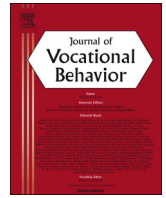




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## Decent work in Turkey: Context, conceptualization, and assessment

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## ABSTRACT

The aim of the present article is to provide explore decent work in the Turkish cultural context. To achieve this, both quantitative and qualitative research methods were undertaken. Specifically, we sought to validate a Turkish version of the Decent Work Scale (Duffy et al., 2017) among a diverse group of Turkish working adults (N = 453). Additionally, we used an open-ended question to gather qualitative data in order to gain a deeper understanding of how decent work is conceptualized in the current Turkish cultural context (N = 100). Findings of the confirmatory factor analysis revealed that a correlational five-factor model of the DWS exhibited good model fit for the Turkish working adults. Configural, metric, and scalar invariance models were tested, indicating that the structure of the scale was invariant across gender, income, and social class groups. The total DWS scale score and five subscale scores positively correlated with job satisfaction and work meaning, and negatively correlated with withdrawal intentions. In addition, content analysis supported presence of the five subscales of the DWS. Thus, the results of this study provide preliminary evidence that the Turkish version of the DWS may be utilized for assessing decent work among Turkish working adults.

## 1. Introduction

In 1999, The International Labor Organization (ILO) coined the term “decent work,” and defined it as “productive work in which rights are protected, which generates an adequate income, with adequate social protection” (ILO 1999, p. 12). Over the last twenty years, the ILO has developed a set of minimum standards for decent work and advocated for decent work around the globe. Many nations, however, fail to implement and enforce policies promoting decent work (Blustein, Kenny, Di Fabio, & Guichard, 2019). The Republic of Turkey is among them. In a report on decent work in Turkey, the ILO stated, “creation of decent jobs is the most important challenge that Turkey has to face” (ILO, 2008, p.3). Despite the increasing vocational literature on decent work, there are limited known studies examining the construct in Turkish workers. With the exception of a Turkish version Decent Work Scale validation study that was conducted concurrently with the present study (Işık, Kozan, & Nergiş Işık, in press), no known empirical research has been conducted on decent work in Turkey from a psychological perspective. Thus, the goal of the present article is to provide a broader understanding of decent work as it is experienced among Turkish working adults. Specifically, we aim to translate and validate an existing measure of decent work as well as examine conceptualizations of decent work that may be unique to the Turkish cultural context.

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**Table 1**  
Unemployment rates.

Age group		2014	2015	2016	2017
15–24 <sup>a</sup>	Male	16.6	16.5	17.4	17.8
	Female	20.4	22.2	23.7	26.1
	General	17.9	18.5	19.6	20.8
15–64	Male	9.2	9.4	9.8	9.6
	Female	12.2	12.9	14	14.4
	General	10.1	10.5	11.1	11.1

Source: Turkish Statistical Institute; Labor Force Statistics, 2018.

<sup>a</sup> Age group of 15–24 represented youth unemployment.

### 1.1. Turkish context

Turkey, straddling the geographic border between Eastern Europe and Western Asia, has the 17th largest economy in the world. A predominately-Muslim country, The Republic of Turkey was established in 1923 as a democratic state. Indeed, Turkey has gone through important changes in the last few decades, becoming a modern, westernized nation rooted in Eastern traditions (Varan, 2005). As a result of these changes, Turkey has been in a cultural transition period, blending Eastern and Western attitudes, values, and lifestyles (Mocan-Aydin, 2000). Most Turkish people now live in cities, which offer greater exposure to Western values. Although financial independence between generations has increased as a result of urbanization, psychological interdependence is still observed as a reflection of the culture of relatedness (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005). Thus, despite increasing Western values, Turkish people continue to endorse collectivistic values characterized by supportive, closely integrated and tight-knit family structures (Gürmen & Rohner, 2014; Mocan-Aydin, 2000; Sunar & Fisek, 2005).

Starting in the 1980's, the agriculturally driven Turkish economy experienced a major shift to an export-based manufacturing market, ultimately resulting in widespread lowering of wages. This, along with complex sociopolitical and world economic forces (e.g., political instability, economic crisis, influx of refugees, adherence to traditional gender roles) stymied economic growth and perpetuated unstable economic conditions. As a result, unemployment has been a major concern for the nation throughout its recent history, and recent data suggest an upward trajectory (See Table 1; TurkStat, 2018). Related to the unemployment rate in Turkey is widespread participation in the informal labor force (i.e., labor which is not sanctioned by the state; ILO, 2008). Informal work amounted to 30.6% of the Turkish labor force in 2009 (ILO, 2012). The primary driver of the rise in informal employment is an effort to reduce labor costs (ILO, 2008). Thus, the paucity of decent work in the formal sector has created the ideal environment for exploitation of those engaging in informal work, with many workers earning well below minimum wage.

These factors, in concert with long working hours, gender pay gaps, and income disparities were highlighted by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2017). Employees in Turkey work longer hours (weekly 46.4 h) in comparison with European countries (weekly 37.1 h) and the United States (weekly 34.5 h; European Statistics, 2018). One recent report (OECD, 2017) uncovered that Turkey had some of the highest employment gaps of any OECD nation, with a of 47.5% disparity between prime-matured native men and underprivileged groups including women, non-natives, older workers, and disabled individuals. Research examining these vulnerable populations is limited; however, in the paragraphs that follow, we provide a brief review of known barriers for women, LGB and trans persons, and those living below the poverty line.

The unfortunate economic factors currently impacting the Turkish economy are intertwined with cultural factors that compound this inequity for women in particular. In 2016, labor force participation rates were 32.5% and 72% for women and men respectively. The gender gap (39.5%) is larger than twice the OECD average (17.1%). Turkey is a historically patriarchal society with a background of cultural valuing of traditional gender roles. That is, underlying Turkish values around work is the belief that the primary roles for women are wives and mothers, often constraining them to unpaid domestic work (Dedeoglu, 2012). Not only may traditional gender role beliefs discourage women from pursuing paid work; they result in an unequal workload in the home. A survey of Turkish working adults demonstrated that working women spent an average of 3 h and 31 min daily on domestic work compared to 46 min for working men (TurkStat, 2015). There is evidence that these cultural values may contribute to discriminatory hiring practices (Dedeoglu, 2012; Sümer, 2006). For instance, in many sectors, employers evaluate female job candidates by explicitly inquiring about marriage and childbearing intentions during job interviews (Flying Broom, 2005). Although participation of women in the labor force is on the rise (OECD, 2017), these implicit and explicit forms of gender discrimination are a significant barrier in securement of decent work for women.

Other groups that face significant barriers in the Turkish workforce are the LGB and trans communities. Individuals in these groups often face discrimination on the basis of their sexual orientation and gender identity, which greatly limits job opportunities as compared to their more privileged heterosexual counterparts. In Turkey, LGB and trans individuals reported common problems regarding employment, limited job opportunities, and discrimination in the workplace (Yılmaz & Göçmen, 2016). Previous research also shows that they feel at greater risk of losing their jobs should their identities be exposed. Thus, many strategically prefer to conceal their sexual orientation or gender identity to keep their jobs and survive in their work environments. Reported discriminatory activities included the following: sustained harassment, inappropriate jokes and innuendos, unfounded job termination, and threats of violence (Ozturk, 2011).

Finally, Turkey has the 3rd highest level of relative poverty among the OECD countries. One in every six Turks is poor, compared

with just above one in ten on average across the OECD (OECD, 2016). Emphasized by Blustein (2013) and Duffy, Blustein, Diemer, and Autin (2016) economic hardship and marginalization of those from low social class backgrounds constrain career development, vocational choice, and capacity to secure decent work. Turkish people from poor and disadvantaged backgrounds are, thus, more susceptible to accepting work that does not meet standards for decent work simply to survive. Relatedly, Turkey continues to host > 3.5 million Syrian refugees (UNHCR, 2017), who are likely to fall below the poverty line and face significant disenfranchisement from the broader social structure. With limited access to government-sanctioned work permits (Baban, Ilcan, & Rygiel, 2017), many refugees turn to the informal labor market- especially in the construction, restaurant and manufacturing industries- to find work (Baban et al., 2017; Kartal & Basci, 2014).

Although this review of marginalized workers in Turkey is by no means comprehensive, we hope it provides insight into the importance of studying decent work in this nation. A validated measurement instrument and culturally informed conceptualization of decent work may provide researchers with necessary tools to further explore this construct in individuals and organizations.

### 1.2. Theoretical framework

The Psychology of Working Theory (PWF; Duffy et al., 2016) aims to explain predictors and outcomes of decent work in a culturally sensitive fashion. The PWT authors created a theoretical model with the intent that it may be adapted to diverse populations, especially those that are not represented in traditional vocational research. Primary variables in the PWT model include individual-level economic constraints and marginalization experiences (e.g., gender discrimination) as well as broader economic conditions (e.g., national financial crisis). Thus, the PWT provides an appropriate framework from which to examine decent work among Turkish workers, a significant subset of whom are face barriers in the labor market.

The PWT authors modeled their definition of decent work after the ILO's decent work standards. This includes: "(a) physical and interpersonally safe working conditions (e.g., absent of physical, mental, or emotional abuse), (b) hours that allow for free time and adequate rest, (c) organizational values that complement family and social values, (d) adequate compensation, and (e) access to adequate health care" (Duffy et al., 2016, p. 130). Recently, Duffy and colleagues developed and validated the Decent Work Scale (DWS; Duffy et al., 2017) to measure decent work based on these factors. Since the initial validation study, the scale has been used with diverse samples including sexual minorities (Douglass, Velez, Conlin, Duffy, & England, 2017), workers with Chiari malformation (Tokar & Kaut, 2018), and racial and ethnic minority adults (Duffy et al., 2018). Given Turkey's large economy, high rates of unemployment and underemployment, and restricted access to decent jobs- especially for marginalized groups- it is particularly important to understand the construct of decent work in this nation. Thus, in the current study, we tested various measures of validity of the DWS (Duffy et al., 2017) among a sample Turkish working adults. These included tests of convergent and discriminant validity, factor invariance, and predictive validity. Additionally, to examine culture-specific conceptions of decent work, we gathered qualitative data using an open-ended question tapping into what qualities participants considered necessary for a job to be decent.

### 1.3. Present study

The aim of the present article is to explore decent work in the Turkish cultural context. To achieve this, both quantitative and qualitative research methods were undertaken. First, we sought to validate a Turkish version of the Decent Work Scale (Duffy et al., 2017) among a diverse group of Turkish working adults. It is important to note that, concurrently with the present study, Işık et al. (in press) developed another Turkish-language Decent Work Scale largely using the same instruments and methods for validity testing. Consistent with the original scale development study (Duffy et al., 2017) and with Işık et al. (in press), we tested for convergent and discriminant validity, predictive validity, and carried out three different measurement invariance tests. Considering similarity in validity instruments and analyses that we used, we will compare findings from the current study with those obtained from both the original study (Duffy et al., 2017) and Işık et al.'s (in press) validation study.

Second, to expand attention to cultural sensitivity in defining decent work, we used qualitative methods to assess Turkish conceptualizations of the construct in a constructivist fashion. Specifically, we used one open-ended question to gather qualitative responses reflecting how Turkish workers define decent work.

## 2. Study 1

### 2.1. Participants

Our sample consisted of 453 Turkish adults ranging in age from 19 to 62 years ( $M = 34.18$ ,  $SD = 8.45$ ). Of the participants, 231 (51%) identified as female and 222 (49%) identified as male. Most participants reported non self-employed full-time employment ( $n = 403$ , 89%), with the remaining participants reporting that they were self-employed full-time ( $n = 31$ , 6.9%), non-self-employed part-time ( $n = 13$ , 2.9%), self-employed part-time ( $n = 4$ , 0.9%), retired ( $n = 1$ , 0.2%), and other ( $n = 1$ , 0.2%). Reported education levels of the participants were less than high school ( $n = 12$ , 2.6%), high school graduate ( $n = 57$ , 12.6%), trade/vocational school ( $n = 22$ , 4.9%), undergraduate degree ( $n = 202$ , 44.6%), professional/graduate degree ( $n = 159$ , 35.1%), and one of the participants (0.2%) did not answer. Perceived social class levels of the participants were reported as lower class ( $n = 7$ , 1.5%), working class ( $n = 45$ , 9.9%), middle class ( $n = 286$ , 63.1%), upper-middle class ( $n = 110$ , 24.3%), and upper class ( $n = 5$ , 1.1%). A total of 35 different professions were represented in the sample. Teacher, salesperson, civil servant, engineer, and academician were the most represented professions among the participants.

## 2.2. Procedure

After obtaining approval from the first author's institutional review board, an informed consent form along with all instruments were prepared for distribution via paper-and-pencil as well as the internet. Approximately two-thirds of the data were collected through paper-and-pencil while the remaining data was gathered online. The first author distributed hard copies of the instruments to different departments at her academic institution to reach individuals who worked as researcher, faculty, civil servant, administrative staff, and housekeeping staff. In addition, three graduate students visited several public and private organizations such as schools, government offices, and stores to recruit participants. Furthermore, an online link including informed consent and the questionnaire was sent to several organizational and social groups to gather participants employed in different regions. To ensure confidentiality, no identifying information was requested from participants.

## 2.3. Instruments

### 2.3.1. Decent work

Decent work was measured by an adapted version of the 15-item Decent Work Scale (DWS; Duffy et al., 2017). The DWS consists of five 3-item subscales which include physically and interpersonally safe working conditions, access to health care, adequate compensation, hours that allow for free time and rest, and organizational values that complement family and social values.

Following recommendations from [Ægisdóttir, Gerstein, and Canel-Çınarbaşı \(2008\)](#), the Decent Work Scale (DWS) was translated to Turkish by two faculty members in the counseling field who were fluent in both English and Turkish. The two faculty members, along with the first author (who is also fluent in both English and Turkish) worked together to come to a consensus on the most appropriate translation. After a consensus was reached, the translated DWS was back-translated to English by another expert who was also fluent in both English and Turkish. The first author and faculty members then compared the original and back-translated forms of the DWS based on criteria of appropriateness, clarity and meaning of the items in the current Turkish cultural and working context until they reached consensus. After agreeing on the final version of the translation, minor changes were made to provide more fluent reading while retaining the meaning of the English version.

Given the overlap between the current study and the [Işık et al. \(in press\)](#) study, it is important to note differences in our procedure and final item pool. First, prior to data collection, we conducted a focus group with diverse employed graduate students ( $n = 12$ ) to check the understandability, clarity, and cultural appropriateness of the items of the Turkish form of the DWS, which resulted in a small number of modifications based on suggestions by focus group members. Second, there are slight differences in item content. Specifically, [Işık et al. \(in press\)](#) used the term “health-care premiums” rather than “health-care plans” for items five and six. They also changed item 6 in the English-version DWS (“My employer provides acceptable options for health-care”) to, “my employer supports me when I experience any health problems.” In contrast to [Işık et al. \(in press\)](#), we limited changes to content, creating a Turkish version that is more similar to the original scale ([Duffy et al., 2017](#)). Given the differences in item content on these two scales, researchers are encouraged to use whichever version they feel best fits their purposes based on theoretical perspective and research question.

On the final translated scale, participants responded on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). In the initial validation study, the 15 items explained 84.11% of the variance, and the 5-factor structure of the scale was confirmed via correlational model, higher order model, and bifactor model which represented the best fit to the data. In addition, decent work significantly correlated with job safety, pay satisfaction and occupational fatigue as in the expected direction. The estimated internal consistency reliability for the DWS reported by [Duffy et al. \(2017\)](#) in their original scale development study was 0.86 for the total scale. For the subscales, scores were as follows: safe working conditions ( $\alpha = 0.79$ ), access to health care ( $\alpha = 0.97$ ), adequate compensation ( $\alpha = 0.87$ ), free time and rest ( $\alpha = 0.87$ ), and complementary values ( $\alpha = 0.95$ ).

### 2.3.2. Job satisfaction

The Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS; [Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998](#)) was used to measure overall satisfaction of the respondents with their current jobs on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The scale was composed of five items. Sample items include, “I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job” and “I find real enjoyment in my work.” Numerous studies have reported high internal consistency ([Büyükoze-Kavas, Duffy, Güneri, & Autin, 2014](#); [Duffy & Lent, 2009](#); [Judge et al., 1998](#)) and found significant relations between job satisfaction and career commitment and work meaning ([Duffy, Allan, Autin, & Bott, 2013](#); [Duffy, Allan, Autin, & Douglass, 2014](#)). The scale was translated into Turkish by [Bilgin \(1995\)](#), and validity and reliability studies were performed by [Keser \(2005\)](#). Keser reported the scale's internal consistency reliability as 0.78. In the current study, the estimated internal consistency reliability of total scores was calculated as 0.89.

### 2.3.3. Work meaning

The Work as Meaning Inventory (WAMI; [Steger, Dik, & Duffy, 2012](#)) was used to assess the level of meaning participants found in their work. The scale consisted of ten items rated on a 7-point rating scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The sample items included “My work helps me make sense of the world around me” and “I understand how my work contributes to my life's meaning”. The scale has three subscales: positive meaning, meaning-making through work, and greater good motivations. In the initial validation study, [Steger et al. \(2012\)](#) reported high internal consistency reliability ( $\alpha = 0.93$ ) for the total scale and significant correlations with career commitment, life meaning and job satisfaction. Turkish version of the scale exhibited high internal consistency reliability ( $\alpha = 0.86$ ; [Akin, Hamedoğlu, Kaya, & Sarçam, 2013](#)). In the present study, the estimated internal consistency of

total scale scores was  $\alpha = 0.87$ .

#### 2.3.4. Withdrawal intentions

A three-item instrument (Blau, 1985) was used to measure participants' intention to withdraw from their occupations. Respondents indicated on a scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) how much they agreed or disagreed with items. Sample items include “I am thinking about leaving my current occupation,” “I am actively searching for an alternative to my occupation,” and “I intend to stay in my current occupation for some time.” Several studies have demonstrated acceptable internal consistency reliabilities higher than 0.70 (e.g., Blau, 2000) and significant correlations with aspects of career or work commitment. İbrahimoğlu and Aydınçelebi (2013) found the Turkish version of the withdrawal intentions scale to have an internal consistency reliability estimate of 0.80 and to negatively correlate with self-efficacy and job performance. The estimated internal consistency of the scale in the current study was 0.86.

### 2.4. Results

#### 2.4.1. Preliminary analyses

Prior to conducting confirmatory factor analyses, the dataset was screened for missing data, outliers, and normality. First, using frequencies tables, minimum and maximum values were checked to detect any possible irregularities in the data file. Second, to explore the univariate outliers, standardized z-scores were used, with those exceeding  $\pm 3.29$  range viewed as potential outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) noted that “when the sample sizes are larger, the guidelines suggest that the threshold value of standard scores range from 3 to 4” (p. 65). Thus, no univariate outliers were identified in the data set. Third, skewness and kurtosis values were examined to determine the univariate normality. Skewness values  $> 3.0$  (Chou & Bentler, 1995) and kurtosis values  $> 10.0$  (Kline, 2005) are considered to be problematic. Therefore, the variables met the norms for univariate normality (skewness  $< 3$ , kurtosis  $< 10$ ). Lastly, 27 cases with missing values  $> 5\%$  were excluded from the dataset as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007).

#### 2.4.2. Confirmatory factor analyses

To assess the five-factor model of the DWS (Duffy et al., 2017), a correlational model, a higher order model, and a bifactor model were tested via a series of confirmatory factor analyses by means of AMOS 22 with maximum likelihood estimation. To evaluate the models, we used the following fit indices: chi-square test ( $\chi^2$ ), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardized root mean residual (SRMR). Cutoff values for acceptable fit indices are CFI  $\geq 0.90$ , TLI  $\geq 0.90$ , RMSEA  $\leq 0.08$ , SRMR  $\leq 0.08$  and cutoff values for good fit indices are CFI  $\geq 0.95$ , TLI  $\geq 0.95$ , RMSEA  $\leq 0.06$ , SRMR  $\leq 0.06$  (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

**2.4.2.1. Correlational model.** The correlational model consisted of items for each of the five subscales of decent work loading onto latent factors. Latent factors were allowed to correlate. Confirmatory factor analysis revealed that the correlational model had good fit to the data ( $\chi^2(80) = 107.500$ ,  $p < .05$ , CFI = 0.99, TLI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.03, 90% CI [0.01, 0.04] SRMR = 0.04), and all indicators were significantly loaded on the respective factors at values of 0.66 or above (Table 2).

**2.4.2.2. Higher order model.** The higher-order model specified the same factor structure as correlational model, but included a higher-order factor labeled as decent work. The higher order model had a slight decline in fit, ( $\chi^2(85) = 142.398$ ,  $p < .001$ , CFI = 0.98, TLI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.04, 90% CI [0.02, 0.05] SRMR = 0.06); however the change in CFI was not  $> 0.01$  ( $\Delta$ CFI = 0.009), indicating no significant differences between models (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

**2.4.2.3. Bifactor model.** In the bifactor model, each item loaded onto both their respective subscale and a general decent work factor. The higher-order decent work factor and five subscale factors were orthogonal. The bifactor model had a slight decrease in fit from the correlational model ( $\chi^2(75) = 134.674$ ,  $p < .001$ , CFI = 0.98, TLI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.04, 90% CI [0.03, 0.05] SRMR = 0.07); however the change in CFI was  $< 0.01$  ( $\Delta$ CFI = 0.009), indicating no significant difference between models (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

The comparison of the models according to the CFI difference criteria of 0.01 revealed that correlational model, higher order model, and bifactor model of the decent work were not practically different (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). Fit indices suggested that all tested models had good fit to the data; however, the correlational model had the best fit to the data.

#### 2.4.3. Reliability

Internal consistency reliability for the DWS was estimated at 0.77 for Safe Working Conditions, 0.83 for Access to Healthcare, 0.87 for Adequate Compensation, 0.85 for Free Time and Rest, and 0.90 for Complementary Values. The internal consistency reliability for the total scale was 0.80.

#### 2.4.4. Factorial invariance

Since the correlational model had the best fit to the data, multigroup invariance analyses were conducted on this model across gender, income, and social class (Table 3). For income and subjective social class, two subgroups were created based on the mean score. For income, a comparison was made between low income and high-income groups based on the participants' reported monthly

**Table 2**  
English and Turkish items of the Decent Work Scale and Factor Loadings.

Decent Work Scale	Saygın İş Ölçeği	Factor Loadings
Physically and interpersonally safe working conditions	Fiziksel ve İlişkisel Güvenli Çalışma Koşulları	
1. I feel emotionally safe interacting with people at work	1. İş yerimdeki insanlarla olan etkileşimimde kendimi duygusal olarak güvende hissediyorum.	0.66
2. At work, I feel safe from emotional or verbal abuse of any kind	2. İş yerimde her hangi bir duygusal veya sözlü tacize karşı kendimi güvende hissediyorum.	0.81
3. I feel physically safe interacting with people at work.	3. İş yerimdeki insanlarla olan etkileşimimde kendimi fiziksel olarak güvende hissediyorum.	0.74
Access to healthcare	Sağlık Hizmetlerine Erişim	
4. I get good health-care benefits from my job.	4. İşim sayesinde sağlık hizmetlerinden faydalaniyorum.	0.73
5. I have a good health-care plan at work.	5. İşim sayesinde kapsamlı bir sağlık sigortam var.	0.98
6. My employer provides acceptable options for health-care.	6. İşverenim sağlık hizmetleri için kabul edilebilir seçenekler sunar.	0.70
Adequate compensation	Yeterli Ücret	
7. I <u>am not</u> properly paid for my work. (r)	7. Yaptığım işin karşılığında hak ettiğim ücreti <u>almıyorum</u> . (r)	0.90
8. I <u>do not</u> feel I am paid enough based on my qualifications and experience. (r)	8. Niteliklerime ve deneyimime göre yeterli ücret aldığımı <u>düşünmüyorum</u> . (r)	0.88
9. I am rewarded adequately for my work	9. Yaptığım işin karşılığını yeterince alıyorum.	0.73
Hours that allow for free time and rest	Boş zaman ve Dinlenme	
10. I <u>do not</u> have enough time for non-work activities. (r)	10. İş dışındaki etkinlikler için yeterince zamanım <u>olmuyor</u> . (r)	0.82
11. I have <u>no time</u> to rest during the work week. (r)	11. Hafta içi (çalıştığım günlerde) dinlenmek için hiç zamanım <u>olmuyor</u> . (r)	0.90
12. I have free time during the work week	12. Hafta içi (çalıştığım günlerde) serbest zamanım oluyor.	0.70
Organizational values complement family and social values	Kurumsal Değerlerle Ailevi ve Sosyal Değerlerin Uyumu	
13. The values of my organization match my family values.	13. Çalıştığım kurumun değerleri ile ailevi değerlerim birbiriyle örtüşüyor.	0.90
14. My organization's values align with my family values.	14. Çalıştığım kurumun değerleri ile ailevi değerlerim aynı doğrultudadır.	0.95
15. The values of my organization match the values within my community.	15. Çalıştığım kurumun değerleri ile yaşadığım çevrenin değerleri birbiriyle örtüşüyor.	0.77

**Table 3**  
Test of measurement invariance of the correlational model across gender, income and social class.

Model	$\chi^2$	df	TLI	CFI	RMSEA [90% CI]	Comparison	$\Delta$ CFI	$\Delta$ RMSEA
Gender								
M0 (configural)	227.610	160	0.975	0.981	0.031 [0.021–0.039]	–		
M1 (metric)	247.692	175	0.975	0.979	0.030 [0.021–0.039]	M0 vs. M1	0.002	0.001
M2 (scalar)	282.652	190	0.971	0.974	0.031 [0.023–0.039]	M1 vs. M2	0.005	0.001
Income								
M0 (configural)	216.231	160	0.978	0.984	0.028 [0.017–0.037]	–		
M1 (metric)	255.165	175	0.972	0.977	0.032 [0.023–0.040]	M0 vs. M1	0.007	0.004
M2 (scalar)	296.073	190	0.966	0.969	0.035 [0.027–0.043]	M1 vs. M2	0.008	0.003
Social class								
M0 (configural)	205.020	160	0.983	0.987	0.025 [0.013–0.035]	–		
M1 (metric)	245.050	175	0.976	0.980	0.030 [0.020–0.038]	M0 vs. M1	0.007	0.005
M2 (scalar)	266.591	190	0.976	0.978	0.030 [0.021–0.038]	M1 vs. M2	0.002	0.000

income level. For social class, groups were divided based on the average response on the MacArthur Scale of Subjective Social Status as higher than and lower than 6.23. This scale assessed the perceived social class by showing a picture of a ladder and having participants specify where they fall on a 10-point scale relative to other people in their country (Adler, Epel, Castellazzo, & Ickovics, 2000). For gender, we compared participants self-identifying as men and women.

Then, following Vandenberg and Lance's (2000) recommendations to test measurement invariance, configural, metric, and scalar models were tested across groups. In the first step of this procedure, in testing configural invariance, no equality constraints are imposed on any parameters in the model (Byrne, 2009), which implies that the conceptual framework is the same across groups. Indices demonstrated that the configural model was a good fit to the data across gender, income, and social class groups. Indices for gender were:  $\chi^2(160) = 227.61, p < .001, CFI = 0.98, TLI = 0.97, RMSEA = 0.03, 90\% CI [0.021-0.039],$  and SRMR = 0.04. Indices for income were:  $\chi^2(160) = 216.23, p < .001, CFI = 0.98, TLI = 0.97, RMSEA = 0.02, 90\% CI [0.017-0.037],$  and SRMR = 0.03. Indices for social class were:  $\chi^2(160) = 205.02, p < .001, CFI = 0.98, TLI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.02, 90\% CI [0.013-0.035],$  and SRMR = 0.04. Based on the results of the multigroup model testing for configural invariance, it could be concluded that proposed factor structure of the DWS was invariant across gender, income, and social class.

In the second step, metric invariance, in which only factor loadings (i.e. measurement weights) were constrained to be equal across groups, was tested (Byrne, 2009). To assess metric invariance, the fit of the metric model was compared with the fit of the configural model. Since the sensitivity of the chi-square difference test to non-normality and large sample sizes, invariance decisions were made by considering changes in CFI ( $\Delta CFI$ ) and RMSEA ( $\Delta RMSEA$ ) values. A change in the  $CFI \leq 0.01$  and the  $RMSEA \leq 0.010$  or  $0.015$  were generally recognized as indicative of non-invariance (Chen, 2007; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). Indices demonstrated that the metric model was a good fit to the data across gender, income, and social class groups (See Table 3). Changes in fit were as follows: gender ( $\Delta CFI = 0.002, \Delta RMSEA = 0.001$ ) income ( $\Delta CFI = 0.007, \Delta RMSEA = 0.004$ ), and social class ( $\Delta CFI = 0.007, \Delta RMSEA = 0.005$ ). Thus, there were no significant changes in fit between the configural and metric models. Accordingly, indices demonstrated that factor loadings were invariant across gender, income, and social class groups.

In the third and the final step, the scalar invariance model, in which the factor loading and indicator intercepts were constrained to be the same across groups, was tested. Likewise, the scalar invariance models indicated good fit to the data across gender, income, and social class (See Table 3). The metric and scalar invariance models were again compared by assessing the change of CFI and RMSEA values. Changes in fit were as follows: gender ( $\Delta CFI = 0.005, \Delta RMSEA = 0.001$ ), income ( $\Delta CFI = 0.008, \Delta RMSEA = 0.004$ ), and social class ( $\Delta CFI = 0.002, \Delta RMSEA < 0.001$ ). Thus, there were no significant changes in fit between the configural and metric models. Accordingly, indices demonstrate that indicator intercepts were invariant across gender, income, and social class groups.

2.4.5. Convergent and discriminant validity

To demonstrate further construct validity evidence, correlations were calculated between the total DWS score and job satisfaction, work meaning, and withdrawal intentions scores (Table 4). The results of the correlational analysis showed that the DWS total scale correlated positively with job satisfaction ( $r = 0.53, p < .01$ ) and work meaning ( $r = 0.28, p < .01$ ) and correlated negatively with withdrawal intentions ( $r = -0.51, p < .01$ ).

2.4.6. Predictive validity

To provide evidence for predictive validity, three separate hierarchical regression analyses were carried out to examine how well the five DWS subscales predicted job satisfaction, work meaning, and withdrawal intentions (Table 5). Results of the regression analyses showed that the five DWS subscales accounted for 32% of the variance in job satisfaction, 9% of the variance in work meaning, and 29% of the variance in withdrawal intentions. Furthermore, all subscales of decent work significantly predicted job satisfaction scores ( $\beta s = 0.08-0.34$ ). Safe working conditions ( $\beta = 0.34$ ) demonstrated the strongest unique contribution to explaining the job satisfaction. Adequate compensation ( $\beta = 0.21$ ) and complementary values ( $\beta = 0.10$ ) subscales displayed significant unique contributions to work meaning. All five subscales of the DWS also significantly predicted withdrawal intentions ( $\beta s = 0.10$  to  $0.26$ ), with complementary values ( $\beta = 0.26$ ) having the largest unique contribution to withdrawal intentions.

3. Study 2

To explore how Turkish workers conceptualize decent work, we conducted a content analysis, one of the most widely used

**Table 4**  
Correlations of Decent Work Scale Subscales, Total Scale, and Validity Scales (N = 453).

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Total Scale (DWS)	1								
2. Safe working conditions	0.59**	1							
3. Access to healthcare	0.46**	0.13**	1						
4. Adequate compensation	0.63**	0.16**	0.12*	1					
5. Free time and rest	0.62**	0.14**	0.07	0.29**	1				
6. Complementary values	0.55**	0.43**	0.06	0.11*	0.10*	1			
7. Job satisfaction	0.53**	0.46**	0.19**	0.35**	0.22**	0.33**	1		
8. Work meaning	0.28**	0.15**	0.08	0.25**	0.14**	0.16**	0.46**	1	
9. Withdrawal intentions	-0.51**	-0.36**	-0.27**	-0.29**	-0.22**	-0.38**	-0.53**	-0.28**	1
M	71.06	16.15	17.67	10.05	10.81	16.36	26.63	51.78	5.14
SD	13.49	3.90	4.39	5.27	5.51	4.39	6.58	12.71	3.12

\*\*  $p < .01$ .  
\*  $p < .05$ .

**Table 5**

Hierarchical regression analysis of Decent Work Scale subscales explaining job satisfaction, work meaning, and withdrawal intentions.

Subscale	Job satisfaction			Work meaning			Withdrawal intentions		
	$R = 0.57, R^2 = 0.32$			$R = 0.30, R^2 = 0.09$			$R = 0.54, R^2 = 0.29$		
	$\beta$	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>
Safe working conditions	0.34***	0.57	0.07	0.07	0.22	0.17	-0.18***	-0.14	0.04
Access to healthcare	0.10*	0.15	0.06	0.04	0.10	0.13	-0.20***	-0.14	0.03
Adequate compensation	0.24***	0.30	0.05	0.21***	0.51	0.12	-0.17***	-0.10	0.03
Free time and rest	0.08*	0.10	0.05	0.05	0.12	0.11	-0.10*	-0.06	0.02
Complementary values	0.14**	0.21	0.07	0.10*	0.28	0.14	-0.26***	-0.18	0.03

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ .\*\*  $p < .01$ .\*  $p < .05$ .

qualitative research techniques. Qualitative content analysis (QCA) is a research method for the description and interpretation of text data through a systematic process of coding which leads to identification of categories and themes (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). QCA approaches vary in the extent to which they use inductive or deductive reasoning. Given our aim of identifying culturally-specific conceptualizations of decent work, we used a conventional approach. Conventional approaches to content analysis rely more heavily on inductive reasoning, are data-driven, and allow researchers to draw conclusions without a priori hypotheses (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). As such, we did not use the existing decent work factor structure as a guiding framework; rather, we allowed themes to emerge from the data.

### 3.1. Participants

We collected data from a sample of 100 participants by using paper-and-pencil format and online form. Initially, we recruited 16 volunteers, who answered paper-and-pencil format of the form, via personal contacts using a convenience sampling. Then, in order to get more comprehensive insights about the Turkish people's perceptions of decent work, an online link including informed consent was sent to participants using snowball sampling. Participants' age ranged from 22 years to 55 years, with an average age of 35.31 years. Sixty participants identified as women and forty participants identified as men. Inclusion criteria included having a full-time job and being older than 18 years old. Participants reported 24 different occupations; the most frequently reported job titles were salesperson, teacher, engineer, and civil servant.

### 3.2. Procedure

To qualitatively explore Turkish workers' conceptualizations of decent work, we asked participants to respond to one open-ended item. That item was "Decent work is employment that meets the minimum acceptable standards for a good life. Given this definition, what components do you feel a job needs have to be considered "decent" or "acceptable"? Participants were asked to write (or type, if they completed the item online) their thoughts or answers answering this question.

The two authors first conducted the QCA independently, then brought their results together to refine and finalize. Following procedures for conventional QCA outlined by Hsieh and Shannon (2005), each author began by thoroughly reading the entire document of responses to get a holistic sense of the data. Next, they read through each response, recording initial observations and highlighting keywords to be used in coding. From this process, an initial set of codes emerged. Each author assigned each statement into the appropriate coding scheme. If a statement did not fit into an initial coding scheme, it was left uncoded and re-examined at the end of the analysis. After each author coded their statements, they examined each independent analysis for divergence or overlap. Independent analyses were judged by authors to be predominately overlapping. Areas of divergence were discussed until authors came to a consensus. Edits made in the consensus process included combining categories and creating sub-categories, as independent analysis showed no substantive discrepancies.

### 3.3. Results

Nine coding categories emerged from the data. These included Adequate Compensation, Positive Organizational Culture, Reasonable Work Hours/Work-Life Balance, Prosocial Engagement, Safe/Clean Work Environment, Professional Growth, Personal Satisfaction, Societal Respect/Acceptance, and Ethics/Human Rights (see Table 6 for categories and percentage of sample endorsement).

### 3.4. Compensation

The majority of participants reported adequate compensation as a component of decent work. Responses regarding compensation fell into two sub-categories: salary and benefits. Sixty-seven participants discussed salary. Fifteen participants specifically mentioned



**Table 6**  
Categories derived from qualitative content analysis.

Category	%
1. Compensation	67
2. Positive organizational culture	46
3. Reasonable work hours	32
4. Prosocial engagement	27
5. Safe/clean work environment	20
6. Professional growth	19
7. Personal satisfaction	19
8. Societal Respect/acceptance	19
9. Ethics/human rights	13

benefits such as health insurance, lunch options, and transportation. Statements regarding salary included, “must have a good salary,” and “must have fees that will allow people’s livelihood.” Responses reflecting benefits included, “all medical expenses must be covered” and “employees should be provided with lunch and transportation.”

### 3.5. Positive organizational culture

Forty-six participants provided responses that reflected positive organizational culture as an aspect of decent work. These fell into one of two sub-categories: top-down climate (29 responses) and general climate (16 responses). Top-down climate refers to broad organizational climate which is predominately influenced by top levels of management and organizational policy. Predominate themes in this category were fairness and transparency. Specifically, participants stated that a decent job must include clearly communicated job descriptions, rules, and expectations for employees. Participants also reported that a decent job should include fair management and a culture of respect in supervisor-supervisee relationships. Quotes reflecting these themes include, “all employees should be treated fairly and honestly,” “have clearly defined principles and rules which are controlled regularly and consistently” and “employer and employee relations should be in a respectful manner.”

Responses that fell into the “general climate” category reflected positive interpersonal climate that did not infer hierarchical power differences as a factor. Participants reported that a decent job should include a generally positive interpersonal climate among co-workers. Responses in this category included, “good communication with colleagues,” “the working environment must be peaceful and without gossip,” and “all workers should respect each other.”

### 3.6. Reasonable work hours/work-life balance

Thirty-two participants described themes related to reasonable work hours and employers’ respect for work-life balance as essential to a job that is decent. Responses in this category reflected three main themes. First, respondents reported that decent work should not demand excessive work hours (e.g., “work hours should not be too long”). Second, responses indicated that a decent work should allow for adequate leisure time (e.g., “having enough vacations and leisure time for the employees”). Third, participants reported that a decent job allowed for work-life balance, with a particular emphasis on flexibility to allow for family obligations (e.g., “the job should be finished at work and it should not lead to work-family conflict”). Although most participants described this theme in general terms (“allow adequate time for a social life), some participants provided specific responses regarding guidelines for decent working hours (i.e., “daily working time must have maximum 8 h and weekend holidays”).

### 3.7. Prosocial engagement

Twenty-seven respondents described prosocial engagement as a part of their conceptualization of decent work. Specifically, they reported that a decent job is one that benefits other individuals or society as a whole. Example responses that reflect the prosocial engagement category include: “contribution to lives of other people,” “must be a benefit to the world, people or animals,” and “should provide to serve the community.”

### 3.8. Safe/clean work environment

Twenty participants reported that a component of decent work is having a safe and clean physical work space. Note that this category reflects physical safety rather than psychological safety. Quotes reflective of this category include, “precautions must be taken against occupational accidents in the workplace” and “the environment must be clean and the operating conditions must be safe.”

### 3.9. Professional growth

Nineteen participants identified opportunities for professional development as an aspect of decent work. Participants reported

that a decent job should provide in-service professional development training, support for career advancement, and an environment that fosters professional growth. Statements that reflected expectations of professional development opportunities included: “provide lifelong professional development by training, courses or observations,” and “competency-based advancement opportunities.”

### 3.10. Personal satisfaction

Nineteen participants described personal fulfillment as an expectation of decent work. This included themes of person-environment fit, satisfaction on the job, and work meaning. Quotes that reflect this category include, “spiritual satisfaction,” “should be matched...with personal characteristics of worker,” and “first of all, [the job] needs to be meaningful.”

### 3.11. Societal respect/acceptance

Nineteen participants reported societal respect and acceptance as an aspect of decent work. These statements reflected the importance of a job as being highly esteemed within a society as well as reflective of a society's values. Statements that reflected this aspect of decent work included: “it must be respected by all sections of society” and “it must be respectable and consistent with the values of society.”

### 3.12. Ethics/human rights

Thirteen participants reported ethical integrity and respect for human rights were central to decent work. Responses reflecting this category included, “must be ethical” and “must be in accordance with human rights.”

## 4. Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to provide a preliminary understanding of decent work in the current Turkish cultural context. In accordance with this purpose, we examined the validity and reliability of a Turkish version of the Decent Work Scale (DWS- Duffy et al., 2017) among a group of Turkish working adults. Additionally, we conducted a content analysis to qualitatively explore conceptualizations of decent work that may be unique to a Turkish cultural context. Overall, findings of this study revealed that our translated version of the DWS demonstrated satisfactory evidence with respect to validity and reliability, demonstrating consistency with results obtained in the validation study of the original scale (Duffy et al., 2017) and a recent Turkish version of the DWS (Işık et al., in press).

Consistent with the initial validation study (Duffy et al., 2017), we examined a correlational model, a higher order model, and a bifactor model. All tested models yielded good fit indices; however, in contrast to previous factor analytic studies (Duffy et al., 2017; Işık et al., in press), the correlational model produced the best fit, which may suggest that the scale is better structured as a five-factor model rather than a higher-order model in Turkish samples. In contrast to current results, Işık et al. (in press) found the bifactor model to have the strongest fit to the data, and strong evidence for the use of five factors led them to make the conclusion that assessment of DWS subscales might be more relevant than assessing a general decent work factor. In the current study, the correlational model displayed high factor loadings ranging from 0.66 to 0.98, demonstrating strong support for the use of the subscales rather than a general factor of decent work. Notably, these factor loadings are meaningfully higher than those found by Işık et al. (0.35 to 0.89).

To test measurement invariance, we conducted a series of multigroup CFAs comparing the scale across gender, income, and social class groups. Configural, metric, and scalar models fit the data equally well across groups. Model comparison suggested that the fit did not decline considerably across models, demonstrating invariance of model structure, factor loadings, and intercepts across all groups. Due to the sample composition, measurement invariance between a larger spread of more specific groups (e.g., including more income groups with narrower income ranges) could not be tested in this study. Thus, future studies with larger and more representative samples in terms of education level and work sector may enable researchers to test invariance in greater and more nuanced detail.

Moderate to high correlations in the expected directions between the DWS total score and job satisfaction, meaning of work, and withdrawal intentions provided evidence for convergent and discriminant validity. These results are consistent with previous studies (Duffy et al., 2017; Işık et al., in press) which reported positive correlations between the DWS and job satisfaction and work meaning, and negative correlations with withdrawal intentions. Regarding predictive validity, we conducted a series of hierarchical regression analyses, which demonstrated that DWS subscales explained substantive amounts of variance in outcome measures of job satisfaction, work meaning, and withdrawal intentions. All subscales explained unique variance in job satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. However, complementary values and adequate compensation were the only unique predictors of work meaning. Similar to the original DWS validation study (Duffy et al., 2017), complementary values and adequate compensation were unique predictors for all three outcomes suggesting that these subscales may be important components of predicting work fulfillment.

Although our findings revealed that DWS subscales in the current study explained more variance in job satisfaction (32% vs 28%) and withdrawal intentions (29% vs 20%) than Işık et al.'s (in press) study, they explained lesser variance in work meaning (9% vs 24%; Işık et al., in press). It is likely this may be due to differing participant characteristics. Turkey is a diverse country with culture differing by region and ethnic group (Mocan-Aydin, 2000). Even though both Turkish validation studies were conducted with Turkish participants, the data was collected in different regions. Although future research is needed to confirm within-group differences, we

speculate that differences in results between the previous and current study may indicate regional and/or ethnic differences in conceptualization of decent work.

To develop a more complete understanding of the conceptualization of decent work, we conducted a conventional QCA. We extracted nine categorical themes from responses to an open-ended question about what makes a job decent. These categories were Adequate Compensation, Reasonable Work Hours/Work-Life Balance, Safe/Clean Workplace, Societal Respect/Acceptance, Positive Organizational Culture, Ethics/Human Rights, Prosocial Engagement, Professional Growth, and Personal Satisfaction.

Conceptual components of all DWS subscales were represented in QCA categories. Specifically, Adequate Compensation and Access to Healthcare from the DWS are accounted for in the Compensation QCA category. Physical and Interpersonal Safety on the DWS was accounted for by the QCA categories Safe/Clean Workplace, Ethics/Human Rights, and Positive Organizational Culture. Adequate Free Time and Rest on the DWS correspond to our category of Reasonable Work Hours/Work-Life Balance. Finally, Complimentary Values on the DWS is reflected in our categories of Societal Respect/Acceptance and Ethics/Human Rights. Given the inferential nature of this analysis, the high degree of overlap between DWS subscales and our QCA categories provides support for the validity of the DWS in a Turkish population. Results suggest that the current version of the DWS speaks to a large portion of Turkish workers' conceptualizations of what makes work decent.

However, although all DWS factors were represented by participant responses, there were some components that are not currently captured by the DWS. This suggests that, although the DWS provides a valid measure of decent work in this population, it may not paint a complete picture of the construct. Specifically, categories not represented in the DWS were Prosocial Engagement, Professional Growth, and Personal Satisfaction. That is, participants reported that they expected decent work to benefit others, have opportunities to develop as professionals, and to provide personal satisfaction in the form of interest, personality fit, and meaning. Thus, the data suggest that these workers expect a higher minimum standard than is currently reflected in the decent work literature. This finding, however should be interpreted with caution. Specifically, given that all participants were employed in the formal labor market, the sample demonstrated a relatively high degree of privilege. Thus, it may be that expectations for decent work are higher in this sample than in those who have more restricted work choice such as those in the informal labor sector. Although these findings provide preliminary support for an expanded definition of decent work, future studies should focus on recruiting samples with greater diversity in regard to vocational privilege.

#### 4.1. Implications for practice

Results from the current study have a number of implications for practitioners and organizations. First, results provided validity for a Turkish-language version of the DWS (DWS-TR). Thus, practitioners might utilize this scale as an assessment tool when gaining an understanding of clients' current work lives. Specifically, the scale may be used to identify- or rule out- work environment as a source of a particular presenting concern. It may also provide a framework for client evaluation of their own work lives and potential need for improvement by means of decent work components. Having this framework may be particularly useful for clients who have difficulty reflecting on or verbalizing what about their work environment may be impeding well-being. In a similar vein, the DWS-TR may be used as a tool to initiate conversations regarding privilege, oppression, and social justice thereby working toward increasing critical consciousness of clients who may be impacted by societal injustice and, in turn, lack central components of decent work.

Results also suggest that, although the DWS-TR may capture much of the decent work construct, Turkish respondents expressed additional expectations for decent work. Specifically, we recommend counselors working in Turkish cultural context also inquire about job qualities related to prosocial engagement, professional growth, and personal satisfaction when assessing for decent work with clients.

Results from the current study may also have implications at the policy level. Specifically, the DWS-TR may be used to collect aggregate data to assess for decent work within a single organization; likewise, data may be collected across organizations to assess for decent work at a regional or national level.

#### 4.2. Limitations and future directions

Results of this study should be considered in light of a number of limitations. First, despite a relatively large sample, measurement invariance was only tested across gender, income and subjective social class. In the future studies, distribution of the work sectors and education levels of the participants could be considered for measurement invariance which may offer additional evidence of scale validity. Future studies should also test for invariance in a more nuanced manner. Specifically, future studies should include more groups within each demographic category.

Additionally, as stated by Işık and his colleagues (in press), a parsimonious quantitative scale enables researchers to assess individuals' access to decent work but is limited in providing further information that is essential for fully understanding conceptual underpinnings and mechanisms of decent work. For example, if an individual feels unsafe in their work environment, it is important to understand the individual, organizational, and sociopolitical factors that contribute to this. Future studies may use mixed-methods or qualitative research approaches to investigate underlying causes, and ultimately, interventions promoting decent work in the Turkish context.

Finally, it is important to note limitations to the representativeness of our sample. For example, for Study 1, 88.5% of the sample identified as middle class or above. For Study 2, we did not directly collect data on social class; however, the occupations maintained by our participants indicate that they may hold a relatively high level of privilege. This may be partly due to the convenience sampling method employed. It is possible that the high degree of privilege in this sample impacted results, especially regarding

qualitative reports of expectations for decent work. Furthermore, both samples consisted of only Turkish citizens most of whom worked in the Black Sea region. Thus, future studies should examine the applicability of the DWS-TR in samples with a greater level of social class diversity as well as with ethnic minorities and refugees.

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