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**Dai legami alle carriere: Comprendere il ruolo degli stili di attaccamento nella vita  
adulta e nella soddisfazione della carriera**

**From bonds to careers: Understanding the role of attachment styles in adult life and  
career satisfaction**

*Supervisor*

**Professor Sara Santilli**

***Candidate: Almira Alçin Yılmaz***

***Student ID number: 2040722***

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### **Abstract**

This master's thesis investigates the impact adult attachment styles have on various workplace outcomes, specifically focusing on life satisfaction, career satisfaction, organizational commitment, and the intention to turnover. The results broaden the scope of attachment theory by demonstrating its significance in the workplace, similar to its established role in personal relationships. The study revealed that secure attachment significantly enhances career satisfaction and organizational commitment. Individuals with secure attachment styles display higher life and career satisfaction, demonstrating a better ability to navigate workplace environments and develop professional competencies. Conversely, insecure attachment styles, particularly fearful and dismissive types, negatively correlate with life and career satisfaction, indicating that these individuals face difficulties in adapting to workplace settings and forming effective interpersonal relationships. The research also found that gender differences do not significantly differ in attachment styles or their impact on workplace outcomes.

Additionally, the study showed that working longer hours adversely affects both life and career satisfaction, drawing attention to the importance of maintaining a balanced work-life dynamic. Secure attachment and organizational commitment were significant predictors of career satisfaction. The practical implications of this study emphasize the need for interventions to support insecurely attached employees and the implementation of policies that foster work-life balance.

*Keywords:* adult attachment, organizational, attachment, life satisfaction, career satisfaction.

## **From bonds to careers: Understanding the role of attachment styles in adult life and career satisfaction**

### **1 Introduction**

The present study aims to investigate and enhance the understanding of adult attachment styles in the workplace setting. Although less commonly researched, adult attachment styles significantly influence workplace behaviors and the career journey of individuals. This dynamic is conceptually similar to early childhood attachment experiences. Employees' reactions to their work environment resemble how young children explore their surroundings. The research examines the correlation between different attachment styles and factors such as organizational commitment, life satisfaction, and career satisfaction among employees. By exploring these connections, the study intends to highlight the impact of attachment styles on various facets of professional life. This chapter introduces the contextual factors, focusing on how adult attachment styles predict workplace behaviors, influence professional careers, and impact career satisfaction.

Blustein et al. (1995) have proposed that work environments necessitate coping with new situations and adapting to changes. This process mirrors the psychological and interpersonal dynamics observed in infant-environment interactions. Entering a new job is fundamentally a socialization process that requires employees to build new relationships and maintain existing ones.

Lowman (1993) pointed out that significant interpersonal challenges are common in the workplace. For many employees, this makes the workplace a potentially risky environment, with their adaptation and overall well-being being partly influenced by their adult attachment style.

In the same way that infant attachment processes support an infant's exploration, adult attachment can facilitate work activities by enabling individuals to explore new employment environments. This exploration helps in developing competence in interacting with both the physical and social aspects of their surroundings (Fraley & Shaver, 2008). Secure attachment has been linked to the ability to freely explore work environments, which in turn leads to higher job satisfaction. Conversely, insecure attachment styles have been associated with hindrances to efficient productivity and timely task completion (Hazan & Shaver, 1990).

Moreover, secure attachment has been found to be associated with better adaptation and work-related adjustment (Blustein et al., 1995; Chen et al., 2021), effective leadership

(Mayseless & Popper, 2019; Underwood et al., 2016), progress in career decision-making (Hazan & Shaver, 1990), as well as active engagement in work-related exploration activities and career research (Littman-Ovadia et al., 2013). On the other hand, individuals with insecure attachment are reported to be more vulnerable to change due to their less effective adaptation to stressful situations (Hudson, 2013).

Lowman (1993) highlighted that the workplace presents significant interpersonal challenges; his study pointed out that the adult attachment styles of employees partly influence the ability to adapt and the overall well-being of employees. Furthermore, research shows that individuals with insecure attachment are more vulnerable to change because they adapt less successfully to stressful situations (Hudson, 2013). Secure attachment, on the other hand, is associated with better adaptation and work-related adjustment (Blustein et al., 1995; Chen et al., 2021) and progress in career decision-making (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). Additionally, secure attachment is linked to active participation in work-related exploration activities and career research (Littman-Ovadia et al., 2013).

Individuals with secure attachment styles also tend to establish a robust social support system in both their professional and personal lives through relationships with colleagues (Simmons et al., 2009). They are less likely to develop psychosomatic and physical illnesses (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). Securely attached employees are less focused on fears of rejection and concerns about low performance compared to their insecurely attached counterparts.

Conversely, individuals who exhibit an anxious adult attachment style tend to be more preoccupied with fears of rejection and performance evaluations (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). This anxious attachment style is also associated with more significant concerns about workplace relationships, lower job satisfaction, higher levels of stress, and increased burnout (Fralely & Shaver, 2008). Such individuals are less likely to employ emotion-focused coping strategies when faced with stressful situations. Dismissing and fearful attachment styles are characterized by a preference for relational distance, low emotional intensity, low trust in partners, inattention to distress signals, and greater hesitation to share personal information (Monteoliva et al., 2012).

Fearful attachment is particularly associated with viewing the work environment as an opportunity to avoid social interactions (Hardy & Barkham, 1994) and to maintain psychological independence (Rholes & Simpson, 2004). Both fearful and dismissive attachment styles correlate with lower levels of workplace confidence (Cranshaw & Game, 2010). Mikulincer and Florian (1995) found that insecure attachment is linked to a lower tendency to seek support and a greater psychological distance between the self and others



(Erez et al., 2008; Geller & Bamberger, 2009). This distance contributes to low levels of workplace satisfaction (Hardy & Barkham, 1994).

Identifying the factors that predict career satisfaction is crucial for assessing employees' success, motivation, and performance. This process plays a significant role in skill development, making it an essential area of focus for organizations (Bargsted et al., 2021; Heslin & Turban, 2016). The majority of existing research in the literature has predominantly concentrated on work-related factors such as job security, perceptions of justice, and reward systems, highlighting their importance in influencing employee satisfaction (Iqbal et al., 2020; Yean & Yahya, 2013).

However, there needs to be more empirical research focusing on the relationship between adult attachment patterns and career satisfaction, a gap that demands further investigation (Sumer & Knight, 2001). Much of the literature that explores adult attachment styles, attachment behaviors, and their correlation with various organizational outcomes relies heavily on samples from university students. Previous research often emphasizes career choices rather than examining the professional experiences of working adults (Meredith et al., 2007).

## 2 Literature Review

### 2.1 Attachment

Being social beings, humans require communication for various reasons, such as adapting to changing environments and ensuring the survival of their offspring (Dilmaç et al., 2009). From birth, an infant begins interacting with their surroundings. Lacking the ability to fulfill their own needs, they rely on adults and tend to form strong emotional connections with others (Deniz, 2005).

The relationships humans engage in with others starting early in life continue throughout their lifespan. Due to their inherent nature, humans differ from most other organisms in their reliance on caregivers for assistance. This fundamental need for caregiving leads to the inevitability of human beings living together, thus making attachment an unavoidable aspect of life. Attachment refers to the emotional connection formed between individuals (Ainsworth, 1969). Bowlby (1973) characterizes attachment as the inclination individuals have to seek closeness by fostering relationships during moments of fear or stress.

Moreover, attachment plays a significant role in shaping a baby's personality development (Bowlby, 2012). The early bond between a baby and their caregiver instills a sense of security in the baby during the latter half of their first year of life (Soysal et al., 2005). From the moment of birth, the infant, who is entirely dependent on care, naturally forms bonds with caregivers. The basis of this caregiver-baby bond is the expectation that the caregiver will be responsive and accessible when the baby needs care (Collins & Read, 1990).

Establishing emotional bonds in a baby is crucial as it enhances the probability of meeting basic life needs such as nourishment (Hamarta, 2004). This is because social needs are absent while a baby has physiological needs like eating and shelter. As the baby learns that the caregiver provides for their needs, like food and other physical requirements, they start developing an interest in and attachment to the caregiver (Bowlby, 1988). Through these early bonds, the baby's personality and mental framework shape, molding their sense of self and world perceptions (Collins & Read, 1990; Deniz, 2006).

Attachment theory, initially proposed by Bowlby in the 1950s and 1960s and systematically researched by Ainsworth, explains how the emotional bond formed between an infant and their primary caregiver evolves, its impact on the infant, and its implications for adult interpersonal relationships (Arslan, 2008; Harmata, 2004). The theory posits a

biologically rooted system that supports a child's need for closeness to the primary caregiver and aims to shield the child from potential harm (Colonnesi et al., 2011).

### ***2.1.1 Attachment in Infancy***

The attachment is formed with the primary caregiver, and it manifests differently, based on the infants' needs, and continues throughout life. The attachment style, whether secure or insecure, established early in life by the caregiver's sensitivity, often persists into adulthood (Kesebir et al., 2011), affecting later stages of life significantly if the initial emotional bond is inadequate. Individuals raised with trust and affection in their formative years often carry a belief in their worthiness of love and trust into adulthood (Bowlby, 1973).

According to this theory, the interactions between a baby and its caregiver form a 'bonding system' crucial for the baby's survival. This bonding system's evolutionary role extends beyond the physical protection of the infant. Early attachment between the baby and caregiver provides a sense of security and supports the baby's mental development. Attachment fosters brain processes that contribute to the social and cognitive skills needed for social living (Fonagy & Allison, 2013).

The instinct for closeness in a baby develops at different rates during the first year, leading to behaviors like sucking, cuddling, following the caregiver, and smiling. The way the primary caregiver responds to this instinct affects the baby's future relationships (Çalışır, 2009). When babies feel safe, their needs are consistently met, and they receive emotional warmth, they develop a positive view of themselves and their environment, believing they are lovable, and their world is secure (Çalışır, 2009). Through interactions with the primary caregiver aimed at fulfilling their needs, infants develop a foundational sense of trust. Therefore, the establishment of attachment relies significantly on the primary caregiver adequately precisely meeting the infant's needs.

A baby's need for physical touch and closeness leads to a solid emotional bond with the caregiver, requiring ongoing, close, and warm contact. This contact should be enjoyable and calming for the baby (Görünmez, 2006). The continuity of this contact helps the baby develop secure behaviors (Karakuş, 2012). When the caregiver promptly responds to the baby's needs, the baby feels secure and begins to interact with the environment, with the caregiver acting as a secure base (Kapçı & Küçüker, 2006). To establish the trust that underpins attachment, it is crucial for the baby to experience physical comfort and responsive

care (Erikson, 1968). The attachment remains stable when the baby feels this security, but the attachment system activates when the baby cannot reach the caregiver (Görünmez, 2006).

The immediate separation from the mother after birth can have adverse effects on infants. Various effects can be observed in infants separated from their mothers. These effects can range from developmental regression, slowing down, or stagnation to behavioral impacts. Reactive behaviors can also be observed in infants separated from their mothers, such as refusal to eat or frequent crying, indicating a prevailing emotional state of sadness. Due to the multifaceted nature of developmental processes, differences in neurobiological systems have also been observed in infants (Goodfriend, 1993; Boccio, 1994).

The attachment process manifests in infancy through specific stages. Immediately after birth, the baby demonstrates attachment behaviors crucial for survival. These include searching for the source of nourishment, turning towards it, sensing feeding times, and controlling reactions accordingly. The fundamental outlines of the attachment process are established between six and twenty-four months of age. During this period, the baby navigates complex relationships with caregivers or unfamiliar individuals (Kaplan et al., 1994)

Bowlby's attachment theory, rooted in biology, is essentially the survival strategy the baby develops with their caregiver. This proximity is established through the attachment bond between the baby and the caregiver. Through this bond, the baby becomes aware that they can reach out to the caregiver when needed, thus viewing the caregiver as a secure base. With a secure base, the baby can explore the surrounding world. In the absence of a secure base, the baby experiences intense anxiety, leading to behavioral reactions. These behavioral reactions are pacified through communication with the identified secure base, the caregiver. After calming down, the baby evaluates the process concerning the caregiver, forming specific mental codings based on factors like how promptly the caregiver fulfills their needs and the consistency of their actions. These codings, evolving with development and experience, form an internal working model that plays a significant role in social relationships (Bowlby, 1969, 1973; Bretherton, 1990, 1992).

### ***2.1.2 Bowlby's Attachment Theory***

Bowlby was an active figure in the field of psychoanalysis between the 1930s and 1950s, and he established the groundwork for attachment theory through his research endeavors. Unlike his contemporaries, he integrated animal studies, cognitive psychology,

and systems theory into his work, complementing the principles laid down by Freud. Therefore, Bowlby's approach can be seen as rooted in Freudian principles with an analytical perspective (Akdağ, 2011).

In the 1950s, Bowlby's investigations into the mental states of children in London who lacked a stable home laid the initial foundations for this theory. By studying children raised by hospitals or social services from birth, focusing on their psychological struggles, developmental milestones, and socio-emotional growth, Bowlby began to shape the core principles of attachment theory.

Bowlby, who worked extensively with children separated from their caregivers, asserts that the foundation of a baby's attachment behavior lies in the mother's absence. He argued that childhood experiences of loss and separation significantly influence mental well-being, potentially leading to psychological challenges. He associated concepts of emotional neglect and the absence of maternal figures (Holmes, 1993). Children experiencing separation exhibit protest reactions, feelings of hopelessness, and emotional detachment (Hazan & Shaver, 1994), which may lead to psychological issues later in life (Bowlby, 1982).

At its heart, attachment theory seeks to comprehend how individuals form relationships with one another. Bowlby suggested that the bond between an infant and their caregiver could shape adult life. He emphasized that this early relationship is based on an emotional connection, typically formed between the infant and the primary caregiver from birth, even though it develops with the primary caregiver (Bowlby, 1988). While it takes shape during the formative years, it holds enduring significance throughout an individual's life as a social being (Bıyıklı, 1995).

Object relations lie at the core of attachment theory. Bowlby described this object relation as infants' tendency to attach to caregivers who fulfill their basic needs. Infants make specific evaluations based on whether the caregiver meets their needs or not. These evaluations will dictate their interaction with the surrounding environment as they grow into adults. Developing positive self-perceptions enables positive internalization, fostering the development of a genuine identity. Through positive connections with others in their environment, individuals derive satisfaction from social interactions. As trust develops, infants become aware of various situations in their surroundings and consistently adopt a sense of trust towards the object with which they have formed an attachment bond. In this ongoing process, the object with the established attachment bond is occasionally assessed for control. Encountering behaviors that maintain trust during this assessment period will support individuals in confidently exploring their environment (Bowlby, 1969, 1973; Bilir, 2016).

### ***2.1.3 Mary Ainsworth's Contributions to Attachment Theory***

Mary Ainsworth made significant contributions to the field of attachment theory, enriching and expanding upon the foundational work laid down by John Bowlby. One of her most impactful contributions was her assertion that emotional bonds and social relationships are distinct entities. While emotional bonds are profoundly personal and evolve on an individual level, social bonds are shaped through mutual interactions and adaptability within social contexts (Ainsworth, 1989).

Ainsworth's pioneering research, mainly through her renowned "Strange Situation Experiment," delved into the intricacies of individuals' attachment styles. Conducting observations in Uganda and Baltimore, she meticulously examined how infants responded to separations and reunions with their caregivers in naturalistic settings. These studies formed the basis for categorizing attachment styles into three main types: secure, anxious, and avoidant (Masterson, 2013; Sümer, 2006).

The experiment involved observing infants aged 12 to 18 months for about twenty minutes, during which caregivers and strangers entered and left the room. Ainsworth found that securely attached infants used caregivers as a base for exploration, showing distress when separated and seeking comfort upon reunion. In contrast, infants with avoidant attachment did not rely on caregivers for security and showed little distress upon separation or reunion, often ignoring caregivers upon return (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Fonagy, 1999).

Infants with anxious attachment displayed intense distress upon separation, which persisted upon reunion, often with prolonged periods of agitation. They exhibited conflicting desires for and rejection of caregiver contact, alongside feelings of anger (Morsünbül, 2005). Ainsworth's observations revealed inconsistent caregiver responses to infants with anxious attachment, alternating between sensitivity and neglect, leading to insecure attachment (Egeland et al., 1979; Belsky et al., 1984).

### ***2.1.4 Adult Attachment***

The concept of adult attachment suggests that the attachment style developed in childhood continues into adulthood as a significant factor in shaping individuals' relationships.

Exploring the nuances of adult attachment, prior researchers have asserted that the attachment process extends throughout the lifespan, with cognitive models established in early childhood exhibiting remarkable stability. Collaborative efforts between Bowlby and

Ainsworth underscored the importance of expanding the conceptualization of attachment beyond early childhood, urging investigations into its manifestation in adulthood.

In adulthood, attachment involves actively pursuing emotionally and physically secure relationships and maintaining existing connections (Berman & Sperling, 1994). The attachment styles individuals develop in adulthood are linked to their attachment experiences during infancy and adolescence (Sevinç, 2016). The quality of early relationships during infancy and childhood significantly influences an individual's emotional and social orientation in later life (Erben & Çalışkan, 2015). Securely attached adults positively interpret their partners' actions, resulting in fewer conflicts. In contrast, those with insecure attachment styles often view their partners' behaviors negatively and respond defensively, leading to more disagreements (Feeney, 2002).

Although there are overarching similarities, the concept of adult attachment diverges from that of childhood and adolescence in its evolutionary trajectory.

During infancy, the attachment bond formed with the primary caregiver is typically perceived as one-dimensional, primarily centered around the caregiver's role in meeting the infant's needs. This unidirectional nature stems from the infant's inherent inability to fulfill its own needs, thus prompting a search for a caregiver capable of providing the necessary care and security. In contrast, adult attachment necessitates a reciprocal establishment of bonds, departing from the unilateral dynamics of infancy. Adults engage in attachment relationships wherein both parties have the capacity to offer caregiving support, transcending the simplistic caregiver-infant dynamic.

In adult attachment relationships, individuals are preoccupied with whether their partner can serve as a reliable and secure base, reflecting a more complex interplay of emotional needs and relational dynamics. Additionally, as individuals navigate through adulthood, romantic relationships gain importance, intertwining with the fulfillment of sexual needs as integral components of attachment.

Studies by Main et al. (1985) sought to validate the notion that the attachment styles outlined by Ainsworth could be extended to encompass adult experiences, aiming to unveil the complex interplay between individuals' past experiences and their current attachment dynamics. These endeavors shed light on the multifaceted nature of attachment, clarifying its enduring impact on individuals across the developmental continuum (Bowlby, 1973; Main et al., 1985; Sümer & Güngör, 1999).

Further investigation by Hazan and Shaver (1987) involved using questions to assess participants' romantic relationships, revealing distinct experiences based on attachment styles.

Securely attached individuals perceived their relationships positively, while those with an avoidant style tended to avoid intimacy, and those with an anxious style experienced emotional difficulties like jealousy and fears of rejection.

Expanding upon previous models, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) introduced a four-category attachment model that considers evaluations of self and others. Securely attached individuals viewed themselves and others positively due to consistent care, exhibiting low anxiety and avoidance. The preoccupied attachment was characterized by negative self-evaluation but positive evaluation of others, leading to dependency tendencies.

Two subcategories were identified within the avoidant attachment style: dismissive and fearful avoidance. Dismissive individuals had positive self-perceptions, considering themselves self-sufficient but having negative views of others. Fearful avoidance entailed negative evaluations of both self and others, with high levels of both avoidance and anxiety.

Securely attached individuals seek closeness confidently, while insecurely attached individuals develop coping strategies. Those with an anxious attachment employ hyperactivation, seeking closeness intensely and fearing rejection. In contrast, those with an avoidant attachment use deactivation, suppressing their need for closeness to protect against potential disappointments.

Anxiously attached individuals' hyperactivation increases doubts about self-esteem and self-efficacy, hindering their development of independence. Conversely, avoidantly attached individuals suppress their self-esteem and self-efficacy, striving to prove self-sufficiency. Those with fearful avoidance may exhibit inconsistent behaviors due to high levels of both anxiety and avoidance.

### ***2.1.5 Hazan and Shaver's Adult Attachment Model***

In addition to the extensive research on attachment theory, Hazan and Shaver (1987) have contributed by expanding the scope to include individuals' romantic relationships within the attachment framework. They have emphasized the significant impact of individuals' attachment styles on their romantic relationships, highlighting that these styles in adulthood differ from those developed in infancy and childhood. Drawing on Ainsworth's studies, Hazan and Shaver (1987) developed the "Three Category Attachment Model" by analyzing the emotional and behavioral shifts in adults' interpersonal relationships. They categorized attachment styles into three distinct types: secure, anxious-ambivalent, and avoidant. Securely attached individuals comfortably engage in and maintain close relationships without fear.



They exhibit high levels of self-confidence, assertiveness, and ease with intimacy. Individuals with this attachment style feel secure in themselves and seek comfort through physical closeness with trusted partners (Shaver & Brennan, 1992).

Conversely, those with an anxious-ambivalent attachment style often struggle with low self-esteem and harbor concerns about acceptance and abandonment in romantic relationships, leading to anxieties about their partners' adequacy and responsiveness. Individuals who exhibit this type of attachment tend to perceive that others are not interested in forming relationships with them or that their partners do not genuinely harbor affection toward them. They frequently struggle with feelings of jealousy and encounter emotional ups and downs (Sümer & Güngör, 1999).

Meanwhile, individuals with an avoidant attachment style tend to avoid emotional intimacy and may hesitate to express their inner feelings in relationships. They also exhibit difficulties in initiating and maintaining social connections. Individuals who display this type of attachment pattern often struggle to establish open relationships with others, find it challenging to develop a sense of trust, and encounter various issues related to forming attachments. Moreover, these individuals are described as having minimal trust in their partners, holding negative beliefs and needs, and avoiding intimacy (Sümer & Güngör, 1999).

### ***2.1.6 Bartholomew and Horowitz's Four-category Attachment Model***

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) elaborated on attachment styles, indicating that these styles persist beyond infancy into adulthood, as observed in their study involving university students.

In contrast to previous approaches, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) sought to categorize adults' attachment models based on the concepts of "self" and "other." They proposed a Four-category Attachment Model, which identifies four attachment types based on positive or negative perceptions of the self and others. According to their model, a positive self-concept involves integrating positive self-descriptions and internal processes independent of external validation. In contrast, a negative self-concept entails low self-esteem and reliance on external validation. On the other hand, a positive other concept provides a sense of security in relationships, and individuals feel free to seek support when needed. In contrast, a negative other concept involves perceiving others as untrustworthy and avoiding intimacy. Bartholomew and Horowitz's model delves into the nuances of attachment styles, examining how positive and negative self-concepts intersect to shape individuals' relational dynamics.

### **2.1.6.1 Secure Attachment Model.**

Individuals who fall within the secure attachment model exhibit a set of characteristics indicative of positive self-perception and healthy relationship dynamics (Soygüt, 2004). They possess a strong sense of self-worth and value, acknowledging their own intrinsic worthiness. This self-assurance enables them to accept and reciprocate love and affection from their environment, fostering positive interactions and emotional exchanges. Moreover, individuals with secure attachment styles demonstrate trust in themselves and others, facilitating the development of close and meaningful relationships without hesitation (Sümer & Güngör, 1999).

When confronted with stressful situations or emotional challenges, individuals with secure attachment styles employ effective coping strategies to navigate through adversity. Drawing upon a combination of internal resilience and external support systems, they exhibit resilience and adaptability, allowing them to manage difficulties with relative ease. Their ability to seek comfort and reassurance from trusted individuals during times of distress contributes to their overall emotional well-being and stability.

### **2.1.6.2 Preoccupied Attachment Model.**

In contrast to the secure attachment model, the preoccupied attachment model arises from a complex interplay of negative self-perception and idealized views of others. Individuals within this attachment style harbor doubts and insecurities about their own self-worth, often seeking validation and approval from external sources to alleviate their feelings of inadequacy. Paradoxically, they hold idealized perceptions of their romantic partners or significant others, projecting a sense of perfection and infallibility onto them. Those individuals who experience inconsistent and insensitive behaviors from their parents carry a substantial sense of worthlessness and a tendency to avoid them. Despite their efforts to form close relationships, they tend to remain alone due to their excessive pursuit of intimacy (Soygüt, 2004). These individuals exhibit inconsistent and excessive emotions in their relationships with others. Their level of expressing feelings is intense, often accompanied by frequent crying and heightened levels of insecurity. They play an unstable role in their relationships with friends. Those individuals usually have a low ability to cope with problems and stressful situations (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Howard & Medway, 2004).

This idealization of others, coupled with their own self-doubt, creates a dynamic wherein individuals with preoccupied attachment styles constantly strive to prove their worthiness and seek reassurance in their relationships. They may exhibit tendencies towards clinginess, possessiveness, or jealousy, driven by a deep-seated fear of abandonment or rejection. Consequently, their relationships may become characterized by intensity, dependency, and emotional instability as they struggle with their internal insecurities and anxieties.

#### **2.1.6.3 Dismissive Attachment Model.**

Within the dismissive attachment model, individuals display a strong sense of self-confidence and independence accompanied by a dismissive attitude toward forming close emotional connections with others. They maintain a positive self-image, viewing themselves as capable, self-sufficient individuals who do not require emotional support or validation from others. Consequently, they may prioritize autonomy and self-reliance over interpersonal relationships, preferring solitude and independence over intimacy and emotional vulnerability.

Despite their outward confidence and self-assurance, individuals with dismissive attachment styles may struggle with emotional intimacy and vulnerability, avoiding close relationships or expressing their true feelings. Their reluctance to engage in deep emotional connections may stem from a fear of vulnerability or a desire to protect themselves from potential rejection or disappointment. Consequently, they may appear aloof, detached, or emotionally distant in their interactions with others, creating barriers to intimacy and closeness.

#### **2.1.6.4 Fearful Attachment Model.**

The fearful attachment model encompasses a blend of negative self-perception and mistrust towards others, resulting in ambivalence and internal conflict within interpersonal relationships. Individuals with fearful attachment styles view themselves as unworthy or undeserving of love and acceptance, harboring deep-seated insecurities and self-doubt.

This negative self-perception fuels a profound fear of rejection or abandonment, leading individuals to adopt defensive mechanisms to shield themselves from potential emotional harm. They may hesitate between a desire for intimacy and connection with others and a fear of vulnerability and rejection, creating a turbulent and unpredictable dynamic

within their relationships. As a result, they may exhibit behaviors such as push-pull dynamics or difficulty establishing and maintaining healthy boundaries.

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) propose that individuals with fearful attachment styles often experienced inconsistent caregiving during childhood, leading to unresolved emotional wounds and internalized feelings of fear and mistrust. These unresolved issues manifest in their adult relationships, hindering their ability to form secure and stable attachments with others. As a result, they may struggle with issues related to trust, intimacy, and emotional regulation, perpetuating a cycle of relational dysfunction and emotional distress.

In summary, individuals who have cultivated secure attachment demonstrate a lack of shyness in stressful situations compared to those with different attachment styles and do not interpret these situations as threats. They have confidence in their capacity to address their own challenges and strive to comprehend the reasons behind their negative emotions without projecting them onto others. They possess a heightened level of emotional awareness and exhibit control in managing their emotions effectively (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

## **2.2 Life Satisfaction**

Throughout life, humans, with their physical and emotional needs, develop a personal sense of how fulfilling their life is based on whether these needs are met. This perception, also referred to as happiness in daily life, has been a topic of interest for researchers in history. Happiness has been a central driving force for individuals throughout life, although researchers initially focused more on unhappiness than happiness (Yetim, 2003). However, due to the challenge of defining happiness, it has primarily been substituted by the concepts of subjective well-being or life satisfaction (İncekara, 2018).

The notion of "life satisfaction" arises from meeting an individual's expectations and needs in life. It encompasses judgments about individuals' satisfaction levels, ranging from overall life satisfaction to individual aspects. Pavot and Diener (1993) described life satisfaction as subjective judgments that vary from person to person and encompass cognitive evaluations of individuals' lives (Özkan, 2013). Due to its encompassing nature and diverse interpretations, the concept of life satisfaction can be perceived differently by individuals (Keser, 2005), sometimes equating with happiness and other times with well-being (Özer & Karabulut, 2003). Since it is interpreted based on individuals' perceptions of their own lives,

life satisfaction is a subjective assessment influenced by factors such as family life, health, marital status, finances, social abilities, and personality traits (Güler & Usluca, 2021).

Research on life satisfaction has emerged more recently in the field of psychology. Previously, psychology focused on pathology and individual problems, but positive psychology, pioneered by Martin E. P. Seligman, emphasizes strengths and virtues. This shift in focus has led researchers to explore concepts like life satisfaction, happiness, and well-being (Seligman, 2002).

The term "life satisfaction" was introduced by Neugarten in 1961, but to understand this concept, it is necessary first to define "satisfaction." Seligman (2002) defines satisfaction as the fulfillment of expectations, needs, desires, and wishes, while Budak (2000) describes it as achieving a state of balance by meeting basic biological and psychological needs. Life satisfaction, on the other hand, arises from comparing what individuals expect or desire with their actual circumstances. It is crucial to understand that life satisfaction does not pertain to a specific instance but encompasses satisfaction across various aspects of life, from work and family to health and finances (Dost, 2007).

Life satisfaction refers to an individual's overall assessments and evaluations of their own life (Çivitçi, 2012). The subjective evaluation of life satisfaction involves comparing one's own circumstances with perceived standards (Diener et al., 1985). According to Çivitçi (2009), life satisfaction is described as cognitive evaluations concerning the level of satisfaction an individual feels in a specific domain or throughout their life.

Veenhoven (1996) viewed life satisfaction as the positive development of life quality and identified various determinants, such as societal quality, an individual's societal position, life events, personal growth, understanding underlying reasons for feelings, and the relationship between life satisfaction and overall satisfaction (İnci, 2014).

### ***2.2.1 Precursors of Life Satisfaction***

Fabian (1990) suggested that life satisfaction is influenced by individuals' expectations and experiences, making it subject to change over time and resistant to impartial evaluation. The level of well-being, such as happiness and morale, is determined by the alignment between an individual's expectations and achievements in life (Vara, 1999).

Vara (1999) suggests that life satisfaction stems from individuals comparing their expectations with reality, encompassing various aspects of their lives. Myers and Diener (1995) noted that personal and psychological factors influence more significantly than gender

and income level (Myers & Diener, 1995; Demir et al., 2021). Generally, it is believed that the greater the harmony between one's aspirations and accomplishments, the higher their life satisfaction (Vara, 1999).

Life satisfaction involves evaluating one's life based on self-selected criteria and comparing it with one's current situation, thereby judging their happiness against these criteria (Pavot & Diener, 1993).

Diverse opinions emerge regarding the factors influencing life satisfaction in literature. While some argue that positive relationships with family and peers, parenthood, physical self-acceptance, and personal growth impact life satisfaction, others propose that factors such as health, family dynamics, national prosperity, career, asset ownership, and psychological well-being also play crucial roles (Özer & Karabulut, 2003). Moreover, some researchers assert that economic freedom, ideological alignment with the majority, freedom of expression, solid social ties, high socioeconomic status, and engagement in recreational and social activities contribute to life satisfaction (Gülcan, 2014).

Beyond individual aspects, environmental factors significantly shape life satisfaction. Social relationships, family dynamics, economic stability, and safety contribute to an individual's life satisfaction. Strong bonds with family and friends, financial security, and a safe environment enhance life satisfaction (Açıkel Gülel, 2019).

### ***2.2.2 Life Satisfaction in the Workplace***

Given that work constitutes a significant portion of an individual's life, it profoundly affects life satisfaction. Overcoming workplace challenges, achieving professional goals, self-perception of competence, and career advancement contribute to increased life satisfaction (Verbruggen & Sels, 2010). Conversely, factors like long work hours, excessive workload, inadequate compensation, and work-related stress negatively impact life satisfaction (Parıldar, 2020).

## **2.3 Organizational Commitment**

Initially conceptualized by Whyte in 1956, organizational commitment has been subjected to extensive examination by numerous scholars, leading to a multifaceted understanding of the concept. These diverse investigations have significantly contributed to the evolution and refinement of the notion of organizational commitment within the academic discourse.

Broadly construed, organizational commitment is related to how employees perceive their assigned tasks and their behaviors toward their work (Ahmadi, 2014). It encompasses a complex interplay of factors involving employees' acceptance of the organization's goals and regulations, their emotional investment in the organizational context, and their inclination to remain affiliated with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

In essence, organizational commitment entails employees' voluntary dedication to the organization, their reliable maintenance of positive attitudes, their embrace of a collaborative team ethos, and their alignment with the organization's mission and vision (Taş, 2012). This holistic perspective underscores the intricate nature of organizational commitment and its significance in shaping individual behaviors and organizational dynamics.

Organizational commitment holds significant importance for organizations. This stems from the fact that employees with high levels of commitment tend to align themselves closely with the goals and values of the organization, fostering a stronger sense of belonging and a greater willingness to engage in behaviors that benefit the organization beyond their required duties. In essence, committed employees are assets to an organization's competitive advantage, recognizing the pivotal role of human resources in organizational success (Nehmeh, 2009).

Despite being a focal point of discussions and research due to its salience in employee behavior, the concept of organizational commitment remains multifaceted and needs a universally agreed-upon definition. This complexity arises from the interdisciplinary nature of research, with scholars from diverse fields, such as psychology, sociology, and organizational behavior, examining the concept through their respective lenses of expertise (Çöl, 2004). Over the decades, research efforts have revealed a diversity of perspectives on commitment, highlighting its nuanced nature and varied conceptualizations (Örücü & Kışlalıoğlu, 2014).

Some scholars conceive organizational commitment as individuals' intrinsic motivation to perpetuate their presence within the organizational environment, catalyzed by aligning organizational and personal goals and values (Bateman & Strasser, 1984). According to Chang and Lin (2015), professional commitment transcends mere dedication to one's role, encapsulating the degree of satisfaction derived from one's allegiance to the organization. At its core, organizational commitment entails the fusion of employees' identities with the organization, underpinned by a sense of responsibility (Ensher et al., 2001). Those who harbor an understanding of professional commitment toward their organization serve as valuable assets, enriching both their organizational environment and their colleagues, given their dedication (Cohen, 1999).

Organizational commitment also encompasses the process of aligning with the workplace climate and culture, converging around shared objectives and values, in addition to fostering a sense of loyalty towards the organization. Its ramifications extend to pivotal domains such as employee attendance, productivity, performance, job satisfaction, and turnover. Failure to instill a sense of belonging among employees can precipitate adverse consequences for the organization, while cultivating a culture of ownership and commitment among employees can fuel organizational progress. Hence, formulating policies aimed at bolstering organizational commitment is imperative for organizational sustainability and employees' holistic well-being (Sıđrı, 2007).

### ***2.3.1 Meyer and Allen's Framework for Organizational Commitment***

Meyer and Allen (1991) outlined the Classification of Organizational Commitment, which underscores three distinct yet interrelated themes within the organizational context. Despite the nuanced interpretations surrounding organizational commitment, Meyer and Allen emphasize the outline of these dimensions as discrete entities, each measurable separately.

Thus, Meyer and Allen's framework not only provides a comprehensive taxonomy of organizational commitment but also sheds light on the multifaceted nature of employees' attachment to their organizations. Outlining affectionate, normative, and continuance commitment as distinct dimensions elucidates the intricate interplay between individual motivations, societal pressures, and pragmatic considerations shaping employees' decisions to remain within the organizational fold.

#### **2.3.1.1 Affectionate Commitment.**

Affectionate commitment embodies the alignment between the organization and its members, fostering a shared sense of values and beliefs. This form of commitment is deeply rooted in individuals' experiential interactions within their professional environment, reflecting a profound connection nurtured through positive work experiences (Allen & Meyer, 1993). Individuals who cultivate emotional commitment toward their organizations demonstrate a strong sense of alignment with organizational values, willingly choosing to remain engaged and embracing the organization's ethos, behaviors, and ideologies on an emotional level. Employees who exhibit emotional commitment are inclined to stay within the organization, elevated by a sense of contentment and belonging, rendering it a pivotal facet desired by employers for cultivating a loyal workforce. They derive satisfaction from



their affiliation with the organization, feeling a profound sense of belonging. Moreover, they approach their job responsibilities with dedication and internalize their role within the organizational framework, contributing positively to performance outcomes and exhibiting a solid inclination to persist in their current role (Dağlı et al., 2018).

### **2.3.1.2 Continuance Commitment.**

Continuance commitment underscores a pragmatic calculus wherein individuals weigh the costs associated with letting go of their organizational ties against the investments made during their occupancy. Within this framework, individuals maintain a baseline level of performance and possess the requisite skills and capabilities demanded by their roles. Their unwillingness to seek alternative employment stems from a perception of limited prospects elsewhere, thus necessitating their continued presence within the organization due to circumstantial constraints. Consequently, their engagement and productivity within the organization may vary depending on the perceived harmony between personal expectations and organizational rewards (Starnes & Truhon, 2006).

### **2.3.1.3 Normative Commitment.**

Normative commitment explains a sense of moral obligation or societal pressure compelling individuals to maintain their allegiance to the organization. Individuals perceive it as morally upright to remain within the organizational fold, driven either by societal norms or a sense of obligation towards the organization stemming from past assistance or support received. This external pressure from society exerts a compelling force, compelling individuals to persist within the organizational context, notwithstanding their personal inclinations (Powell & Meyer, 2004).

What distinguishes normative commitment from its affectionate counterpart is the sense of obligation individuals feel toward remaining within the organization. Their allegiance is perceived as a virtuous act driven by a mandate to uphold organizational culture and values (Dağlı et al., 2018).

All forms of organizational commitment share the common objective of supporting employee maintenance within the organizational context. Nonetheless, the motivations behind each individual's commitment to remaining within the organization vary. While some individuals may stay due to an intrinsic desire stemming from emotional attachment, others may find themselves bonded to the organization out of practical necessity or societal pressures. Hence, the spectrum of organizational commitment manifests in diverse forms,

each reflecting a unique interplay of individual and contextual factors influencing employees' decisions to stay (Arslan, 2015).

### ***2.3.2 The Consequences of Organizational Commitment***

The consequences of organizational commitment behavior encompass a spectrum of outcomes that can be appraised through both positive and negative lenses, contingent upon the degree of commitment exhibited by individuals. When organizational commitment decreases, it leads to unfavorable behaviors within the organizational environment, including diminished performance, heightened job dissatisfaction, increased turnover rates, and elevated instances of absenteeism (Doğan & Kılıç, 2007).

A study by Shore and Martin (1989), in which the complex interplay between organizational commitment and performance was examined, revealed that individuals with heightened levels of organizational commitment demonstrated correspondingly superior performance outcomes. Conversely, Mguqulwa's (2008) research failed to establish a significant relationship between emotional commitment and job performance, suggesting the nuanced relationship needs further exploration.

### ***2.3.3 Organizational Commitment and Career Satisfaction***

In a deeper investigation of the relationship between organizational commitment and career satisfaction, Hoş and Oksay's (2015) comprehensive investigation revealed a compelling association between the internal and external dimensions of satisfaction and organizational commitment. Their findings underscored the importance of these dimensions in fostering a heightened sense of organizational allegiance, characterized by a statistically significant and positive correlation. Moreover, the previous literature revealed a pivotal link between organizational commitment and organizational turnover rate. Gellatly's (1995) seminal study showed a significant inverse relationship between organizational commitment and workforce turnover, underscoring the pivotal role of commitment in an organizational setting.

Evaluating the previous research findings, it becomes evident that organizational commitment is vital in shaping workforce dynamics, with its ramifications extending far beyond individual job satisfaction to encompass broader organizational outcomes such as performance enhancement. As organizations endeavor to navigate the complex terrain of

human resource management, cultivating organizational commitment emerges as a strategic imperative, promising dividends in the form of a more engaged and resilient workforce.

## 2.4 Career Satisfaction

Career satisfaction reflects individuals' feelings about their roles, skills, and accomplishments. It measures how individuals perceive the alignment of their career progress with their own values, preferences, and objectives (Karavardar, 2014). Career satisfaction is highly significant in both individual and organizational contexts, playing a crucial role in ensuring employee success and commitment to the organization (Aktaş, 2014). Individuals who are satisfied with their careers tend to display positive attitudes towards their work and organization, which is seen as an expected behavior (Turunç & Alkan, 2020). Therefore, it is essential to consider the concept of career satisfaction in all aspects of human resource management, and organizational strategies should be devised to support individuals in their career development (Çakan, 2020).

Career satisfaction was initially introduced through the theories of Holland and Super regarding career choices. Holland emphasizes that career satisfaction is rooted in individuals' acquired experiences, skills, values, and accomplishments. At the same time, Super suggests that it is influenced by changes in their work environment, organizational alterations, or shifts in job responsibilities (Gürkan & Koçoğlu, 2014). Greenhaus et al. (1990) define career satisfaction as the overall contentment, encompassing both internal and external aspects such as salary, opportunities for advancement, and personal development (Judge et al., 1995). Shaver and Lacey (2003) propose that career satisfaction is determined by the extent to which an individual's experiences in their chosen career align with those in their current job role (Anafarta & Yılmaz, 2019).

The sense of fulfillment in reaching set goals forms the core aspect of career satisfaction. Consequently, as individuals progress toward their goals, their levels of career satisfaction rise, while deviations from their objectives lead to decreased satisfaction. Moreover, this diminished satisfaction is flagged as a concern since it can lower individuals' motivation and performance (Kılınç et al., 2021).

Lounsbury et al. (2004) assert that career satisfaction positively influences life satisfaction, emphasizing that overall satisfaction with life results from one's entire career experience. Career satisfaction contributes to giving meaning to individuals' lives, becoming an integral part of their identity. Consequently, individuals often define themselves by their

careers, such as being doctors, architects, engineers, or academicians. The level of satisfaction derived from one's career significantly impacts how individuals perceive themselves and their lives, underscoring its importance in many individuals' lives (Tavlan Soydan, 2021).

#### ***2.4.1 Understanding Career Satisfaction: Comparison to Job Satisfaction***

Career satisfaction, a cornerstone of scholarly discourse, stands distinct from job satisfaction, primarily concerning specific job-related aspects. Whereas job satisfaction typically revolves around immediate work conditions, career satisfaction casts a broader net, encompassing an individual's overall sentiment toward their entire career trajectory. It goes beyond mere job satisfaction to embrace the feelings of fulfillment or discontentment regarding one's professional journey as a whole (Denizli & Dündar, 2020). For instance, while individuals may feel satisfied with their career progression, they may still experience dissatisfaction with factors such as working conditions or hours, highlighting the nuanced nature of career satisfaction (Gerçek et al., 2015).

Moreover, career satisfaction extends beyond job-specific contentment to encompass a holistic evaluation of an individual's profession and vocational pursuits. It involves a subjective assessment wherein individuals assess their career expectations against the opportunities and experiences provided by their organization (Orçanlı et al., 2020). The degree of career satisfaction one experiences is contingent upon one's ability to attain professional objectives and achieve success within their chosen field. In essence, career satisfaction serves as a standard for measuring an individual's fulfillment in realizing their career aspirations throughout their professional journey.

Initially, scholarly investigations into career satisfaction predominantly centered on its objective facets, such as organizational advancements, attained positions, status, and earnings. However, evolving research paradigms have recognized that individuals may experience a sense of disconnection or detachment from their careers despite objective success. This realization has initiated a paradigm shift towards the subjective perceptions and internalized experiences individuals associate with their professional lives (Rençber & Paşaoğlu Baş, 2021). Consequently, recent assessments of career satisfaction embrace both objective benchmarks and subjective evaluations, acknowledging the intricate interplay between external achievements and internal perceptions of fulfillment and progress.

### ***2.4.2 Career Satisfaction in the Workplace***

Undoubtedly, its workforce is one of the most prized assets for any organization. The efficient and effective utilization of this invaluable resource, and consequently the organization's overall success, depends upon various factors. Among these, career satisfaction stands out as a pivotal determinant (Gürkan & Koçoğlu, 2014; Ofluoğlu & Bayraktar, 2021). Individuals enter the workforce primarily to fulfill their needs and attain satisfaction. However, their motivations evolve as time progresses to encompass changing expectations and aspirations (Edinsel, 2018). The construct of career satisfaction stems from individuals' evaluations of whether their expectations align with their experiences within the organization they are employed in (Çelik, 2012).

Defined as an emotional or reactive response to one's career and work situation (Gattiker & Larwood, 1990), career satisfaction is a multifaceted construct encompassing individuals' past and present career experiences along with their future expectations (Greenhouse et al., 1990). It encapsulates sentiments towards one's role, earnings, and career accomplishments while summarizing feelings about work life and attitudes toward jobs (Lounsbury et al., 2003). Diddams and Whittington (2003) contend that career satisfaction is inherently subjective, measurable through employees' attitudes and behaviors in the workplace, with individuals perceiving themselves as successful in experiencing positive emotions. Seibert et al. (2001) assert that career satisfaction serves as a vital predictor of career success (Weng & McElroy, 2012).

### ***2.4.3 Career Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment***

Identifying and comprehending the factors influencing employees' career satisfaction within organizations is crucial for assessing their careers and eliminating turnover intentions (Direnzo & Greenhaus, 2011). Literature suggests numerous associations between career satisfaction and variables such as job content, individual characteristics, race, organizational commitment, specialization, work-life balance, turnover intention, contribution to organizational change, organizational support for career development, and the impact of career satisfaction on organizational effectiveness and performance (Oh, 2013).

Research indicates that career satisfaction significantly influences employees' tendency to remain within an organization (Armstrong et al., 2009) and their intentions to leave (Nauta, 2010), underscoring its critical role in organizational contexts. Hakim et al. (1995) assert that accurately identifying factors crucial for career satisfaction enables

organizations to attract qualified, motivated, and committed employees, ensuring long-term continuity and effective organizational change, which are essential for all organizations and necessitate employee loyalty. Individuals with a clear sense of purpose are skilled at expressing their strengths and talents in their career experiences, leading to heightened career satisfaction as they align their self-perceptions with their roles (Xie et al., 2016). However, those with clear goals and self-esteem tend to experience heightened career satisfaction and navigate failures more adeptly (Hall & Chandler, 2005).

Having a high level of satisfaction with one's career leads to more significant contributions to the organization. Satisfied individuals typically exhibit improved job performance, thereby contributing to the organization's overall performance (Karatepe, 2012). Furthermore, individuals who are satisfied with their careers tend to strive to maintain their current level of career success by giving their best effort (Çelik et al., 2014). Research conducted by Imadoğlu (2016) illustrates a positive and significant correlation between career satisfaction and job performance. It also suggests that managing this relationship effectively can improve organizations' productivity and profitability. Similarly, findings from a study by Yalçın Özyurt (2021) indicate that career satisfaction positively impacts job performance.

#### ***2.4.4 Career Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions***

Career satisfaction serves as a crucial indicator of employees' tendency to leave their jobs. Individuals who are highly satisfied with their careers tend to stay in their organizations, prompting organizations to strive to enhance career satisfaction among their employees (Baskoro, 2020). In their study, Anafarta and Yılmaz (2019) discovered a meaningful negative correlation between career satisfaction and the intention to leave one's job. This suggests that as individuals positively evaluate the outcomes they achieve in pursuing their goals, their inclination to quit their jobs diminishes. Similarly, research conducted by Kenek and Sökmen (2018) supports a negative significant relationship between career satisfaction and the intention to leave one's job. Furthermore, findings from Taşlıyan et al. (2022) uphold a positive link between career satisfaction and organizational commitment. Career satisfaction is highlighted as a vital factor in fostering organizational commitment and reducing costs related to training and development (Çakan, 2020).

## **2.4.5 Outcomes of Career Satisfaction**

### **2.4.5.1 Life Satisfaction.**

Life satisfaction, an essential aspect of overall well-being, involves an individual's cognitive appraisal of life circumstances and experiences (Lounsbury et al., 2004). Research suggests that individuals who experience contentment in their lives tend to exhibit greater motivation towards achieving their goals, thereby contributing positively to their overall life satisfaction (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). Moreover, given that careers often serve as a significant source of income and fulfillment, they are considered integral to one's overall life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1999). For instance, a study by Hagmaier et al. (2018) established a positive correlation between career satisfaction and life satisfaction, highlighting the interplay between professional contentment and broader life fulfillment.

Additionally, Latif et al. (2021) conducted a study examining the impact of career satisfaction on life satisfaction, finding a robust and positive association between the two constructs. Similarly, Zakaria et al. (2018) investigated the influence of career satisfaction and social support on life satisfaction among female employees in the mid-career stage, concluding that career satisfaction significantly predicted life satisfaction. Likewise, a study by Lyubomirsky et al. (2005) explored the relationships between personality traits, career satisfaction, and life satisfaction, affirming the positive link between career satisfaction and overall life satisfaction.

### **2.4.5.2 Organizational Commitment.**

Career satisfaction also has implications for organizational commitment, which reflects the psychological bond between employees and their organizations (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This commitment encompasses attitudes and behaviors demonstrated by employees towards their workplace and is influenced by their job experiences and outcomes.

A study by Hsu and Tsai (2014) revealed a positive relationship between career satisfaction and organizational commitment among hotel employees. Similarly, Moon and Choi (2017) examined the effects of career management behavior and organizational support on subjective career success and organizational commitment among employees in the manufacturing sector in Korea, uncovering a positive influence of subjective career success on organizational commitment.

Moreover, Chang (1999) demonstrated in his research that employees' career commitments significantly influence their organizational commitments. Furthermore,

Kuchinke et al. (2008) highlighted a significant relationship between career satisfaction and organizational commitment, underscoring the importance of career satisfaction in fostering a sense of commitment to the organization.

#### **2.4.5.3 Intention to Turnover the Job.**

The intention to leave one's job represents an individual's inclination to seek alternative employment opportunities and disengage from their current organizational affiliation (Suarthana et al., 2016). This psychological response, often driven by experiences and sentiments within the workplace, is considered a critical factor influencing organizational productivity, service quality, and profitability across various sectors (Belete, 2018). Additionally, the intention to leave the job imposes significant financial costs on organizations, stemming from activities such as recruitment and training, while also contributing to disruptions and reduced service quality (Guan et al., 2014).

Arthur (1994) noted that career satisfaction serves as a significant predictor of the intention to leave one's job. Consequently, decision-makers have recently been interested in understanding how enhancing employees' subjective evaluations of career success can diminish their intentions to leave their current positions (Guan et al., 2014). Guan et al.'s (2017) study investigated the relationship between self-directed and other-directed career successes, career satisfaction, and the intention to leave the job, revealing that both forms of career success were associated with increased career satisfaction and decreased intentions to turnover. Drenzo et al. (2011) further emphasized the importance of managerial efforts aimed at enhancing employees' career satisfaction to mitigate turnover intentions. In essence, employees who experience satisfaction in their careers are less likely to contemplate leaving their current positions.



### 3 Research Design and Methodology

#### Examining the Effect of Adult Attachment Styles in the Workplace

##### 3.1 Current Study and Rationale

The objective of this study is to explore and expand the theory of attachment styles within the workplace context. Despite being less frequently studied, adult attachment styles play a crucial role in predicting career satisfaction. This relationship mirrors early childhood attachment experiences in several conceptual ways. Employees respond to workplace environments in ways that are conceptually similar to how young children explore their immediate surroundings. Specifically, the research seeks to explore how different attachment styles correlate with organizational commitment, life satisfaction, and career satisfaction among employees. By examining these relationships, the study aims to shed light on the impact that attachment styles have on various aspects of professional life.

Furthermore, this research aims to contribute to the existing body of literature by providing a deeper understanding of how attachment styles influence career satisfaction within an organizational setting. The aim is to uncover new insights that can enhance our knowledge of workplace dynamics and the factors that drive employee satisfaction.

Primarily, the main question of the present study is to understand how adult attachment styles (secure, fearful, dismissive, and preoccupied) relate to life satisfaction, career satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to quit, and the impact of weekly working hours and gender differences on these variables among working adults.

To address this question, we hypothesize the following:

*H1:* There are no significant gender differences in life satisfaction, career satisfaction, attachment styles, organizational commitment, and intention to quit.

*H2:* The interaction between weekly working hours and extra weekly hours has a significant combined effect on life satisfaction, career satisfaction, and secure attachment.

*H3:* Weekly working hours significantly affect life satisfaction and career satisfaction, with those working more than 40 hours per week reporting lower levels of both.

*H4:* Higher levels of career satisfaction are predicted by higher organizational commitment and secure attachment style of the individual.

## 3.2 Method

### 3.2.1 Participants

Ninety-four participants were recruited by snowball sampling. After excluding those who did not complete the study, we included 80 participants in the final analysis. Among these, 55 were females (68.8%), and 25 were males (31.3%). The participants' ages ranged from 19 to 61 ( $M=32.83$ ,  $SD=9.66$ ). Most participants resided in Türkiye (73.8%), with others in Italy (21.3%), The Netherlands (1.3%), Denmark (1.3%), Austria (1.3%), and Russia (1.3%).

All participants were active workers from different sectors, and the work experience of the participants varied from 2 months to 40 years ( $M=9.87$ ,  $SD=9.48$ ). Among those participants, a higher percentage of them have weekly working hours of 40 hours (32.5%), followed by 20-30 hours weekly (25%), more than 40 hours weekly (23.8%), and less than 20 hours weekly (18.8%). The extra working hours was varied, with 36.3% reporting 0-2 extra hours weekly, 25% more than six extra hours, 20% 4-6 extra hours, and 18.8% 2-4 extra hours.

### 3.2.2 Procedure

Participants completed the study remotely online using the Qualtrics Software link. Initially, we provided a general survey description to obtain their consent. Participants gave consent via the Informed Consent Form to proceed with the study. Selecting "I accept" allowed them to move on to the next section. After completing the Informed Consent Form, we presented the Demographic Form to gather participants' information. This form collected various data about the participants, such as their age, gender, years of work experience, weekly working hours, and additional hours required for their job, among other details.

After the Demographic form, in the following part of the study, participants completed the following scales in the given order: The Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, 1985), the Relationship Scale Questionnaire (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994), Career Satisfaction Scale (Greenhaus et al., 1990) and Organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

This study was conducted with attention to ethical standards, ensuring no ethical issues arose. Participants were given detailed information about the study's nature and objectives, the type of data that would be collected, and how this data would be utilized.

Additionally, participants were informed about their rights, including the right to withdraw from the study at any point without any repercussions. This extensive briefing ensured that participants were making a fully informed and voluntary decision when consenting to partake in the study. To further protect participants, they were provided the means to contact the researcher directly via email or other messaging platforms.

When presenting the research findings, great care was taken to remove sensitive personal information that could reveal the participants' identities. This ensured that the presentation of results did not compromise the privacy and anonymity of those involved.

In conclusion, every aspect of this study was meticulously planned and executed to adhere to ethical principles, ensuring the protection and respect of participants' rights and privacy throughout the research process.

### ***3.2.3 Instruments***

#### **3.2.3.1 The Satisfaction with Life Scale.**

The Turkish version of The Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, 1985) was used to measure participants' overall life satisfaction. This scale consists of five items and operates on a single-factor model. The initial research confirmed this scale's validity and reliability (Diener, 1985).

The scale was later adapted into Turkish and used in the Turkish context by Köker in 1991 (Köker, 1991). The Satisfaction with Life Scale is designed to capture an individual's global cognitive judgments about their overall life satisfaction rather than measuring specific emotional states or the presence of positive or negative feelings.

This 5-item scale was used to ask participants to reflect on their lives and rate their level of agreement with each statement using a 7-point Likert scale. The scale ranges from 1, indicating 'strongly disagree,' to 7, indicating 'strongly agree.' Participants' responses to the five items are totaled to produce a score ranging from 5 to 35. Higher scores on this scale reflect a higher level of life satisfaction, suggesting that the individual feels optimistic about their life circumstances. Conversely, lower scores indicate lower life satisfaction, suggesting dissatisfaction with one's life. Cronbach alpha reliabilities were excellent for this sample, with .925.

### **3.2.3.2 Relationship Scales Questionnaire.**

The assessment of attachment style in this study was conducted using the Relationship Styles Questionnaire developed by Griffin and Bartholomew in 1994. This questionnaire is a comprehensive tool comprising 30 self-report items designed to measure individuals' general inclinations toward intimate relationships.

Participants were requested to respond on a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from "not at all like me" (1) to "very much like me" (7), indicating the extent to which they identified with each statement.

The questionnaire encompasses four distinct subscales, each corresponding to a different attachment style: Secure (Cronbach's  $\alpha=.630$ ), Fearful (Cronbach's  $\alpha=.807$ ), Dismissive (Cronbach's  $\alpha=.729$ ), and Preoccupied (Cronbach's  $\alpha=.385$ ). These subscales provide a nuanced exploration of individuals' attachment orientations and relationship approaches.

To ensure cultural relevance and linguistic accuracy, Sümer and Güngör adapted the questionnaire to Turkish in 1999. The Turkish version of the questionnaire was utilized for this particular study. Cronbach alpha for the total scale was .740.

### **3.2.3.3 Career Satisfaction Scale.**

The career satisfaction of the participants was measured by the Turkish adaptation of The Career Satisfaction Scale (Greenhaus et al., 1990). Akın and Alabucak undertook its adaptation into Turkish in (2017). Comprising five items and a singular dimension, this scale employs a 5-point Likert-type rating system, allowing respondents to indicate their level of agreement from "Not suitable for me (1)" to "Completely suitable for me (5)."

For this scale, participants' responses to the five items are totaled to produce a range from 5 to 25. Higher scores reported on this scale reflect higher satisfaction with their career, suggesting that the individual feels optimistic about their overall career circumstances. Contrarily, lower scores indicate a lower level of career satisfaction, suggesting dissatisfaction with one's career. Cronbach's alpha score was high for the present sample, with .884.

### **3.2.3.4 Organizational Commitment Scales.**

Meyer and Allen (1991) developed the Three-Component Model of Commitment as a comprehensive framework to evaluate the multifaceted nature of employee commitment to their organizations.

For the Turkish adaptation of these scales, the translation was provided by Wasti (2000). Each of these three scales comprises six specific items designed for each type of commitment (affective, normative, and continuance commitment). Participants respond to these items using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1, indicating "strongly disagree," to 7, indicating "strongly agree." This scaling method allows for a nuanced assessment of the participant's level of agreement with each statement.

In the context of this particular study, the focus was placed on examining only two types of commitment: Affective Commitment and Normative Commitment (Cronbach's  $\alpha=.907$ ). The Continuance Commitment Scale was not included in this study. Instead, it was substituted with the Turnover Intention Questionnaire (Intention to Quit Scale) (Angle & Perry, 1981), which measures the participants' intentions to leave their organization.

### **3.2.3.5 The Turnover Intention Questionnaire (Intention to Quit Scale).**

The Turnover Intention Questionnaire (Angle & Perry, 1981) was used for this study to measure participants' intention to quit their jobs (Cronbach's  $\alpha= .242$ ). Initially devised by Angle and Perry in 1981, it is a tool to evaluate an individual's inclination or intention to leave their current job. This questionnaire, composed of four brief questions, assesses an employee's mindset regarding potential job departure. Higher scores reported indicate a higher intention to turn one's job, and lower scores indicate a lower intention to quit one's job.

### 3.3 Results

This section presents the findings of the analyses to understand the relationships between adult attachment styles, life and career satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Initially, descriptive statistics were computed to provide the sample's demographic profile and summarize the distributions of the primary variables of interest.

All bivariate correlations are presented in Table 1. The results revealed that life satisfaction was significantly correlated with all the other variables measured. Specifically, life satisfaction had a significant positive correlation with career satisfaction [ $r(80) = .680, p < .001$ ], indicating higher life satisfaction was associated with higher career satisfaction. Additionally, the significant positive correlation with secure attachment indicated that higher life satisfaction was associated with higher levels of secure attachment [ $r(80) = .541, p < .001$ ]. On the other hand, lower life satisfaction was significantly associated with higher levels of dismissive attachment [ $r(80) = -.522, p < .001$ ]. Life satisfaction had a significant negative correlation with fearful attachment [ $r(80) = -.459, p < .001$ ], suggesting that individuals with low life satisfaction tended to report higher levels of fearful attachment. The negative correlation with preoccupied attachments [ $r(80) = -.247, p = .027$ ] suggested an association between lower life satisfaction and higher levels of preoccupied attachment. Additionally, there was a significant negative correlation with intention to quit [ $r(80) = -.320, p = .004$ ]. Furthermore, higher life satisfaction was associated with greater organizational commitment [ $r(80) = .463, p < .001$ ].

Similarly, career satisfaction was significantly correlated with every measured variable except preoccupied attachment [ $r(80) = -.208, p = .064$ ]. Career satisfaction had significant negative correlations with fearful attachment [ $r(80) = -.372, p = .001$ ] and dismissive attachment [ $r(80) = -.413, p < .001$ ], and a significant positive correlation with secure attachment [ $r(80) = .422, p < .001$ ]. Although low career satisfaction was associated with high levels of fearful and dismissive attachment, it was conversely associated with low levels of secure attachment. The significant negative correlation with the intention to turnover [ $r(80) = -.444, p < .001$ ] indicated that individuals with higher career satisfaction were less likely to intend to quit their jobs. The significant positive correlation showed that higher career satisfaction was associated with greater organizational commitment [ $r(80) = .547, p < .001$ ].

Additionally, secure attachment was not significantly correlated with intention to quit [ $r(80) = -.044, p = .701$ ] but was significantly positively correlated with organizational

commitment [ $r(80) = .257, p = .022$ ], indicating that higher levels of secure attachment were associated with greater organizational commitment.

Finally, there was a strong negative correlation between organizational commitment and intention to turnover [ $r(80) = -.601, p < .001$ ], indicating that higher organizational commitment was associated with lower intention to quit.

**Table 1**

*Bivariate Correlations for All Measured Variables*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Life Satisfaction	-							
2. Career Satisfaction	.68**	-						
3. Fearful Attachment	-.46**	-.37**	-					
4. Dismissive Attachment	-.52**	-.41**	.62**	-				
5. Preoccupied Attachment	-.25*	-.21	.44**	.56	-			
6. Secure Attachment	.54**	.42**	-.77**	-.64**	-.06	-		
7. Intention to Turnover	-.32**	-.44**	.12	.27*	.19	-.04	-	
8. Organizational Commitment	.46**	.55**	-.22*	-.22	-.05	.26*	-.60	-

Note.

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

The independent samples t-test was conducted to examine the differences between males and females across all the other measured variables. Overall, the independent samples t-test results indicated that there were no statistically significant differences between males and females across the variables of life satisfaction [ $F(1,78) = 4.03, p = .12$ ], career satisfaction [ $F(1,78) = 3.30, p = .53$ ], fearful attachment [ $F(1,78) = 1.45, p = .81$ ], dismissive attachment [ $F(1,78) = .39, p = .69$ ], preoccupied attachment [ $F(1,78) = .47, p = .23$ ], secure attachment [ $F(1,78) = .38, p = .64$ ], organizational commitment [ $F(1,78) = 4.52, p = .92$ ], and intention to quit [ $F(1,78) = 1.01, p = .44$ ].

The results suggested that gender did not play a significant role in influencing these psychological and organizational variables within the sample.

**Table 2**

*Gender distribution of responses according to means and standard deviations*

	Female		Male		t (78)	p	Cohen's d
	M	SD	M	SD			
Life Satisfaction	24,09	6,47	20.96	8.72	1.6	.12	0.406
Career Satisfaction	16,64	4,57	15.88	5.85	.63	.53	0.142
Fearful Attachment	35,13	8,91	34.56	10.84	.25	.81	0.056
Dismissive Attachment	29,89	6,80	30.60	7.58	-.42	.68	-0.094
Preoccupied Attachment	20,11	4,36	18.80	4.83	1.2	.23	0.273
Secure Attachment	43,29	9,54	42.20	10.10	.47	.64	0.105
Organizational Commitment	49,58	14,38	49.24	18.53	.09	.93	0.020
Intention to Quit	17,04	4,06	16.24	4.70	.77	.44	0.175



A Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted to investigate the effects of weekly working hours, extra weekly hours, and their interaction with all the other variables measured. Specifically, life satisfaction, career satisfaction, attachment styles (fearful, dismissive, preoccupied, secure), intention to turnover, and organizational commitment.

The MANOVA results indicated a significant multivariate interaction effect between Weekly Working Hours and Extra Weekly Hours, Roy's Largest Root = .428, [ $F(9, 64) = 3.044, p = .004, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .300$ ]. The main effects of the interaction of Weekly Working Hours and Extra Weekly Hours were insignificant (all  $p > .05$ ).

There was a significant main effect of Weekly Working Hours on Life Satisfaction, [ $F(3, 64) = 3.723, p = .016, \eta^2 = .149$ ] and career satisfaction [ $F(3, 64) = 3.402, p = .023, \eta^2 = .138$ ]. Additionally, there was a significant main effect of Extra Weekly working hours on the fearful attachment [ $F(3, 64) = 3.277, p = .027, \eta^2 = .133$ ].

The results of MANOVA indicate that the number of weekly working hours significantly affected both life satisfaction and career satisfaction. Additionally, the number of extra weekly hours worked was significantly related to fearful attachment. The interaction between weekly working hours and extra weekly hours also showed a significant multivariate effect, suggesting a combined influence on the dependent variables.

A follow-up univariate ANOVA was conducted to explore the significant effect of weekly working hours on the main interaction. The ANOVA and post hoc analysis were conducted to examine the effect of weekly working hours on both life and career satisfaction. The ANOVA revealed that there are statistically significant differences in both life satisfaction [ $F(3,76) = 4.590, p = .005$ ] and career satisfaction [ $F(3,76) = 4.148, p = .009$ ] based on weekly working hours. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the means of life satisfaction and career satisfaction differ significantly across the different categories of weekly working hours.

Specifically, individuals who work more than 40 hours per week tend to have significantly lower levels of life satisfaction ( $M = 19.05, SD = 7.28$ ) and career satisfaction ( $M = 13.58, SD = 5.65$ ) compared to those working fewer hours and spending less extra hours on their workload. More specifically, those who work for 40 hours weekly have significantly higher career satisfaction ( $M = 18.58, SD = 3.83, p = .004$ ) and life satisfaction ( $M = 26.42, SD = 6.12, p = .004$ ) than those who work for more than 40 hours.

**Table 3**

*Comparison of Mean Scores of Life Satisfaction and Career Satisfaction Concerning Working Hours*

Measure	Life Satisfaction		Career Satisfaction	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Less than 20 hours	24.27	5.60	16.53	5,34
20-30 Hours	21.80	8.18	16.15	4,25
40 hours	26.42	6.12	18.58	3,84
More than 40 hours	19.05	7.28	13.58	5,65

In a multiple regression analysis, the predictors secure attachment and organizational commitment significantly predicted career satisfaction, [ $F(2, 77) = 24.09, p < .001$ , with an  $R^2$  of 0.385. Organizational commitment was a significant predictor ( $B = .149, p < .001$ ), as was secure attachment ( $B = .156, p = .002$ ). The results suggest that higher levels of secure attachment and organizational commitment are associated with greater career satisfaction.

**Table 4**

*Regression Analysis for Career Satisfaction*

Model	R	R <sup>2</sup>	F	SD	p
1	,620a	0,38	24,08	3.96	.000

*Predictors. Secure Attachment, Organizational Commitment*

*Dependent Variable. Career Satisfaction*

## 3.4 Discussion

### 3.4.1 Theoretical Implications

This study explored the influence of adult attachment styles on various workplace outcomes, specifically focusing on life satisfaction, career satisfaction, organizational commitment, and the intention to quit. The findings of this study extend existing attachment theory by demonstrating that adult attachment styles play a critical role in the workplace, much like they do in personal relationships. The results essentially confirmed our hypotheses, highlighting the significance of secure attachment in enhancing career satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The findings align with previous research emphasizing secure attachment's adaptive benefits (Fraley & Shaver, 2008; Blustein et al., 1995; Chen et al., 2021). Secure attachment demonstrated a strong positive correlation with both life and career satisfaction, reflecting earlier studies that suggest securely attached individuals possess a better capacity to navigate their work environments and cultivate professional competencies (Fraley & Shaver, 2008; Hazan & Shaver, 1990). This study contributes to the literature by showing that secure attachment not only fosters exploration and competence but also enhances organizational commitment and reduces the likelihood of turnover.

The results also highlight the importance of secure attachment in predicting positive workplace behaviors. Secure attachment was linked to higher organizational commitment, aligning with findings from Blustein et al. (1995) and Mayseless & Popper (2019).

This study reaffirms that secure attachment contributes to a supportive work environment, enabling employees to establish and maintain strong professional relationships and effectively handle workplace stress.

The correlation between secure attachment and a lower intention to turnover underscores the protective role of secure attachment in employee retention. This finding is consistent with prior research indicating that securely attached individuals are less inclined to leave their jobs because they can form strong workplace bonds and adapt to new situations (Chen et al., 2021; Underwood et al., 2016). Securely attached individuals, with their robust social support systems and lower focus on fears of rejection, tend to thrive in professional settings (Simmons et al., 2009). On the other hand, the higher intention to turnover among insecurely attached individuals highlights the challenges these employees face in maintaining job satisfaction and stability.

Conversely, insecure attachment styles, especially fearful and dismissive attachment, showed significant negative correlations with life and career satisfaction. This supports the idea that insecurely attached individuals often face difficulties in adapting to workplace environments and building effective interpersonal relationships (Littman-Ovadia et al., 2013). These results are in line with prior studies that found insecure attachment to be linked with poorer job performance, higher stress levels, and less effective coping strategies (Hazan & Shaver, 1990; Hudson, 2013; Monteoliva et al., 2012). This negative correlation suggests that insecurely attached individuals may struggle with full organizational engagement due to less effective stress management and interpersonal skills (Hudson, 2013). Those with insecure attachment styles may struggle with performance evaluations, stress, and burnout, limiting their career satisfaction and progression (Fraley & Shaver, 2008; Hazan & Shaver, 1990). The adverse correlations between insecure attachment styles and career satisfaction suggest that these attachment patterns can impede professional growth and satisfaction.

#### ***3.4.2 Explaining the Gender Indifferences***

The results of this study revealed no significant gender differences across various psychological and organizational variables. This finding aligns with several streams of research suggesting that gender does not always play a pivotal role in these specific workplace outcomes.

Research indicates that attachment styles, which develop in the early years and tend to remain relatively stable, are not significantly influenced by gender (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Both men and women can exhibit any of the attachment styles—secure, anxious, dismissive, and fearful—at similar rates. This stability in attachment styles across genders explains why no significant differences were observed in how attachment styles influenced workplace outcomes in the current study.

Studies on life and career satisfaction have shown mixed results regarding gender differences. Some research indicates that while men and women might experience different stressors and satisfaction sources, these do not necessarily translate into significant differences in overall satisfaction levels (Diener et al., 1999). Specifically, research by Bender et al. (2005) found that the determinants of job satisfaction are primarily similar across genders, with both men and women valuing aspects such as job security, work-life balance, and recognition.

Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) found that while there might be variations in the reasons why men and women commit to an organization, the overall levels of commitment are generally comparable. Similarly, a meta-analysis by Cotton and Tuttle (1986) reported that gender is not a consistent predictor of turnover intentions, indicating that both men and women decide to stay or leave based on similar considerations such as job satisfaction, career advancement opportunities, and work environment.

The convergence in gender differences may also reflect broader social changes. As societal roles and workplace dynamics evolve, men and women increasingly share similar work environments, job roles, and career aspirations (Powell & Graves, 2003). This shift reduces the traditional gender differences in workplace experiences and outcomes. Moreover, contemporary organizational policies promoting equality and diversity can contribute to creating a more uniform experience for all employees, regardless of gender.

### ***3.4.3 Explaining the Effect of Working Hours***

The study revealed that the number of hours worked each week, combined with additional hours worked, impacts life satisfaction and career satisfaction in a meaningful way. These findings align with the broader literature on work stress, attachment theory, and job satisfaction, highlighting the importance of managing work hours to maintain overall well-being and job satisfaction. Employees working more than 40 hours per week reported lower life and career satisfaction, underscoring the detrimental impact of excessive work hours on overall well-being (Barnes et al., 2020).

Moreover, further analysis of this study's findings indicates that weekly working hours significantly affect both life satisfaction and career satisfaction, with those working more than 40 hours per week reporting lower levels of both.

One of the primary reasons that longer working hours negatively impact life satisfaction is the decline in work-life balance. When individuals work more than 40 hours per week, they have less time available for personal activities, family, and leisure, which are crucial for overall life satisfaction. Achieving a healthy balance between work and personal life is essential for well-being (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Research has shown that longer working hours are associated with increased stress, reduced leisure time, and diminished opportunities for rest and personal activities (van der Hulst, 2003). Consequently, excessive working hours can negatively impact work-life balance, which is leading to lower life satisfaction.

Additionally, studies showed that working long hours has been linked to adverse physical and mental health outcomes, including fatigue, depression, and anxiety. These health problems can significantly diminish life satisfaction. Prolonged working hours can lead to chronic stress, which undermines overall happiness and quality of life (Sparks et al., 1997).

Additionally, working beyond a standard 40-hour workweek often leads to reduced sleep and increased sleep disturbances. Previous research indicates that longer working hours can negatively affect sleep quality and quantity. Poor sleep, in turn, adversely impacts life satisfaction due to its effects on physical health, cognitive function, and emotional well-being (Åkerstedt et al., 2002).

Further, high job demands, often reflected in longer working hours, can lead to job stress and burnout, negatively impacting career satisfaction (Maslach et al., 2001). Perceived workload and the balance between effort and rewards are critical determinants of job satisfaction (Siegrist, 1996). The imbalance between effort and reward worsens as working hours increase, leading to frustration and dissatisfaction.

Another point to highlight is long working hours are closely linked to increased job stress and burnout, which are significant detractors of career satisfaction. Burnout is characterized by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment, all of which are intensified by excessive work hours (Maslach et al., 2001).

Overall, the present study revealed that the interaction between weekly working hours and extra weekly hours significantly impacts life satisfaction and career satisfaction due to increased stress, poorer work-life balance, health issues, and disturbances to personal life. Understanding these dynamics can help organizations develop better policies to enhance employee well-being and job satisfaction.

#### ***3.4.4 Predictors of Career Satisfaction***

The study's findings, aligning with the broader literature on attachment theory and organizational commitment, revealed that both secure attachment and organizational commitment are significant predictors of career satisfaction.

Secure attachment is characterized by confidence in oneself and trust in others, which fosters a supportive environment for exploring and mastering the work environment. Fraley and Shaver (2008) suggest that individuals with secure attachment are associated with more effective career exploration and development in individuals. Securely attached individuals tend to form positive and supportive relationships with colleagues and supervisors. These

relationships provide emotional support, feedback, and opportunities for professional growth, all of which contribute to higher career satisfaction (Simpson et al., 1992). Individuals with secure attachment exhibit lower levels of interpersonal conflict and higher levels of collaboration and teamwork (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Research indicates that secure attachment is linked to the use of effective coping strategies in the face of workplace stress (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). Securely attached individuals are better at managing stress and maintaining a positive outlook, which enhances their overall job satisfaction.

Organizational commitment, particularly affective commitment, reflects an emotional attachment, identification, and organizational involvement. Employees who are emotionally committed to their organization are more likely to find their work fulfilling and satisfying (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Committed employees are more likely to invest time and effort into achieving organizational goals, which can lead to feelings of accomplishment and recognition. This investment enhances career satisfaction as employees see their contributions making a meaningful impact (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

In summary, secure attachment and organizational commitment are significant predictors of career satisfaction because they foster supportive relationships, effective stress management, and a sense of belonging and purpose within the organization. These factors collectively enhance an individual's experience and satisfaction in their professional career.

### ***3.4.5 Limitations and Future Research***

While this study provides valuable insights, it also has limitations that warrant consideration. The sample size of 80 participants, though sufficient for detecting significant correlations, may limit the generalizability of the findings. Future research should replicate these results with more extensive and diverse samples to enhance external validity.

Additionally, the cross-sectional design of the study prevents causal inferences. Longitudinal studies are needed to examine the temporal dynamics of attachment styles and workplace outcomes. Such studies could explore how changes in attachment patterns over time influence career satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Furthermore, while this study focused on the direct relationships between attachment styles and workplace outcomes, future research could investigate potential mediators and moderators of these relationships. For example, examining the role of workplace culture,

leadership styles, and social support could provide a more nuanced understanding of how attachment styles interact with organizational factors to influence employee outcomes.

### ***3.4.6 Practical Implications***

From a practical standpoint, these findings have significant implications for organizational practices and employee development programs. Recognizing the role of attachment styles in shaping employee behaviors and satisfaction can inform the development of targeted interventions to support insecurely attached employees. For instance, providing mentorship programs and fostering a supportive work culture can help these individuals build stronger workplace relationships and improve their job satisfaction. Moreover, interventions aimed at enhancing secure attachment, such as providing training on emotional intelligence and relationship-building skills, could improve overall job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Additionally, promoting work-life balance through flexible working hours and wellness programs can mitigate the adverse effects of long working hours on employee satisfaction.

Moreover, the study highlights the importance of monitoring employees' working hours. The negative impact of working more than 40 hours per week on both life and career satisfaction underscores the need for organizations to promote work-life balance. Implementing policies that limit excessive work hours and encourage adequate rest and personal time can help to enhance employee well-being and commitment.



## 4 Conclusion

In conclusion, this study highlights the significant impact of adult attachment styles on various aspects of professional life, including career satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit. Secure attachment emerges as a crucial predictor of positive workplace behaviors and outcomes, while insecure attachment poses challenges to employee well-being and satisfaction. The findings underscore the importance of considering attachment styles in organizational practices and interventions to foster a supportive and productive work environment. By integrating attachment theory into organizational practices and promoting supportive work environments, employers can enhance employee satisfaction and commitment, ultimately contributing to a more productive and harmonious workplace.

Future research should explore the nuanced effects of different attachment styles in diverse workplace contexts further to enhance our understanding of their impact on professional life.

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