007). The research also showed that the cultural barrier has been identified as an important factor distorting effective internal communication of the police force. Without finding a solution for the cultural barriers, the need to communicate effectively with multiple officers is not meet. As a result, the investment is likely to not produce the expected results (Collier et al. 2004).

5- Organizational Integration: In an ideal environment, each officer should be aware of organizational long term or short term plans, policies, procedures, and job descriptions. Every police organization has a set of values which form the underlying structure of all policy, department and division plans, job description, guidelines, rules, and regulations. Making police officers feel that their ideas and opinions are valued can be done by informing about changes and plans for the future and being involved in shaping and discussing their implementation.

Police organizations have authority hierarchies within the department; therefore, communication acts to control subordinate officers. The organizational chart of any police organization shows a hierarchies chain of command. The chain of command indicates who must report to whom. When police officers are required to communicate any job related problem to their immediate commander and follow their operational procedures, communication is serving a control function.

6- Organizational Perspective: Police officer should have general information regarding overall organizational functioning, such as the fiscal condition of the organization, setting goals, performance evaluations. Also, they should have information about the new government mandates. The communication provides the information that administrators or individual officers need to make correct decisions. To take alternative decision, information is necessary and
transmitted through proper communication channels. The information that is provided should be complete and accurate available at the practitioner’s workstation like a patrol car.

As the research report on the nature and importance of current issues facing law enforcement found some poor first-level supervisor assumes that failure to correct minor violation does mean that the importance of all rules and regulations of an agency are undermined. However, it has been suggested that when such a problem was encountered, it is necessary to take an appropriate corrective action to avoid department embarrassment (Click 2001).

7- Personal Feedback: Feedback is particularly significant in terms of the efforts of police personnel have been appraised. In addition, feedback provides an opinion of how effectively a police officer is performing his or her basic responsibilities on the job. Where police officers are exposed to appropriate communication like adequate feedback about organizational changes, positive organizational outcomes are expected. For example, Nuss reported that a lack of positive feedback has been regarded by police officers as a factor of low morale (Nuss 2006). Beck and Wilson asserted that “positive communication and feedback is essential if police departments are to optimize performance and commitment” (Beck and Wilson 1997, 173).

8- Relationship and Communication with Subordinates: Information descends directly from the top to the bottom through the subsidiary levels of hierarchy in police organizations. Communication rigidly follows the formal chain of command in police organization. The structure of law enforcement agencies is similar to that of military units. In this type of vertical communication, information about the officer performance and the accusations of others usually follow an upward direction. Upward communication keeps administrators aware of how officers feel about their job and the organization. Information flow should be both the upward and downward in a clear manner by using communication channels. Accurate and active vertical
communication flow is a clear indication that the police agency is functioning efficiently (Johnson 2006).

9- Relationship and Communication with Superiors: Information that ascends directly from the bottom to the top through the levels of hierarchy in police organizations. While communication from subordinates to supervisor follows an upward direction, instructions and goal assignments flow downward. The ideas, demands, and messages from the subordinate level should reach the superior levels. The superiors should be open to new ideas and pay enough attention to the demands of the subordinates. Lower level officers do not have the power to order their superiors to initiate a message. For example, a police officer may take time to convince superiors of the need to change the patterns for a new patrol plan, communication skills are required (Whisenand 2004). According to Hamilton from Kansas City Police Department, “upper level leaders must also ensure that an environment is created that allows for mistakes to be addressed positively-if made honestly and without misguided intentions” (Hamilton 2001, 70).

10- Relationship and Communication with Top Management: Communication also takes place between top management and the rest of the officers of the organization. The chief of police or sheriff is at the top of the command chain in law enforcement organizations. Police officers also want a remarkable amount of critical information to reach the top level decision points. However, some subordinates are concerned that their suggestions are being filtered out by someone higher up the chain of command (Nuss 2006). Hence, police officers may be critical of the lack of response by management to upward communication. A longitudinal case study of a mid-western police department over eight years conducted by Nuss examined the relationship between organizational communication and organizational commitment among police officers. The study discussed that “while it is no organizational secret that top management is unpopular among rank and file officers; the magnitude of that sentiment was made strikingly clear by the statistics and
quotes presented in each audit report” (Nuss 2006, 203). Geller and Swanger also recommended that the top administration reduce the mixed messages and clarify the roles and responsibilities of first-line officers, supervisors, and managers (Geller and Swanger 1995).

It seems reasonable to conclude that one of the most inhibiting factors to successful police performance is a lack of effective communication. A command, no matter how important, is useless until it is successfully transmitted and understood by other colleagues in a police organization. Hence, the channel of communication should always be open and functioning. In this study it is projected that a change in communication style of police organizations may contribute to enhancing the level of police officers’ commitment to the organization.

Organizational Commitment

In the area of organizational psychology and organizational behavior studies, the theme of organizational commitment has received extensive consideration from researchers for more than four decades (Mathieu and Zajac 1990). There is no general agreement on the meaning of organizational commitment, but it is commonly defined as “a psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization” (Allen and Meyer 1996, 253).

Even though no single definition can give the precise meaning of this concept, the issue seems to be diminished by accepting a multiple components model of commitment instead of one view (Somers 1995). For example, organizational commitment has been considered by Steers as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (Steers 1977, 46). Ferris and Aranya consider it as “the willingness to exert effort and remain in the organization” (Ferris and Aranya 1983, 87) along with identification and involvement (Ferris and Aranya 1983).
Despite the fact that there is a lack of agreement on the conceptualization of commitment (Morrow 1983), according to a general consensus, a high level of commitment to an organization is more likely to make employees feel more enthusiasm and eagerness when they meet with the challenges, stresses and demands of job requirements that can only be achieved by particular loyalty and allegiance to the organization (O’Reilly III and Chatman 1986). Similar to the disagreement about the meaning and definition of the commitment concept, there also exists a need to develop robust and generally applicable instruments relevant to empirical research into the measurement of organizational commitment (Ferris and Aranya 1983).

Some social scientists consider organizational identification and organizational commitment as inter-changeable expressions. In psychoanalytic texts, identification stands for a sort of emotional connection (Simon 1997). However, under normal conditions there is no adequate explanation to elucidate the identification concept (Simon 1997). On the other hand, Simon points out some factors that contribute to the meaning of the identification phenomenon: 1) personal interest in organizational success such as salary, prestige, and friendship, 2) the transfer of private-management psychology, and 3) focus of attention (Simon 1997, 283).

Increased attention to organizational commitment was initially associated with finding the underlying factors of rising job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, and employee turnover within the organization (Reichers 1985). In the field of organizational commitment, a remarkable amount of research studies was regarded “as an attempt to understand the intensity and stability of employee dedication to work organizations” (Eisenberger et al. 1990, 51). Considering the costs associated with these factors, identifying ways that may lead to increased employee commitment and to make them feel more dedicated appeared as potentially advantageous and beneficial to the organization. For example, communication activities in an organization, such as supervisory
communication and organizational involvement may play as potential determinants of organizational commitment (Barge and Schlueter 1988).

Committed employees are less likely to leave and more likely to put extra effort on behalf of the organization for its own sake. As it is pointed out, “individuals highly committed to an organization’s goals and willing to devote a great deal of energy toward those ends would be inclined to remain with the organization in an effort to assist in the realization of such highly valued objectives” (Porter et al. 1974, 604). In addition, empirical research studies on this topic have indicated that commitment has been proven to have a positive correlation with performance and a negative correlation with employee turnover and absenteeism. For example, one study on police officers’ commitment to the organization revealed that the amount of extra effort that officers exerted at work was directly associated with the perception of being valued and of their well-being being important to the employing agency. The study also showed that there was a highly consistent positive correlation between perceived support and employee absenteeism as well as officers’ diligence in extra roles related to the performance of their job responsibilities (Eisenberger et al. 1990). As a result, the intensity of this willingness to put extra individual effort as a part of organizational commitment can make substantial contribution to an organization’s objectives and have important implications for organizational effectiveness.

One of the purposes of studies conducted on organizational commitment is first to make clear that employee commitment to the organization is linked to considerable organizational outcomes. For example, commitment is a critical factor of productivity, achievement of organizational goals, a lower rate of absenteeism, and employee turnover. Secondly, it was discovered what sort of personal characteristics, situational or environmental conditions, and human interactions contribute more to the development of strong organizational commitment among employees. As pointed out by Barnard, “An essential element of organizations is the
willingness of persons to contribute their individual efforts to cooperative system” (Barnard 1938, 93).

A review of the literature reveals that organizational commitment has been generally placed into two distinct perspectives or approaches: attitudinal and behavioral commitment. Both perspectives of organizational commitment will be explained in the following section.

**Behavioral Perspective of Commitment**

Mowday, Porters, and Steers describe the behavioral perspective of commitment as it “relates to the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how they deal with this problem” (Mowday et al. 1982, 26). This conceptualization involves the behaviors that are assumed to result from commitment. According to Naumann, the behavioral definition assumes that “commitment is a force that guides individual behavior” (Naumann 1993, 161). The behaviors may include attendance, remaining with the organization, tenure, and extraordinary performance (Salancik 1977). Research focusing on the behavioral perspective of organizational commitment has attempted to clarify the conditions that have been regarded as highly influential on the behaviors of an individual. These conditions may consist of some basic components, such as the amount of salary, length of time, taking on additional responsibilities, and tenure in the organization (Pfeffer and Lawler 1980). In organizational studies, these factors have been considered as the independent variables to be manipulated in order to change behaviors toward the achievement of organizational objectives.

Commitment influences the behavior of people in organizations (Steers 1977). Organizations benefit from good behaviors in order to grow and develop. Coming to work on time, staying with the same organization, and exerting significant effort on behalf of the organization can be listed as good behaviors. From this perspective, the organizational growth and development depend on its employees’ fine behavior and attitude toward their work. Meyer
and Allen point out, “attitudes resulting from behavior can be expected to affect the likelihood of that behavior occurring again in the future” (Meyer et al. 1991, 62).

In previous studies, perceived costs associated with leaving the organization have often been discussed within the general framework of behavioral commitment. In this way, an employee is likely to remain with the employing organization if given inducements are perceived sufficient (Allen and Meyer 1990). A great deal of attention has been given recently to the attitudinal perspective of commitment rather than the behavioral perspective. Most of the literature has focused on attitudinal commitment (Naumann 1993).

**Attitudinal Perspective of Commitment**

The attitudinal approach of commitment assumes that employees are committed to the organization when they identify themselves with and are involved in the organization (Porter et al. 1974). According to Naumann, the attitudinal conceptualization refers to “the individual’s internalization of organizational goals” (Naumann 1993, 161).

The following definition is also made by Mowday, Porters, and Steers to describe the attitudinal approach of commitment: “Attitudinal commitment focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization. In many ways it can be thought of as a mind set in which individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of the organization” (Mowday et al. 1982, 27). In the field of organizational commitment, much research has been directed toward the attitudinal part of the concept. Research focusing on the attitudinal approach has attempted to find a link between the antecedent conditions and development of organizational commitment (Naumann 1993).

In an attempt to make the distinction between the attitudinal and behavioral approaches, Meyer and Allen put forward the following clarification: “In the attitudinal approach, the behavioral consequences of commitment are likely to have an influence on the conditions that
contribute to stability or change in commitment” (Meyer and Allen 1991, 62). Meyer and Allen consider commitment as a mind set or psychological conditions such as feelings and beliefs (Meyer and Allen 1991). This approach deals with psychological conditions from a broader perspective, such as a desire, need, and obligation to remain a member of the organization. So, from these scholars’ perspective, the psychological state cannot be limited only to values and goal conformity between the employee and the organization (Meyer and Allen 1991). Moreover, the costs associated with leaving the organization is regarded as a psychological condition and is listed as an attitudinal approach of commitment rather than the behavioral approach (Meyer and Allen 1984).

A great deal of attention has been given recently to the attitudinal approach of commitment. Most of the literature has focused on this perspective of commitment. Therefore, like many studies in organizational commitment, the focus of this study was on the attitudinal perspective of commitment due to the fact that organizational commitment is regarded as one of the attitudinal measures of factors associated with organizational communication satisfaction.

Even though there is a lack of consensus on the definition and conceptualization of attitudinal commitment, a review of the literature reveals that the meaning of this theme has been categorized into three major particular views. This is named a three-component model of commitment (Allen and Meyer 1990). These components are: 1) affective attachment to the organization, 2) calculative involvement, termed continuance commitment, that is, the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization and the desire to remain with employing organization, and 3) an obligation to remain as a member of the organization (Meyer and Allen 1991, 67). These three aspects of organizational commitment explained above are also identified as “affective commitment,” “continuance commitment,” and “normative commitment,”
respectively. In addition, this classification is known as a three-component model of commitment which integrates various conceptualizations of commitment.

**Affective Commitment**

The most commonly used model of attitudinal commitment in the literature and research field is affective commitment. It considers commitment as an affective or “employees’ emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization” (Meyer and Allen 1991, 67). The affective attachment of the employee to the organization is the basic nature of this conceptualization of commitment. In this approach, organizational commitment is specifically defined as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (Mowday et al. 1979, 226). Moreover, the strongly committed employee “enjoys membership in the organization” (Allen and Meyer 1990, 2).

Affective commitment considers that the employee’s emotional attachment to the employing organization is mainly associated with personal characteristics, work experiences, and job characteristics (Steers 1977). Personal characteristics may include age, opportunities for achievement, education, role tension, and central life interest. Work experiences may include group attitudes toward the organization, organizational dependability and trust, perceptions of personal investment and personal importance to an organization, and the realization of expectations. Job characteristics may contain job challenges, opportunities for social interaction, the amount of feedback provided on the job, and job satisfaction in a general perspective (Steers 1977). In many studies, affective commitment has been found to be correlated with these factors (Allen and Meyer 1990). As a result, the members of an organization are likely to remain with the organization instead of leaving it “because they want to do so” (Meyer et al. 1991, 65). For that reason, affective commitment is considered as a “desire–based” commitment (Powell and Meyer 2004).
In addition, the affective approach of commitment has been subject to psychological circumstances (Meyer et al. 1991). This major component of organizational commitment emphasizes the following three distinct characteristics: 1) highly committed employees should have a strong belief in or acceptance and identification of the organization’s values and goals for affiliation, 2) highly committed employees should have a willingness to exert a considerable additional individual effort on behalf of the organization to help out in organizational goal achievement, and 3) highly committed employees should have loyalty to the organization and show a strong desire to remain as a member of the employing organization (Mowday et al. 1982).

Among organizational commitment researchers, the most acceptable definition and most widely studied concept is the attitudinal type or psychological conceptualization of commitment. In other words, this is affective commitment, a part of the three-component model of commitment (Mathieu and Zajac 1990).

**Continuance Commitment**

The term “calculative” or “continuance” used by some scientists in the literature describes this classification of the three-component model of organizational commitment due to the link between benefit or economic advantages and being a member of the organization (Meyer et al. 1991). The continuance component of organizational commitment is particularly viewed as a cost-profit transaction between an employee and an organization (Hrebinia and Alutto 1972). Therefore, continuance commitment focuses on economic factors, costs, and financial advantages associated with leaving the current employing organization or desiring to maintain membership in the organization. Moreover, continuance commitment is also developed when an employee has limited alternative employment opportunities to leave the organization (Meyer et al. 1990).

Employees with a strong continuance commitment are influenced by the perceived economic advantages to keep on being a part of the employing organization rather than leaving it
“because they need to do so” (Meyer et al. 1991). For that reason, continuance commitment can be considered as a “cost–based” commitment (Powell and Meyer 2004).

Perceived economic advantages are associated with the cost and benefits stemming from organizational membership, such as pension, payment, compensation, job effort, the development of work friendships, organization-specific skills, and seniority. All of these rewards and inducements offered by the employing organization are likely to reduce employee turnover in an organization. If an employee considers quitting the current job, he or she must disregard these rewards and inducements (Jaros et al. 1993).

The continuance component of organizational commitment considers that employee absenteeism, work effort, and turnover, as indicators of commitment, are the primary outcomes as a result of economic inducement between the employee and the organization (Jaros et al. 1993). Moreover, it is predicted that an employee becomes more committed if he or she considers that there is a substantial economic benefit to be had from the employing organization (Allen and Meyer 1990). For example, payment can be one factor that can explain increased commitment to the organization. The employees are more likely to be anxious for high incomes.

This incentive may apparently remove the doubt from the employees’ mind that the organization will not allow them to earn high salaries. As a result, this factor may function as an incentive feature in that the employee shows a motivation to continue as a part of the organization as long as the organization assures increased earnings. Therefore, the more viable alternative rewards that employees perceive as available, the stronger the continuance commitment that an employee will have in the process (Meyer and Allen 1991). However, Simon points out that “monetary rewards are, of course, important; but willingness to do the work and enthusiasm with which work is done may depend very much on how pleasant or unpleasant workers find the job and its physical and social environments” (Simon 1997, 164).
Barnard separates incentives into two particular sets: 1) specific incentives and 2) general incentives (Barnard 1938). Specific incentives in an organization are those that can be presented to a person as inducements to contribute to the organization. They consist of numerous unique incentives such as material incentives, personal non-material opportunities, desirable physical conditions, and ideal benefactions. General incentives in an organization are those that cannot be particularly presented to a person and may consist of factors such as social compatibility, adaptation of conditions to habitual methods and attitudes, the opportunity of enlarged participation, and the condition of communion. These forms of incentive cannot be specifically offered to an individual, but they can be identified if they are not present in social settings within which the organization operates (Barnard 1938). For example, as Simon claims, even if an employee is satisfied with benefits, various inducements that are given by the employing organization, such as position, prestige, status are considered valuable (Simon 1997). This may be explained, at least in part, individuals are motivated at different levels by offered incentives to be more active in organizations (Barnard 1938).

Human beings have certain basic needs that they attempt to satisfy, including a desire of attainment of what they have the potential of becoming when they are looking for a new job. When individuals come to a new employing organization with these certain basic needs, requests, and abilities, they will expect to find a work environment where they can use their talents and satisfy a number of their basic needs (Maslow 1943). For example, a person’s perception of earnings should be consistent with the person’s education, skill level, knowledge, ability, experience, and effort exertion. If the organization provides an opportunity to make available these conditions, the course of action will yield a greater commitment level to the organization (Ward and Davis 1995). The factors that lead to positive commitment in this context can be explained as a function of the calculative aspect of the employee-organization relationship based
on exchange association. This involves the reward-costs associated with discontinuing or remaining with the current employer (Blau and Boal 1987).

On the other hand, when the organization fails to provide an employee with a work environment with expected advantages as well as meaningful tasks to meet their abilities and expectations, the employee may be dissatisfied with the results. In addition, if the employing organization does not satisfy the expectation on demands and perceived income correlated with personal outcomes, the employee is more likely to be frustrated with earnings. As a result, the organizational commitment may deteriorate below an acceptable level and eventually diminish (Meyer and Allen 1991).

On the negative side, some researchers have difficulty demonstrating the correlation between organizational commitment and perceived costs through empirical research studies. For example, an employee who is not paid very well by the organization is expected to participate at a minimal level in organizational operations. Moreover, such a person is supposed to have a weak desire to remain as a member of the organization and will eventually think of quitting. However, a group of researchers wrote: “While the individual may be dissatisfied with either his or her pay or supervisor, a high degree of commitment to the organization and its goals may serve to override such dissatisfaction in the decision to continue participation in the organization” (Porter et al. 1974, 604).

In addition, a study conducted by Hrebinjak and Alutto in 1972 attempted to elaborate and clarify the link between the two concepts of economic inducements and organizational commitment. The research subjects were expected to leave the organization under the circumstances of increased pay, status, and promotional opportunity offered by an outside organization. However, the research results revealed that the individuals were not eager to leave the organization even though there were a considerable amount of rewards being offered
(Hrebiniak and Alutto 1972). As a result, Meyer and Allen concluded that “the major impetus for the intent to stay may not be the costs associated with leaving, but rather an affective attachment to the organization” (Meyer and Allen 1991, 66). Furthermore, they maintain that the individual’s intent to remain with the organization may result from “a sense of moral obligation to remain” (Meyer and Allen 1991, 66).

**Normative Commitment**

The normative component of organizational commitment basically focuses on the employee’s sense of compulsion that reflects a feeling of moral obligation to remain as a part of the employing organization (Allen and Meyer 1990). This also involves employee and organizational ethics (Meyer and Allen 1991). Employees with a strong normative commitment are impelled by the normative pressure to keep on being a member of the current employer rather than leaving it because they “feel that they ought to remain with the organization” (Meyer and Allen 1991, 67). Therefore, this component can be referred to as an “obligation-based” commitment (Powell and Meyer 2004, 158).

Wiener suggests that the normative component of organizational commitment may also develop when a person receives rewards from an organization prior to entry into it or during the years of employment (Wiener 1982). For example, college tuition provided by an organization or in-service training and education may contribute positively to develop normative commitment. In this situation, an employee may feel accountable to pay it back to the organization that provided this opportunity by means of remaining a member of it (Meyer and Allen 1991). Therefore, fundamental assumption about the commitment in the organization under this approach can be expressed in the statement that an employee who has a strong sense of normative commitment should be more likely to have a strong desire to remain with the employing organization (Jaros et
al. 1993). In this case, commitment emerges as an obligation to stay in the organization regardless of the inducements that are offered over the years (Marsh and Mannari 1977).

The attitudinal definition of commitment supersedes the normative based view. The normative commitment is frequently treated as a topic of either affective commitment in the organizational literature (Mathieu and Zajac 1990). This view is supported by Joros and his colleagues asserting a similar expression as follows: “Usually, in fact, studies of moral commitment are constructed as work on affective commitment” (Jaros et al. 1993, 954). For this reason, the normative component has received less attention from researchers (Jaros et al. 1993).

The research in the area of organizational commitment has been conducted extensively to analyze and explore not only the consequences of the concept but also the antecedents of it. The relationships between organizational commitment and various organizational outcomes have been examined to reveal the impact of factors that affect these relationships in organizations (Mathieu and Zajac 1990).

**The Antecedents of Organizational Commitment**

While the concept of employee commitment to the organization is receiving a great deal of attention from researchers, they also seek ways to raise employee retention, performance, and reduce turnover by means of looking for the antecedents of commitment (Meyer and Allen 1988). In most of the studies the antecedents of organizational commitment are divided into four basic factors: personal characteristics, job characteristics, work experiences, and structural characteristics (Mowday et al. 1982).

The effects of personal characteristics, job characteristics, work experiences, and structural characteristics on commitment and in intention to leave the organization have been investigated in a number of studies. To a greater degree, these antecedent conditions have been
found to lead to the development of organizational commitment and the intention to remain with the organization. For example, Allen and Meyer reported that the affective antecedent variables were significantly related to organizational commitment. They wrote: “employees who felt comfortable in their roles and who felt competent in the job expressed greater affective attachment to the organization” (Allen and Meyer 1990, 13).

In addition, personal characteristics exhibit a great source of contribution to organizational commitment (Steers 1977). Age, sex, education, position tenure, need for achievement, perceived personal competence, and ability have generally been considered as personal characteristics. These variables usually define the individual (Steers 1977). Numerous empirical studies show that there are a number of significant correlations between these demographic characteristics and organizational commitment even though that correlation considerably fluctuates (Steers 1977).

It is noteworthy that an empirical study conducted by Chang and Choi examined the relationship between organizational commitment and professional commitment to disclose if these work-related attitudes would change with the level of education. A sample of 204 research and development professionals with Ph.D.s was used as the source of information. As it has been understood, the sample consisted of highly educated and skilled research professional. The study was one of the rarest research studies that empirically examined the affiliation between personal characteristics and commitment among professionals with Ph.D.s. (Chang and Choi 2007). The result of the data analysis showed that while there was a negative correlation between the educational level and organizational commitment, there was a positive correlation between the level of educational and professional commitment among research and development professionals with Ph.D.s (Chang and Choi 2007).
Job characteristics include task identity, optional interaction, feedback concerning individual work performance, skill variety, task autonomy, challenge, and job scope. Optional interaction refers to the positive relationship between two or more friends at work (Steers 1977). If individuals are satisfied with these characteristics, they tend to be committed to the employing organization in varying degrees.

Work experiences include such factors as group attitudes toward the organization, organizational dependability, perceptions of personal importance to the organization, role clarity, goal clarity, equal treatment, participation in decisions, the opportunity for self-expression, and the realization of expectations. Moreover, socialization is also connected with organizational commitment (Henderson 2012). These factors may have a strong effect on the development of organizational commitment (Meyer and Allen 1988). After finding a close association between work experiences and commitment, Steers asserted: “work experiences were more closely associated with commitment” (Steers 1982, 51). Then he concluded “commitment is largely a function of work experiences” (Steers 1982, 51).

Structural characteristics refer to several aspects of an organization’s structural variables (Morris and Steers 1980). These variables include control mechanism, division of labor, organization climate, organizational size, organizational centralization, major subunits, and number of hierarchical levels. All of these scales were designed to assess the extent to which structural characteristics, as antecedents, influence employee commitment to the organization (Morris and Steers 1980). For example, in a meta-analysis, Mathieu and Zajac examine antecedents of organizational commitment and note that “intuitively, larger organizations are seen as less personable and harder to identify with” (Mathieu and Zajac 1990, 180).

It is also noteworthy that a study conducted by Cahalane and Sites aimed to clarify the relationship between job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, personal achievements and retention
of highly skilled and educated public welfare workers. The researcher noted that retention of well-educated and highly skilled employees continues to be a serious problem for child welfare agencies (Cahalane and Sites 2008). A sample of 305 graduates was used as the source of information. The result of the study suggested that the best way of keeping highly skilled and educated workers with public child welfare agencies is to generate a positive organizational climate that leads to a greater commitment to the organization (Cahalane and Sites 2008).

The fact that several researchers have found work experiences to be important contributors to the prediction of organizational behaviors, including turnover and intent to remain, proves the potential utility of an affective view of commitment (Meyer and Allen 1988). This approach assumes that commitment develops as the result of work experiences in organizations that satisfy employees’ needs. Satisfied employees should have more positive work attitudes such as exerting effort and working toward the success of the organization. Meyer and Allen claims that “traditionally, work experiences have been considered antecedent to commitment” (Meyer and Allen 1988, 196).

In this study, organizational communication is considered as a work experience. Hence, communication satisfaction variables are examined as potential antecedents of commitment. Therefore, this study considers the existence of causal effects; commitment is presumed to be caused by the communication satisfaction variables as antecedent variables and to cause succeeding organizational behaviors, such as desire to remain with the organization. Additionally, the effects of professional and demographic characteristics on commitment are examined.
The Consequences of Organizational Commitment

The consequences of organizational commitment refer to particular behavioral intentions and actual behaviors (Mathieu and Zajac 1990). In the organizational setting, those behaviors and intentions are regarded as important work outcomes. These outcome variables are generally comprised of many components: job performance, the individual’s intention to search for a new job, the individual’s desire to remain or leave the organization, attendance, contribution to goal attainment, performance, lateness, and employee turnover (Steers 1977).

The findings of empirical studies provide complete support for the idea that organizational commitment is considerably related to work outcomes. For example, Mathieu and Zajac examined some previous empirical studies and summarized that organizational commitment is related to several outcomes, such as withdrawal behaviors, lateness, turnover rates, and intentions (Mathieu and Zajac 1990). In addition, Steers found that there is a strong positive correlation between commitment and the degree of individual intention across the membership boundary of the organization. The results of this study also demonstrated that there
is a negative relationship between commitment and employee turnover and a positive relationship between commitment and attendance (Steers 1977). He claimed that “strong support was found for the proposition that commitment is associated with increases in an employee’s desire and intent to remain with an organization” (Steers 1977, 54).

Commitment is also related to performance (Meyer and Allen 1991). A high level of employee commitment is likely to lead to an active relationship between the employee and the organization. As a result, the employee will be eager to provide high levels of effort to make substantial contributions to the organization for its well-being and effectiveness. Meyer and Allen believe that specific work outcomes, such as overall job performance, absenteeism, and turnover, as well as other forms of withdrawal, can be explained by organizational commitment. In their analysis, they wrote: “Employees who want to belong to the organization might be more likely than those who need to belong or feel obligated to belong to exert effort on behalf of the organization” (Meyer and Allen 1991, 74). As a result, it can be concluded that direct or consistent association exists between commitment and subsequent work outcomes.

In a meta-analysis of 35 studies of the organizational commitment and work outcome linkage, Randall found empirical evidence about the consequences of organizational commitment. Although the relationship between commitment and work outcomes was not very strong, organizational commitment had a positive impact on work outcomes (Randall 1990).

Employees’ absenteeism, performance, turnover, and other behaviors, such as intent to leave or desire to remain with the organization, can be calculated by means of organizational commitment as predictor variable (Naumann 1993). Mathieu and Zajac asserted, that “organizational commitment has most often been used to predict withdrawal behaviors” (Mathieu and Zajac 1990, 184).
The Relationship between Demographic Characteristics and Organizational Commitment in Police Organizations

The other most commonly researched sources of variance in organizational commitment and turnover behavior in police organizations is that of the effect of employee demographic characteristics (Mcnabb 2009). Usually, level of education, years of service (tenure), rank, and age are among tested demographics variables, either as antecedent or moderator variable (Price 1995). Whereas in some cases demographic factors have been shown to be significantly related to organizational commitment and turnover behaviors, in others the results showed that demographic characteristics have relatively little or no value in explaining organizational commitment. As Mcnabb emphasized that

While many researchers have agreed that several demographic characteristics may have some influence on work-related outcomes such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover, these relationships are unclear. Inconsistent results regarding these characteristics and work-related outcomes are the one constant through the last three or more decades of organizational research (Mcnabb 2009, 31).

In the same token, as argued by Nuss, studies of police organizational commitment have revealed that the results regarding the relationship between demographic characteristics and commitment are inconsistent (Nuss 2006). Moreover, Mcnabb noted that the results of some study showed that officers’ demographic characteristics does not play a direct role to affect the level of organizational commitment, but rather play an intervening function (Mcnabb 2009).

Police officers’ level of education has been extensively researched as a correlate to organizational commitment (Mcnaab 2009). Education level is expected to have a negative impact on organizational commitment and eventually turnover intention of law enforcement personnel. The negative relationship is based upon the premise that better educated officers have greater job expectations. Moreover, highly educated officers view themselves as having more
career options than do less educated officers, and are more likely to feel that they can find employment elsewhere (Wren 1994). This attitude is likely to lead highly educated officers to demand more to be satisfied with their jobs. Although there has been several studies examining the relationship officers’ level of education and organizational commitment, there is a lack of consensus on to what degree educational level affects organizational commitment or turnover behaviors (Mcnabb 2009).

Mcnabb examined how police officers’ level of education affect the relationships between organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Officers’ educational level was treated as a control and moderating variable in the study. The study utilized a combination of qualitative and quantitative data collected from officers within a mid-size southwestern police department. As argued by Mcnabb, “it is reasonable to assume that officers with high levels of formal education might find it easier to change jobs (or even careers) because having a college degree increases their potential opportunities in the labor market” (Mcnabb 2009, 28). Mcnabb found that police officers’ level of education does not seem to have a significant moderating effect between organizational commitment and turnover intentions” (Mcnabb 2009, 28).

The results also showed that educational level as a moderating variable had relatively little impact in explaining commitment and turnover intention among police officers. The majority of the effect that education has on turnover intent comes through organizational commitment. Possible explanation for the very weak relationship between education and organizational commitment is that education may diminish organizational commitment due to increased organizational expectations. Highly educated officers view themselves as having more career options than do less educated officers, and are more likely to feel that they can find employment elsewhere. This attitude leads highly educated officers to demand more to be satisfied with their jobs (Mcnabb 2009).
Year of service (tenure) is another demographic factor which receives ample attentions in the police organizational commitment literature (Nuss 2006). There is an inconsistency in findings pertaining to the role tenure plays in organizational commitment. For example Currie and Dollery found that police officers’ commitment to the organization decreases as years of service increases. The results of the study also showed that student officers had a significantly greater level of commitment than those officers with ten to 19 years of service (Currie and Dollery 2006). Van Maanen also reported a significant negative relationship between overall organizational commitment attitudes and years of services. New police officers (recruits) initially reported high levels of commitment followed by a reduction later with increasing tenure in the organization (Van Maanen 1972). Beck and Wilson also found that there is a stable decrease when tenure increases in a sample of 479 police officers (Beck and Wilson 2000).

On the other hand, Metcalfe and Dick found that tenure had a very weak positive correlation with organizational commitment. A key finding of Metcalfe and Dick’s study was that organizational commitment was shown to be slightly positively associated with the length of work (tenure). The research hypothesis was tested using responses to 1,243 surveys from police officers of a large police force (FoceCo). The results showed that when length of tenure increases, the level of commitment also slightly increases (Metcalfe and Dick 2000). This result contradicts previous studies conducted by Van Maanen, Currie and Dollery, and Beck and Wilson. They found that organizational commitment levels steadily decreased over time as years worked for police (tenure) increased. In general, previous police commitment research findings are inconsistent as it pertains to the tenure-organizational commitment relationship. From a practical standpoint, those findings have failed to explain a substantial portion of linear variance in organizational commitment.
Officers’ rank in a particular police organization is another demographic variables commonly investigated in relation to organizational commitment and turnover behaviors. The majority of literature in police commitment area supports the view that a relationship exists between rank and organizational commitment in that organizational commitment decreases steadily with officer’s rank. For example, a study conducted by Currie and Dollery using data from a sample of 351 sworn police officers and student officers found that student officers had a significantly greater commitment than senior constable. The results also showed a negative association between rank and levels of organizational commitment. Currie and Dollery concluded that organizational commitment decreases significantly as officer attain a greater rank within the New South Wales Police Force (Currie and Dollery 2006).

Another study conducted by Mcnaab found that police officer’s rank is not a significant factor moderating between organizational commitment and turnover intention (Mcnaab2009). This finding parallels the work of Currie and Dollery. However, the study of Metcalfe and Dick assessed the effects of an officer’s position in the police organization hierarchy on the relationships between rank and organizational commitment. The results showed that rank seniority and position have a significant impact on organizational commitment among police officers. While senior officers had the highest level of organizational commitment, lower level police officers had lower levels of organizational commitment (Metcalf and Dick 2000). This result also contradicts previous studies conducted by Currie and Dollery and Mcnabb.

While some studies of police organizations have found rank to be negatively associated with organizational commitment, some found that officer’s rank was positively related to organizational commitment, with higher rank officers also reporting higher levels of commitment.
Despite the some research studies that were conducted to examine the effect of various demographic variables on the organizational commitment levels of police officers, there are no clear conclusions can be reached about officer demographic characteristics and their effects on perceptions of commitment among officers.

Organizational Commitment in Police Organizations

The principle functions of the police are to enforce the law, investigate crime, apprehend criminals, prevent crime, help to ensure peace and tranquility, and provide enforcement-related services for the community (Schmallager 2007). More recently, the role of the police has been considered as “problem solvers, public servants, or even community organizers” (Barlow and Barlow 2000, 75). Therefore, police professionalism requires that police officers have a great deal of specialized knowledge, skills, and abilities including an understanding of law, criminal procedure, and constitutional rights of citizens to perform the difficult job of a law enforcement officer (Beam 2001). Specialized knowledge in policing also includes communication-writing proficiency and public relation skills in the conduct of the police work. Moreover, supervisory personnel should also possess a wide range of administrative skills, abilities, and effective management techniques to improve efficiency, as well as strategies for optimum utilization of human and material resources (Fuller, 2006).

One of the challenges law enforcement organizations face with dealing crime and criminals and providing services for the community involves the need to reduce turnover rate as well as to raise police officers’ commitment level (Orrick 2008). Officers with the low levels organizational commitment present significant problems for police organizations and organizational well-being (Beck and Wilson 1997). For example, if a police organization has officers with low levels of commitment, it is likely that tardiness, absenteeism, poor job
performance, unnecessary use of physical or verbal force and corruption will occur as an organizational outcome (Haarr 1997).

Conversely, police officers with high levels of commitment are more likely to view the organization as supportive, have participated in decision making, report receiving high levels of feedback about their work performance, and give something extra to the employing organization beyond what is required (Metcalfe and Dick 2000). It is proven that police organizations have an interest in having committed and talented officers who are entrusted with keeping order in society and serving the needs of the community (Haarr 1997). For instance, police officers who are committed to the organization, it is likely that they “minimize procedural and distributive injustices within the organizational context” (Frost 2006, 17). Similarly, police officers who are able to understand the citizens to a greater extent, they may play a key role in order to increase public trust and confidence (Beam 2001).

For that reason, if organizational commitment is observed to be low among police officers, administrators in charge of managing the police force should formulate strategies that enhance officers’ organizational commitment and diminish turnover intentions (Beck and Wilson 1997). According to Beck and Wilson, “police managers around the world should be examining the commitment of their staff and, if organizational commitment is found to be low, formulating strategies to improve it” (Beck and Wilson 1997, 173). Finding effective strategies for improving the commitment level of officers is critical for police organizations (Beck and Wilson 1997). The first thing in the process is to identify the problems that need to be addressed. Beck and Wilson suggest that “a multifaceted approach might need to be taken to the task of raising levels of commitment throughout the organization” (Beck and Wilson 1997, 173).

One of the most commonly researched sources of variance in job satisfaction, job performance, turnover behaviors, intention to leave, intention to stay, attendance, and lateness is
that of the effect of organizational commitment among police officers (Mcnabb 2009). In view of the potential supportive consequences of organizational commitment for organizational effectiveness and efficiency of a police department, a great deal of effort has been directed toward the analysis of the relationship between commitment and its work related consequences (Mcnabb 2009).

Although there have been a number of studies conducted to examine the relationship between organizational commitment and other work related variables, limited or few empirical research exists on organizational commitment of police officers and its impact on work outcome variables in police settings (Metcalfe and Dick 2000). Thus, organizational commitment has received limited attention in police literature (Mcnaab 2009).

According to Metcalfe and Dick, “the limited data on police commitment is chiefly due to access problems, with police agencies reluctant to permit close scrutiny of their operations and systems” (Metcalfe and Dick 2000, 812). The questions used in the survey instruments to collect data are generally limited by police administrators because they are likely to be concerned with morale, and this usually leads them to restrict police researchers to not ask some questions in certain areas, such as organizational commitment and satisfaction with the job (Mcnabb 2009). Hence, there is a gap in the police commitment literature (Beck and Wilson 1997).

One of the earliest studies of organizational commitment among police officers was conducted by Van Maanen. He examined the developments and changes in commitment attitude of police recruits during their early career experiences. The questionnaire focused on measuring the degree to which officers expressed positive feelings toward their employing organization and determining whether changes occur over an extended period of tenure. He reported that the commitment levels of the new individual officers to their employing police organization were high when they first joined the department. However, their organizational commitment gradually
decreased over time. Therefore, overall organizational commitment attitudes of the officers were correlated negatively with increasing tenure in the organization (Van Maanen 1972).

Van Maanen also argues that “occupational commitment (i.e. police work) is a large component of organizational commitment within police environment – one must first join in an organization which, in turn, locates him within the police community generally” (Van Maanen 1972, 106). Occupational commitment has been defined as “a person’s belief in and acceptance of the values of his or her chosen occupation or line of work, and a willingness to maintain in that occupation” (Vandenberg and Scarpello 1994, 535). The terms occupational commitment, professional commitment, and career commitment have been used interchangeably in the literature (Irving et al. 1997).

According to Van Maanen, as long as an officer shows an attachment to his or her occupation, organizational commitment may hold a meaning (Van Maanen 1972). From Van Maanen’s view, if an individual wants to be a part of the police occupation, it is necessary to be member of a police organization (Van Maanen 1972). He also maintains that

To some degree, one would expect any police officer to exhibit some commitment to his calling regardless of his commitment to the specific police department for which he works. Hence, in the police world, occupational commitment probably represents a baseline for the development of any organizational commitment (Van Maanen 1972, 106).

Jaramillo et al. also examined the effects of police job-related stressors on organizational commitment and the relationship between commitment and turnover intention in police settings. The study utilized responses from a survey of 150 police officers from six police agencies in Florida. Role ambiguity, role conflict, supervisor’s support, group cohesiveness, and promotion opportunities were projected as the main sources of stress for this study. The study found that these police job-related stressors were the best predictor factors of organizational commitment.
level of police officers. The result also indicated that there was a significant correlation between organizational commitment and intention to leave (Jaramillo et al. 2005).

Haarr investigated the relationship between police officers’ level of organizational commitment and their attitudes toward work-related deviant behaviors, such as absenteeism, police misconduct, and unnecessary use of physical or verbal force. The sample included 48 patrol officers and was randomly selected by the researcher among 97 patrol officers of the Sun Valley Police Department (Haarr 1997).

The study collected data by utilizing primarily qualitative research methods, including in-depth interviews, in conjunction with field observations with officers of the police department. The researcher conducted 48 face-to-face interviews, participated in 62 ride-alongs, and spent approximately 580 hours on site performing field observations to generate detailed empirical and attitudinal data from patrol officers (Haarr 1997). Interview data clearly showed that patrol officers with low levels of commitment to the organization are more likely to engage in various forms of work-related deviant behaviors, including absenteeism, police misconduct, and unnecessary use force, in efforts to undermine the goals of the organization. On the other hand, field observations revealed that patrol officers with high levels of commitment to the organization are more likely to perform their job in a policing style that is beneficial for the achievement of organizational goal and objectives. Based on research evidence, the researcher concluded that “level of organizational commitment accounted for differences in attitudes toward, justifications for, and participation in different types of deviant activities” (Haarr 1997, 791).

Beck and Wilson’s study was an attempt to determine the effects of perceived organizational support, the investments made by police officers, the amount of feedback received about job performance, and role requirements on organizational commitment among police officers (Beck and Wilson 1997). The study utilized 581 usable responses to an open ended
format questionnaire from police officers of the largest police department in Australia. The first purpose of the study was to identify the strategies for improving low levels of organizational commitment. The results indicated that individual perceptions of the support offered by the police organization were the best predictor of organizational commitment of law enforcement officers.

The results also indicated a significant relationship between organizational commitment, feedback for performance and involvement in decision making (Beck and Wilson 1997). Another significant finding was that if middle level police managers perceive the organization as providing accurate information regarding projected changes to organizational processes and structures, organizational commitment is likely to increase (Beck and Wilson 1997). The researchers concluded that “emphasis on and training for, good supervisory techniques (and particularly every day, positive communication and feedback) is essential if police departments are to optimize performance and commitment” (Beck and Wilson 1997, 173).

Metcalfe and Dick investigated the effect of police officers’ experiences of the level of management support, organization support and performance appraisal on organizational commitment of police officers. The findings were based on 1,243 usable responses to a questionnaire from police officers of a large police force (FoCo) in England. The results showed that how police officers feel they are managed and supported and the way their performance is appraised were positively associated with organizational commitment. Based on research evidence, Metcalfe and Dick argued that “police employees work in a unique culture which seemingly nurtures low commitment attitudes and behaviors” (Metcalfe and Dick 2000, 820).

Turnover, Turnover Intention, and Retention in Police Organizations

The term turnover refers to “any exit from any job of any duration” (Feldman 1994, 287). The relationship between actual turnover and its underlying factors has been investigated over the
years. Studies often found that there is a relationship between the employee’s personal traits and intent to leave. Many studies showed that the employee’s stated intention of leaving the organization has been found as one of the major turnover antecedents (Vandenberg and Scarpello 1994). In a meta-analysis, Tett and Meyer sought to clarify antecedents, correlates and consequences of turnover process that were investigated by previous empirical studies. The main findings of the study showed that turnover intention is the strongest predictor factor of actual turnover behavior (Tett and Meyer 1993). Turnover intention has been defined as “individuals’ own estimated probability (subjective) that they are permanently leaving the organization at some point in the near future” (Vandenberg, and Nelson 1999, 1315).

According to Abelson and Baysinger the traditional turnover process begins with employee dissatisfaction with the job and different aspects of the organization over time. After that the employee has a thought of quitting, undertakes a job search for alternative employment, evaluates prospects, and terminates current situation by a decision to quit (Abelson and Baysinger 1984). Turnover occurs when an employee decides to terminate the employment relationship with the job or organization permanently and his/her services are no longer existing (Kuean et al. 2010).

The term employee retention has been defined as “the effort by an employer to keep desirable worker in order to meet business objective” (Frank et al. 2004, 13). A review of the relevant literature indicates that antecedent variables explaining for retention or turnover can be grouped into the general areas of personal characteristics, such as education and experience, work-related factors, such as nature of work and workload, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Lambert 2001).

Police turnover has long been a practical and research concern in police organizations due to the costly monetary and safety consequences that the community may experience (Orrick
The literature pertaining to the retention of police officers has focused on traditional causes such as the lack of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. However, there is a limited body of empirical research concerning the correlates of commitment and turnover among police officers (Bowman 2009). Turnover can be very expensive in nature when an officer takes learned skills and uses them in a civilian organization. Thus, training and hiring a new officer means the loss of the resources of human, money, materials, and so forth. Therefore, it is detrimental to effective functioning of a police organization (Beam 2000).

The retention of police personnel is one of the most salient challenges for police organizations today as it has never been (Wilson et al. 2010). As Dahm noted, “finding and keeping employees who are willing to endure the occupational stresses and inconveniences normally associated with a career in law enforcement is essential to the success of every law enforcement agency” (Dahm 2006, 69). This means that maintaining the police workforce level has been a concern for police organizations (Webb and Bratton 2003). For example, private industries are eager to hire highly skilled and experienced officers from police departments to reduce the cost associated with hiring and training new employees (Webb and Bratton 2003). As a result, recruiting and training a new officer has been a trouble for the police department due to the costly monetary and safety consequences (Wilson et al. 2010).

However, by raising the level of officer retention, additional human resource expenses, such as recruitment, replacement, major training, and selection costs are reduced (Taylor et al. 2006). Furthermore, Beam argued that increased operational demands and increased competition exacerbates recruiting and retention challenges in American police organizations (Beam 2001). For example, there have always been challenges to the recruitment and retention of the best qualified police officers for the Metropolitan Police Department Washington, D.C as it has evolved since 1861 (Wilson et al. 2010).
The investment that an organization makes in training police officers is lost when they decide to move on. Therefore, to retain police officers in an organization reduces the costs, both in training and in hiring new employees. Excessive personnel turnover is not only unhealthy for the morale of police officers, but it is also costly in terms of time and money (Webb and Bratton 2003). If managers of a police organization can investigate into potential factors affecting voluntary turnover intention, they can take necessary action to eliminate the causes to reduce voluntary quits (Mcnabb 2009). Attempts at redressing problems with turnover intention among police officers should start by identifying which factor is accountable. The identification of potential determinant factors affecting voluntary turnover intention might be regarded the best strategy in dealing with the problem and in reducing actual high turnover rate in organizations (Riley 2006).

The body of withdrawal and organizational commitment literature on the relationship between turnover intention and the level of police officers commitment has relatively shown consistent results. For example, Mcnabb examined the relationships between organizational commitment and turnover intentions within a mid-size southwestern police department. He found a negative and significant relationship between level of organizational commitment and intention to turnover among police officers (Mcnabb 2009).

The significant finding of Mcnabb study was that police officers with higher levels of organizational commitment reported lower levels of intention to turnover. Hence, the researcher confirmed a negative relationship between level of organizational commitment and intention to turnover among police officers (Mcnabb 2009). The researcher concluded that organizational commitment is negatively and significantly correlated with intentions to turnover, and noted that “organizational commitment may be more indicative of turnover intentions than job satisfaction” (Mcnabb 2009, 124).
Bowman examined organizational factors that influence police officer retention in a southern police department in the U.S. The researcher specifically investigated the relationships between leader-member exchange and turnover behaviors of police officers. This study empirically tested the influence of first line leaders’ behaviors on turnover intention of police officers. The research hypotheses were tested using responses to a survey from a sample of 128 police officers. The result indicated that there was a significant negative relationship between leader-member exchange and turnover intentions of police officers (Bowman 2009).

Taylor, Murphy, and Price examined the City of Odessa, Texas Police Department. 65 certified specially educated and skilled police officer left from the department for other employment opportunities. The cost of the 65 positions to the organization was approximately one million dollar. The study examined the nature of employee retention and turnover for this metropolitan police department. The researchers investigated all factors affecting employee termination to determine the potential solutions and how to keep officers with the organization in order to overcome the retention challenges (Taylor et al. 2006).

Taylor et al. found that the following are the two key reasons why police officers are considering seeking employment elsewhere: a- Police personnel feel that they do not fit with current management style or philosophies, b- Police personnel want opportunities for career advancement and rank because current rank structure of the department does not permit for advancement (Taylor et al. 2006). The researcher articulated that police personnel want to work with other government agencies or private sector “due to conflicts with the way that management chooses to take care of business” (Taylor et al. 2006, 656).

A study conducted by Frost examined how officer’s characteristics and work related factors affect employee retention within police organizations. A sample of 209 law enforcement officials (both sworn and non-sworn personnel) was used as the source of information. The
results of study showed that organizational variables, such as procedural and distributive justice are better predictor factors than demographic characteristics on officer retention. The results also showed that there was a positive relationship between procedural and distributive justice and willingness to remain on the job. It means that when officers’ level of job satisfaction increases, willingness to remain on the job also increases. Demographic characteristic showed no significant relationship with officer retention (Frost 2006).

Among other things, researchers examined the effect of demographic variables on turnover intentions (Frost 2006). Some researchers sought to reveal that having more tenure, education, and rank were associated with employees’ intentions to stay in the organization. However, some studies of withdrawal behavior have found that “demographic variables do not specifically affect turnover intentions, but rather serve as control variables for other antecedents of turnover intentions, such as organizational commitment” (Mcnabb 2009, 23).

As it has been shown, previous studies indicate that organizational commitment is correlated with turnover intention and will affect the decision of police officers whether want to stay or leave the job. As a part of solution research may be conducted to improve understanding of the retention problem and find an answer to reduce voluntary turnover in a police organization (Bowman 2009).

For contributing to the further understanding of these related terms in organizational science, the task of this study is to examine the relationship between communication satisfaction and organizational commitment toward turnover intention among highly educated police officer aspiring to the command level of the TNP, Turkey. Increasing the knowledge of the factors that help retain highly skilled and educated police officers will help the TNP improve its efficiency and improve the ability of the organization to better serve the community.
The implementation of the suggestions regarding organizational communication may provide for a viable solution to the potential loss of TNP personnel. Voluntary turnover rates can be reduced if Turkish officers are satisfied with the overall communication practices of the TNP. It was projected that strongly committed officers are significantly less likely than those with weaker commitment to express intent to stay with the TNP. Findings of this study will assist managers and policy makers of the TNP to formulate the best communication strategies particularly in the areas identified to be having an effect on officers’ commitment and turnover intention.

The Relationship between Communication Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment in the Literature

A review of the social sciences literature shows that over the past three decades, communication researchers have steered their attention toward the relationship between organizational commitment and communication satisfaction as they noted that there is a close connection between the construct of these two concepts and organizational effectiveness (Varona 1996). For example, Barge and Schlueter point out that there has been a connection between commitment and communication activities, such as network involvement and leadership in organizations (Barge and Schlueter 1988). Similarly, Allen has put forward a solid argument that “Increasingly communication is being linked to organizational commitment conceptually and empirically” (Allen 1992, 358). When organizations provide a work environment for individuals where they can find active communication channels, it is likely that employees will have a higher level of commitment. However, if organizations fail to provide employees with sufficient communication means, commitment levels tend to diminish.

Organizational identification is noticeably influenced by active participation, as a form of communication practice, in organizational settings. Active communication is likely to make
employees feel that they are an indispensable part of the organization (Wiesenfeld et al. 1999). Nakra also found that there was a significant positive relationship between communication satisfaction and organizational identification. He also indicated that “informed organizations and their communication personnel have realized that effective communication relates directly to the employees’ ability, motivation, and commitment on the job” (Nakra 2006, 41).

The relationship between communication satisfaction and organizational commitment is now one of the most commonly treated subjects in organizational literature and research. Not only do all the scientific journals allocate a sizeable amount of space to this association, but also this link is a key feature of many empirical studies. A number of empirical studies have been conducted to reveal the relationship between communication satisfaction and employees’ organizational commitment. A vast majority of this empirical research has revealed that there is a moderate and consistent relationship between greater communication satisfaction and the tendency to become highly committed to the employing organization, and eventually to remain as a member of it. As a result, research regarding the effects of communication practices on employee attitudes toward the employing organization provides a hypothetical relationship between communication satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Some of the studies that were conducted until now to investigate this relationship will be reviewed as follows. The following studies assign communication satisfaction as the central variable for determining the level of organizational commitment among employees in different organizations.

In an attempt to examine the relationship between communication satisfaction and organizational commitment in an engineering organization employing 122 white-collar personnel, Putti, Aryee, and Phua conducted an empirical study. The purpose of this research was to explore the effect of several aspects of communication satisfaction on commitment. The
research instruments used to collect attitudinal measures were the Organizational Communication Relationship (OCR) questionnaire developed by the International Communication Association (ICA) and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday, Porter, and Steers. The results of the study revealed that three factors of communication relationship satisfaction were specifically correlated with organizational commitment. These communication factors were Top Management Relationship, Supervisor Relationship, and Global Communication Relation Satisfaction. The researchers reached the following conclusion: “Organizational member satisfaction with amount of information available to them may enhance their commitment. This is because satisfaction with information may encourage a sense of belongingness and identification with the values and objectives of the organization” (Putti et al 1990, 50).

A second study was conducted by Kongchan in 1985. The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between organizational commitment and communication satisfaction among the business college faculty from ten different universities. Among the research instruments used in this study, the CSQ developed by Downs and Hazen and the OCQ were utilized to measure the dimensions of communication satisfaction and organizational commitment. Statistical outcomes of the data analysis derived from the test subjects indicated that there is a positive relationship between organizational commitment and communication satisfaction. The results of the study also revealed that the highest correlation scores with the organizational commitment were satisfaction with communication climate and with organizational integration (Kongchan 1985).

The third study examining the relationship between organizational commitment and communication satisfaction comes from Nuss in 2006. The research instruments to collect data were Downs and Hazen’s CSQ and Cook and Wall’s Organizational Commitment Instrument
In order to clearly understand that this phenomenon exists and is revealed over a period of time, the investigator used a longitudinal design method. The site for this research was a police organization in a mid-western city in the United States. The basic objective of this study was to reveal the relationship between commitment and communication satisfaction within the police department over an eight-year period. It was hypothesized that communication satisfaction is likely to increase commitment, thereby negatively influencing the intent to stay with the organization. The results indicated that there was a moderately positive relationship between organizational commitment and communication satisfaction. Nuss found that the most significant predictors of organizational commitment were two communication satisfaction factors, Organizational Integration and Relationship with Top Management. In general, the results of the study revealed that communication satisfaction factors have a moderate effect on organizational commitment for this police organization (Nuss 2006).

In addition, Varona examined the relationship between communication satisfaction and organizational commitment in research conducted in three Guatemalan organizations. The instruments used to measure this relationship were the Communication Audit Questionnaire (CAQ) developed by Downs, the OCQ developed by Mowday, Porter, and Steers, and the Organizational Commitment Instrument (OCI) developed by Cook and Wall. Varona reported the following findings: First, there was a noticeable positive correlation between organizational commitment and communication satisfaction in these organizations. The strength of the positively linear relationship \((r)\) between two variables was 0.47 for one of the three organizations. Second, there was also a positive correlation between the variables of tenure and organizational commitment (Varona 1991).

Potvin also examined the relationship between communication satisfaction and organizational commitment in 1991. The participants of this research were from several different
hierarchical levels of three organizations in the Dallas/Ft.Worth area. Potvin used the following research instruments: the OCQ, the Organizational Identification Questionnaire (OIQ), and three more questionnaires. The results of Potvin’s research were shown as follows: There was an explicit positive relationship between communication satisfaction and employees’ organizational commitment. The most significant predictors of organizational commitment were two of eight communication satisfaction factors, Horizontal-Informal Communication and Relationship with Supervisor (Potvin 1991).

Mathieu and Zajac examined the empirical findings from different studies on the relationship of organizational commitment with leadership communication by using a meta-analysis. They found that there was a close link between the relationship between leader communication and organizational commitment (correlation = 0.454). As a result, they concluded: “a supervisor who provides more accurate and timely types of communication enhances the work environment and thereby is likely to increase employees’ commitment to the organization” (Mathieu and Zajac 1990, 180).

Sujdak also investigated the correlation among the factors of organizational commitment, organizational communication, job research behavior, and the intent to turnover. The main purpose of the study was to establish the relationship among these variables and the intent to turnover for information professionals (IT) in general. The site for the study was an IT department of a mid-sized insurance company in the U.S. The research population also included some IT professionals from different financial companies. The data were obtained from 124 respondents. Based on the research sample, it was found that intent to stay or leave is highly correlated with organizational commitment, communication satisfaction, and job search behavior (Sujdak 2002).
One study conducted by Cheney intended to analyze some aspects of the organizational identification process. The results indicated that there is a link between internal organizational communication and organizational identification in terms of making a sound individual decision relating to organizational matters (Cheney 1983).

The impact of communication on organizational commitment was also examined by Huff and his colleagues in their study. They found that active participation by communicating with others in the organization was related to organizational commitment (Huff et al. 1989). Similarly, Allen asserts that effective communication can play a key role in increasing the level of employees’ commitment in organizations. He wrote: “Organizational commitment is enhanced by clear communication about organizational intentions, activities, and performance, a sense of cohesion among employees, adequate task-related information, and positive information regarding an organization’s ability to provide challenging and meaningful tasks” (Allen 1992, 358).

These findings, when taken together, support the idea that there is a positive relationship between active participation in communication and commitment to the organization. Additionally, significant relationships have also been found between communication satisfaction and employee retention, which may ultimately lead to higher organizational efficiency and performance. Many research studies, as shown above, support that poor organizational communication, where organizational communication satisfaction is low, is likely to lead to reduced employee commitment, reduced productivity, and higher employee turnover.

This research study is an attempt to examine the relationship between communication satisfaction and organizational commitment to explore how to keep highly educated, skilled, and qualified police officers with the TNP. The TNP has made a significant investment to educate its officers in higher institutions. Retaining these qualified and highly educated police officers with
the organization reduces employee turnover and cost. Therefore, this study will assist in promoting efficiency and effectiveness in the TNP to maintain public order and security in the country. The research methodology guiding data collection and analysis in the literature is explained in the following section.

**Quantitative and Qualitative Research**

Quantitative research refers to the application of statistical and computational techniques to numerical data collected through the survey questionnaires (Champion 2006). Therefore, this study was a quantitative analysis. However, a qualitative analysis including both communication satisfaction and organizational commitment could provide more insight on the different perspectives of communication and commitment as related to the narratives officers generate about their experience in the TNP. Further, adapting a qualitative methodology would enhance the understanding of these concepts in more scope and depth. On the other hand, impartiality is critical to qualitative research, because researcher’s presence may affect the fairness of responses (Babbie 2004).

As qualitative methods include interview data and open-ended questions, this design would weaken the study in that the respondents may conceal their ideas and thoughts during interview process. If some of the questions pertain to intimate details of officers’ lives, there is a possibility that they will not disclose some of this information to researchers (Champion 2006). Moreover, since qualitative method usually requires interviews that are conducted face-to-face, anonymity does not exist (Babbie 2004). However, as it is the case for the current study, questionnaire administration assures anonymity to increase the trustfulness of responses (Gray 2006).

In quantitative research, the researcher uses a predetermined theory at the beginning of the study and collects data to verify it by the findings of the study. Conversely, qualitative
research generates assumptions derived from the data. Thus, quantitative methods are more
deductive; qualitative methods tend to be more inductive. In qualitative methods the researcher
does not necessarily raise any hypothesis at the beginning of the study; rather, it is generated by
the researcher later (Creswell 2003).

One of the advantages of quantitative research for this study is the cost, the time, effort,
and resources. The survey questionnaires could be sent to hundreds of respondents at a little cost.
While quantitative methods can collect data quickly from many respondents, qualitative methods
are slow in terms of collecting data (Gray 2006).

Survey research is significant because it is the most frequently used technique to collect
numeric data from a sample of respondents to make inferences about the larger population from
which the sample was drawn (Fowler 2002). Moreover, surveys can be used to gather
information on preferences and the perceived quality of a given system. Social scientists rarely
have adequate resources to study the entire population. Therefore, they must select a sample to
study that will allow them to generalize the findings to the population (Creswell 2003). For this
reason, they have frequently used the survey method to collect information to examine the
relationship between attitude and behavior in organizational settings (Fowler 2002).

In quantitative research, survey questionnaire allow respondents the option of completing
the questionnaires in the privacy of their work settings or a place that suits them (Fowler 2002).
Moreover, it provides respondents with convenience times to complete the questionnaires.
However, qualitative method is time-consuming to conduct. It is very likely that many officers
feel that they do not have the time or interest to sit down for an interview and answer to questions
(Gray 2006).

Quantitative method helps the researcher to code and assign number to responses easily
and transfer the data from survey questionnaires to computer. Survey questionnaire items are
completed rapidly and easily compared with qualitative method (Fowler 2002). Even though, qualitative method provides insights into one’s thoughts and behaviors, answers may be so diverse that researchers may find them difficult to classify into convenient categories. Moreover, some persons who cannot express themselves adequately on interview will be combined unfairly with more fluent persons (Champion 2006). Hence, qualitative research is not an appropriate method for yielding numerical descriptions about some aspects of the study population (Babbie 2004).

In qualitative analysis, the purpose is discovery of meaning, whereas in quantitative analysis, the purpose is discovery and direction of the relationships, as well as cause and effect (Champion 2006). While qualitative method does not offer insight into various dimensions of organizations, quantitative method includes structured questionnaire items allowing the inquiry of a number of different dimensions (Babbie 2004).

The main purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between organizational-communication satisfaction and organizational commitment in the TNP. Therefore, the survey questionnaire method was considered to be one of the best techniques for collecting data and information from a sample of respondents. Accordingly, because all the relevant variables can be represented numerically, quantitative research was assessed to be one of the best methods to reveal this relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

**Summary**

The literature examined in this chapter provides an overview of organizational communication, communication satisfaction, the essential role of communication in police organizations, organizational commitment, and turnover in police organizations. This chapter also reviewed definitions, instrumentation, and the theoretical and research literature that deal with the relationship between employee communication satisfaction and organizational commitment.
In organizational studies, the communication satisfaction construct has been regarded as one of the crucial organizational variables that have an impact on several specific behavioral outcomes, such as organizational commitment and a desire and intent to remain with the organization. The CSQ, which was developed by Downs and Hazen was used as the research tool in many studies and was clearly identified as a multidimensional construct.

Reviewed literature on organizational commitment suggested various theories explaining the nature and causes of organizational commitment. Findings showed a variety of determinants of commitment. Factors associated with individual characteristics, attitudes toward organization, job characteristics, work experiences, organization’s structural characteristics, and organizational climate were found to make contributions to organizational commitment in different studies.

The findings of empirical studies provide complete support for the idea that organizational commitment is considerably related to work outcomes. These outcome variables are generally comprised of many components: job performance, the individual’s intention to search for a new job, the individual’s desire to remain or leave the organization, attendance, contribution to goal attainment, performance, lateness, and employee turnover. The body of withdrawal and organizational commitment literature on the relationship between turnover intention and the level of police officers commitment has relatively shown consistent results. It was found that there was a negative and significant relationship between level of organizational commitment and intention to turnover among police officers.

Measure of personal and demographic characteristics may include tenure, education, rank, and age (Steers 1977). Usually, level of education, years of service (tenure), rank, and age are among tested personal characteristics, either as antecedent or moderator variable in police organizations. However, there are no clear conclusions can be reached about officer’s personal and demographic characteristics and their effects on perceptions of commitment. Whereas in
some cases personal and demographic factors have been shown to be significantly related to organizational commitment and turnover behaviors, in others the results showed that these variables have relatively little or no value in explaining commitment. As McNabb noted, officers’ demographic characteristics do not play a direct role to affect the level of organizational commitment, but rather play an intervening function (McNabb 2009).

A number of studies were conducted to examine the relationship between communication satisfaction of employee and organizational commitment. There were evidences suggesting that various dimensions of organizational communication were found to have impacts on organizational commitment. The amount of relevant information employee received, information timeliness, feedback on performance, active participation, management communication style, network involvement, clarification of job accomplishment, expectations and priorities, personal feedback, and adequacy of information relating with the job and organizational policies were among those variables found to have significant relationship with organizational commitment in different studies. Moreover, Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, and Relationship with Top Management, Horizontal Communication, and Relationship with Supervisor were dimensions of the CSQ that found to have significant relationship with organizational commitment.

Many research studies support that poor organizational communication, where communication satisfaction is low, is likely to lead several specific organizational and behavioral outcomes, such as reduced employee commitment, reduced productivity, and higher employee turnover.
CHAPTER III

METHODS AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce and explain the research methodology guiding data collection and analysis in the study. This study examines the relationship between internal communication satisfaction and organizational commitment of the police officers in the Turkish National Police (TNP) who are pursuing an academic degree or have already received an academic degree from an institution of higher learning. Thus, this is a study of officers aspiring to the command level of the TNP. This chapter also explains research questions, the research study’s data-collection methods and strategies, study site, population and sampling, translation of the instruments into the Turkish language, dependant and independent variables, statistical data analysis procedures, and research instruments.

Research Questions

Central Research Question

Based on the literature review, the following research questions are addressed in the study:

The central research question was stated as follows: What is the relationship between organizational commitment and communication satisfaction of educated officers within the TNP? This research question assessed whether a measurable relationship exists between communication satisfaction and organizational commitment and, if so, what is the nature of that relationship and the explanation for that patterns of communication and commitment reflected in the relationship.
Subsidiary Research Questions

Ten subsidiary research questions were addressed as well:

Research Question 1: Are Turkish officers satisfied with the communication processes at the TNP?

Research Question 2: What factors impede or enhance effective internal TNP communication?

Research Question 3: Which communication source or factor (e.g., Communication Climate, Media Quality, Relationship with Top Management, and so forth) has the most impact on organizational commitment?

Research Question 4: What is the relationship between supervisor-relationship satisfaction and overall organizational commitment?

Research Question 5: What impact does communication satisfaction have on organizational commitment and, eventually, intent to remain with the TNP?

Research Question 6: What is the relationship between satisfaction with personal feedback and overall organizational commitment?

Research Question 7: What is the impact of years of police service and management level on communication satisfaction and organizational commitment?

Research Question 8: What are the potential influences of TNP’s unit (division) assignment factor on organizational commitment and communication satisfaction?

Research Question 9: What are the underlying factors of Turkish officers’ organizational commitment and intent to remain with the TNP?

Research Question 10: Does organizational commitment mediate the relationship between communication satisfaction and intent to remain?
These research questions analyze satisfaction levels with communication practices to determine if police officers are satisfied or dissatisfied and to what degree. Moreover, they help to reveal commitment levels across the organization.

**Data-Collection Methods**

The survey questionnaire is considered to be one of the best techniques for collecting data and information to explore the relationship between the dependent and independent variables and address the central and subsidiary research questions. Social scientists frequently have used the survey method to collect information to examine the relationship between attitude and behavior in organizational settings. Moreover, surveys can be used to gather information on preferences, public sentiment, and the perceived quality of a given system. Survey research is significant because is the most frequently used technique to collect numeric data from a sample of respondents to make inferences about the larger population (Creswell 2003). From this point of view, surveys allow researchers to generalize the results to the entire population. As a result, the reflections of population characteristics can be obtained by gathering information from a sample (Creswell 2003).

Social researchers rarely have adequate resources to study the entire population. Therefore, they must select a sample to study that will allow them to generalize the findings to the population. The generalization of a study is the extent to which the results of it can be used to make inferences about the larger population from which the sample was drawn (Devore and Peck 2005).

The Survey questionnaires are intended to measure the attitudes and perceptions of the targeted Turkish police officers about their satisfaction with internal communication processes and organizational commitment. The two questionnaires used in this study measure TNP officers’
attitudes not their actual behaviors. For this research, the survey responses are ordered on a Likert scale, varying from low (1) to high (7).

In addition to the original survey questions, information about the officers’ demographics characteristics and the TNP organization were obtained so the researcher could examine the impacts of these variables on police officers’ attitudes based on demographic similarities and differences. Therefore, this research is a descriptive study conducted using quantitative methods. Information collected through survey provides a description of respondents’ professional and demographic characteristics, such as years of service, educational level, and age (Champion 2006). If the researcher is examining relationships between or among variables, the most appropriate method is a descriptive statistical analysis.

Knowledge of the tenure distribution of the sample of Turkish police officers may provide the researcher with various explanations for communication satisfaction and commitment. For example, the question of “are officers with more years in the TNP more satisfied with organizational communication or more committed to the TNP?” can be addressed in the study.

**Study Site and Population**

The study site for this study was the TNP. The TNP is an extremely centralized national police organization with primary responsibility for security in urban areas throughout Turkey. At the time this study was conducted, there were about 218,789 sworn police officers in different ranks deployed in eighty one provinces of Turkey. The organization carries out its activities under the Directorate General of Security and includes central units and provincial police departments. The area of responsibility of the TNP is limited by the municipal borders. The organization operates under the Ministry of the Interior.

The target population for this study was police officers aspiring to the command level of the TNP who are pursuing a master’s or doctoral degree or those who already have received at
least one of these degrees from an institution of higher learning. The majority of the officers pursued graduate degrees in the science of criminal justice, public administration, political science, and public policy. The TNP places great importance on training and education. The qualifications of the police force have improved a great deal by raising the level of education.

At the time this study was conducted, the population of eligible Turkish police officers was approximately 2,000. The ages of the subject population were between 24 and 60 years. Almost 99% of the population was comprised of male police officers. All of the human subjects were white and Turkish. Because of administrative chain-of-command reasons, the less than 100 officers who are attending graduate schools in the United States were excluded.

Having highly educated personnel is the lifeblood of a successful organization that wants to advance the quality and capacity of its service (Scott et al. 2009). In the case of highly skilled and qualified employees, the TNP has a significant investment in trying to increase the employees’ attachment to the organization to reduce employee turnover and the cost associated with retaining these qualified and educated police employees.

For example, when internal communication is successful in the TNP, the effect is likely to lead to increased officer agreement, higher morale, increased productivity, and a winning image of the organization to outsiders. If officers receive essential information about the organization or can send personal opinions upward to higher-level managers within the organization, it is likely that officers will believe that they are worth to the TNP. Furthermore, effective communication encourages police officers to stretch their thinking and develop a sense of unity or identification for the sake of the employing organization (Gray and Laidlaw 2004). Accordingly, an effective communication network is more likely to have a positive impact on employee commitment to the organization that eventually could lead employee to remain with the TNP because of the efficiency of the information flow (Gray and Laidlaw 2004).
This study targeted highly educated, qualified, and skilled employees of the TNP for three main reasons:

1. Highly educated and skilled employees play a critical role as human resources needed to keep the organization functional and effective in terms of fighting crime and terrorism to protect the safety of citizens.

2. Highly educated and skilled employees often have vast alternative employment opportunities outside the organization.

3. Research directed specifically toward understanding the factors that affect Turkish officers’ satisfaction with aspects of the communication system of the TNP and the officers’ attitudes toward organizational commitment are needed.

Research on communication satisfaction and commitment within policing is very limited in Turkey, especially among highly educated and ranking police officers aspiring to the command level of the TNP. There is no previously known study that specifically investigated the major determinants of commitment among this group of police officers. The limited amount of empirical research in the area of police communication satisfaction and commitment, particularly among this group, supported the need for this study.

In addition, when I was choosing my sample, it was considered that who might leave the TNP. Therefore, the rationale behind preferring the highly educated police officers lies in the notion that officers from different divisions with high levels of education are able to find various new job opportunities outside the TNP. Also, it is reasonable to assume that officers with high levels of education might find it easier to change jobs because having a master’s or doctoral degree increases their potential opportunities in the labor market.

The major shortcoming of this study is that even though a sample size of 358 officers is sufficiently large for statistical analysis and the distribution of officers across units can be
considered representative of the TNP, the results and findings of this study can be generalized to the TNP is from a statistical point of view limited. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to the whole TNP population or the ability to generalize of the findings can be considered to be limited. On the other hand, the results and findings of this study can be generalized to ranking and highly educated TNP officers, because the data are mainly collected from this population. Generally, the results are congruent with previous research examining communication satisfaction and commitment perceptions of police officers.

**Sample Size**

To determine the sample size for two survey questionnaires, a computer program, “Sample Size Calculator,” was used. The larger the sample, the more accurately the results reflect the characteristics of the population. Some of the choices entered into the calculator include the following: Confidence Level = 95%, Confidence Interval = 5 and Population = 2,000. The sample size was calculated as 322. It means that 322 usable responses were needed for this study. If the study’s significance level is 5%, the confidence level will be 95%. In most social studies, a 95% confidence level is regarded as sufficient to conduct research (Gray 2006).

In populations where an organization’s members regularly use the Internet, a Web survey for data collection has been a useful tool for achieving an adequate response rate (Kaplowitz et al. 2004). For example, in a study of AT&T employees, it was found that an e-mail survey obtained an average response rate of 42.6% (Lorraine 1992). According to a meta-analysis of response rates for Web-, or Internet-based surveys, the researchers set the mean response rate for Web-based surveys at 39.6% with a standard deviation of 19.6% (Cook et al. 2000).

Accordingly, the respondents for this study were oversampled by 100%; that is, more than over the 322 officers that the sample-size calculator recommended were surveyed in case the response rate was low. As a result, the new sample size was 644 to send the questionnaires.
Using a large sample size increases the accuracy of tests of hypotheses and the power of the statistical analysis. Furthermore, the probability of making a Type II error depends on the sample size, the significance level, and the true value of the parameter under consideration. A Type II error occurs when a false null hypothesis is not rejected. In practice, larger sample sizes are likely to increase the cost of a research study. One of the best ways to control this cost is to balance the cost of a large sample against the cost of a possible Type II error (Weiss 2005).

Because 358 responses (of the 644 officers in the sample) to the survey were usable, the survey responses \( N = 358 \) was considered adequate to proceed with factor analysis, various statistical analyses, and tests of hypotheses. Therefore, the sample-size requirement for the study was met.

**Sampling Procedure**

Sampling was done randomly from a list of TNP employees who were eligible to participate. The TNP’s Personnel Affairs Department provided the list from which the eligible participants’ names and e-mail addresses were obtained. A random sample was collected from the list via computer. Personnel on the list were numbered from 1 to 2,000; a computer program then was used to produce 644 randomly selected numbers within the same range. The officers corresponding to the 644 numbers constituted the sample to which the survey would be administered.

For this study, simple random sampling was chosen to produce a sample that is likely to be representative of the population and adequately reflects it. Also, the random selection process provided a sampling method that is objective and free of selection bias. Because the entire population cannot be divided into a set of non-overlapping subgroups, stratified sampling method was not regarded as an appropriate method to produce a sample.
Permission for this study has been granted by the General Directorate of Security, Governor Oguz K. Koksal, with a document dated April 7, 2007 and the identification number B.05.1.EGM.0.72.02.03/857-1840, for those who have been working for the TNP as well as pursuing their master’s or doctoral degree abroad.

**Research Instruments for Data Collection**

The research instruments used in this study are as follows:

1. **Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ)**, a 50-item instrument originally designed by Downs and Hazen (1977)
2. **Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)**, a 15-item instrument designed by Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1974)

The 50-item CSQ was used to rate officers’ satisfaction with various aspects of organizational communication in the TNP. It was used to address the participants’ level of satisfaction with communication processes in the workplace. Similarly, the OCQ was used to measure commitment levels of police officers to the TNP. The instrument is an attitudinal measure of the officer’s belief in the values and goals of the TNP, willingness to exert effort to achieve those organizational goals, and desire to remain an employee of the TNP. The survey items selected came from questionnaires developed previously for these purposes. Each research instrument and its reliability and validity evaluations are explained below.

**Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ)**

The CSQ was the research questionnaires used to measure officers’ communication satisfaction. It was designed by Downs and Hazen in 1977 to examine the dimensions of communication satisfaction among employees in organizations. A number of studies have been completed using this questionnaire in the United States and other countries, such as Mexico, China, Australia, and Guatemala (Varona 1991). The original questionnaire included only eight
factors. The CSQ was subsequently expanded by Downs with the addition of two more factors: (a) Inter-Divisional Communication and (b) Relationship and Communication with Top Management (Downs 1988). Therefore, this study used an expanded version of the CSQ that included 10 factors.

As a data collection tool, the CSQ was field-tested and has been widely used as part of many communication-satisfaction research studies in a wide range of organizations, including police organizations. The importance and usefulness of the CSQ is that it is perceived as one of the best tools to collect data about communication satisfaction (Clampitt and Downs 1993). It provides valuable insights into a number of elements of an organization’s communication practices, including communication satisfaction, communication environment, and feedback. The CSQ also helps to assess attitudes toward communication performance. Accordingly, the CSQ may facilitate the determination of what actions need to be taken to improve the current communication procedures.

The design of the CSQ has allowed researchers to determine the level of satisfaction of subjects with 50 items by using a seven-point Likert scale that ranges from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 7 (very satisfied). The questionnaire consists of the 10 multidimensional variables to measure communication satisfaction in an organization:

1. Communication Climate
2. Horizontal Communication
3. Inter-Divisional Communication
4. Media Quality
5. Organizational Integration
6. Organizational Perspective
7. Personal Feedback
8. Relationship and Communication with Subordinates

9. Relationship and Communication with Superiors

10. Relationship and Communication with Top Management

For a detailed discussion of these variables, see the section titled “Communication Satisfaction” in the literature-review chapter.

**Reliability and Validity of the CSQ**

To construct a valid and reliable research tool for data collection, certain requirements need to be met (e.g., words, type of questions, and questionnaire design). It is impossible to collect satisfactory data to analyze without a carefully constructed questionnaire (Gray 2006). Downs and Hazen examined the reliability of the first version of the CSQ (which consisted of eight factors) by administering the same questionnaire to the same 20 subjects over two consecutive weeks. The process used was the test-retest method of reliability checking. The results showed that the reliability score was 0.94, a high degree of reliability (Downs and Hazen 1977). Varona also reported that the Cronbach’s alpha was 0.97 for the CSQ. The entire sample of the study was used to obtain this score (Varona 1991).

In addition, Downs and Hazen performed an item-validity analysis of the CSQ that was administered to 225 employees at the managerial and professional staff level. The group of subjects was selected from the military, hospitals, professional organizations, and government agencies. The analysis looked at construct validity and the discriminate validity. These checks were done to determine whether there was a considerable differentiation between the satisfied and dissatisfied workers’ responses to all items for the satisfaction factors. A chi-square test at the 0.05 significance level was conducted for the Downs and Hazen analysis. As a result, it was determined that the responses from the satisfied subjects and the responses from the dissatisfied subjects were significantly different (Downs and Hazen 1977).
Crino and White also reported that the validity of the CSQ is high for measuring communication satisfaction in empirical studies concerning organizational settings (Crino and White 1981). Apparently, validation and reliability studies on the questionnaire indicate that the CSQ has a high degree of both validity and reliability in empirical research studies. These findings, when taken together, are consistent with Downs and Hazen’s assumption and provide support for the adequacy of the CSQ for measuring employee communication satisfaction in work settings.

Gray and Laidlaw examined the psychometric properties of the CSQ to clarify the content adequacy of the instrument for measuring communication satisfaction. The quantitative data were collected from the employees of a retail organization in Australia, yielding 127 usable responses. The result of the empirical data-analysis confirmed that the CSQ is a valid and reliable instrument for measuring communication satisfaction. In conclusion, the authors suggested that the CSQ be used for empirical and diagnostic purposes in research studied aimed at improving organizational communication practices (Gray and Laidlaw 2004).

The CSQ has been the most commonly used instrument to measure communication satisfaction in organizational studies for more than 30 years. A number of empirical studies confirmed that the CSQ has a high degree of validity and reliability. Furthermore, the CSQ was empirically proven to be capable of revealing the communication satisfaction dimensions in organizational settings. Therefore, it has been widely used by organizational researchers in many countries.

**Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)**

The OCQ is a research tool to measure the psychological or affective conceptualization of organizational commitment. The OCQ was developed in 1974 by Mowday, Porter, and Steers. It originally was designed for use with two similar classes consisting of psychiatric-technician
trainees for a state hospital in the United States. The questionnaire was intended to measure whether trainees felt committed to the employing hospital (Porter et al. 1974).

The same researchers revised the OCQ in 1979. Since then, the instrument has been the most frequently used measurement tool in all empirical studies on the subject of organizational commitment applications specifically, affective attachment of an individual to the employing organization (Meyer et al. 1989). The OCQ provides valuable insights into a number of elements of an organizational commitment, such as “I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization,” or organizational involvement, such as “I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.” The tool also helps to assess attitudes toward organizational loyalty, such as “It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization.”

The questionnaire is comprised of 15 items intended to collect attitudinal measures of dimensions associated with the intention to remain a member of the organization, the member’s belief in the organization’s goals and values, and the member’s willingness to exert extraordinary performance to achieve these projected goals (Mowday et al. 1979). Mowday, Porter, and Steers specifically focused on the three aspects of organization commitment in their questionnaire. These aspects deal principally with the perception of loyalty toward the organization and the desire to maintain membership in the organization.

The questionnaire also looks for the respondents’ acceptance of the organization’s values and goals and explores the willingness of a member of the organization to exert more individual performance efforts to achieve those organization’s goals and values. The latter is commonly referred to as motivation. Consequently, the OCQ can be characterized by three dimensions (Porter et al. 1974).
These major dimensions emphasize the following three distinct characteristics:

1. Highly committed employees should have a strong belief in or acceptance and identification of the organization’s values and goals for affiliation.

2. Highly committed employees should have a willingness to exert a considerable amount of additional individual effort on behalf of the organization to help the organization achieve its goals.

3. Highly committed employees should have loyalty to the organization and show a strong desire to remain a member of the employing organization (Porter et al. 1974).

Responses to the 15 items of the OCQ are measured on a seven point Likert scale that ranges from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). In addition, the survey subjects were asked the following question to indicate their intention to remain with the TNP. Hence, Question 17 assessed the subject’s intention to remain with the TNP. That question was stated as follows: “I frequently think of quitting this job for good.” Possible responses ranged from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree on a seven-point Likert scale.

**Reliability and Validity of the OCQ**

Potvin reported that the level of internal reliability for the OCQ was 0.90 for the entire data (Potvin 1991). Mowday, Steers, and Porter also found that the OCQ has a high “level of internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and convergent, discriminate, and predictive validity” (Meyer and Allen 1991, 64). In a study conducted on a sample of employed psychiatric technician trainees, the internal validity of the OCQ had a high level of internal consistency, ranging from 0.82 to 0.93, as measured by the Cronbach’s alpha (Porter et al. 1974). This means that items in the questionnaire are consistent with the rest of the instrument in measuring commitment.
Barge and Schlueter specifically examined the reliability, validity, and theoretical-practical utility of the OCQ as well as the three most recognized commitment instruments used by researchers to measure commitment in the workplace. The authors reported that the OCQ received a reasonable level of reliability, and three different validity measures: convergent validity, discriminate validity, and predictive validity (Barge and Schlueter 1988).

Validity and reliability studies indicate that the OCQ has a high degree of both validity and reliability in empirical research studies. These findings, when taken together, are consistent with Mowday, Porter, and Steers’s commitment assumption and provide support for the adequacy of the OCQ for measuring employee commitment in work settings.

**Translation of the Research Instruments into Turkish**

After obtaining Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, the translations of the questionnaires from English into Turkish followed a standard method of intercultural study (Hofstede 1980). First, the questionnaires were translated from English into Turkish by the primary researcher of this study. The original format and content of the questionnaires were preserved. Second, the translation was reviewed by another academician who is proficient in speaking and writing in English and Turkish to assure accuracy in the interpretation and meaning of the Turkish language in the survey instruments. Third, a back-translation of the instruments was made by a second bilingual person. Finally, a group of researchers examined the documents and made the necessary comparisons between the original and the translated texts to resolve differences. The necessary revisions were made to comply with the original form of the questionnaires.

After the translation stage, the survey was examined by experts in academia and Web-based activities before the survey Web page was open to access and data were formally collected. Those experts were asked to carefully examine the questionnaires and give feedback on the
survey content, the translation to Turkish, and the clarity of the questions for the target population. The experts also were asked to provide comments about or suggestions for the questionnaires in general. They provided valuable feedback, comments, and suggestions on the instruments. Moreover, several other elements of the survey (including the cover letter, and Informant Consent Document and Electronic Signature Form were reviewed by the experts. They also examined the functionality and design of the Web page.

Minor required revisions and amendments were made to the survey questions on the basis of the responses and advice from academicians and practitioners. Some of the questions were clarified, and some wordings were changed slightly. The intention was for the questionnaires to be understood by each subject in a way that was intended in the original English language versions. In addition, this procedure made the questionnaires more relevant, valid, and reliable for Turkish officers before being administered to the research sample subjects. The survey Web page also was found to be functional and good enough to open to the sample subjects.

Validation and Test/Re-test Evaluation of the Research Instruments

Reliability is associated with the dependability and consistency of a measuring instrument that gives approximately the same scores for different time periods (Diane et al. 2010). A high similarity between the two scores for the same research subject at two different time periods is considered as evidence of the instrument’s reliability (Price 1997). If the two sets of scores have a high correlation, then the instrument is designated as a reliable tool. A research instrument is considered consistent if the fundamental conditions being measured have not changed over a period of time (Champion 2006).

To determine the reliability of the research instruments, the test/re-test method was used, and the Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated between the two administrations of the survey questionnaires. The purpose of this step was to establish the functional and linguistic
equivalence and the reliability analysis of the instruments in the Turkish culture before the instruments were administered to the Turkish police officer participants in this research study. The same instruments were administered to the same persons on two different occasions. For a research tool to be reliable, it should give the same or very similar results for the same subjects under identical situations between the two time periods (Champion 2006).

First, the translated and revised survey instruments (i.e., the CSQ and the OCQ) were tested on a sample of 17 Turkish police officers drawn from a population equivalent to the population to be included in the survey. The pretest subjects comprised a representative sample. The questionnaires were tested in full. Second, after three weeks, the same instruments were administered (i.e., the re-test) to the same subjects to determine whether the answers for the same questionnaire would produce similar scores. The results of the test and re-test surveys were compared by calculating the correlation coefficient scores between the two sets of data.

The reliability of the instruments is measured by a correlation coefficient using a scale from 0.00 to 1.00, where a value of 0.00 means that the questionnaire does not have the acceptable level of reliability; a value of 1.00 means that the questionnaire has perfect reliability. A high correlation score very close to 1.00 between the test and the re-test results means that the instrument is perfectly reliable (Gray 2006).

The reliability coefficient between the test/re-test administrations for the CSQ was 0.961. Similarly, the reliability coefficient between the two administrations for the OCQ was 0.963. Both correlations were significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed test). As a result, the test/re-test data provided sufficient evidence to conclude that the CSQ and the OCQ were perfectly reliable survey instruments to administer for this research study.
Data-Collection Strategies

An electronic version of the translated and revised research questionnaires was sent the survey recipients as an e-mailed hyperlink to the Web page. Turkish officers from different provinces, units, and ranks were invited to participate through e-mails. The participants were provided a link to the study Web site if they decide to participate.

Considerable effort was used to ensure that each of the sample subjects received the survey-invitation e-mail. The e-mail included brief introductory information about the researcher, the research, and its purposes. Computer-generated automatic e-mail messages were not used to invite the subjects; rather, all of the survey invitations were addressed personally to each of the survey subject. This strategy was used to increase the survey response rate.

Two weeks after the initial invitation e-mail was sent, a reminder e-mail was sent to each of the sample subjects. The purpose of this message was to thank subjects who completed the survey and to remind the others to complete the survey. Only two waves of e-mails were sent to the targeted samples. The Web site was open for participant’s access for one month from the date that the first invitation e-mail was sent.

An Informed Consent Information Document was included on the front page of the survey. All participants were informed about the content of the research, why the study was being conducted, and why participation was important. This document also explained that the police officers’ participation and their responses to the survey were completely voluntary and anonymous. Anonymity was ensured because no names, addresses, or other identifying information was collected, stored, or used. Neither the researcher nor the readers of the findings would be able to identify a given response with a given respondent. Moreover, subjects’ identities could not be determined from data by tracking their responses to the demographic questions or survey items at any time.
Additionally, in accordance with the guidelines on using human subjects in research, participants were assured that the researcher would not discuss any information obtained from the questionnaires with any staff members of the TNP nor share information except the aggregate results- with anyone who was not directly associated with the research (Babbie 2004).

There was no compensation for participation, and it was believed that participation would have no effect on the relationship between the participant and the TNP. There was no penalty for non-participation. Participants could refuse to answer any particular question at any time without penalty. Also, the document explained the rights of participants to discontinue their participation at any time. Finally, the dissertation committee chairperson’s contact information was provided for participants to ask questions about the research study.

After having received satisfactory information about the study, each respondent, before the administration of the questionnaires, was asked to sign an Informed Consent Signature Form electronically. By clicking “I agree” on the Web site, the subject was directed to the survey instrument; by clicking “I don’t agree,” the subject was signed off without prejudice.

The questionnaires that were used in data collection measured the attitudes and satisfaction of officers from the TNP. A seven-point Likert scale was used to indicate the respondents’ level of satisfaction and agreement with various statements. Use of the Likert scale allowed for quicker responses and easy coding of the questions. The Likert scale for the CSQ was as follows: 1= Very Dissatisfied, 2 = Dissatisfied, 3 = Slightly Dissatisfied, 4 = Indifferent, 5 = Slightly Satisfied, 6 = Satisfied, and 7 = Very Satisfied. The Likert scale for the OCQ was as follows: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat Disagree, 4 = Indifferent, 5 = Somewhat Agree, 6 = Agree, and 7 = Strongly Agree.
Risks, Anonymity, and Benefits of the Study

The risk was mitigated by ensuring the respondents’ anonymity. No names, addresses, or other identifying information were collected, stored, or used. The item data were aggregated and analyzed. Participants’ names could not be connected with their answers because the survey questionnaire did not include participants’ names. No personal information will be included in any published report of the study, making it virtually impossible to identify any of the participants.

While this research study was non-invasive, the possibility of discomfort was possible. In the event that any participant experienced such discomfort, participation in the study could be terminated at any time. In addition, the risks inherent in this research study are minimal. For example, a memorandum or directive could be written instructing the managers to meet with subordinates frequently.

Ethical guidelines were followed during the data-collection, processing, and reporting stages (Babbie 2004). As the primary safeguard, responding officers’ personal e-mail addresses were not saved by the software. All the information obtained from the questionnaires was stored in a memory stick for statistical analysis and then destroyed when the study was completed. Similarly, the sample list will be destroyed after five years for verification of result purposes. Therefore, it is not possible to identify participants directly from the data collected and saved on the Web site. However, someone with advanced computer-programming skills might be able to identify individuals by tracking internet protocol (IP) numbers for Internet-trafficking purposes. Even this was a very unlikely situation, given that the researcher believes the study was anonymous.

The results of this study are likely to be used to develop new communication strategies and revise current organizational communication practices that will help to maximize
organizational commitment, reduce voluntary turnover and, ultimately, increase the overall efficiency of the TNP. Successful organizations have learned that staff opinions are essential for quality services. This study provided an opportunity for the participants to make a significant contribution to the TNP by revealing their perceptions on the topic of organizational communication and commitment. If the TNP is successful in developing an attachment to the organization among its officers, it may be able to reduce voluntary turnover and the cost associated with retaining qualified and highly educated police officers. That is why it was important for the participants to take a few minutes to complete the questionnaires.

Response Rate and Power Analysis

The targeted sampling size for this study was 644 Turkish officers. An electronic version of the questionnaires was sent the 644 survey recipients as an e-mailed hyperlink to the Web page. Because the computer software was not programmed to verify how many officers actually received the survey invitation e-mail, the exact number of officers who received the invitation was unknown. However, the computer software confirmed that 527 (81.8%) of 644 e-mail recipients started the survey, and only 8 (1.5%) of the 527 officers declined to participate by clicking “I do not agree” button at the beginning of the survey. The subject was signed off without prejudice. The software also confirmed that 519 (98.5%) of 527 officers agreed to participate by clicking “I agree” at the beginning of the survey and signed an Informed Consent Form electronically. Of the 519 participants, 110 of them (21.1%) started the survey but did not complete it. Therefore, drop-out rate was 20.8%.

Of the 409 (519 – 110) surveys completed, 51 of them were deleted because of incomplete or missing data. After deleting the missing data, the total of 358 useable responses were more than adequate for statistical analysis. According to Hair et al. the most efficient approach to dealing with missing data is to delete the cases (Hair et al. 1998). Therefore, surveys
with missing responses were dropped. As a result, the participation (or usable) response rate was 55.5% based on officers who were selected as sample subjects. The data were coded by the computer software, making it difficult to enter a wrong figure or an incorrect individual record.

Sample size has an effect on the statistical-power analysis (Hair et al. 1998). The power of a statistical analysis is between 0 and 1 and measures the ability of the hypothesis test to detect a false null hypothesis. If the power is near 1, then the hypothesis test is extremely good at detecting a false null hypothesis. If the power is near 0, then the hypothesis test is not very good at detecting a false null hypothesis (Weis 2005). If power is larger than 0.80, it is considered to be adequate for the test, and the test is highly likely to detect an effect (Champion 2006). For a fixed significance level, (α = 0.05), increasing the sample size increases the power. The larger the sample size, the larger the power (Weis 2005).

Because the survey yielded 358 usable responses, power analysis could be used to determine whether the response rate had a sufficient power to detect relationships between independent and dependant variables and allow statistical analyses of the data. The power analysis basically depends upon three parameters: significance criterion, sample size, and effect size (Hair et al. 1998). The researcher calculated the power using the following data:

Total Sample Size (Usable Responses) = 358

Alpha = 0.05

Effect size = 0.5

Actual Power = 0.99

When the usable responses are 358, the power is 0.99. As a result, the sample size requirement (usable responses) for this study was met. The data therefore can provide sufficient evidence to conduct statistical analyses, test hypotheses, and draw conclusions about the study.
Key Variables Specified and Examined in the Study

Independent Variables

The independent variables consist of the following Communication Satisfaction Factors:

1. Communication Climate
2. Horizontal Communication
3. Inter-Divisional Communication
4. Media Quality
5. Organizational Integration
6. Organizational Perspective
7. Personal Feedback
8. Relationship and Communication with Subordinates
9. Relationship and Communication with Superiors
10. Relationship and Communication with Top Management

The measure for each item was a 7-point Likert-type scale indicating the degree of participant satisfaction with various aspects of organizational communication in the TNP (1=Very Dissatisfied, 7=Very Satisfied). Each factor scale is additive and computed by summing the related items. While the highest possible score is 35, the lowest possible score is 5. Also, the communication satisfaction composite of this study is a 50-item additive composite score and the highest possible score is 350, while the lowest possible score is 50.

Dependent Variables

The dependant variable was the participants’ rating of organizational commitment measured with an additive composite score from 7-point Likert-type scale 1 indicating strongly disagree to 7 indicating strongly agree. The scale is also additive scale and the overall commitment composite scale is determined by computing the overall score of all the
Organizational Commitment Questionnaire 15 items. Therefore, the highest possible score is 105, while the lowest possible score is 15.

In addition, single item measures of subjects’ intent to remain with the TNP is established through a question on seven-point scales ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree in the questionnaire. Intent to Remain is a measure of the extent to which Turkish officers indicate their intention to leave or remain with the TNP. As a result, intent to remain was included as an outcome variable in this study. It was processed as a subject’s responses to the statement, “I frequently think of quitting this job for good.” Possible responses ranged from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree on a seven-point Likert scale. The question was scored reversely.

With respect to predictive linkages between commitment and work outcomes, Somers argues that “based on commitment theory and/or prior research findings, each facet of commitment is hypothesized to be related to employee retention” (Somers 1995, 50). Somers also adds that turnover intention is a more important consequence of organizational commitment than actual turnover behavior (Somer 1995).

Additional questions asking about officer characteristics, such as tenure, rank, age, educational level and unit information were included in the survey instrument to help analyze the impact of these variables on communication satisfaction and organizational commitment.

**Statistical Data-Analysis Procedure**

Quantitative data collected through the survey questionnaires were analyzed using the computer software program, Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS). Descriptive measures, such as means, frequency distributions, and standard deviations were calculated for all variables to describe key demographic and professional characteristics of the officers’ participating in the research study.
To determine the level of internal consistency reliability of each of the research instruments and whether communication satisfaction and organizational commitment were measured in a useful way, Cronbach’s alphas were computed. This was an appropriate test because Cronbach’s alpha is known to be one of the most widely used reliability coefficient scales in social research (Champion 2006).

To discover the overall factor structure of each instrument, a principal components factor analysis with a Varimax rotation was performed separately for the CSQ and the OCQ. Factor analysis is a statistical method used to discover the correlations among a large number of variations. In factor analysis, a large set of questions (items) is reduced through summarization without much loss of information (Dawis 1987). For a given factor, factor analysis helps the researcher or reader to determine whether there is any pattern or cluster among the items (Babbie 2004).

A computer should be used to perform this complex operation. The items are entered into the computer program, and the program outputs a series of factors with appropriate factor loadings. The researcher must determine which item is or is not loaded significantly on a factor by considering the primary loading score. Instead of comparing numerous correlations to discover existing patterns, factor analysis can be used for this task (Babbie 2004).

In this study, the questionnaires asked the subjects to report whether they were satisfied with a variety of communication processes and agree or disagree with the commitment questions. Then, their responses were entered into the computer program for factor analysis. The program next yielded a series of factors with appropriate factor loadings. The items of both questionnaires were ordered by the sizes of their factor loadings to make interpretation easier.

Stepwise multiple regression analysis was used to examine the relationship between variables and make predictions of the effect of communication satisfaction factors on
organizational commitment. In this process, the regression equation was determined. In addition, the coefficients of determination were examined to show the utility of the regression equation for making predictions. Communication satisfaction factors were treated as the predictor variables. The independent variables therefore were officers’ satisfaction with the communication processes within the TNP.

Regression analysis is an effective tool for determining the causal relationship between dependant and independent variables. It allows one to examine the influence of multiple communication satisfaction factors – as the independent variables – on organizational commitment – as the dependant variable. Regression analysis is considered the appropriate technique for this study because it takes into account the contribution of a number of communication satisfaction factors that can predict organizational commitment. These in turn can be used to assess the strength of the relationship between variables to examine causal factors on commitment and to determine employee perceptions of the impact of the 10 communication satisfaction factors pertaining to employee commitment (Byers and McKean 2000).

The Likert scale is one of the most commonly used scales for attitude measuring in social research (Gob et al. 2007). Respondents select different degrees of agreement or disagreement with a given statement. When well-designed, the Likert format allows researchers to rank-order attitudes and judge the relative strength of agreement through the use of standardized response categories (Babbie 2004). Therefore, responses to items in a Likert format can be treated as if they were interval scales (Labovitz 1970).

As Dittrich et al. points out, “Another common procedure is to treat each Likert scale as continuous: In such cases a mean and standard deviation is often reported for each of Likert-scale questions and the items are ranked according to the means” (Dittrich et al. 2007, 4). For that
reason, two of the three most important measures of center—mean score and the standard deviation—can be calculated for each of the Likert-scale questions (Dittrich et al. 2007).

As a result, the researcher can rank questions according to their average scores. In such cases, normal theory statistics such as ANOVA and multiple regression with variables that are measured by Likert-scale can be used to analyze the data (Dittrich et al. 2007). Moreover, Labovitz in an article states that “although most of the measures yield ordinal-level data, we will use multiple regression techniques. It has been demonstrated that regression can be confidently employed with ordinal level data without introducing bias in the results” (as cited in O’Brien 1981, 1150). Another possible explanation for the use of the Likert scale with regression analysis is that if the factor loadings are used for each case in the regression analysis, a set of Likert responses measured on an attitudinal scale is considered to be interval level data (Wilson-Gentry 2012).

One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests were performed to compare and determine significant differences for the means of the CSQ and the OCQ in terms of different lengths of tenure, management levels (rank), and unit assignments.

Finally, the linear correlation coefficients (the Pearson correlation coefficient) were calculated to determine strength of the relationship between communication satisfaction factors, organizational commitment, and intent to remain. Moreover, the Pearson correlation coefficients between the key demographic and professional characteristics, communication satisfaction, and organizational commitment were computed to explore the strength of the relationship between these variables. More detailed descriptions of the data analysis methods can be found in the following chapter.
CHAPTER IV
STATISTICAL RESULTS AND STUDY FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter presents the study results and findings of the entire statistical analysis generated by the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16. After the survey questionnaires were completed, first, the key demographic and professional characteristics of the participating officers were described and represented in descriptive statistics and frequency tables. Second, the Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were computed to determine the internal-consistency reliability of the research instruments.

Third, a principal components factor analysis with a Varimax rotation was performed separately for the Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) to determine the overall factor structure of each instrument.

Fourth, the means, standard deviations, and frequency distributions were calculated for each questionnaire item to discover the most/least satisfied items for the CSQ and the strongly agree/strongly disagree items for the OCQ.

Next, stepwise multiple regression was performed to determine the prediction effect of the factors of the CSQ on the overall organizational commitment composite. One-Way ANOVA tests were performed to compare and determine significant differences of the means of the CSQ and the OCQ for different lengths of tenure, management levels (rank), and unit assignments.

Lastly, Pearson correlations were computed to explore the strength of the relationship between the communication-satisfaction factors, overall organizational commitment, and Intent to Remain. Moreover, the Pearson correlation coefficients between the key demographic and professional characteristics, communication satisfaction, and organizational commitment were computed.
Characteristics of the Sample

Key demographic and professional characteristics of the officers’ participating in this research were described by using descriptive, cross-tabular, and frequency tables. Because it was a random sample, the sample had a representative distribution across unit assignments. 322 usable responses were needed for this study. Because the survey yielded a total of 358 usable responses, the sample-size requirement was met.

Distribution of the Participant across Unit Assignment (Division)

The sample covers officers from different units of the Turkish National Police. Unit means the particular function or specialization of the officers. A total of 75 participating officers, corresponding to 20.9% of the sample, were deployed in crime prevention and crime control units. Seventy-three participating officers, corresponding to 20.4% of the sample, served in support and logistics units, such as information technology, communication, transportation, and aviation. Fifty-nine participating officers, corresponding to 16.5% of the sample, worked in education and training units, which include the Police Academy, Police Vocational Schools across the country and the Education Division (which is responsible for in-service training programs for the TNP). Thirty-two participating officers, corresponding to 8.9% of the sample, were deployed in administrative units. The rate was the same for the organized crime and narcotics units. Fifty-two participating officers, corresponding to 14.5% of the sample, were deployed in antiterror and intelligence units. The sample covered 11 participating officers from riot-police units, 11 officers from police stations, and 9 officers from traffic units. Four respondents reported that they were working in other units.
Table 1: Distribution of the Participants across Unit Assignment (Division)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Division</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Crime Prevention/Crime Control Units</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riot Police</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support/Logistics Units</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education/Training Units</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>60.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative Units</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>69.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organized Crime/Narcotics Units</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>78.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti terror/Intelligence Units</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>93.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic Units</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>95.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police Station</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>98.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Distribution of the Participant by Educational Level

46 officers participating in the survey, corresponding to 12.8% of the sample, were in a master’s degree program at an institute of higher education. 167 officers (46.6%) had a master’s degree, 78 officers (21.8%) were doctoral student, and 67 officers (18.7%) had a doctoral degree.

Table 2: Distribution of the Participants by Educational Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Master Student</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master Degree</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>59.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral Student</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>81.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral Degree</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Distribution of the Participant by Management Level (Rank)

Twenty-six participants, corresponding to 7.3% of the sample, were line officers. Thirty-four respondents, corresponding to 9.5% of the sample, were from lower management (which includes sergeants and lieutenants). One hundred eighty-eight respondents, corresponding to
52.5% of the sample, were middle-level managers, including captains and police superintendents. Lastly, one hundred ten respondents, corresponding to 30.7% of the sample, were upper-level managers, including first-, second-, third-, and fourth-degree police chiefs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Line Officer</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Management</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Management</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>69.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper Management</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Distribution of the Participant by Tenure**

The length of service of the participating officers in the sample ranged between 1 and more than 21 years. Twenty-eight participating officers in the sample served 5 years or less. Seventy-one participating officers served from 6 years to 10 years; 155 participants served from 11 years to 15 years; 71 participants served 16 to 20 years; and 33 participants served 21 years or more in the TNP.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenure</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-5 Years</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 Years</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 Years</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>70.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 Years</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>90.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Years and Over</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Distribution of the Participant by Age

The age of the officers participating in this survey ranged from 25 to 49 years old, with roughly 10.9% of the officers in the sample between the ages of 25 and 29 years old; 31.6% were between 30 and 34 years old; 39.7% were between 35 and 39 years old; 14.2% were between 40 and 44 years old; and 3.6% were between 45 and 48 years old.

Table 5: Distribution of the Participants by Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25-29 Years</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34 Years</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39 Years</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>82.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44 Years</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>96.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49 Years</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Distribution of the Participants by Management and Educational Level

The sample included 110 upper-level managers, five of whom were students in master’s degree programs. Sixty-one had a master’s degree, 18 were students in doctoral programs, and 26 had a doctoral degree.

Table 6: Distribution of the Participants by Management and Educational Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MANAGEMENT LEVEL</th>
<th>EDUCATION</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Master Student</td>
<td>Master Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line Officer</td>
<td>10 (2.8%)</td>
<td>15 (4.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Management</td>
<td>14 (3.1%)</td>
<td>8 (2.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Management</td>
<td>17 (4.7%)</td>
<td>83 (23.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper Management</td>
<td>5 (1.3%)</td>
<td>61 (17.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46 (12.8%)</td>
<td>167 (46.6%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Distribution of the Participant by Unit Assignment and Educational Level

The sample included 75 participants who were deployed in crime prevention and crime control units. 12 of them were students in master’s programs, 43 of them had master’s degrees, 11 of them were students in doctoral programs, and 9 of them had doctoral degrees.

In addition, the sample included 59 participants who were deployed in education and training units. 3 of them were students in master’s programs, 18 of them had master’s degrees, 13 of them were students in doctoral programs, and 25 of them had doctoral degrees.

Table 7: Distribution of the Participants by Unit Assignment and Educational Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UNIT</th>
<th>EDUCATION</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Master Student</td>
<td>Master Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime Prevention/Crime Control Units</td>
<td>12 (3.3%)</td>
<td>43 (12%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riot Police</td>
<td>4 (1.2%)</td>
<td>6 (1.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support/Logistics Units</td>
<td>6 (1.7%)</td>
<td>35 (9.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education/Training Units</td>
<td>3 (0.8%)</td>
<td>18 (5.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative Units</td>
<td>3 (0.8%)</td>
<td>13 (3.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organized Crime/ Narcotics Units</td>
<td>7 (1.9%)</td>
<td>14 (3.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti terror/ Intelligence Units</td>
<td>8 (2.2%)</td>
<td>22 (6.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic Units</td>
<td>1 (0.3%)</td>
<td>5 (1.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police Station</td>
<td>2 (0.6%)</td>
<td>8 (2.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0 (0.3%)</td>
<td>1 (0.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46 (12.8%)</td>
<td>167 (46.6%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reliability Tests of the Research Instruments

To determine the internal-consistency reliability measure of each survey instrument, the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was calculated. Internal-consistency reliability is an overall reliability estimate of the scale based on a single form of a survey questionnaire and measured by the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient (Mallery et al. 2003). This is an appropriate statistics because Cronbach’s alpha is known to be one of the most widely and commonly used reliability estimates in social research (Champion 2006).

The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient ranges from 0.00 to 1.00, where a value of 0.00 means that the questionnaire does not have an acceptable level of internal-consistency reliability for the questionnaire items; a value of 1.00 means that the questionnaire has perfect internal consistency reliability. The generally accepted Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.6 to 0.7 reflects an appropriate level of reliability of an instrument (Mallery et al. 2003).

Cronbach’s Alpha for Internal-Consistency Reliability for the CSQ

Cronbach’s alpha for the entire CSQ data is 0.961. This value is an indication that the questions pertaining to the CSQ were related to each other. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient confirmed that there was excellent internal-consistency reliability among the CSQ questions and scores on similar questions were related to each other.

Table 8: Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient for the CSQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.961</td>
<td>0.960</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excluded</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cronbach’s Alpha for Internal-Consistency Reliability for the OCQ

Cronbach’s alpha is affected by reverse-phrased or negatively worded questions. Reverse-phrased questions are asked to reduce response bias in the survey research method (Mathews and Shepherd 2002). Prior to performing the analysis, all reverse-phrased items in the OCQ were reverse scored to be combined as a single scale in which a higher score indicated a higher level of commitment and a lower score indicated a lower level of commitment. OCQ items 3, 7, 9, 11, 12, and 15 were reverse-scored items.

To reflect reverse-scoring numerically, these reverse-phrased or negatively worded questions were scored reversely, such that 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = somewhat agree, 5 = somewhat disagree, 6 = disagree, and 7 = strongly disagree. The responses were re-coded so that high scores on the questions could indicate high levels of commitment. This means that a respondent who originally answered 1 (strongly disagree) for more committed; now scores 7 (strongly agree) on these reverse-phrased questions in the OCQ. Conversely, a subject who originally answered 7 (strongly agree) for less committed now scores 1 (strongly disagree) on these reverse-phrased questions.

The Cronbach’s alpha for the entire data items of the OCQ was 0.872. As a result, the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient confirmed very high internal consistency of the items of the OCQ.

Table 9: Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient for the OCQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.872</td>
<td>.875</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excluded</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the computations above, the CSQ and the OCQ achieved a high level of internal-consistency reliability for the entire data set. Therefore, both research instruments proved to be reliable for measuring the concepts of communication satisfaction and organizational commitment in the TNP.

In order to the relative impact of management level, tenure, education, age, and unit on the Central Study Research Question and thus in relation to each subsidiary question, a factor analysis was conducted. For a given factor, factor analysis helps the researcher or reader to determine whether there is any pattern or cluster among the items (Babbie 2004). Instead of comparing numerous correlations to discover existing patterns, factor analysis can be used for this task (Babbie 2004). The results of the factor analysis are presented as follows.

**Factor Analysis**

To determine the overall underlying factor structures of each research instrument, a principal-component factor analysis with a Varimax rotation was performed separately for the CSQ and the OCQ. Factor analysis is a statistical method used to discover the correlations among a large number of variations. In factor analysis, a large set of questions (items) is reduced through summarization without much loss of information (Dawis 1987). The items are entered into the computer program, and the program outputs a series of factors with appropriate factor loadings.

In order to improve the interpretability of produced factors, rotation procedure has been used. Field indicated that “rotation maximizes the loading of each variable on one of the extracted factors whilst minimizing the loading on all other factor” (Field 2009, 3). Therefore, for this study a Varimax rotation procedure was chosen to perform.

**Principal-Component Factor Analysis for the CSQ**

A principal-component factor analysis with the Varimax rotation was performed for the 50 questions of the CSQ. To determine whether the data can yield reliable factors, the Kaisers-
Meyer-Olkin’s (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of sphericity were conducted. The KMO statistic score ranges from 0 to 1. A value of 0 means that factor analysis is likely inappropriate. A value close to 1 indicates that factor analysis should produce reliable factors. Acceptable values are greater than 0.5. Values above 0.9 are considered to be especially excellent (Kaiser 1981). Table 10 shows the results of the KMO’s measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of sphericity. In this study, the value of KMO’s measure of sampling adequacy is 0.947, which falls into the range of being excellent. Therefore, the first assumption in factor analysis of the CSQ was met.

Bartlett’s test of sphericity helps to determine whether there are correlations among the items in the questionnaire. The result of Bartlett’s test of sphericity should have a significance level of 5% in order to perform factor analysis on the questionnaire data (Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). In this study, the result is significant (0.000). Therefore, this condition for conducting factor analysis also has been met. As a result, two important requirements were met to perform factor analysis on the CSQ data.

Table 10: KMO Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity for the CSQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy</th>
<th>.947</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
<td>10488.262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>1225.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The factor analysis indicated that 50 items of the CSQ yielded 10 distinct factors. A question was specifically loaded onto a factor if the question had a primary loading of 0.375 or above. Factor loadings less than 0.3 are not included because SPSS was programmed to suppress these loadings.
Factor analysis of the communication satisfaction questions produced 10 factors that accounted for 64.228% of the total variance. Seven of the 10 factors had more than three primary loadings above 0.60. Most of the questions clustered as determined by the designer of the CSQ (Downs 1977), and produced approximately the same factor pattern. For the following factors, the five questions corresponding to them loaded onto the same factor for this sample, as was the case for the original CSQ: Relationship and Communication with Top Management, Inter-Divisional Communication, Relationship and Communication with Subordinates (with the exception of one question), Relationship and Communication with Superiors (with the exception of one question), and Organizational Perspective (with the exception of one question). For the Communication Climate factor, the data showed roughly the same factor structure. Two questions (25 and 34) were clustered to load highly on a new factor. It could be called the informal communication factor because the questions were about informal communication within the organization.

Table 11 shows the total variance of factor loadings of the CSQ. The table also shows the eigenvalues for each factor at three points: before extraction, after extraction, and after rotation. The eigenvalues for each factor after rotation specify the variance explained by the factor. For these data, factor 1 accounted for 8.138% of the total variance. All 10 factors accounted for 64.228% of the total variance. While the first eight factors explained relatively large amounts of variance, the last two factors explained small amounts of variance.

The results of this study supported the dependability of the two factors- Relationship and Communication with Top Management and Inter-Divisional Communication- which were subsequently added to the CSQ by the questionnaire designers. The way the questions clustered for this study showed great stability.
Table 11: Eigenvalues for Each CSQ Factor before Extraction, after Extraction and Rotation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
<th>Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
<td>Cumulative %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.010</td>
<td>6.020</td>
<td>42.372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.923</td>
<td>3.846</td>
<td>46.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.806</td>
<td>3.611</td>
<td>49.829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.396</td>
<td>2.793</td>
<td>52.622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.321</td>
<td>2.641</td>
<td>55.263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.226</td>
<td>2.453</td>
<td>57.716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.097</td>
<td>2.194</td>
<td>62.174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.027</td>
<td>2.054</td>
<td>64.228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>.938</td>
<td>1.877</td>
<td>66.104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The factor analysis showed that the content of questions that loaded highly onto the same factor examined a common theme. The results provided evidence that each factor represents a different aspect of communication satisfaction. Moreover, these findings showed that the multidimensionality nature of the construction of communication satisfaction was proven for a sample from Turkish police officers.

**Principal-Component Factor Analysis for the OCQ**

Factor analysis for the OCQ was performed using a principle-component factor method with a Varimax rotation. This analysis attempted to identify the underlying factor structure for the OCQ. A question was considered to load on a factor if the question had a primary loading of 0.5 or above. Factor loadings less than 0.4 are not included in the table because SPSS was programmed to suppress these loadings. The OCQ questions in the table were listed in the order of the size of their factor loadings. Although no factor solution has been theorized for the OCQ, a three-factor solution emerged for the Turkish sample. The conceptualization of the construct of organizational commitment was originally unidimensional.
Table 12 shows the result of the KMO measure of sampling adequacy. For this sample, the value of KMO was 0.899, which falls roughly within the range of excellent. Furthermore, the result of the Bartlett’s test of sphericity is significant (0.000) at the 5% significance level, meaning that factor analysis can be performed. Therefore, the two requirements for factor analysis of the data were met. Factor analysis of the OCQ is appropriate.

Table 12: KMO Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity for the OCQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy</th>
<th>.899</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
<td>1923.335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results also show that the commitment questions tended to cluster along the three factors. The first factor contained seven of the questions. The second factor contained six questions, and the last factor contained two questions. There was great stability in the way the questions clustered for the extracted and rotated factors.

Table 13 shows the results of the principal-component factor analysis and the rotated-component factors loading of the OCQ. The table contains the loadings for each question on one of the extracted factors. The factor analysis with the Varimax rotation determined that the OCQ 15 items yielded three distinct factors. These three factors within the data set accounted for 54.414% of the total variance. Two of the three factors had more than three primary loadings above 0.60.

The results also show that the commitment questions tended to cluster along the three factors. The first factor contained seven of the questions. The second factor contained six questions, and the last factor contained two questions. There was great stability in the way the questions clustered for the extracted and rotated factors.

Table 14 shows the total variance of factor loadings for the OCQ. The table also shows the eigenvalues for each factor at three points: before extraction, after extraction, and after rotation. The eigenvalues for each factor after rotation specify the variance explained by the factor.
Table 13: Rotated Component Factor Loadings of Each Item of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) Items</th>
<th>Component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part (RS)</td>
<td>.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others that I was considering at the time I joined</td>
<td>.725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization (RS)</td>
<td>.694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work</td>
<td>.661</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I feel very little loyalty to this organization (RS)</td>
<td>.599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar (RS)</td>
<td>.544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization Indefinitely (RS)</td>
<td>.517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful</td>
<td>.730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I really care about the fate of this organization</td>
<td>.658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for</td>
<td>.648</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization</td>
<td>.555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization</td>
<td>.447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar</td>
<td>.535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees (RS)</td>
<td>.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance</td>
<td>.714</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 6 iterations.
(RS) means the items were reverse-scored to be combined as a single scale.

For these data, factor 1 with 7 items (3, 7, 9, 10, 11, 14, and 15) accounted for 23.216% of the total variance. A second factor with six items (1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 13) loading on it accounted for 17.923% of the variance. A third factor with two items (8 and 12) loading on it accounted for 13.275% of the variance. The three factors combined accounted for 54.414% of the total
variance. The results showed that each factor explained a relatively large amount of variance, especially factor 1.

Table 14: Eigenvalues for Each OCQ Factor before Extraction, after Extraction, and after Rotation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
<th>Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
<td>Cumulative %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.684</td>
<td>37.890</td>
<td>37.890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.335</td>
<td>8.902</td>
<td>46.792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.143</td>
<td>7.622</td>
<td>54.414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>.939</td>
<td>6.257</td>
<td>60.671</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

**Findings Related to Communication Satisfaction Analysis**

Turkish officers rated their overall satisfaction with TNP communication practices at the midrange on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = very dissatisfied and 7 = very satisfied). The total communication satisfaction was determined by computing the overall mean score of all the communication satisfaction items. Responses to the 50 items were summed and divided by 50 to obtain the total officer’s communication satisfaction score. Higher mean scores are indicative of greater communication satisfaction. The mean score for overall communication satisfaction for the entire data set was 4.02, which is very close to “indifferent.” Therefore, it can be inferred that Turkish officers are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with TNP overall communication practices.

The means and standard deviations were computed for the CSQ at the item level. According to the mean score of each item, an item was assignment either the most-satisfied item or the least-satisfied item.
The Most-Satisfied Items of the CSQ

Table 15 shows the means and orders them from the highest score to the lowest score to explore the most satisfied communication items. For the analysis, the first five items of the CSQ that had the highest satisfaction mean scores and the last five items that had the lowest satisfaction mean scores were included. To determine the level of communication satisfaction, a seven-point Likert scale (1 = very dissatisfied, 7 = very satisfied) was used for each item. The most-satisfied communication items are likely to be indicators of causes that enhance effective internal TNP communication.

Table 15 shows the five most-satisfied questions of the CSQ that had the highest mean scores for the entire data set. The five organizational-communication practices with which the respondents were most satisfied as they apply to the TNP are as follows:

Table 15: Means and Rank Orders of the Five Most-Satisfied CSQ Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(CSQ) Item No</th>
<th>Most Satisfied Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Extent to which the grapevine (informal communication) is active at the TNP</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>1.332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Extent to which my supervisor trusts me</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>1.422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Extent to which my work group is compatible</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>1.263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>Extent to which my subordinates anticipate my needs for information</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>1.226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Extent to which my subordinates feel responsible for initiating accurate upward communication</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Least-Satisfied Items of the CSQ

Table 16 shows the five least-satisfied questions of the CSQ. These five items had the lowest mean scores for the entire data set. The five organizational-communication practices with which the respondents were least satisfied as they apply to the TNP are as follows:
Table 16: Means and Rank Orders of the Five Least-Satisfied CSQ Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(CSQ) Item No</th>
<th>Least Satisfied Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Information about employee benefits and pay</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>1.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Information about my organization (TNP) financial standing</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Information about government action affecting the TNP</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>1.593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Information about TNP organizational policies and goals</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Information about how I am being judged</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.782</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Communication Satisfaction Analysis at the Factor Level**

The means and standard deviations were computed for each of the factors on the CSQ. According to the mean score of each factor, a factor can be considered either the most-satisfied factor or the least-satisfied factor. Table 17 shows the means and orders them from the highest score to lowest score to explore the most-and least-satisfied communication factor. In the rank order of the factors’ mean score, it is easy to see which factor received the highest or the lowest mean score.

Table 17 shows that TNP officers were more satisfied with Horizontal Communication than they were with other TNP communication practices. Horizontal Communication is about informal and horizontal communication channels in organizations. This factor also examines the amount and accuracy of information messages circulating through informal networks. Furthermore, this factor evaluates whether or not employees are satisfied with communication with other employees at the same level (Downs and Hazen 1977).
Table 17: Mean Scores of the 10 Factors of the CSQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) Factors</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Horizontal Communication</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>24.1927</td>
<td>4.2313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship/Communication with Subordinates</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>23.2514</td>
<td>4.6295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship/Communication with Superiors</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>22.0419</td>
<td>6.1876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inter-Divisional Communication</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>20.9050</td>
<td>6.3486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication Climate</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>34.00</td>
<td>20.1844</td>
<td>6.1470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Quality</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>19.9721</td>
<td>6.2487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship/Communication with Top Management</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>18.3352</td>
<td>6.9330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Integration</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>34.00</td>
<td>18.3352</td>
<td>6.3989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Feedback</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>33.00</td>
<td>17.6620</td>
<td>6.0986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Perspective</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>34.00</td>
<td>16.4441</td>
<td>6.1722</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, Organizational Perspective was the least satisfied communication practice. Organizational Perspective is about general information regarding overall organizational functioning, such as the fiscal condition of the organization, setting goals, policies, performance evaluations, determining working practices and changes (Downs and Hazen 1977). This factor also examines the information regarding government programs that are likely to affect the organization.

Two communication satisfaction factors, Organizational Integration and Relationship and Communication with Top Management, received the same mean score. While top management communication usually is unpopular among the lower-level members of an organization; that is not the case with this study (Nuss 2006). It was concluded that the Relationship and Communication with Top Management factor for the TNP was not the least-satisfied communication factor within the organization.
Findings Related to Research Question 1

Based on the above the computations and explanations, Research Question 1, “Are Turkish officers satisfied with communication processes at the TNP?” can be calculated and assessed. On a seven-point Likert scale, the mean value of the overall communication satisfaction for the entire data set is 4.02. The mean value of 4.02 falls between the indifferent and slightly satisfied categories; however, the value is very close to 4, putting overall communication satisfaction closer to the indifferent category. This means that Turkish officers are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with overall communication practices within the TNP, reporting neutral attitudes toward the degree of satisfaction with overall communication aspect of the TNP. Briefly, the answer to Research Question 1 is neither yes nor no. The findings showed that the mean score did not demonstrate positive level of satisfaction, nor did it demonstrate negative level of satisfaction.

Findings Related to Research Question 2

Based on the above computations about the most- and least-satisfied communication factors and items, the answer to Research Question 2, “What factors impede or enhance effective internal TNP communication?” can be calculated and assessed. The most-satisfied communication factors and items are likely to be indicators of causes that enhance effective internal TNP communication, whereas the least-satisfied communication factors and items are likely to be indicators of practices that impede effective internal TNP communication.

For example, the results showed that Turkish officers are more satisfied with Horizontal Communication than they are with Organizational Perspective. It means that informal communication is active, and horizontal communication is accurate and free-flowing in the TNP. Moreover, the amount and accuracy of messages circulating within informal network of the TNP
is satisfactory. Also, the communication practices between officers at the same level within a division of the TNP may be characterized as satisfactory.

Furthermore, the most-satisfied communication items are likely to be indicators of causes that enhance effective internal TNP communication. The five organizational-communication practices of CSQ with which the officers were most satisfied are as follows: “Extent to which the grapevine (informal communication) is active at the TNP,” “Extent to which my supervisor trusts me,” “Extent to which my work group is compatible,” “Extent to which my subordinates anticipate my needs for information,” and “Extent to which my subordinates feel responsible for initiating accurate upwards communication.”

On the other hand, the data provided sufficient evidence to conclude that Turkish officers are less satisfied with Organizational Perspective. It means that Turkish officers do not receive satisfactory information and getting explanations about the TNP’s financial condition, organizational changes, practices, and general facts. Moreover, Turkish officers are not satisfied with communication regarding the TNP’s objectives, policies, overall mission, and plans, as well as government decisions affecting the TNP and its officers. Briefly, general information about the TNP and overall organizational functioning of the organization is not satisfactory.

The least-satisfied communication items are also likely to be indicators of practices that impede effective internal TNP communication. The five organizational-communication practices with which the officers were least satisfied are as follows: “Information about employee benefits and pay,” “Information about my organization (TNP) financial standing” “Information about government action affecting the TNP,” “Information about TNP organizational policies and goals,” and “Information about TNP organizational policies and goals.”
Findings Related to Organizational-Commitment Analysis

Turkish officers rated their overall commitment to the TNP above the midrange on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). The mean score of commitment for the entire data set was 4.91, which is near the “somewhat agree” category. Higher mean scores are indicative of greater organizational commitment. Therefore, it can be inferred that Turkish officers are committed to the TNP.

Table 18: Means and Standard Deviations of the OCQ Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I really care about the fate of this organization</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>.782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.86</td>
<td>1.285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>1.239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part (RS)</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.69</td>
<td>1.544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.57</td>
<td>1.360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization (RS)</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>1.559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I feel very little loyalty to this organization (RS)</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>1.607</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others that I was considering at the time I joined</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>1.589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>1.739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>1.580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>1.772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely (RS)</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>1.869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar (RS)</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees (RS)</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RS indicates a reverse scored item.
Descriptive measures were computed for each item of the OCQ. According to the mean score for each item, an item can be considered either the strongly agree item or the strongly disagree item. Table 18 shows the mean score for each OCQ item and orders the scores from the highest score to the lowest score to explore strongly agree and strongly disagree items.

To determine the strength of organizational commitment, a seven-point Likert scale (1 = strong disagreement, 7 = strong agreement) was used. RS (Reverse Scored) indicates a reverse-scored item. OCQ items 3, 7, 9, 11, 12, and 15 were reverse-scored items. Therefore, a respondent who originally scored an item as 1 (strongly disagree) now scores the item as 7 (strongly agree) for these reverse-phrased questions.

The mean scores show that for Turkish officers, the commitment aspects with which they indicated the strongest agreement were as follows: “I really care about the fate of this organization,” “I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization,” and “I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.”

From the results, it can be determined that Turkish officers sincerely care about the fate of the TNP, that they are proud to tell others that they are part of the TNP, and that they are willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help the TNP be successful.

The mean score also show that for Turkish officers the commitment aspects with which they disagreed most strongly were the following: “Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization’s policies on important matters relating to its employees,” “This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance” and “I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.”
Relationship between Communication Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

To explore the prediction effect of communication satisfaction factors on organizational commitment, a stepwise multiple-regression procedure was performed for the data. Regression analysis is an effective tool for determining the causal relationship between dependant and independent variables. It allows one to examine the influence of multiple communication satisfaction factors –as the independent variables– on organizational commitment – as the dependant variable.

Regression analysis is considered the appropriate technique for this study because it takes into account the contribution of a number of communication satisfaction factors that can predict organizational commitment. These in turn can be used to assess the strength of the relationship between variables to examine causal factors on the commitment composite and to determine employee perceptions of the impact of the 10 communication satisfaction factors pertaining to employee commitment (Byers and McKean 2000).

In this analysis, the communication satisfaction factors were treated as predictor variables and the organizational commitment composite were treated as dependent variables. By this analysis, the best set of potential explanatory variables (communication satisfaction factors) for a dependent variable (organizational commitment) was explored.

In the following analyses, we examined the composite score reflecting overall organizational commitment. Responses were made on seven-point scales indicating the degree of participant agreement with various questions of organizational commitment (1= Strongly Disagree, 7= Strongly Agree) and composite score was computed by summing across items. Therefore, the items for the commitment construct were summed to form composite score for organizational commitment. Accordingly, the organizational commitment composite of this study
is a 15-item additive composite score and the highest possible score is 105, while the lowest possible score is 15.

**Stepwise Multiple-Regression Analysis to Explore the Prediction-Effect of the Communication Satisfaction Factors on the Overall Organizational Commitment Composite**

To select the best set of communication satisfaction factors to predict the level of Turkish officers’ overall commitment to the TNP, a stepwise regression was performed. Stepwise multiple regression analysis was also used to examine the relationship between communication satisfaction factors and organizational commitment. In this process, the regression equation was determined. In addition, the coefficients of determination were examined to show the utility of the regression equation for making predictions.

Stepwise regression analysis offer to select the best set of variables found to have predictive relevance when a number of potential predictor variables exist. Therefore, this technique is basically an automatic variable selection procedure based on mathematical criteria (Mallery and George 2003). The statistical program search for the best predictor variables than can explain the most variance and best correlated with the dependant variable to include in the equation (Field 2009). For that reason SPSS provides procedure of Stepwise that combines both forward and backward methods to test at each step for entry into the model (Illinois State University 2012).

For the regression analyses, the organizational commitment composite was treated as the predicted variable. Therefore, the dependent variable, Organizational Commitment, was measure of the extent to which police officers exhibit more or less commitment to the organization. Communication satisfaction factors were treated as the predictor variables. The independent variables therefore were officers’ satisfaction with the communication processes within the TNP.
Table 19 shows the model summary that contained three models. Model 1 refers to the first stage in the stepwise regression model when only the Communication Climate factor was used as a predictor variable. Model 2 refers to the second model when the Communication Climate and the Organizational Integration factors were used as predictor variables. Model 3 refers to the final model when the three factors Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, and Relationship and Communication with Superiors were used as predictor variables. Only these factors were included, and no other communication satisfaction factor met the requirements for entry into the model. The significance level for this analysis was set at 5%.

Table 19: Best Set of Communication-Satisfaction Factors for Predicting Overall Organizational Commitment

| Model | R    | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate | Change Statistics | | | | | |
|-------|------|----------|-------------------|---------------------------|-------------------|---|------|--------|-----------|---|------|--------|---|
| 1     | .537(a) | .289 | .287 | 11.722 | .289 | 144.617 | 1 | 356 | .000 |
| 2     | .570(b) | .324 | .321 | 11.441 | .036 | 18.711 | 1 | 355 | .000 |
| 3     | .577(c) | .333 | .327 | 11.387 | .008 | 4.369 | 1 | 354 | .037 |

a Predictors: (Constant), Communication Climate  
b Predictors: (Constant), Communication Climate, Organizational Integration  
c Predictors: (Constant), Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, Relationship/Communication with Superiors  
d Dependent Variable: Overall Organizational Commitment Composite

According to the results of the stepwise multiple regression analysis, there were three significant predictors of overall organizational commitment: Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, and Relationship and Communication with Superiors. The stepwise multiple-regression analysis indicated that not all factors of communication satisfaction are associated with overall organizational commitment in the TNP.
The finding of this study parallels the work of Nuss, who found that “Organizational Integration and Relationship with Top Management exhibited the greatest potential to predict Organizational Commitment over time. Organizational Integration exhibited the most predictive relevance in the regression model three of the last four audits” (Nuss 2006, 128). He conducted a study on a mid-western police department over eight year and also reported that Communication Climate predicted Organizational Commitment twice (Nuss 2006, 128).

The finding of this study also parallels the work of Varona, who found that the most frequent predictors of Organizational Commitment were Organizational Integration and Horizontal Communication (Varona 1991). Therefore, one can say that the findings are consistent with the literature.

The Communication Climate factor was the most statistically significant predictor of overall organizational commitment. This factor also indicated the highest correlation with overall organizational commitment. Additionally, the Communication Climate factor explained 28.9% of the variation in overall organizational commitment.

The importance of Communication Climate indicates that Turkish officers’ attitudes concerning communication in TNP general have a crucial role in strengthening of commitment to the organization. The Communication Climate factor basically deals with general attitudes toward the communication system and examines whether or not the communication system stimulates employees to feel they are part of the organization. For example, the following questionnaire item that sought information about the communication climate in the TNP: “extent to which communication at the TNP makes me identify with it or feel a part of it.”

The second most important predictor of overall organizational commitment is the Organizational Integration factor. This factor deals with the information that officers receive about their job requirements, benefits, the organization’s policies and goals. If the officers are
given adequate information in a timely manner to perform their job at the TNP, officers are likely to perceive themselves to be an important part of the TNP and perform their job at a higher level. Also, this knowledge may increase the level of Turkish officers’ commitment to the TNP. For example, organizational integration reflects satisfaction with such items as “information about the requirements of my job.”

Finally, the third most important predictor of commitment is the Relationship and Communication with Superiors factor. Officers’ satisfaction with communication with superiors is the third variable to enter the stepwise multiple-regression model. This factor focuses on information that ascends directly from the bottom to the top through the levels of hierarchy in the TNP. Therefore, this factor attempts to explore the subordinates’ perception of whether the ideas, demands, and messages from the subordinate level can reach immediate superiors. It also measures whether the superiors are open to new ideas and pay enough attention to the demands of the subordinates, as well as the quality of supervision and feedback.

ANOVA allows one to test whether the multiple-regression model is significantly good at predicting the organizational commitment (Kahane 2001). The results of the analysis show that the value of $P$ (Sig) is 0.000 for all of the three models. The level of $P = 0.000$ is much less than the chosen significance level of 0.05, so it can be concluded that the final model is significantly good at predicting the level of Turkish officers’ commitment to the TNP. This means that there is a significant relationship between the three factors (Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, and Relationship and Communication with Superiors) are used together as the independent variables and the organizational-commitment composite as the dependant variable.
Table 20: ANOVA Results for Testing the Multiple-Regression Model at Factor Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>19871.204</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19871.204</td>
<td>144.617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>48916.586</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>137.406</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68787.791</td>
<td>357</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>22320.394</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11160.197</td>
<td>85.261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>46467.396</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>130.894</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68787.791</td>
<td>357</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>22886.931</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7628.977</td>
<td>58.837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>45900.859</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>129.663</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68787.791</td>
<td>357</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Communication Climate
b. Predictors: (Constant), Communication Climate, Organizational Integration
c. Predictors: (Constant), Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, Relationship/Communication with Superiors
d. Dependent Variable: Overall Organizational Commitment Composite

The analysis continues with a linear equation. For a linear equation, the number $\alpha$ (constant) is called the Y-intercept, and the numbers $\beta_1$, $\beta_2$, and $\beta_3$ are called the partial slopes for the independent variables (Kahane 2001).

Table 21 presents coefficient data for this study’s Models 1, 2, and 3. Under the column titled Unstandardized Coefficients, the coefficient scores were given to the independent variables. For Model 3, the Y-intercept ($\alpha$) is 45.112; the partial slope of the regression line $\beta_1$ for the Communication Climate factor is 0.617; the partial slope of the regression line $\beta_2$ for the Organizational Integration factor is 0.504; the partial slope of the regression line $\beta_3$ for Relationship and Communication with Superiors factor is 0.314. Therefore, the multiple-regression equation is as follows:

$$ Y = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 $$

$$ Y = 45.112 + 0.617 X_1 + 0.504 X_2 + 0.314 X_3 $$

More specifically:
Organizational Commitment Composite = 45.112 + (0.617 Communication Climate) + (0.504 Organizational Integration) + (0.314 Relationship and Communication with Superiors).

Table 21: Coefficients of Multiple-Regression Model for the Organizational Commitment Composite

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>49.23</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>23.12</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication Climate</td>
<td>1.214</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>.537</td>
<td>12.02</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>47.03</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>21.97</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication Climate</td>
<td>.812</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td>.360</td>
<td>5.997</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organizational Integration</td>
<td>.563</td>
<td>.130</td>
<td>.259</td>
<td>4.326</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>45.11</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>19.45</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication Climate</td>
<td>.617</td>
<td>.164</td>
<td>.273</td>
<td>3.770</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organizational Integration</td>
<td>.504</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>.232</td>
<td>3.809</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relationship Communication with Superiors</td>
<td>.314</td>
<td>.150</td>
<td>.140</td>
<td>2.090</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Dependent Variable: Overall Organizational Commitment Composite

Because the slope of the regression line is positive, the overall organizational-commitment composite (as the dependent variable) tends to increase when the scores for the communication-satisfaction factors (as predictor variables) increase. This means that the level of Turkish officers’ commitment to the TNP tends to increase linearly as satisfaction with the three communication satisfaction factors (Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, and Relationship and Communication with Superiors) increases.

The coefficient of multiple correlation, $R$, for Model 3 is 0.577. This is the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between the three predictor communication-satisfaction factors and the dependent variable.
factors and the overall organizational-commitment composite. This correlation also is named as the linear correlation coefficient. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient or the linear correlation coefficient measures the strength of the linear relationship between these variables and always lies between -1 and 1 (Weiss 2005). A value of $R$ close to -1 or 1 shows a strong linear relationship; on the contrary, a value of $R$ close to 0 shows a weak or no linear relationship between the variables. Moreover, a value of $R$ near 0 explains that the regression equation is not useful for making predictions on the dependent variable, whereas a value of $R$ close to -1 or 1 explains that the regression equation is very useful for making predictions on the dependent variable (Weiss 2005).

The stepwise regression analysis showed that the three communication satisfaction factors (i.e., Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, and Relationship and Communication with Superiors) as predictor variables and organizational commitment as the dependent variable are positively and linearly correlated variables. This means that the level of Turkish officers’ commitment to the TNP tends to increase linearly as satisfaction with these three communication factors increases within the organization.

The coefficient of multiple determination, $R^2$, allows the interpretation of the strength of the association between dependent and independent variables (Weiss 2005). The coefficient is a measure of the utility of the multiple regression model and allows one to explain how much of the variability on the dependent variable is accounted for by the predictor variables (Byers and McKean 2000). The variability is interpreted as the percentage of the variation in the outcome variable that is explained by the independent variable (Kahane 2001). The value of $R^2$ always lies between 0 and 1. A value of $R^2$ near 0 indicates that the regression equation is not very useful for predictions, whereas a value of $R^2$ near 1 indicates that the regression equation is extremely useful for making predictions about the dependant variable (Weiss 2005).
The score of the coefficient of determination for the third model is $R^2 = 0.333$. For the first model, $R^2 = 0.289$, which means that the Communication Climate factor accounts for 28.9% of the variation in the overall organizational commitment composite. Moreover, for the final model, the value of $R^2$ increased to 0.333, or 33.3%, of the variance in the overall organizational commitment composite. The three factors of communication satisfaction account for this 33.3% variation in the overall organizational commitment composite. As a result, the data provided sufficient evidence to conclude that the regression equation for making predictions about the commitment composite is useful. This means that 33.3% of the variance in the overall organizational commitment can be explained by the three communication satisfaction predictor factors.

Because the adjusted $R^2 = 0.327$, there is not much difference between the $R^2$ and the adjusted $R^2$. The adjusted $R^2$ provides some information about how well the regression equation will be applicable to the population (Kahane 2001). In this study, the difference for the final model is very small ($0.333 - 0.327 = 0.006$, or 0.6%). This shrinkage means that if the multiple-regression equation was derived from the population rather than from a sample, the shrinkage would account for about 0.6% less variance in the overall organizational-commitment composite. This disparity between the population and the sample is too small to take into account.

VIF scores indicate unimportant levels of multicollinearity among the three communication-satisfaction factors as predictor variables. Therefore, multicollinearity is not a problem with the third multiple-regression model in this study.

**Pearson Correlation Coefficients between the Communication-Satisfaction Variables and the Overall Organizational-Commitment Composite**

The Pearson correlation coefficients between overall organizational commitment and the communication-satisfaction factors were computed to explore the strength of the relationship
between these variables. As can be seen in Table 22, all communication-satisfaction factors indicate positive correlation with the overall organizational-commitment composite.

These results show that the correlation coefficients range from 0.537 to 0.313. The most influential and functionally strong communication factors (with coefficient in parentheses) are Communication Climate (0.537), Organizational Integration (0.506), and Relationship and Communication with Superiors (0.487). In addition, all correlations are statistically significant.

This finding parallels the work of Nuss, who found that “overall (Communication Satisfaction) COMSAT and all factors exhibited significant positive correlations with Organizational Commitment” (Nuss 2006, 124).

Table 22: Pearson Correlation Coefficients between the Communication-Satisfaction Factors and the Overall Organizational-Commitment Composite

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communication Satisfaction Factors</th>
<th>Overall Org. Commitment Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication Climate</td>
<td>.537(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Integration</td>
<td>.506(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship/Communication with Superiors</td>
<td>.487(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Feedback</td>
<td>.477(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Quality</td>
<td>.467(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship/Communication with Top Management</td>
<td>.443(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inter-Divisional Communication</td>
<td>.430(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Perspective</td>
<td>.388(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horizontal Communication</td>
<td>.339(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship/Communication with Subordinates</td>
<td>.313(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Communication Satisfaction Composite</td>
<td>.567(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
The signs of the correlation coefficients for these factors suggest that the variables are positively and linearly correlated variables. This means that as Turkish officers’ satisfaction with communication climate, organizational integration and supervisory communication increases, there is a strong tendency for the overall organizational commitment to increase positively and linearly. Relationship and Communication with Subordinates was the factor that had the lowest correlation score with the overall organizational-commitment composite.

Finally, the correlation score between the communication-satisfaction composite and the commitment-composite variables is 0.567. This means that there is a positive and moderately strong relationship between these variables. Accordingly, if the officers’ communication-satisfaction scores increase, their commitment scores tend to increase linearly in the TNP.

**Study Results Related to Research Question 3**

Based on the above multiple-regression analysis and the Pearson correlation coefficient computations, Research Question 3 [Which communication source (Communication Climate, Media Quality, Relationship with Top Management, and so forth) has the most impact on organizational commitment?] can be calculated and assessed.

The stepwise multiple-regression analysis showed that for TNP officers, Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, and Relationship and Communication with Superiors were the communication-satisfaction factors that had the most impact on the overall organizational commitment to the TNP. The stepwise regression analysis indicated that no other communication-satisfaction factors were statistically significant to predict the level of Turkish officers’ commitment to the organization. Therefore, these factors were excluded by applying stepwise regression analysis from the multiple-regression equation.

In addition, the Pearson correlation coefficients between overall organizational commitment and the communication-satisfaction factors show that the correlation coefficients
range from 0.537 to 0.313. All communication-satisfaction factors indicate positive and significant correlation with the overall organizational-commitment composite. The most influential and functionally strong communication factors (with coefficient in parentheses) are, once again, Communication Climate (0.537), Organizational Integration (0.506), and Relationship and Communication with Superiors (0.487).

The signs of the correlation coefficients suggest that all communication-satisfaction factors and the overall organizational-commitment composite are positively and linearly correlated variables. This means that as Turkish officers’ satisfaction with communication, specifically communication climate, organizational integration and supervisory communication, increases, there is a strong tendency for the overall organizational commitment to increase positively and linearly.

Relationship and Communication with Subordinates and Horizontal Communication were the factors that had the lowest correlation score with the overall-commitment composite.

**Study Findings Relevant to Research Question 4**

Based on the above multiple-regression analysis and the Pearson correlation coefficient computations, Research Question 4 (“What is the relationship between Relationship and Communication with Superiors satisfaction and overall organizational commitment”) can be calculated and assessed.

The stepwise multiple-regression analysis showed that that for TNP officers, there were three significant predictors of overall organizational commitment: Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, and Relationship and Communication with Superiors. The Relationship and Communication with Superiors factor was found to have the third most important predictive power for organizational commitment.
Moreover, the correlation analysis showed that there was a positively moderate and statistically significant relationship between the Relationship and Communication with Superiors factor and the overall organizational commitment to the TNP. The correlation coefficient score for this relationship was 0.487. This means that if Turkish officers are satisfied with their superiors who are open and attentive with regard to paying enough attention to their subordinates’ messages, as well as the quality of supervision, organizational commitment tends to increase linearly.

**Study Findings Related to the First Part of Research Question 5**

Based on the above multiple-regression analysis and the Pearson correlation coefficient computations, the first part of Research Question 5 ("What impact does communication satisfaction have on organizational commitment and, eventually, intent to remain with the TNP?") can be calculated and assessed.

The results obtained by applying the stepwise multiple-regression model showed that there were three significant communication-satisfaction factors that positively affect the level of Turkish officers’ commitment to the TNP. These factors were Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, and Relationship and Communication with Superiors. Therefore, these predictor communication satisfaction factors are likely to make a positive impact on the overall organizational commitment.

The results also showed that the correlation coefficients between overall organizational commitment and the communication-satisfaction factors range from 0.537 to 0.313. The most influential and functionally strong communication factors (with coefficient in parentheses) are Communication Climate (0.537), Organizational Integration (0.506), and Relationship and Communication with Superiors (0.487). This means that overall organizational commitment tends to increase linearly as officers’ satisfaction with communication procedures concerning
communication climate, organizational integration, and supervisory communication increases in the TNP. Moreover, these three communication-satisfaction factors are likely to be the underlying factors of Turkish officers’ commitment to the organization.

In addition, the correlation score between the communication-satisfaction composite and the commitment-composite variables is 0.567. This means that there is a positive and moderately strong relationship between these variables. Accordingly, if the officers’ communication-satisfaction scores increase, their commitment scores tend to increase linearly in the TNP.

**Study Findings Related to Research Question 6**

The above computations and results also can answer Research Question 6 (“What is the relationship between satisfaction with Personal Feedback and overall organizational commitment?”)

The correlation analysis showed that there was a positive, moderate, and statistically significant correlation between the Personal Feedback factor and the overall organizational commitment to the TNP. The correlation coefficient score for this relationship was 0.477.

However, the stepwise multiple regression analysis showed that for TNP officers, Personal Feedback was not a statistically significant predictor-factor of overall organizational commitment. This factor was excluded by applying stepwise regression analysis from the multiple-regression equation.

**The Pearson Correlation Coefficients between Demographic/Professional Characteristics and the Overall Communication-Satisfaction Composite**

The study participants were asked to respond to five demographic and professional characteristics: tenure, unit assignment (division), educational level, management level (rank), and age. To explore the strength of the relationship between key demographic and professional
characteristics and overall communication satisfaction, the Pearson correlation coefficients were computed.

In the following analyses, we examined the composite score reflecting overall communication satisfaction. Responses were made on seven-point scales indicating the degree of participant satisfaction with various aspects of organizational communication in the TNP (1= Very Dissatisfied, 7= Very Satisfied) and composite score was computed by summing across items. Therefore, the items for the communication satisfaction construct were summed to form composite score for communication satisfaction. Accordingly, the communication satisfaction composite of this study is a 50-item additive composite score and the highest possible score is 350, while the lowest possible score is 50.

Table 23: Pearson Correlation Coefficients between Demographic and Professional Characteristics and the Overall Communication-Satisfaction Composite

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall Communication Satisfaction Composite</th>
<th>Tenure</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Educational Level</th>
<th>Management Level</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.010</td>
<td>.077</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td>-.024</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.951</td>
<td>.145</td>
<td>.605</td>
<td>.649</td>
<td>.967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in Table 23, all demographic and professional characteristics exhibited too small of a correlation with overall communication satisfaction to take either into consideration, and the results were not significant. Therefore, the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that tenure, unit assignment (division), educational level, management level (rank), age and overall communication satisfaction are not significantly correlated in the TNP. This means that there were no statistically significant relationship between the officers’ characteristics and their
overall communication satisfaction. Furthermore, tenure, unit assignment (division), educational level, management level (rank), and age have no effect on officers’ satisfaction with communication procedures in the TNP.

**Comparison of the Affect of Length of Tenure on the Overall Communication-Satisfaction Composite**

To determine whether a difference exists in the means of overall communication satisfaction based on length of tenure, a one-way ANOVA test was performed. At the 5% significance level, the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that no difference exists in the mean responses to the overall communication-satisfaction composite in different tenure groups.

As can be seen in Table 24, the one-way ANOVA test result is not significant. Therefore, there is no relationship between the length of tenure and overall communication satisfaction. This means that the length of tenure does not affect the level of Turkish officers’ satisfaction with the overall communication practices of the TNP.

**Table 24: ANOVA Test and Comparison of the Mean Responses on the Overall Communication Satisfaction Composite among Officers in Different Tenure Groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1925.948</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>481.487</td>
<td>.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>777432.466</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>2202.358</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>779358.413</td>
<td>357</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Comparison of the Affect of Management Level (Ranks) on the Overall Communication-Satisfaction Composite

To determine whether a difference exists among the means of the overall communication-satisfaction of officers among the four management levels, a one-way ANOVA test with was performed.

Table 25: ANOVA Test and Comparison of the Mean Responses on the Overall Communication Satisfaction Composite among Officers in Different Management Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>4339.900</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1446.633</td>
<td>.661</td>
<td>.577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>775018.513</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>2189.318</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>779358.413</td>
<td>357</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of differences among different management levels, the one-way ANOVA test showed no significant differences. At the 5% significance level, the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that no difference exists in the mean responses on the overall communication-satisfaction in different management level (rank) groups. This means that there is no significant relationship between management level and overall communication satisfaction. In other words, management level does not significantly affect the level of Turkish officers’ satisfaction with the overall communication practices of the TNP.

The Study Results Related to the First Part of Research Question 7

Based on the above correlation-coefficient computations, one-way ANOVA tests, and explanations, the first part of Research Question 7 (“What is the impact of years of police service and management level on communication satisfaction and organizational commitment?”) can be calculated and assessed.
Years of police service (tenure) exhibited too small of a correlation (-0.010) with the overall communication satisfaction composite to warrant attention. This means that the strength of officers’ satisfaction with communication practices of the TNP is not changed by the length of tenure. There is no relationship between tenure and overall communication satisfaction for the sample in the TNP.

In addition, the one-way ANOVA test result showed that no difference exists in the mean responses to the overall communication-satisfaction composite in different tenure groups. This means that the length of tenure does not affect the level of Turkish officers’ satisfaction with the overall communication practices of the TNP. Accordingly, to be a line officer with 10 years of tenure or 15 years of tenure, the length of tenure does not affect the level of overall communication satisfaction.

Furthermore, management level also exhibited too small of a correlation (-0.024) with the overall communication satisfaction composite to take into consideration. This means that the officers’ satisfaction with communication practices of the TNP is not changed by management level (rank). As a result, there is no relationship between management level (i.e., line officer, lower-, middle-, and upper-level manager) and overall communication satisfaction for the sample in the TNP.

In addition, the one-way ANOVA test result showed that no difference exists in the mean responses to the overall communication-satisfaction composite in different management level groups. In other words, management level does not significantly affect the level of Turkish officers’ satisfaction with the overall communication practices of the TNP. Accordingly, to be a line officer or a middle-level manager does not affect the level of overall communication satisfaction.
The Pearson Correlation Coefficients between Demographic/Professional Characteristics and the Overall Organizational Commitment Composite

Pearson correlation coefficients between the key demographic and professional characteristics and the commitment composite were computed to explore the relationship between these variables.

The demographic characteristics of Turkish officers are likely help to make various assessments of communication satisfaction and commitment. For example, are more educated police officers of the TNP more satisfied with communication procedure? What organizational and demographic characteristics seem most important to predict the level of commitment? Accurate descriptions of variables, predictions, and explanations are among the contributions that qualitative method makes to analysis (Champion 2006).

As can be seen in Table 26, all demographic and professional characteristics exhibited too small of a correlation with the overall commitment composite to warrant attention. The results were not significant.

Therefore, the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that tenure, unit assignment (division), educational level, management level (rank), age and the overall organizational-commitment are not significantly correlated in the TNP. This means that the key professional characteristics (i.e., tenure, unit assignment (division), educational level, management level (rank), and age) do not affect the level of officers’ commitment to the TNP.
Table 26: Pearson Correlation Coefficients between Demographic and Professional Characteristics and the Overall Organizational Commitment Composite

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall Organizational Commitment Composite</th>
<th>Tenure</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Educational Level</th>
<th>Management Level</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>-.016</td>
<td>-.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.969</td>
<td>.1184</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>.764</td>
<td>.677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As argued by Nuss, studies of police organizational commitment have revealed that the results regarding the relationship between demographic characteristics and commitment are inconsistent (Nuss 2006). Moreover, McNabb noted that the results of some study showed that officers’ demographic characteristics does not play a direct role to affect the level of organizational commitment, but rather play an intervening function (McNabb 2009). Therefore, the findings of this study are consistent with the literature.

**Comparison of the Effects of Length of Tenure on the Overall Organizational-Commitment Composite**

To determine whether a difference exists in the means of the overall organizational-commitment composite because of length of tenure, a one-way ANOVA test was performed. As seen in the one-way ANOVA test results in Table 27, at the 5% significance level, the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that no difference exists in the means of the organizational-commitment composite among tenure groups (i.e., 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years, and 21 years and over). As a result, one can say that the level of Turkish officers’ commitment to the TNP does not differ by length of tenure.
Table 27: ANOVA Test and Comparison of the Mean Responses on the Overall Organizational-Commitment Composite among Officers in Different Tenure Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>78.615</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19.654</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>.982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>68709.175</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>194.644</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68787.791</td>
<td>357</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tenure (year of service) is a demographic factor which receives ample attentions in the police organizational commitment literature (Nuss 2006). There is an inconsistency in findings pertaining to the role tenure plays in organizational commitment. For example, the finding of this study about tenure parallels the work of Metcalfe and Dick. They found that tenure had a very weak correlation with organizational commitment. However, the finding is not consistent with work of Van Maanen and Beck and Wilson. Van Maanen found a steady decrease in commitment with increasing tenure in a sample of police cadets (Van Maanen 1972). Beck and Wilson also found that when tenure increased, organizational commitment levels steadily and persistently decreased over time in a sample of police officers (Beck and Wilson 2000).

Comparison of the Effects of Management Level (Rank) on the Overall Organizational-Commitment Composite

A one-way ANOVA test was performed to determine whether a difference exists in the means of the overall Turkish officers’ organization commitment among the four management level groups (i.e., line officers and low-, middle-, and upper-level managers). As seen in Table 28, the one-way ANOVA test yielded no significant results. At the 5% significance level, the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that no difference exists in the means of the overall-organizational commitment composite among the four management level groups. As a result, one can conclude that the level of Turkish officers’ commitment to the TNP does not vary by
management level. This means that to be a line officer or an upper-level manager does not affect the level of commitment to the TNP.

Table 28: ANOVA Test and Comparison of the Mean Responses on the Overall Organizational Commitment Composite among Officers in Different Management Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>47.346</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.782</td>
<td>.081</td>
<td>.970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>68740.445</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>194.182</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68787.791</td>
<td>357</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Findings Relevant to the Second Part of Research Question 7**

Based on the above correlation-coefficient computations, ANOVA tests, and explanations, the second part of Research Question 7 (“What is the impact of years of police service (tenure) and management level on communication satisfaction and organizational commitment?”) can be answered.

Years of police service (tenure) exhibited too small of a correlation (0.002) with the overall commitment composite. This means that the strength of officers’ commitment to the TNP is not changed by the length of tenure. There is no relationship between tenure and overall organizational commitment for the sample in the TNP.

In addition, the one-way ANOVA test result showed that that no difference exists in the means of the overall-organizational commitment composite among the tenure groups. This means that the level of Turkish officers’ commitment to the TNP does not differ by length of tenure. Accordingly, to be a lower level manager with 10 years of tenure or 15 years of tenure, the length of tenure does not affect the level of overall commitment.
Furthermore, management level (rank) exhibited too small of a correlation (-0.016) with the overall commitment composite to warrant attention. As a result, management level (officer’s rank i.e., line officer, lower-, middle-, and upper-level manager) does not impact officers’ overall organizational commitment to the TNP.

In addition, the one-way ANOVA test result showed that no difference exists in the means of the overall-organizational commitment composite among the four management level groups. This means that the level of Turkish officers’ commitment to the TNP does not differ by management level. Accordingly, to be a line officer or an upper level manager does not affect the level of commitment to the TNP.

As a result, management level (i.e., line officer, lower-, middle-, and upper-level manager) does not impact officers’ overall communication satisfaction and organizational commitment to the TNP. This means that the strength of officers’ satisfaction with communication practices of the TNP and their level of commitment to the TNP are not changed by management level.

**Comparison of Officers’ Unit Assignment on the**

**Overall Communication Satisfaction Composite**

To determine whether a difference exists in the means of overall communication-satisfaction based on unit assignment, a one-way ANOVA test was performed. Table 29: ANOVA Test and Comparison of the Mean Responses on the Overall Communication Satisfaction Composite among Officers in Different Unit Assignments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>20828.274</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2314.253</td>
<td>1.062</td>
<td>.391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>758530.140</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>2179.684</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>779358.413</td>
<td>357</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In terms of differences among different unit assignments, the one-way ANOVA test result is not significant. At the 5% significance level, the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that no difference exists in the mean responses on the overall communication-satisfaction in different unit assignments.

This means that the unit assignment does not affect the level of Turkish officers’ satisfaction with the TNP communication system. Accordingly, working in a crime prevention/crime control unit or in a police station does not affect the level of overall communication satisfaction.

**Comparison of Officers’ Unit Assignment on the Overall Organizational-Commitment Composite**

To determine whether a difference exists in the means of the overall organizational-commitment composite because of unit assignment, a one-way ANOVA test was performed.

Table 30: ANOVA Test and Comparison of the Mean Responses on the Overall Organizational-Commitment Composite among Officers in Different Unit Assignments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1210.171</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>134.463</td>
<td>.692</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>67577.620</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>194.189</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68787.791</td>
<td>357</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in the one-way ANOVA test result, at the 5% significance level, the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that no difference exists in the means of the organizational-commitment composite among units (i.e., crime prevention/crime control units, riot police, and support/logistics units). As a result, one can say that the level of Turkish officers’ commitment to the TNP does not differ by unit assignments.
Study Results Related to Research Question 8

Based on the above correlation-coefficient computations, one-way ANOVA test, and explanations, Research Question 8 ("What are the potential influences of unit assignment factor on organizational commitment and communication satisfaction?") can be answered.

Unit assignment exhibited too small of a correlation (0.070) with the overall commitment composite. This means that the strength of officers’ commitment to the TNP is not changed by unit assignment. There is no relationship between unit assignment and overall organizational commitment for the sample in the TNP.

In addition, the one-way ANOVA test result showed that no difference exists in the means of the overall-organizational commitment composite among the unit assignment groups. This means that the level of Turkish officers’ commitment to the TNP does not differ by length of tenure. Accordingly, working in an administrative or anti-terror unit does not affect the level of overall commitment to the TNP.

Unit assignment also exhibited too small of a correlation (0.077) with the overall communication satisfaction composite to take into consideration. This means that the officers’ satisfaction with communication practices of the TNP is not changed by unit assignment. As a result, there is no relationship between unit assignment (i.e., crime prevention/crime control units, riot police units, support/logistic units, education-training units, administrative units, organized crime/narcotics units, anti-terror/Intelligence units, traffic units, and police station) and overall communication satisfaction for the sample in the TNP.

Additionally, the one-way ANOVA test result showed that no difference exists in the mean responses to the overall communication-satisfaction composite in different unit assignment. In other words, unit assignment does not significantly affect the level of Turkish officers’ satisfaction with the overall communication practices of the TNP.
The data provided sufficient evidence to conclude that the unit assignment has no potential influence on the level of TNP officers’ overall organizational commitment or overall communication-satisfaction. This means that the strength of officers’ satisfaction with communication practices of the TNP and the level of their commitment to the TNP are not changed by unit assignment.

As a result, the data provided sufficient evidence to conclude that professional and demographic characteristics impact neither TNP officers’ satisfaction with organizational communication practices nor their level of commitment to the TNP.

**Correlation between the Overall Organizational-Commitment Composite and Intent to Remain**

The Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to measure the strength of correlation between the commitment composite score and Intent to Remain. Single item measures of respondents’ intent to remain with the TNP is established through a question on seven-point scales ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree in the questionnaire. Intent to Remain is a measure of the extent to which Turkish officers indicate their intention to leave or remain with the TNP. It was processed as a subject’s responses to the statement, “I frequently think of quitting this job for good.” Therefore, Intent to Remain for this study is not a part of the organizational commitment composite. Possible responses ranged from $1 = \text{strongly disagree}$ to $7 = \text{strongly agree}$ on a seven-point Likert scale.

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. The coefficient score (0.670) shows that Intent to Remain and the commitment-composite variables are positively and linearly correlated variables. There is a positive relationship between them. This means that Intent to Remain tends to increase linearly in a perfect manner as the commitment-composite score increases.
Table 31: Pearson Correlation Coefficient between the Overall Organizational Commitment Composite and Intent to Remain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall Organizational Commitment Composite</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.670 (**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

As communication satisfaction and its relationship to organizational commitment and ultimately intent to remain is not directly observable in a naturalistic setting, but rather based on perceptions of the participants, and since the purpose of the research is to discover the relationship among variables and cause and effect, the researcher chose a survey method, utilizing primarily quantitative analyses. In qualitative method, police officers of different ranks or units may not view issues the same way and this is likely to yield misleading results and interpretations (Babbie 2004).

Data Related to the Second Part of Research Question 5 and to Research Question 9

Based on the above multiple-regression computation and results, the answer to the second part of Research Question 5 (“What impact does communication satisfaction have on organizational commitment, and eventually intent to remain with the TNP?”) and to Research Question 9 (“What are the underlying factors of Turkish officers’ organizational commitment and intent to remain?”) can be given.

The Pearson correlation coefficients between overall organizational commitment and the communication-satisfaction factors show that all communication-satisfaction factors have positive correlation with the overall organizational-commitment composite. This means that as highly educated Turkish officers’ satisfaction with all communication satisfaction factors
increases, there is a strong tendency for the overall organizational commitment to increase positively and linearly.

Furthermore, the results obtained by applying the stepwise multiple-regression analysis shows that there are three significant communication-satisfaction factors that predict the level of TNP officers’ commitment to the TNP. These factors are as follows: Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, and Relationship and Communication with Superiors. Therefore, these predictor factors are the most significant factors that are likely to have a positive impact on the TNP officers’ commitment to remain with the organization. This means that the level of police officers’ commitment to the TNP tends to increase positively and linearly as their satisfaction with communication climate, organizational integration and supervisory communication goes up in the TNP.

The Pearson correlation coefficient between the commitment composite score and Intent to Remain (0.670) shows that Intent to Remain and the commitment-composite variables are positively and linearly correlated variables. Eventually, the intentions of Turkish officers to remain with the TNP tend to increase positively and linearly as their commitment goes up to the TNP. Briefly, Communication satisfaction has a positive impact on organizational commitment and eventually intent to remain with the TNP.

In addition, the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that tenure, management level, age, unit assignment, and educational level have no effect on the level of officers’ commitment to the TNP. All demographic and professional characteristics exhibited too small of a correlation with the overall commitment composite to warrant attention. Accordingly, there were no statistically significant relationship between the officers’ demographic and professional characteristics and the overall organizational-commitment. The results were not significant. This
also indicates that demographic and professional characteristics do not have any effect on the intentions of officers to remain with the TNP.

One-way ANOVA test results also provide sufficient evidence that no difference exists in the means of the organizational-commitment composite for demographic and professional characteristics. As a result, one can say that the level of Turkish officers’ commitment to the TNP does not differ by demographic and professional characteristics.

**Data Results for Research Question 10**

Based on the above stepwise multiple-regression procedure and Pearson correlation, the answer to Research Question 10 (Does organizational commitment mediate the relationship between communication satisfaction and intent to remain?) can be given.

The correlation coefficient scores between the communication satisfaction factors and the organizational commitment composite indicate that there is a linear and positive correlation between these variables. According to the results of the stepwise multiple regression analysis, there are three significant predictors of overall organizational commitment: Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, and Relationship and Communication with Superiors.

In addition, there is a positively and moderately strong relationship between the overall communication satisfaction and the overall organizational-commitment the of educated officers to the TNP. A positive value of the Pearson correlation coefficient (0.567) suggests that the nature of the relationship is moderately strong and linearly positive.

Furthermore, the correlation coefficient score between the organizational commitment composite and Intent to Remain was 0.670, which indicates a strong linear and positive correlation. As a result, for this study, the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that organizational commitment mediates the relationship between communication satisfaction and intent to remain.
Cumulative Results Related to the Central Study Research Question

Based on the above multiple-regression analysis, correlation-coefficient computations, and explanations, the answer to the Central Research Question (What is the relationship between organizational commitment and communication satisfaction of educated officers within the TNP?) can be assessed.

The data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that there is a positively and moderately strong relationship between the overall organizational-commitment and the communication satisfaction factors of educated officers in the TNP. All communication-satisfaction factors indicate positive correlation with the overall organizational-commitment ranging from 0.537 to 0.313. The most influential and functionally strong communication factors (with coefficient in parentheses) are Communication Climate (0.537), Organizational Integration (0.506), and Relationship and Communication with Superiors (0.487).

In addition, the data showed that there is a positively and moderately strong relationship between the overall organizational-commitment and the overall communication satisfaction of educated officers in the TNP. A positive value of the Pearson correlation coefficient (0.567) suggests that the nature of the relationship is moderately strong and linearly positive.

Positive values of the Pearson correlation coefficient suggest that the nature of the relationship between organizational commitment and communication satisfaction is moderately strong and linearly positive. Accordingly, as the officers’ communication satisfaction increases, there is a moderately strong tendency for the organizational commitment to increase positively and linearly in the TNP. These findings indicate that TNP officers’ satisfaction with the amount of information and the communication system itself is likely to enhance their commitment to the TNP.
The Influences of Sampling Procedure on the Findings

The participants of this study have reported higher levels of organizational commitment to the TNP. The mean score of commitment for the entire data set was 4.91. A possible explanation for the high commitment perceptions for the sample of police officers could be related to the functions and privileges of being ranked officers in the TNP. Due to the quality of higher education, officers may have chances to be promoted to the highest ranks in the TNP. As responsibilities for policy and administration increase, the quality of commitment may also increase.

Another possible explanation for the high commitment perceptions of the officers is likely to be related to a situational attribute of the sample of this study. The majority of the participants in this study are senior police officers who are motivated for higher positions in policing career and ultimately command level of the TNP. They might expect a good position for the future and, therefore, may wish to more frequently demonstrate their commitment to TNP values and initiatives. Officers seem to be reluctant to give up what they have accomplished. Owing to the current rank structure and size of the TNP there is a vast opportunity for advancement or higher rank.

In addition, the participants’ rank may provide them with status and good connections within their work environment which may increase their commitment level. Therefore, the participants of this study may have reported higher levels of commitment due to dedication to their profession and to the opportunities for both professional advancement and promotion to greater TNP responsibility. The commitment literature supports this assumption. For example, Van Maanen points out that “occupational commitment (i.e. police work) is a large component of organizational commitment within police environment – one must first join in an organization which, in turn, locates him within the police community generally” (Van Maanen 1972, 106).
Ranking police officers have some privileges as well as responsibilities due to their ranks. For example, it is likely that they have better working conditions such as office spaces, cars, equipment and greater autonomy. While non-ranked police officers usually work in shift systems in the TNP, ranked officers generally work in offices in the organization.

Conversely, the participants of this study have reported lower levels of communication satisfaction. The mean score of overall communication satisfaction for the entire data set was 4.01. This means that Turkish officers are not very satisfied with a variety of communication processes within the TNP.

A possible explanation for the low communication satisfaction perceptions for the sample of police officers could be related to the expectations of being ranked officers in the TNP. Highly educated and ranking officers may be somewhat unique with respect to their expectation. This attribute is likely to lead highly educated and senior officers to demand more to be satisfied with their jobs. Therefore, it may be especially difficult to satisfy such officers in the organization.

Another possible explanation for the low communication satisfaction perceptions of the officers is likely that the TNP gives employees little guidance on how it expects them to communicate. Formulating an organizational policy on communication is likely to clarify the TNP’s expectations to officers explicitly. In addition, the formal and highly bureaucratic structure of the TNP may hinder the flow of written and oral messages. It is likely that the command structure of a para-military organization generates different communication practices and cultures than a civil service oriented organization (Henderson 2012).

As mentioned in this Chapter, when comparing the mean scores of communication satisfaction and organizational commitment of the 358 Turkish police officers who participated in this study, the analysis of demographic and professional characteristics (tenure, rank, educational level, unit assignment, and age) showed that none of those aforementioned variables revealed
statistically significant differences between group means. The findings are consistent with previous organizational commitment studies in policing which revealed that demographic variables have very limited effect to be a determinant of commitment among police officers.

Some demographic and professional characteristics were expected to be an influencing factor on the level of officers’ communication satisfaction and commitment. In particular, unit assignment was estimated to be a variable that has a negative effect on commitment for this study; however, the finding showed that there was no relationship between unit assignment and commitment for the sample of police officers.

To presents the general conclusions based on the statistical findings and computations in this chapter, the main conclusions are grouped as follows:

1. Relationship between communication satisfaction and organizational commitment
2. Communication satisfaction
3. Organizational commitment
4. Research questionnaires

Conclusions on the Relationship between Communication Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

The survey data showed that communication satisfaction had significant influences on Turkish officers’ commitment to the TNP. Stepwise multiple-regression analyses and the Pearson correlation coefficients showed that the variables of communication satisfaction and officers’ organizational commitment were positively and linearly correlated, meaning that organizational commitment tends to increase linearly and positively as communication satisfaction increases in the TNP. Some of the communication-satisfaction factors significantly predicted organizational commitment to the TNP.
To select the best set of communication-satisfaction factors to predict the level of Turkish officers’ overall commitment to the TNP, a stepwise regression was performed. According to the results of the stepwise multiple-regression analysis, there were three significant predictors of overall organizational commitment: (a) Communication Climate, (b) Organizational Integration, and (c) Relationship and Communication with Superiors. Satisfaction with the communication climate, organizational integration and supervisory communication was aspects of communication satisfaction that related significantly to officers’ commitment to the TNP. The results showed that the score of the coefficient of determination, $R^2$, of the third model was equal to 0.333. This means that 33.3% of the variance in the overall organizational-commitment composite can be explained by these three communication satisfaction predictor factors.

The Pearson correlation coefficients between overall organizational commitment and the communication-satisfaction factors were computed to explore the strength of the relationship between these variables. All communication-satisfaction factors indicated positive correlation with the overall organizational-commitment composite, ranging from 0.313 to 0.537.

The signs of the correlation coefficients for these factors suggest that the variables are positively and linearly correlated variables. This means that as Turkish officers’ satisfaction with the communication climate, organizational integration and supervisory communication increases, there is a strong tendency for the overall organizational commitment to linearly and positively increase.

The Communication Climate factor was found to be the most statistically significant predictor factor of overall Turkish officers’ commitment to the TNP (the coefficient score: 0.537). The Communication Climate factor basically deals with general attitudes toward the communication system and examines whether the communication system stimulates officers to feel they are part of the organization. For example, the following questionnaire item was one of
those seeking information about the communication climate in the TNP: “Extent to which communication at the TNP makes me identify with it or feel a part of it.” This means that as long as communication procedures of the TNP make Turkish officers feel that they are part of the TNP, organization commitment tends to increase.

The second strongest predictor-satisfaction factor was Organizational Integration (the coefficient score: 0.506). This factor had a moderately strong and positively linear relationship with organizational commitment. Organizational Integration deals with the information that officers receive about their job requirements, their benefits, and the organization’s policies and goals. If the officers are given adequate information to perform their job at the TNP, that satisfaction is likely to increase the strength of Turkish officers’ commitment to the organization.

The third strongest communication-satisfaction factor was Relationship and Communication with Superiors (the coefficient score: 0.487). This factor explores subordinates’ perceptions of whether the ideas, demands, and messages from the subordinate level can reach the superior levels. Relationship and Communication with Subordinates was the factor that had the lowest correlation score with the overall organizational-commitment composite.

The results showed that as officers’ satisfaction with communication procedures increased, so did their level of commitment to the organization; as officers’ satisfaction with communication procedures decreased, so did their level of commitment to the organization. Briefly, more-committed officers were significantly more satisfied with the TNP’s communication system.

**Conclusions on Communication Satisfaction**

Turkish officers rated their overall satisfaction with communication practices at the midrange on a scale of 1 (very dissatisfied) to 7 (very satisfied). The mean score of the overall communication satisfaction for the entire data set was 4.02, which was very close to “indifferent”
category. This means that Turkish officers were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the overall communication practices of the TNP. They actually reported neutral attitudes toward the degree of satisfaction with overall communication procedures.

TNP officers were more satisfied with certain communication practices within their organization. Specific communication satisfaction items and factors had greater levels of satisfaction than other items and factors. For example, TNP officers were more satisfied with Horizontal Communication than they were with other communication practices within the TNP. The mean value of the Horizontal Communication factor was 4.83, which was very close to the “slightly satisfied” category. On the other hand, satisfaction with communication concerning Organizational Perspective received the lowest score (the mean vale: 3.28). While top-management communication usually is unpopular among the lower-level officers in organizations, this is not the case within the TNP. The Relationship and Communication with Top Management factor was not one of the communication factors that fell into the least-satisfied category.

Similarly, CSQ Item 25 [Extent to which the grapevine (informal communication) is active at the TNP], CSQ Item 22 (Extent to which my supervisor trusts me), CSQ Item 29 (Extent to which my work group is compatible), CSQ Item 37 (Extent to which my subordinates anticipate my needs for information), and CSQ Item 40 (Extent to which my subordinates feel responsible for initiating accurate upward communication) were the TNP communication practices with which officers were the most satisfied. The mean score of CSQ Item 25 was 5.43, which is between “slightly satisfied” and “satisfied.” This means that TNP officers were slightly satisfied with the grapevine (informal communication) in the TNP.

On the contrary, information about employee benefits and pay (CSQ Item 12), information about the organization financial standing (CSQ Item 13), information about
government action affecting the TNP (CSQ Item 9), information about TNP organizational policies and goals (CSQ Item 3), and information about how I am being judged (CSQ Item 5) were the communication practices with which TNP officers were least satisfied.

One-Way ANOVA tests were performed to compare and determine significant differences of the means of the CSQ for different demographic and professional characteristics, lengths of tenure, management levels (rank), and unit assignments.

The data provided sufficient evidence to conclude that the key demographic and professional characteristics (lengths of tenure, management levels, age, educational levels, and unit assignments) have no potential influence on the level of communication satisfaction.

Hence, officers’ overall level of satisfaction with communication practices of the TNP is not changed by length of tenure, management levels, age, educational levels, and unit assignments. This means that to be a line officer with five years of employment or a captain with 20 years of employment does not affect the overall level of satisfaction with communication practices of the TNP.

The survey questionnaires included officers’ unit assignment as a variable relevant to the structure of the TNP. The unit assignment factor was expected to influence officers’ communication satisfaction. However, the results showed that unit assignment did not affect the level of communication satisfaction.

Conclusions on Organizational Commitment

The Turkish officers rated their level of agreement with the organizational commitment questions above the midrange on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The mean score of commitment for the entire data set was 4.91, which was near the “somewhat agree” category.
The statistical results showed that for Turkish officers, the organizational-commitment items with which they indicated the strongest agreement were as follows:

1. OCQ Item 13: “I really care about the fate of this organization.”
2. OCQ Item 6: “I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.”
3. OCQ Item 1: “I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.”
4. OCQ Item 15: “Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.” (This question was a reverse-scored item.)

The results showed that Turkish officers really care about the fate of the TNP. Moreover, the results showed that Turkish officers are proud to tell others that they are part of the TNP and that they are willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help the TNP be successful. These results also mean that Turkish officers agreed that deciding to work for the TNP was not a definite mistake on their part.

Conversely, the statistical results showed that for Turkish officers, the commitment aspects with which they indicated the strongest disagreement were as follows:

1. OCQ item 12: “Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization’s policies on important matters relating to its employees.” (This question was a reverse-scored item.)
2. OCQ item 8; “This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.”
3. OCQ item 7: “I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.” (This question was a reverse-scored item.)
4. OCQ item 11: “There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.” (This question was a reverse-scored item.)
The results showed that Turkish officers are not inspired very well to perform their job.

The key demographic and professional characteristics seemed to have no explanatory power regarding employees’ commitment levels to the TNP. No significant differences in the overall-commitment composite score were explored with respect to length of tenure, management level, and unit assignments. The one-way ANOVA test results showed no significant differences for overall organizational commitment.

At the 5% significance level, the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that a difference does not exist in the means of the overall organizational commitment among Turkish officers in four different management level groups: line officers and low-, middle-, and upper-level manager. As a result, it emerged that the strength of commitment among TNP officers did not vary by rank. Thus, being a line officer or an upper-level manager did not affect the strength of commitment to the TNP. Similarly, the ANOVA tests of the overall commitment by length of tenure showed no significant differences. Thus, working with the TNP for five years or 20 years did not affect the strength of commitment to the TNP among Turkish officers.

According to the ANOVA test results, the data provided sufficient evidence to conclude that a difference does not exist in the mean for organizational commitment among Turkish officers based on educational level. Officers of varying educational levels had the same level of commitment to the organization. It can be inferred that the commitment level of TNP officers do not vary by educational level.

All of the key demographic and professional characteristics exhibited too small of a correlation with overall organizational commitment to be considered, and none of results were significant. Therefore, the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that tenure, management level, unit assignment, age, and educational level and overall organizational commitment were
not correlated variables in the TNP. These variables have no effect on the level of officers’ commitment to the organization.

Conclusions on the Research Instruments

To determine the reliability of the research instruments, the test/re-test method was used; the same instruments were administered to the same persons on two different occasions. The results of the test and re-test surveys were compared by calculating the correlation coefficient scores between the two sets of data. The reliability coefficient between the test/re-test administrations for the Downs and Hazen’s CSQ was 0.961. Similarly, the reliability coefficient between the two administrations for the Mowday, Porter, and Steers’ OCQ was 0.963. Both correlations were significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). As a result, the test/re-test data provided sufficient evidence to conclude that the CSQ and the OCQ were perfectly reliable survey instruments to administer for this research study.

The CSQ received a very high score (0.961) for the Cronbach’s alpha. The consistency on the intercorrelation of questions was satisfactory for this instrument measuring officers’ level of satisfaction with organizational-communication procedures. Also, the Cronbach’s alpha for the OCQ was 0.872. The consistency on the intercorrelations of questions was satisfactory for this questionnaire. Therefore, the reliability of the items for the OCQ was good. As a result, both of the research instruments, the Downs and Hazen’s CSQ and the Mowday, Porter, and Steers’ OCQ, proved to be reliable instruments to measure communication satisfaction and organizational commitment.
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

This research study explored organizational-communication satisfaction, organizational commitment, and the relationship between these concepts in the TNP.

Several important conclusions emerged from the study’s research findings. This chapter presents the general conclusions based on the statistical findings and computations in chapter IV. Primarily, the findings of the study showed that communication satisfaction and organizational commitment are significantly related to each other and TNP officers’ satisfaction with the amount of information and the communication system itself is likely to enhance their commitment to the TNP and eventually intent to remain with the organization. This chapter also discusses the significance of the findings for:

1. The overall goal and objective of the study,
2. For theory and concepts such as organizational communication and organizational commitment,
3. For the utility of methodology, particularly using survey research instead of narrative or more qualitative methodologies, and
4. For policy and administration of the TNP.

In addition, this chapter presents some suggestions for future research in the TNP or different organizations and the limitations of the findings.

The Overall Goal and Objective of the Study

The primary objective of this study was to examine the relationship between internal communication satisfaction and organizational commitment of the police officers in the TNP who are pursuing a graduate degree and those who already have received at least one of degrees from
an institution of higher learning. Moreover, the purpose of understanding the correlation among the variables of organizational commitment, communication satisfaction and intent to leave employment with the TNP was to understand how to reduce turnover and the costs associated with retaining highly qualified and skilled employees.

While the primary intended outcome of this study was to advance the understanding of factors and forces affecting organizational commitment of targeted police officers, this study also was intended to identify strategies that will advance communication procedures and ultimately organizational commitment. Therefore, the results of this study are likely to be used to develop and implement new effective communication strategies and revise current organizational communication policies and practices that will help to maximize organizational commitment and ultimately the overall efficiency of the TNP. Also, the results can be used to enhance the level of organizational commitment among highly skilled and educated police officers aspiring to the command level of the TNP.

This study assessed current communication policies, satisfaction appraisals, and determined future directions for meeting the needs of skilled police officers. The empirical findings of this project provided a better perception of the concepts of communication satisfaction and organizational commitment. By understanding the relationship between communication satisfaction and organizational commitment, TNP managers may better identify and apply communication strategies and policies to motivate their police personnel.

The officers’ attitudes toward and perceptions about communication at the TNP has been determined to be a factor that influences the organizational commitment of police officers and their intention to remain with the organization. Retaining qualified and highly educated police officers with the TNP can reduce employee turnover and organizational cost.
A brief search of the literature focused on police studies in Turkey shows a lack of research conducted specifically to assess levels of police officers’ communication satisfaction and its relationship with other important organizational variables, such as organizational commitment and employee turnover. Therefore, this study represents a significant contribution to the exploration of the relationships between communication satisfaction and commitment constructs among highly educated Turkish officers.

The Significance of the Findings for Theory and Concept

Having a large number of committed employees is of interest to all organizations (Mathieu and Zajac 1990). An increase in the number of less committed employees is more likely to pose a number of serious problems for an organization, such as turnover, resignations, tardiness, failure to meet deadlines, failure to fulfill work responsibilities and absenteeism (Hargie et al. 2002).

The findings of this study showed that the answer to the problem of reduced employee commitment and improved organizational effectiveness may be achieved by establishing a dynamic internal communication and knowledge-sharing system in the organization. This means that the development of such an effective and dynamic communication environment within the TNP leads to greater communication satisfaction that may enhance commitment and develop a feeling of attachment to the organization.

The findings of this study confirmed that communication satisfaction, as a work experience, is an important contributor to the development of commitment and organizational behavior, including intent to remain, verified the potential utility of an affective view of commitment. It was also proven that commitment is connected with increases in an officer’s desire and intent to remain with the TNP (Steers 1977).
Furthermore, the study revealed that if officers are employed in an organization that does not implement effective communication procedures and provide an ideal communication climate, they are likely to be dissatisfied with organizational communication. Eventually, officers may have poorer organizational commitment. As a result, it is likely that they begin to think of resigning. Indeed, the findings cannot be generalized to the whole organization or the ability to generalize of the findings can be considered to be limited. However, the results and findings can be generalized to highly educated TNP population because the data are mainly collected from this population.

The results are likely to make a valuable contribution to the literature as a unique experimental study in Turkish culture, regarding communication satisfaction and organizational commitment in the TNP. At the data-collection stage, all Turkish officers who participated in the survey did so voluntarily, and educational levels of the respondents were extremely high. The lowest educational level for a respondent was master’s degree student at an institution of higher learning.

By asking questions about satisfaction with the communication system and organizational commitment, the study provided a view of the Turkish elite ranking officers through the eyes of more than 350 highly educated officers at different ranks and in different units across the country. Therefore, the data were not manipulated or exaggerated by the officers to make it better or worse. The statistical results showed that organizational-communication satisfaction and organizational commitment were positively and linearly correlated variables and that educational level did not significantly affect the strength of commitment to the organization, nor did it affect the level of satisfaction with organizational communication.
The Significance of the Findings for the Utility of Survey Methodology

The literature suggests that a survey design allows researchers to make a quantitative description of attitudes (Creswell, 2003). Therefore, a quantitative approach is eminently suitable for studying the relationship between communication satisfaction and commitment in this study. From this point of view, survey method was necessary and allowed the researcher to generalize the results to a larger population. As a result, quantitative method appears to be more successful with better results compared with qualitative method.

The Significance of the Findings for Policy and TNP Administration

The findings of this study are the results of quantitative analysis of the data collected through two different survey questionnaires. The results reflected what the TNP officers with different graduate degrees or educational levels perceived about the communication system of the TNP and the concept of commitment to the organization. The sample represents Turkish elite, highly educated and ranking officers at different ranks and in different units across the country. Highly educated and ranking officers may be somewhat unique with respect to their experiences in that such officers often find it easier to change jobs even career because education increases their potential opportunities in the labor market.

The statistical findings of the study showed that certain aspects of communication satisfaction were related to organizational commitment. As highly educated Turkish officers’ satisfaction with these communication procedures increased, so did their level of commitment to the organization; as these officers’ satisfaction with these communication procedures decreased, so did their level of commitment to the organization. Furthermore, commitment was found to be positively related to intent to remain for the sample of the study.

Some of the communication-satisfaction factors and their corresponding questionnaire items significantly predicted organizational commitment and officers’ intention to remain with
the TNP, particularly in the following areas: Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, Relations and Communication with Superiors. Based on the study findings, it is recommended that the TNP administration should pay close attention to these organizational-communication factors.

It is also recommended that the TNP administrators should also pay close attention to the communication factors with which the respondents were least satisfied as they apply to the TNP. These factor reflected low satisfaction, such as Organizational Perspective and Personal Feedback. This means that the TNP should give its employees sufficient information about overall organizational functioning, such as the fiscal condition of the organization, setting goals, policies, performance evaluations, determining working practices and changes, as well as government programs that are likely to affect the TNP.

The findings are considered particularly valuable and helpful for TNP administrators and the literature on organizational studies. Being better informed about the commitment and communication perceptions of Turkish police officers can increase the quality of the public service provided by the TNP. In addition, the findings of this study can contribute to policy formulation in the TNP. Formulating and careful planned an organizational policy on communication is likely to clarify the TNP’s expectations to officers explicitly. Ultimately, this may help to increase the communication satisfaction and organizational commitment of highly educated employees to the TNP.

The TNP should implement a formal education program in all the departments. Moreover, Turkish National Police Academy and Police Vocational Schools should put an education program into practice to teach police officer to be a skilled officer in the communication field. The TNP continues to undergo many changes as a result of Turkey’s decision to seek European Union membership. In light of this study’s findings, one ramification of these changes could be
the implementation of efficient communication procedures to increase commitment to the TNP. Eventually and inevitably, issues of communication will not only be internal to the TNP but external in relation to a more integrated European law enforcement policy, structure, and system.

**The Significance of the Findings for the Study Researcher**

The researcher made every attempt to adhere to the rules and regulations of ethical considerations during the data-collection period. As a sign of obeying these principals and, given my role as a high ranking police official in the TNP, the Turkish officers who were attending a graduate school in the United States were excluded from the sample for administrative reasons. Doing so helped to ensure that an accurate and sincere representation of TNP officers regarding the questions included in the survey instruments.

The researcher interpreting the questionnaire results had considerable knowledge of the TNP and has been a senior member and officer in the TNP for 22 years. Hence, for future research studies in different organizational settings in Turkish culture, it is recommended that researchers be involved in the organizations that will be studied to make a more precise interpretation of the study results and will facilitate analysis and interpretation of the findings.

The study researcher not only recommends that an organizational policy on communication should be established in order to clarify the TNP’s organizational expectations to officers but, as a result of this research, will seek to play a role in the design, development and implementation of such a policy. Moreover, giving performance and constructive feedback will help employees to know whether they are working well for the organization.

**The Limitations of the Study**

The findings of this study are valuable for the TNP. It is important to take into consideration that the TNP is a huge organization in terms of providing security across the country. Soliciting a greater number of highly educated respondents from several different units
and management level provides a better opportunity to explore the relationship between the various dimension of communication satisfaction and organizational commitment. From this view alone, the sample is large enough to allow more accurate interpretation for the whole organization.

The major shortcoming of this study is that even though a sample size of 358 officers is sufficiently large for statistical analysis and the distribution of officers across units and management levels can be considered representative of the Turkish National Police, the results and findings of this study can be generalized to the whole TNP population is from a statistical point of view limited. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to the whole organization or the ability to generalize of the findings can be considered to be limited. However, the results and findings of this study can be generalized to highly educated TNP population, because the data are mainly collected from this population.

In addition, the results are also applicable to the whole police administrator population in the TNP, because the data were mainly collected from ranking officers and senior members of the TNP (97.3%). Currently, the population of ranking Turkish police officers is approximately 16,317 (Emniyet Genel Mudurlugu 2011).

**Some Suggestions for Future Research**

Some similar research studies did not employ all of the 10 factors of the CSQ. The Relationship and Communication with Top Management and the Inter-Divisional Communication factors were subsequently added to the communication-satisfaction scale. This study included all of the 10 communication-satisfaction factors to attain complete insight into the nature of organizational-communication satisfaction and organizational commitment. As a result, this research study contributes to the knowledge of the concept of communication satisfaction and organizational commitment in terms of sharing its empirical results with researchers in the
field. It is recommended that similar studies in the future use the 10 factors of the CSQ. A possibility for future research in Turkish culture for different organizations is the inclusion of the basic concept of this study.

Translation of an original questionnaire for use in a different culture needs to be considered cautiously in this kind of research. The translation should be performed carefully by a research team whose members are familiar with how to conduct a survey-method study. Moreover, the translated questionnaire must be tested and re-tested on a sample of subjects drawn from the same population. This will definitely help the questionnaire to be understood by each subject in a way that was intended in the original version. In addition, this procedure will make the questionnaire more relevant, valid, and reliable for the research sample to be studied.

Summary and Conclusions

This research study used two different survey questionnaires to examine the relationship between organizational commitment, as measured by the Mowday, Porter, and Steers’ OCQ and communication satisfaction, as measured by Downs and Hazen’s CSQ. The target population for this study was primarily senior Turkish police officers who were pursuing a master’s degree or a doctoral degree and those who already had received at least one of these degrees. The quantitative data were collected by an electronic version of the translated research questionnaires, which were sent through e-mail as a hyperlink to a Web page where the participants entered their responses.

The statistical results showed that Turkish officers were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with TNP communication practices. The mean score of the overall communication satisfaction for the entire data set was 4.01 on a scale of 1 (very dissatisfied) to 7 (very satisfied), which was very close to the “indifferent” level. The TNP officers were more satisfied with Horizontal Communication than they were with other communication aspects within the TNP.
The Turkish officers rated their level of agreement with the commitment questions above the midrange on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The mean score of commitment for the entire data set was 4.91, which is near the level of “somewhat agree.” This means that highly educated Turkish officers were committed to their organization.

The Pearson correlation coefficients between overall organizational commitment and the communication-satisfaction factors indicate that all communication-satisfaction factors indicate positive correlation with the overall organizational-commitment composite. This means that as Turkish officers’ satisfaction with all communication factors increases, there is a strong tendency for the overall organizational commitment to increase positively and linearly.

In addition, the data showed that there is a positively and moderately strong relationship between the overall organizational-commitment and the overall communication satisfaction of highly educated officers in the TNP. A positive value of the Pearson correlation coefficient (0.567) suggests that the nature of the relationship is moderately strong and linearly positive.

The results obtained by applying the stepwise multiple-regression analysis shows that there are three significant communication-satisfaction factors that predict the level of highly educated TNP officers’ commitment to the TNP. These factors are as follows: Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, and Relationship and Communication with Superiors. These factors and their corresponding questionnaire items were found to have the most statistically significant predictive power for organizational commitment to the TNP. The Pearson correlation coefficient between the commitment composite score and Intent to Remain (0.670) shows that Intent to Remain and the commitment-composite variables are positively and linearly correlated variables.

The key demographic and professional characteristic (e.g., tenure, rank, educational level, unit assignment, and age) exhibited too small of a correlation with overall organizational
commitment to be considered, and none of results were significant. Therefore, the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that tenure, rank, educational level, unit assignment, age, and overall organizational commitment were not correlated variables in the TNP. These variables have no effect on the level of officers’ commitment to the organization. Similarly, the results showed that there were no significant relationship between the key demographic and professional characteristics and overall communication satisfaction. Hence, officers’ overall level of satisfaction with communication practices of the TNP is not changed by length of tenure, educational level, and unit assignment.

In conclusion, Turkish officers’ job outcomes, such as organizational commitment and intention to remain, are affected by their perceptions of communication within the TNP. The more satisfied officers are with communication procedures within the TNP, the higher their commitment level; conversely, the less satisfied that officers are with TNP communication procedures, the less commitment they have to the organization. In other words, more committed officers are significantly more satisfied with communication practices than less committed officers in the TNP. Eventually, the intentions of highly educated Turkish officers to remain with the TNP tend to increase positively and linearly as their commitment goes up.
LIST OF REFERENCES


Edwards, G. S. 2007. A study of different generations in law enforcement and how these differences impact retention in the Chesterfield County Police Department. Thesis, University of Richmand.


APPENDIX – A

INFORMED CONSENT INFORMATION DOCUMENT

Dear Respondent:

Thank you in advance for taking the time to complete this questionnaire and for participating in this research study. This quick survey is easy to complete and will only take approximately 20 minutes. The purpose of the study is to determine the strength and direction of the relationships between communication satisfaction and organizational commitment in the TNP through an analysis of police officers’ attitudes. This dissertation is a part of the requirements of the Doctoral Degree in Public Administration at the University of Baltimore, and I am in the process of completing this degree. The information for the dissertation will be collected through a computer assisted questionnaire. I am asking you to participate in this study examining the effect of communication satisfaction on organizational commitment in the TNP.

This study is anonymous: no names, addresses, or other identifying information will be collected, stored, or used. Anonymity is guaranteed. The researcher and the consumers of findings will not be able to identify a given response with a given respondent. Only the item data will be aggregated and analyzed for the report. Participant names will never be connected with their answers because the survey questionnaire does not include participant’s name. Also, subjects’ identities cannot be determined from data by tracking their responses to the demographic questions or survey items back at any time. In addition, participation is not expected to cause any negative effects on your relationship with your workplace. There will be no compensation for participation.

Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary, but I would greatly appreciate your help. You are free to not answer any question or to stop participating at any time without
prejudice if you do not wish to respond. There is no penalty for not answering any particular question or canceling participation.

Anonymity guidelines will be followed during the data collection, processing, and reporting stages. All records and responses of this study will be kept in strict confidence. All the information obtained from the questionnaires will be stored in a disk for statistical analysis and then destroyed. Similarly, the sample list will be destroyed at completion of the dissertation. No information collected by this study will be shared with anyone who is not directly associated with this research. Additionally, in accordance with the guidelines on using human subjects in research, the researcher will not discuss any information obtained from the study with any staff members of the TNP, except aggregate results.

In this study, you will complete a questionnaire concerning various factors that may or may not affect communication satisfaction and organizational commitment. The results of this study are likely to be used to develop new strategies, revise current organizational policies and practices that will help to maximize the overall efficiency of the General Directorate of Security of Turkey. It is vitally important because successful organizations have learned that staff opinion is essential for quality improvements and better services to produce. That is why it is important for you to take a few minutes to complete the questionnaire. In addition, this is not a test and there is no correct answer for any question. The only right answer is the participant’s opinion. Therefore, you are kindly requested to be as honest and fair as you can in your response to each question.

The survey will take you about 20 minutes to complete. The principal researcher for this study is Police Chief Hilmi Seven from the Turkish National Police, Aviation Division. If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please feel free to contact the researcher by e-mail at hilmiseven@hotmail.com. If you have any further questions or concerns, you may also
contact Leneal HENDERSON, Ph.D. by e-mail at lennealh@cs.com. or by phone at (410) 837 61
98. Doctor of Public Administration Program, University of Baltimore, 1304 St. Paul Street, MD
21201 U.S.A.

We appreciate your time and participation.

Sincerely,

Hilmi Seven
Doctor of Public Administration
School of Public Affairs
University of Baltimore
APPENDIX – B

ELECTRONIC INFORMED CONSENT SIGNATURE FORM

I have read the information about the study and all questions about the study will be answered to my satisfaction.

I understand that;

● My participation is voluntary,
  • There is no penalty for not participating in the study.
  • I can discontinue participation at any time without penalty.
  • There will be no compensation for my participation.

● My responses will be anonymous,
  • The researcher and the consumers of findings will not be able to identify a given response with a given respondent.
  • The researcher will not discuss any information obtained through the questionnaires with any staff members of the Turkish National Police.
  • Data collected in this study will not be available to anyone who is not directly associated with this research study.

I agree
[By clicking this button you will be directed to the survey instrument.]

I don’t agree
[By clicking this button you will be signed off without prejudice.]
APPENDIX – C

THE QUESTIONS OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SURVEY

Instruction: It is assumed that there is a correlation between communication satisfaction and organizational commitment. This study aims to ascertain the strength and direction of the relationships between these variables. I appreciate your help in completing the questionnaire. This is an opportunity for you to make a significant contribution to the TNP through revealing your perception of the subject.

1- This questionnaire is easy to complete and takes about 20 minutes. Please answer the questions in order. Please, do not skip any questions.

2- Most of the questions are answered by marking one of the answers. If you do not find the exact answer that reflects your opinion, check the one that comes closest to it. This is not a test, so there is no right answer for any question. The only right answer is your opinion. So, it is important that you be as honest as you can in answering the questions.

3- Remember the answer that you give on this questionnaire will remain completely anonymous. Please do not write your name on the document. It is not requested because we do not want to know who you are.

Section I. The Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ)

Below is a list of several kinds of questions about information that may often be associated with your job. For the following items, please indicate how satisfied you are with the amount and quality of each kind of information by checking the appropriate number beside the question that you feel best represents your opinion. (1 = very dissatisfied; 2 = dissatisfied; 3 = slightly dissatisfied; 4 = indifferent; 5 = slightly satisfied; 6 = satisfied; 7 = very satisfied)
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>(1) Very Dissatisfied</th>
<th>(2) Dissatisfied</th>
<th>(3) Slightly Dissatisfied</th>
<th>(4) Indifferent</th>
<th>(5) Slightly Satisfied</th>
<th>(6) Satisfied</th>
<th>(7) Very Satisfied</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Information about my progress in my job</td>
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<td>Personnel news</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Information about TNP organizational policies and goals</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Information about how my job compares with others</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Information about how I am being judged</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Recognition of my efforts.</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Information about my division's policies and goals</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>Information about the requirements of my job</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Information about government action affecting the TNP</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Information about changes in my organization</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Reports on how problems in my job are being handled.</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Information about employee benefits and pay</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>Information about my organization (TNP) financial standing</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Information about achievements and/or failures of the TNP</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Extent to which my supervisor knows and understands problems faced by subordinates.</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>Extent to which TNP's communication motivates and stimulates an enthusiasm for me to meet its goals.</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Extent to which my supervisor listens and pays attention to me.</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>Extent to which people at TNP are good communicators</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
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<td>Extent to which my subordinates are receptive to evaluation, suggestions, and criticism.</td>
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<td>Extent to which upper management listens to members and welcomes their ideas.</td>
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<td>44</td>
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<td>Extent to which different divisions communicate to solve problems.</td>
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<td>Extent to which inter-divisional communication is about right.</td>
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<td>48</td>
<td>Extent to which there is a sense of teamwork across managers.</td>
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<td>49</td>
<td>Extent to which managers communicate well with one another.</td>
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<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Extent to which priorities between my division and other divisions are in agreement.</td>
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</table>

**Section II- The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)**

Below is a list of several kinds of questions about your perception that may often be associated with your job. For the following items, please indicate how much you agree with each of the situations by checking the appropriate number beside the question that you feel best represents your opinion. (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = somewhat disagree; 4 = indifferent; 5 = somewhat agree; 6 = agree; 7 = strongly agree)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I feel very little loyalty to this organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section III. Officer Characteristics and Unit Information

Listed below are several questions regarding demographic characteristics and unit information of the TNP. Please answer the following questions as indicated.

1) How long have you been employed as an officer at the TNP?
   a) 1-5 years, b) 6-10 years, c) 11-15 years, d) 16-20 years, e) 20 years and over

2) What is your current unit within the Police Force?
   a) Crime prevention / Crime control units
   b) Riot police units
   c) Support / Logistic units (IT, transportation, communication, etc.)
   d) Education - Training units
e) Administrative units  
f) Organized crime / Narcotics units  
g) Anti-terror / Intelligence units  
h) Traffic units  
i) Police Station  
j) Other………………………

3) -What is your current rank or position?  
a) Line officer  
b) Lower management (sergeant, lieutenant)  
c) Middle management (captain, superintendnet, assistant division director)  
d) Upper management (chief of police, deputy chief, division director, faculty and other.)

4) - What is your educational level?  
a) Master Student, b) Master Degree, c) Doctoral Student, d) Doctoral Degree

5) - What is your age?  
a) 20-24 years, b) 25-29 years, c) 30-34 years, d) 35-39 years, e) 40-44 years,  
f) 45-49 years, g) 50-54 years, h) 55-59 years, and i) 60 years and over.
APPENDIX – D

METHODOLOGICAL NOTE

Multicollinearity Problem: With a multiple regression model, one critical assumption is that the independent variables are uncorrelated with one another. Good regression analysis involves selecting independent variables that are strongly related to the dependent variable and weakly correlated or uncorrelated with one another (Hair et al. 1998). When the independent variables in a multiple-regression model are associated with one another, they are assumed to be collinear (Bachman and Paternoster 2004). This means that the independent variables are positively and linearly correlated variables and that one independent variable tends to increase linearly as the other independent variable increase. This is referred as the problem of multicollinearity (Hair et al. 1998). Multicollinearity is not desirable when using multiple-regression analysis (Kahane 2001).

Multicollinearity is tested with the variance inflation factor (VIF). A value of 1 is the smallest possible value for VIF. There is no upper limit on VHF. As a rule of thumb, a VIF around 5 indicates moderate multicollinearity; a VIF of 10 or more indicates severe multicollinearity (Hair et al. 1998). To detect the presence of multicollinearity, one should examine the VIF regardless of whether or not it is greater than 5. Accordingly, SPSS collinearity statistics show that the VIF scores for Communication Climate, Organizational Integration, and Relationship/Communication with Superiors are 2.790, 1.977, and 2.374, respectively. All VHF scores are considerably lower than 10 and not very close to 5. This indicates unimportant level of multicollinearity among the three communication-satisfaction factors as predictor variables. Hence, multicollinearity is not a problem with the third multiple-regression model in this study.
### Communication-Satisfaction Descriptive Statistics for CSO Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Extent to which the grapevine (informal communication) is active at the TNP</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>1.332</td>
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<td>Extent to which my supervisor trusts me</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>1.422</td>
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<td>Extent to which my work group is compatible</td>
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<td>Extent to which my subordinates anticipate my needs for information</td>
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<td>4.96</td>
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ANOVA Test and Comparison in the Mean Responses on the Overall Communication Satisfaction Composite among Officers at Different Educational Levels

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Descriptive statistics of the Overall Communication Satisfaction among Officers at Different Educational Levels

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Descriptive statistics of the Overall Communication Satisfaction among Officers at Different Unit assignments

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<td>Crime Prevention/Crime Control Units</td>
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ANOVA Test and Comparison of the Mean Responses on the Overall Organizational Commitment Composite among Officers at Different Educational Levels

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Descriptive statistics of the Overall Organizational Commitment Composite among Officers at Different Educational Levels

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<td>72.27</td>
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Descriptive statistics of the Overall Organizational Commitment Composite among Officers in Different Unit Assignments

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<td>Upper Bound</td>
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Descriptive statistics of the Overall Organizational Commitment Composite among Officers in Different Tenure Groups

<table>
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<tr>
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ANOVA Test and Comparison of the Mean Responses on the Overall Organizational Commitment Composite among Officers at Different Educational Levels

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<td>143.350</td>
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<td>193.101</td>
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<tr>
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Descriptive statistics of the Overall Organizational Commitment Composite among Officers at Different Educational Levels

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Model Summary for Key Demographic and Professional Characteristics on the Overall Communication Satisfaction Composite

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a Predictors: (Constant), Educational Level, Unit, Age, Officer's Rank, Tenure

Coefficients of Multiple Regression Model for Demographic and Professional Characteristics on the Overall Communication Satisfaction Composite

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<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
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a Dependent Variable: Overall Communication Satisfaction Composite

Summary of the Effects of Key Demographic and Professional Characteristics on the Overall Organizational Commitment Composite

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<th>F Change</th>
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a Predictors: (Constant), Educational Level, Unit, Age, Officer's Rank, Tenure
Coefficients of the Multiple-Regression Model for Demographic and Professional Characteristics on the Overall Organizational Commitment Composite

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<th>Sig.</th>
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<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
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a Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment Composite