

The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education

*Volume 13 Issue 3
July 2023*

Editor-in-Chief
Prof. Dr. Aytekin İşman

Editors
Prof. Dr. Colleen SEXTON
Prof. Dr. Jerry WILLIS
Prof. Dr. Teresa FRANKLIN
Prof. Dr. Deborah Bordelon
Assoc. Prof. Dr. İrfan ŞİMŞEK
Assist. Prof. Dr. Tuncer Can

Associate Editors
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Amirul Mukminin
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kerim KARABACAK

Technical Editor
Assist. Prof. Dr. Hüseyin ESKİ

Journal Secretary
Assist. Prof. Dr. Mustafa ÖZTUNÇ



Copyright © 2011 - THE ONLINE JOURNAL OF NEW HORIZONS IN EDUCATION

All rights reserved. No part of TOJNED's articles may be reproduced or utilized in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system, without permission in writing from the publisher.

Contact Address:

Prof. Dr. Aytekin İŞMAN
TOJNED, Editor in Chief
Sakarya-Turkey

Published in TURKEY

Hello from TOJNED

TOJNED welcomes you. TOJNED looks for academic articles on the issues of education science and may address assessment, attitudes, beliefs, curriculum, equity, research, translating research into practice, learning theory, alternative conceptions, socio-cultural issues, special populations, and integration of subjects. The articles should discuss the perspectives of students, teachers, school administrators and communities. TOJNED contributes to the development of both theory and practice in the field of education science. TOJNED accepts academically robust papers, topical articles and case studies that contribute to the area of research in education science.

The aim of TOJNED is to help students, teachers, school administrators and communities better understand the new developments about teacher education. Submitted articles should be original, unpublished, and not in consideration for publication elsewhere at the time of submission to TOJNED. TOJNED provides perspectives on topics relevant to the study, implementation and management of learning with technology.

I am always honored to be the editor in chief of TOJNED. Many persons gave their valuable contributions for this issue.

TOJNED will organize INTE-2023 conference (www.int-e.net) in July 2023. We would like to invite you to INTE 23 Conference.

Call for Papers

TOJNED invites article contributions. Submitted articles should be about all aspects of teacher education and may address assessment, attitudes, beliefs, curriculum, equity, research, translating research into practice, learning theory, alternative conceptions, socio-cultural issues, special populations, and integration of subjects. The articles should also discuss the perspectives of students, teachers, school administrators and communities.

The articles should be original, unpublished, and not in consideration for publication elsewhere at the time of submission to TOJNED.

For any suggestions and comments on the international online journal TOJNED, please do not hesitate to send email.

July 01, 2023

**Editor,
Prof. Dr. Aytakin İŞMAN
Sakarya University**

Editor-in-Chief

Prof. Dr. Aytekin İŞMAN - Sakarya University, Turkey

Editors

Prof. Dr. Colleen SEXTON, Governor State University, United States

Prof. Dr. Jerry WILLIS, Manhattanville College, United States

Prof. Dr. Teresa FRANKLIN, Ohio University, United States

Prof. Dr. Deborah Bordelon, Governor State University, United States

Assoc. Prof. Dr. İrfan ŞİMŞEK, Istanbul University Cerrahpasa, Turkey

Assist. Prof. Dr. Tuncer Can, Istanbul University Cerrahpasa, Turkey

Associate Editors

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Amirul Mukminin, Jambi University, Indonesia

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kerim KARABACAK, Istanbul University Cerrahpasa, Turkey

Technical Editor

Assist. Prof. Dr. Hüseyin ESKİ - Sakarya University, Turkey

Journal Secretary

Assist. Prof. Dr. Mustafa ÖZTUNÇ, Sakarya University, Turkey

Editorial Board

Aaron DAVENPORT, Grand View College, United States	Gianni Viardo VERCELLI, University of Genova, Italy
Abdülkadir MASKAN, Dicle University, Turkey	Gilbert Mbotho MASITSA, University of The Free State - South Africa
Ahmet ESKİCUMALI, Sakarya University, Turkey	Giovanni ADORNI, University of Genova, Italy
Amirul MUKMININ, Jambi University, Indonesia	Gregory ALEXANDER, University of The Free State - South Africa
AAndreja Istenic STARCIC, University of Primorska, Slovenija	Gulriz IMER, Mersin University, Turkey
Antoinette MUNTJEWERFF, University of Amsterdam, Netherlands	Heli RUOKAMO, University of Lapland, Finland
Antonis LIONARAKIS, Hellenic Open University, Greece	Hj. Mohd Arif Hj. ISMAIL, National University of Malaysia, Malaysia
Arif ALTUN, Hacettepe University, Turkey	Hsien-Ming Lin, National Sun Yat-sen University, Taiwan
Arvind SINGHAL, University of Texas, United States	Huichen Zhao, School of Education, Henan University, China
Aytekin ISMAN, Sakarya University, Turkey	Huseyin YARATAN, Eastern Mediterranean University, TRNC
Brent G. WILSON, University of Colorado at Denver, United States	Ibrahim OTEIR, Majmaah University, Saudi Arabia
Buket AKKOYUNLU, Hacettepe University, Turkey	Iman OSTA, Lebanese American University, Lebanon
Charlotte GUNAWARDENA, University of New Mexico, United States	Ivy CHIA, Singapore University of Social Sciences, Singapore
Colleen SEXTON, Governor State University, United States	Jagannath DANGE, Kuvempu University, India
Dale HAVILL, Dhofar University, Oman	Jana Birova, Comenius University, Slovak
Danguole RUTKAUSKIENE, Kauno Tech. University, Lithuania	James C. HOLSTE, Texas A&M University at Qatar, Qatar
Danielle N. AMING, Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University, United States	Jerry Johnson, Western Florida University, United States
Deborah Bordelon, Governor State University, United States	Jerry WILLIS, Manhattanville College, United States
Douglas FRANKLIN, Ohio University, United States	John Hitchcock, University of Indiana, United States
Don FLOURNOY, Ohio University, United States	Kakha SHENGELIA, Caucasus University, Georgia
Elnaz ZAHED, University of Waterloo, UAE	Kerim KARABACAK-Istanbul University-Cerrahpasa, TURKEY
Eric Zhi-Feng LIU, National Central University, Taiwan	

Fadiya Samson O., Girne American University, TRNC	Luljeta Shala, Kosovo Pedagogical Institutei KOSOVO
Francine Shuchat SHAW, New York University, United States	Manoj Kumar SAXENA, Central University of Himachal Pradesh, INDIA
Mariam MANJGALADZE, Institute of Linguistics, Georgia	Psaltis IACOVOS, European University Cyprus, Cyprus
Marina Stock MCISAAC, Arizona State University, United States	Rogério ROTH, Ca' Foscari University of Venice, Italy
Martin STEIN, Westfälische Wilhelms University, Germany	S.R.BOSELIN PRABHU, SVS College of Engineering, India Saedah SIRAJ, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Masha KRSMANOVIC, University of Southern Mississippi, United States	Santosh Kumar BEHERA, Sidho-Kanho-Birsha University, India
Miguel j. ESCALA, Ins. Tech. de Santa Domingo, Dominican Republic	Selahattin GÖNEN, Dicle University, Turkey
Min JOU, National Taiwan Normal Uni., Taiwan	Seref TAN, Uludag University, Turkey
M. Mirunalini, Bharathidasan University, India.	Shree Prasad Devkota, Kathmandu University
Monte CASSIM, Ritsumeikan Asi Pacific University, Japan	Stefan AUFENANGER, University of Mainz, Germany
Mustafa ÖZTUNÇ - Sakarya University, Turkey	Sukumar SENTHILKUMAR, Vellore Institute of Technology University, India
Mustafa Şahin DÜNDAR - Sakarya University, Turkey	Tam Shu SIM, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Muzaffer ELMAS - Sakarya University, Turkey	Teresa FRANKLIN, Ohio University, United States
Nabi Bux JUMANI, Allama Iqbal Open University, Pakistan	Vincent Ru-Chu SHIH, National Pingtung Univ. of Sci. & Tech., Taiwan
Nesrin AKINCI ÇÖTOK - Sakarya University, Turkey	Vu Thi Thanh HOA, Oxfam Great Britain, Vietnam
Nilay BUMEN, Ege University, Turkey	Yu-Hsien SUNG, Gent University, Belgium
Pamela EWELL, Central .College of IOWA, United States	Wendy Merb-Brown, Ohio University, United States
Partow IZADI, University of Lapland, Finland	William Sterrett, University of North Carolina Wilmington, United States
Paul KGOBE, Centre of Edu. Pol. Dev., South Africa	Zita Mohd Fahmi, Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA), Malaysia
Paul Serban AGACHI, Babes-Bolyai University, Romania	
Paula FITZGIBBON, University of Victoria, Canada	
Pintu Kumar Maji, Sarsuna College, India	

Table Of Contents

EDUCATION OF WOMEN IN OTTOMAN	182
<i>Nur Yeliz GÜLCAN, Oya ERTUĞRULOĞLU,</i>	
EXAMINATION OF SECONDARY STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TO SCIENCE COURSE	187
<i>Emine KAVAZ, Melek KILINÇ, Azmiye YINAL</i>	
EXPLORING THE FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DIFFUSION OF FACEBOOK AS AN INNOVATIVE COMMUNICATION TOOL IN MOROCCO: A STUDY OF USER ADOPTION AND MOTIVATIONS	195
<i>Aytekin ISMAN, Houda El MRASSNI</i>	
HUMAN RESOURCES AND MOBBING IN BUSINESSES	218
<i>Elif HACIVELİ, Hidayet YAĞIZERLER, Cemkan ASLANTAŞ, Azmiye YINAL</i>	
MOBBING EXPERIENCES OF WOMEN EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE: A QUALITATIVE STUDY ON THE PERCEPTIONS OF MOBBING THAT WOMEN EMPLOYEES ARE EXPOSED TO IN THE TRNC	228
<i>Melek ARİFOĞLU, Hüseyin OLGAN, Azmiye YINAL</i>	
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTOR EMPLOYEES ORGANISATIONAL LONELINESS AND ITS EFFECT ON JOB SATISFACTION	237
<i>Emine Aksoy, Münüre Gökbörü, Azmiye Yinal</i>	
REALIZING THE IMPORTANCE OF COURSE DESIGN THROUGH RAPID AND FREQUENT MODIFICATIONS IN INSTRUCTIONAL MODALITY	249
<i>Roushdy Al-Shawwa, Rodolfo Cossovich, Yinmiao Li, Jace Hargis</i>	
SELF-ORGANISED FORUM AS HORIZONTALIZED PEDAGOGY PRACTICE FOR PHD STUDENTS: THE PEER-LEARNING, MENTAL SUPPORT, AND COMMUNITY BUILDING OF "CHINESE TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING PHD FORUM"	261
<i>Ye Tian</i>	
SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY IN HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT	276
<i>Gülden BOZAT, Azmiye YINAL</i>	
THE EFFECT OF INTERACTIONIST AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS PERCEIVED BY BANK EMPLOYEES ON THE LEVEL OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT	287
<i>Hüseyin HÜDAOĞLULARI</i>	
THE EFFECT OF LEADER MEMBER INTERACTION AND POWER DISTANCE ON JOB INSECURITY PERCEPTIONS OF BANK EMPLOYEES	307
<i>Mehmet ERÇELİK</i>	
THE EFFECT OF MOBBING ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE IN WORK LIFE	326
<i>Hakan AŞIK, Azmiye YINAL</i>	
THE EFFECT OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ON STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT	337
<i>Murat ASLAN, Azmiye YINAL</i>	
THE EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE ON ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR	346
<i>Niyazi Sertel, Münüre Gökbörü, Azmiye Yinal</i>	
THE IMPACT OF DIGITAL MARKET ON CONSUMER PURCHASING BEHAVIOR	356
<i>Evren DEGIRMENCIOGLU, Zeynep BURUK, Halil İbrahim KURT, Azmiye YINAL</i>	
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS OF SCHOOL HEADS AND TEACHERS' JOB SATISFIED	362
<i>Bahar Kaplan Yurteri, Gülsen Fırat, Gülzade Hayta, Azmiye YINAL</i>	

EDUCATION OF WOMEN IN OTTOMAN

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Nur Yeliz GÜLCAN
nuryeliz@gmail.com

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Oya ERTUĞRULOĞLU
oyaertugruloglu@gau.edu.tr
Girne American University
Turkish Republic Of North Cyprus

ABSTRACT

Education has an important place in human life. Education of women also has an important role to cultural development in a society. In this study, it will be discussed the education of women and the systems of education which changed from Tanzimat to Turkish Republic. In doing this, it will be mentioned both education of women in the main land and in Cyprus during the Ottoman period. The Ottomans came to Cyprus in 1571. Between 1878 and 1960 the island of Cyprus was administered by United Kingdom and, in this period there were many regulations in education like in all other areas. Therefore, the education of Turkish Cypriot women can be divided into two periods; Ottoman Empire and United Kingdom period. The method of the study is literature review, so the study is based on historical research.

Introduction

The history of education of women in Turkish educational system can be divided into two main parts: Before and after accepting Islam. After conversion to Islam, the life styles and educational systems of Turks were mainly changed. Before Islam, the basic qualities of women were “mother” and “heroism” in Turks. They have equal rights with men. After accepting Islam, women began to lose their rights and to stay at home. Women has become dependent on man. Before Tanzimat, the innovations in education aimed to opening military schools. Until Tanzimat women’s rights highly restricted in the Ottoman. The basic philosophy of the Ottoman Empire was to educate the young people to help them to be a better person. As the basis of their approach, in the occupied areas the Ottomans restricted and administered the social life and the education institutions according to Islamic religion and culture. By the way, they used to bring a new system by using the history of the civilisations before them and enriched their own culture with such knowledge as well (Hallaçoğlu, 1989: 71).

In 1839 Tanzimat Firman was declared by Mahmud II. Tanzimat was a period that included many reforms to modernize Ottoman state and society. This reforms were a series of edicts declared between 1839 and 1876. Although there was no article which was concerned directly education in the Tanzimat Firman, the reform movements began in the field of education. Because, the success of the reforms mentioned in Tanzimat Firman could only be possible by education. During the Ottoman, women could only attend primary schools (Sibyan schools), there was no need another education. Formal education was began in Tanzimat Period for Turkish women. “The modernization of the military was partly based on the French model and education was a further area which would be similarly influenced” (Smallwood, 2002:13). For example, in 1869 General Education Law (Maarif-i Umumiye Nizamnamesi) was prepared under the influence of Duruy law of France (Kurnaz, 1991:4). Duruy law was enacted 1867 for primary education by Victor Duruy in France, minister of public education. “Duruy argued that the influence of the mother on her children was too great to be ignored. He asserted that the state would have to give greater attention to women's education in the future if it hoped to improve the overall success of education in France” (Horvart, 1975: 86). After enacted 1869 General Education Law (Maarif-i Umumiye Nizamnamesi), some of the most radical changes were made in education system. This law consists of 5 sections and 198 article. According to this law, general schools in Ottoman were divided into three main classes: primary (Sibyan), secondary (Rushdie, İdadi, Sultani) and High schools (Darülfünun).

In general all educational institutions except Enderun were called Madrasa in Ottoman. Enderun was a palace school for the Christians of the Ottoman Empire. Palace education had a special place in Ottoman. There were three schools in the palace; Enderun mektebi (Only boys used to be attend to gain manager trained), Harem or Duhteran mektebi (This school was contributed to education of girls who brought to the palace) and Şehzadegan mektebi (primary school for princes). Until Tanzimat period, there were only two formal educational institutions in Ottoman. These were Sibyan schools and madrasas. “The madrasa system inherited from the Seljuk Turk continued in existence augmented by the contributions of the Ottomans” (Ihsanoglu, 2004: 4). In this study, it was not examined all educational institutions in Ottoman; it was only mentioned schools which women were educated.

Sibyan Mektebi (Primary Schools)

Sibyan schools were primary schools and they were also called neighborhood schools. These schools used to be found near a mosque. Education was free and compulsory in these schools. In these schools, basic principles of Islam, reading, writing and mathematics were taught. Five or six years old boys and girls attended Sibyan mektebi (primary schools) and they educated together. However, after graduated primary schools, girls could not attend any school. On the other hand, boys could attend Madrasa. In 1876 there were 290 sibyan mektebi in Ottoman (Kurnaz, 1991:6). Sibyan mektepleri was reorganized during the Tanzimat. These schools were called İptidai schools during the Mahmud II. "Primary education was not required by law until 1876. By 1883, there were 224 State sibyan schools for girls in İstanbul: with a total of 11, 132 pupils" (Smallwood, 2002:16)

Inas Rushdies (Middle Schools For Girls)

In Ottoman secondary education system was divided into three schools; Idadi, Rushdies and Sultani. Inas rushdies were the women's middle school in Ottoman. The first rushdie for girls, named Cevri Kalfa Inas Rushdie, was opened in 1859 in İstanbul (Akyüz, 2004:151). Darülmaarif was another important Inas Rushdie, founded in İstanbul by Bezmialem Valide Sultan who is the mother of Abdülmecit. This school was opened to train students for Darülfünun. The opening of Inas Rushdies (secondary schools for young women) was a very significant development in the Turkish history of education. In these schools religion, history, geography, Arabic, Ottoman language grammar, sewing were taught. The duration of education was four years in these schools. There were two Inas Rusdies in cities; one of them for Muslims students and the other for non- Muslims students. "In the 1894-95 school year, of the 2,028 girls registered in İstanbul Rushdies schools, 46 gained a diploma, whilst 440 left for various unspecified reasons" (Smallwood, 2002: 17).

High Schools

Idadis were another secondary schools in Ottoman. The first Idadi for girls was opened in 1880 in Babiali. This school was the first example of high school education for girls. "The intention was to teach European languages and feminine accomplishments such as music and embroidery in these schools. It was closed down after two years due to lack of interest" (Smallwood, 2002: 18). Turkish women could not attend higher education until constitutional period. The length of secondary education was made seven years that a combination of the four years of the Rushdie schools and the three years of the idadi schools.

Darümuallimat (Girl's Teacher Training College)

In 1869 General Education Law (Maarif-i Umumiye Nizamnamesi) was enacted. After this law, to train teachers for girls primary schools and Inas Rushdies, Darümuallimat was opened in 1870. Darümuallimat was the girl teacher training college. The duration of education was three years. 32 students enrolled in the school for the first time, but only 20 students graduated from the school. The number of graduated students has decreased every year compared to the number of registered students. (Kurnaz, 1991: 24-27). Darümuallimat was the highest education institution for girls until the Darülfünun was opened.

Darülfünun (University)

The idea of Darülfünun appeared in 1846, but it was started in 1863. Darülfünun was used to refer university, because of accepting students who graduated from Rushdies, actually it was not at the same level of the university. Darülfünun was reopened the name of Darülfünun-i Sahane in 1900 (Akyüz, 2005: 217). However, Turkish women could not attend higher education until constitutional period. The first university for girls, Inas Darülfünun was opened in İstanbul in 1915. Students who passed entry exam was accepted to this school. "Presumably they would have been expected to match the proficiency of the graduates from the Darümuallimat" (Smallwood, 2002: 26-27). Inas Darülfünun was closed in 1921 because of female students' boycotting.

The Education System In Cyprus During The Ottoman Empire

The education is one of the most essential aspects of life for the Ottomans. They brought their education system where they went (Özkan, 2010:1983). So they brought their education system to Cyprus when they came to Cyprus in 1571. Until 1878 in order to improve the social life and cultural structure The Ottomans considered special importance to education and they placed their own system in every region and territories they occupied in Cyprus.

In Ottoman Empire the education system was funded by the State Foundations (Vakiflar) until the period of Tanzimat. So The Ottomans carried out the same political issue in Cyprus as well and they gave the responsibility of the education system to the State Foundations, independently separated from the other state issues (Haşim, 1986:112).

So when the Ottomans occupied Cyprus, they established State Foundations and through them they formed the formal and informal education systems. In formal education system the schools were Sibyan schools, Iptidai schools, Rushdies and Madrasas. On the other side dervish lodge, mosque and library were the institutions which formed the informal education system (Atalay, 2002: 29).

In 1869 General Education Law (Maarifi Umumiye Nizamnamesi) was enacted. According to this law, education system was improved. So after this law the state schools were established in 3 sections; primary, secondary and high schools. The name of the institutions for primary schools were Sibyan mektepleri, Iptidai ve Rushdie, for secondary schools the name of the institutions were Idadi ve Sultani and for higher education Darülfunun and Vocational High schools were formed (Akt. Demirtaş, 2007:177).

Sibyan Schools In Cyprus During The Ottomans Period

Just like in Turkey in Cyprus Island during that times a Turkish Cypriot girl can go to “Sibyan Schools” or in other words neighborhood schools (Local primary school in the hood). Pupil started their education at the age of 5-6 until the age of 13-15 at Sibyan schools (Ergün: 2004:1). At first in those schools they gave only the writing lessons, then they started to give basic knowledge about Islam religion. Until they graduate, the students should learn to read the Kur’an by heart. This should be in three years until the age of 10. After they finished Kur’an they could study for more three years and could study grammar, speaking, literature and history lessons as well. These schools were shut on Thursday afternoons as well as on Fridays (Demirtaş, 2007:176). On the other hand the citizens of Cyprus who were not Muslim can go to these schools as well. After Sultan II. Mahmut’s firman which is called Talim-i Sibyan it was made compulsory for 4-7 years old children to go to Sibyan schools (Unat, 1964:74).

After the Ottoman occupied Cyprus island the first education institution formed by the State Foundations was Ayasofya Sibyan Mektebi (1571-1600). During the Ottoman period in Cyprus there were education institutions which did not belong to State Foundations, instead they were formed by special persons (eg. philanthropist) and other formal institutions (Atalay, 2003: 53).

The first Rushdie school opened in Cyprus during the Ottoman was İlmiye Mektebi or it was called Rushdie of Selimiye as well in 1860. Rushdie schools were at the same stage of secondary schools and their education period was 3 years (Behçet, 1969:144). With Rushdie schools the education system started to be the class system with the desks and rows (Kıbrıs’ta Türk Eserleri, 1982: 13). But the Turkish Cypriot girls could not go to these Rushdie schools at that time.

Iptidai Schools In Cyprus During The Ottoman Empire Period

According to the General Education law the students study writing, and reading, history, maths, geography, religious knowledge for 3-4 years at the Iptidai schools. According to Kodaman (1991: 27), during Tanzimat period Iptidai schools started to give education beside the sibyan schools. Because they realised that the sibyan schools were not sufficient. So instead of traditional methods a new education method (Usul-i Cedide) was started to be used in Idadi schools and at Sibyan schools as well (Akt. Gökmen, 2006:152-153).

According to Akyüz (2008), after this reform they began to use desks and rows in the class-rooms. On the other hand, teacher’s desks, maps and black boards were used as training tools as well. He added that, through these reforms, the student’s capacity were upgraded, they progressed and the teachers possessed very special features, by the way they began to be paid salary.

Education In Cyprus During The British Administration Period

When the United Kingdom hired the Cyprus island from the Ottomans in 1878, a few years later in 1880 they reformed and established a new educational system. And They separated the educational system of Turks and Greeks. They founded Lefkoşa Turkish Educational Committee. The British administration formed a new Education Law in 1920. Through this law they took the control of the education system. But the Greek people rioted against this new Education law in 1931. So, English administration put strict regulations and bans. After these regulations the Turks and Greeks couldn’t bring books from Turkey and Greece. Instead English History would be given in schools and Royal family song would be sang and English flag would be hoisted. And the teachers from Turkey and Greece would not come to Cyprus any more (Feridun, 2002: 69; Akt. Temiz, 2009:635).

Before this law, when Cyprus Island hired by United Kingdom in 1878, the number of Schools in Cyprus were 65 Sibyan, 7 Medrese and 1 Rüşdiye which belonged to State Foundations. At that time, there were 114 teachers, in those schools; 47 of them came from Turkey, 47 came from State Foundations and 20 came from the villages (Süha, 1971: 44).

By the time passed The English administrations lower the number of schools through new regulations in every 10 years. So, in 1900 the number of Sibyan schools were 14, in 1910 it would be 11 and in 1919 it was 6 (Behçet, 1969: 82). Until 1920 schools in Cyprus were financially sponsored By The Ottoman Empire. Then after the new Education Law, United Kingdom cut off the connection with Turkey. In 1905 Sibyan schools were upgraded from 4 years to 5 years. And until 1935 the curriculum would be same with Turkey. So the Alphabet Revolution would be implemented in 1929 while it was formed in 1928 in Turkey. And other implemantations were made, like Kur'an-i Kerim and other Religious lessons cut off from curriculums at the same time as Turkey (Weir, 1952: 72).

In 1935 through the Education Law (Maarif Kanunu –Tevhid-i Tedrisat) Sibyan schools were closed and instead of them primary schools were opened. And the duration of education of the primary schools was upgraded from 5 to 6 years. But when the curriculum changed, English people used this situation and brought their own curriculum (Süha,1971: 44).

Until 1943-1944 education year there was only one secondary school in Nicosia, then Turkish Cypriots opened new schools in other teritorries as well. When Victorian Girls' School (Viktorya İslam İnas Sanayi Mektebi) was established in Nicosia at 1901, its education level was at the secondary school level, but in 1952 it was upgraded to a Lycee.

The Education Of Turkish Cypriot Women In Cyprus

Through the Treaty 1878 United Kingdom took the administration of Cyprus island. From 1878 until 1960 Cyprus was administered by United Kingdom. During those years there were so many regulations in every area, including education on the island. Through these regulations in education new schools were opened. On the other hand, when the British administration took the control of the education in Cyprus they established the "Muslim Education Committee" in 1884. In 1896-1898 this committee was planning to open Lycee (Idadi) and a girls' school at the stage of secondary school. One of these schools and the most important one for the girls was Victorian Girls' School. Both these schools were opened by "The Muslim Education Committee" (Dedeçay, 2008: 21). After the establishment of Lycee of Cyprus in 1897, The Muslim Education Committee decided to open a girls' school and dicated to give sewing and embriodery lessons. For this school they dicated to use the same program for Rushdie's as well, and it was at the same stage as the secondary education, thus the girls could not go to, after they graduate from Sibyan schools, until Tanzimat Firman in Turkey (Behçet, 1969:114-115)

On the other hand although the first girl schools established in 1778, the first girls secondary school (Girl's Rushdie) opened in Turkey in 1862 (Yaraman, 2001, s.29).

Victorian Girls' School (Viktorya İslam İnas Sanayi Mektebi)

The British administration and The Turkish philanthropists came together to cover the construction costs of the Victorian school, in return English colonial administration requested the school should be named after Queen Victoria. The Victorian Girls' School was established in 1901 and started its educational activities in 1902. Before that time, The Turkish Cypriot girls could not go to school after they graduate from sibyan schools. So it was an important improvement especially for the Turkish Cypriot girls for that time. After the school opened in 1902, the first students graduated from the Victorian Girls' School in 1904-1905. The graduated students had a chance to be assigned as a teacher at the school as well. (Önge ve Kanvaz, 1977: 9). Up until 1925, the education period was 3 years, then later it was increased to 4 years (Çapa, 2016: 101). 90 pupils were educated at the school and the education period was increased to 6 years in 1935 (Dedeçay, 2008: 32- 50).

Victoria Girls' School played an important role in the history of the educaion of Turkish Cypriot women. Thus, this school both changed the statues of women and had a positive impact on the development of the society. In addition, this school had took an important role in adoption of the Atatürk's Revolutions.

Conclusion

Changes in the educational system have also led to a change of the status of women in society. After accepting Islam, the status of Turkish woman in society began to change and they began to lose their effectiveness in society. Until the establishment of Turkish Republic women were neglected in all areas included education. During the Ottoman, women could only attend primary schools (Sibyan schools), there was no need another education. Formal education was began in Tanzimat Period for Turkish women. Although there was no article which was concerned directly education in the Tanzimat Firman, the reform movements began in the field of education. Because, the success of the reforms mentioned in Tanzimat Firman could only be possible by education. After enacting General Education Law (Maarif-i Umumiye Nizamnamesi) in 1869, the first girl teacher school (Darülmualimat) was opened. On the other hand, Turkish women could not attend higher education until Constitutional period. Although from the Tanzimat to the Republic there were some regulations in education and new schools were opened for women, Turkish women gained the right to education and place they deserve in society in Turkish Republic. Today, women access to education easier than previous generation.

References

- Akyüz, Y. (2005). *Türk Eğitim Tarihi*, Ankara: Pegem Yayıncılık.
- Akyüz, Y. (2008). *Türk Eğitim Tarihi*, Ankara: Pegem Akademi
- Atalay, T. (2003). *Geçmişten Günümüze Kıbrıs (İdari Yapılanma ve Din Eğitimi)*, Konya: Mehir Vakfı Yayınları.
- Behçet, H. (1969). *Kıbrıs Türk Maarif Tarihi (1571-1968)*, Lefkoşa.
- Çapa M. (2016). “Türkiye Cumhuriyetinin Kuruluş Yıllarında Kıbrıs’ta Eğitim Teşkilatı: Kıbrıs Şehbender Asaf Bey’in Raporu”, *Tarih incelemeleri Dergisi* Cilt 31. Sayı 1, s. 99-114.
- Dedeçay S. S (2008). “Kıbrıs Türk Kadınının Eğitim Sayesinde Dinsel Mutaassiplikten Siyirilip Çağdaş Hak ve Özgürlük Kurallarını Kabullemesi”, *Viktorya İslam İnas Sanayi Mektebi ve Kıbrıslı Türk Kadınının Hakları*, Cilt I, II Baskı, Lefkoşa.
- Demirtaş, Z. (2007). “Osmanlı’da Sibyan Mektepleri ve İlköğretimin Örgütlenmesi”, *Firat Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, Cilt: 17, Sayı: 1, s.173-183.
- Ergün, M. (2014). *Medreseden Mektebe Osmanlı Eğitim Sistemindeki Değişim*, Türkiye Sanal Eğitim Bilimleri Kütüphanesi, <http://www.egitim.aku.edu.tr/ergun3.htm>.
- Feridun H. (2011) *Kıbrıs Türk Eğitiminde bir Ömür*. Galeri Kültür Yayınları, Lefkoşa
- Gökmen, E. (2006). “Aydın Vilayeti’nde Sibyan Mekteplerinin İptidâi Mekteplere Dönüştürülmesi” *Ankara Üniversitesi Ankara Üniversitesi Osmanlı Tarihi Araştırma ve Uygulama Merkezi Dergisi*, sayı: 20, s.149-173.
- Halaçoğlu, Y. (1994). *Osmanlılarda İlim-Din ve Sosyal Müesseseleri, Doğuştan Günümüze Büyük İslâm Tarihi*, Konya: TTK yayınları.
- Haşim, M.A. (1986). *Belgelerle Kıbrıs Türk Vakıflar Tarihi*, Lefkoşa: Kıbrıs Vakıflar İdaresi Yayınları.
- Horvart, S.A. (1975). “Victor Duruy and the Controversy over Secondary Education for Girls”, *French Historical Studies*, vol.9, pp. 83-104.
- İhsanoğlu, E. (2004). *The Madrasas of the Ottoman Empire*, FSTC Limited.
- Kurnaz, Ş. (1991). *Cumhuriyet Öncesinde Türk Kadını (1839-1923)*. T.C. Başbakanlık Aile Araştırma Kurumu Başkanlığı: Ankara.
- Önge, P. Ve Kanmaz E. (1977). “1901’den 1976’ya” , *Utku Lefkoşa Türk Kız Lisesi Dergisi*. 1976-1977 Ders Yılı, Sayı 42, s.9.
- Özkan, S.H. (2010). “Osmanlı Devletinde Yabancı Dil Eğitimi”, *International Periodical For the Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic*, Volume 5/3, s.1783-1800.
- Süha, A. (1971). *Kıbrıs’ta Türk Maarifi*, Milletler Arası Birinci Kıbrıs Tetkikleri Kongresi Türk Heyeti Tebliğleri. Ankara: Türk Kültürü Araştırma Enstitüsü yayınları.
- Unat, F. R. (1964). *Türkiye Eğitim Sisteminin Gelişmesine Tarihi Bir Bakış*, Ankara: Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Yayınları.
- Yaraman, A. (2001). *Resmi Tarihten Kadın Tarihine*. İstanbul: Bağlam Yayınları.
- Weir, W.W. (1952) *Education in Cyprus*. Nicosia: Cosmos Press.

EXAMINATION OF SECONDARY STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TO SCIENCE COURSE

Emine KAVAZ

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
emine.kavaz98e@gmail.com

Melek KILINÇ

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
melekkilinc905@gmail.com

Assist. Prof. Dr. Azmiye YINAL

Akdeniz Karpaz University
azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to examine middle school students' attitudes towards science course. This study is a quantitative research. Science Attitude Scale was used as a data collection tool in the study. The population of this study consists of secondary school students in a school in TRNC. The sample of the study of 70 students. The study data were analyzed with IBM SPSS Statistics 26.0 program.

At the end of the study, it is seen that 57.1% of the students "strongly disagree" with the statement "I would be happy if the topics in science lessons were reduced". This shows that students are dissatisfied with the reduction of topics in science courses. In addition, 2.9% of the students "strongly agree" with the statements "Science is one of my favorite subjects", "I like science the most among the subjects" and "If possible, I would take another subject instead of science". This shows that students have a positive attitude towards science and that they like or prefer science courses. These rates reflect students' attitudes towards science. The proportions of students' negative or positive responses to some statements can be evaluated to understand their attitudes towards science. This information can be an source for understanding how science is perceived among students and students' attitudes towards science. It was tested whether the difference between the groups according to gender was significant or not and it was seen that the difference between the groups according to gender was not significant. It was tested whether the difference between the groups according to the class variable was significant or not and it was seen that the difference between the groups according to the class variable was not significant.

Keywords: Science course, students, attitude.

1. Introduction

1.1. Problem status

Science education is an important field of education that helps students develop their scientific thinking skills by providing them with basic knowledge about natural sciences. Science education enables students to develop scientific thinking skills such as problem solving, analytical thinking, observation, data collection and analysis. These skills increase students' ability to solve problems they encounter not only in science lessons but also in their daily lives (Bayar, 2023) . Science education gives students the ability to understand and interpret natural phenomena. Students who learn science such as physics, chemistry and biology have the ability to explain what is happening around them by better understanding the events occurring in the universe and the laws of nature (Boz & Özcan, 2023) .

Science education gives students the ability to apply scientific knowledge in real life. Students can put scientific thinking into practice by using the knowledge they learn in science classes in laboratory experiments, research projects or in their daily lives (Lesinger, Oytun and Yinal, 2019). Science education is important to keep up with technological developments. Science includes many principles that form the basis of technology (Balat et al., 2023) . Science education therefore provides students with the ability to adapt to technological advances and enter science and technology-based jobs in their future professional careers. Science education raises students' awareness of the environment and sustainability. Subjects such as the protection of nature, sustainable use of resources and finding solutions to environmental problems are handled with science education and environmental awareness of students is developed (Balım & Aydın, 2009) .

Examining students' attitudes towards science course enables us to understand how much interest students follow the course, their attitudes towards course materials, their motivation to learn and the factors that can affect course success. This analysis is an important step for the effective teaching and learning of science (Karalı et al., 2023) . Based on this information, the problem sentence of this study is "The attitudes of middle school students towards science lesson. how is it?" has been determined.

1.2. Purpose of the research

The aim of this study is to examine secondary school students' attitudes towards science lesson. The sub-objectives created within the scope of the research are as follows:

- What is the distribution of Science Lesson Attitude status?
- the Science Lesson Attitude Scale level?
- Is there a relationship between the Science Lesson Attitude Scale and gender?
- Is there a relationship between the Science Lesson Attitude Scale and the class variable?

1.3. Importance of research

Students' attitudes towards the science lesson may reflect how willingly they follow the lesson and how much they participate in the learning process. Students with positive attitudes will tend to be more motivated and put in more effort. Students' attitudes towards science lessons may also reflect their attitudes towards course materials. Understanding students' attitudes towards science is important for improving the educational approach. Attitudes of students towards science course can affect course success. Students with a positive attitude will tend to be more active and participatory and will focus better on course materials. Analysis of attitudes helps us develop strategies to increase student achievement. Examining students' attitudes towards science is important for improving student guidance and support services. For this reason, it is thought that this study will guide both the literature and the teachers who teach science.

1.4. Limitations

This work;

- With the sources used in the research;
- With the volunteer students participating in the research;
- The scale used in the research was limited to the questions.

1.5. Definitions

Science Course: It means a course that teaches students natural sciences, that is, disciplines such as physics, chemistry, biology. (Sener et al., 2023).

Attitude: Defined as a combination of feelings, thoughts, and behaviors that a person has towards a particular subject or situation. (Sahin et al., 2023).

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Science lesson

Science is a course given to middle school and high school students in the Turkish education system. Science is an acronym for "Physics, Chemistry, Biology". This course aims to convey the basic information about natural sciences to students. Science lessons generally focus on understanding the basic concepts, principles and natural phenomena of science (Dogan, 2010) . It offers students the opportunity to develop scientific research methods, laboratory skills and scientific thinking abilities. The course content usually covers physics, chemistry and biology (Shirtsiz & Bulut, 2007) . Physics studies subjects such as matter, energy, force and motion. Chemistry focuses on elements, compounds, chemical reactions and molecular structures. Biology, on the other hand, deals with the structure, functions, diversity and evolution of living organisms (Tatar and Bağrıyanık, 2012) .

Science coursework can often include theoretical knowledge as well as laboratory experiments, observation and research work. Students are provided with practical experiences so that they can understand the sciences and use this knowledge in their daily lives. Science course provides an important opportunity for students to develop their scientific thinking, analysis, problem solving and critical thinking skills (Bakırcı et al., 2023) . In addition, gaining competencies in the field of science is also important for future career opportunities in today's world where technological advances are happening rapidly (Tekbıyık & Akdeniz, 2008) .

2.2. Attitude in Science Education

Attitude is defined as the combination of feelings, thoughts and behaviors that a person has towards a particular subject or situation. Attitude refers to an internal state that affects a person's tendency to make a positive or negative evaluation, beliefs, expectations and behaviors (Şahin et al., 2023). Attitudes serve as guides that reflect people's worldviews, preferences and attitudes. For example, we may display different attitudes towards a subject such as interest, love, tolerance, indifference, negativity or hatred. Attitudes are important factors that affect people's decision-making processes, social relations and behaviors (Badem & Akyol, 2023) .

Some factors that you can consider when examining students' attitudes towards science lesson (Şenol et al., 2007; Hacıömeroğlu & Şahin, 2010; Hançer & Yalçın, 2007) :

Engagement and motivation: Students' interest and motivation towards the science lesson affects how willingly they follow the lesson and how much they participate in the learning process. You may be attributing students' interest in course content and topics to their daily lives, which they associate with science.

Attitudes towards learning materials: Students' attitudes towards materials (textbooks, visuals, videos, experiments, etc.) used in science lessons are also important. The fact that these materials are found interesting, understandable and effective by the students can positively affect the attitude towards the science lesson.

Teaching methods and teacher influence: Students' attitudes towards science lesson can also be related to teaching methods and teacher's attitude and influence. Students are more likely to have a more positive attitude in a classroom setting where the lesson is interactive, participatory and engaging.

Achievement expectations: Students' expectations of success in science courses can affect how much they care about the course and how much effort they put into it. Students with a high sense of self-confidence, achievement expectation, and self-efficacy generally have a more positive attitude towards science.

Functionality of science lesson: Students' ability to associate science lesson with their daily lives and understanding the functionality of the lesson enable them to find the lesson more meaningful. An approach that emphasizes practical applications of science, real-world examples, and problem-solving skills can make students find the lesson more interesting.

3. METHOD

3.1. Research Model

This study is a quantitative research. Quantitative research refers to a systematic empirical approach used to collect and analyze numerical data to understand and explain phenomena. It involves collecting data that can be digitized, statistically analyzed and interpreted to draw conclusions or test hypotheses. Quantitative research generally follows a structured research design and uses specific data collection methods such as surveys, experiments or secondary data analysis (Karasar, 2011).

3.2. Universe and Sample

The universe of this study consists of secondary school students in a school in TRNC. The sample was determined by purposive sampling method. Purposeful sample is the sample of participants selected for a specific purpose or goal in a research. Purposeful sampling involves the researcher selecting participants based on certain criteria or characteristics while sampling in order to better understand the characteristics or behaviors of a particular population (Karasar, 2011). In this direction, the sample of the study consists of 70 students.

3.3. Data Collection Tools

The Science Lesson Attitude Scale was used as a data collection tool in the research. The Cronbach's Alpha (α) reliability coefficient of the scale developed by Akınoğlu (2001) was determined as 0.89. In the attitude scale, there are positive/negative sentences stating 20 judgments about students' attitudes towards science lesson. The scale, which consists of statements that determine whether students like the science lesson and whether they like to do activities related to this lesson, is in a 5-point Likert type. The Likert scale is used to determine to what extent the respondent approves of the judgments about a research. The respondent is given a 5-point and balanced (equally spaced) scale about judgment (Kartal, 1998).

3.4. Analysis of Data

Study data were analyzed with IBM SPSS Statistics 26.0 program. SPSS is a software package used for statistical analysis and data mining. Researchers, analysts, and students often choose SPSS for data analysis in fields such as social sciences, health sciences, and business.

4. Findings

4.1. Demographic Information

Table 1 contains information about the students.

Table 1. Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Students' Information (N=70)

		N	%
Gender	Woman	39	55.7
	Male	31	44.3
Class	6th grade	22	31.4
	7th grade	32	45.7
	8th grade	16	22.9
	total	70	100.0

Accordingly, 55.7% of the students are female and 44.3% are male. 45.7% of the students are 7th grade students, 31.4% are 6th grade students and 22.9% are 8th grade students.

4.2. Findings on Science Course Attitude

Table 2 shows the distributions for the Science Lesson attitude.

Table 2. Distributions for Science Lesson Attitudes (N=70)

Parameters	I strongly disagree		I do not agree		I'm undecided		I agree		Absolutely I agree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Science is one of my favorite subjects.	28	40.0	24	34.3	8	11.4	8	11.4	2	2.9
the subjects in science lessons were reduced.	40	57.1	18	25.7	10	14.3	2	2.9		
Engaging in science class entertains me	26	37.1	26	37.1	12	17.1			6	8.6
I get bored when I study science	20	28.6	22	31.4	20	28.6	8	11.4		
I enjoy having science class make me think .	24	34.3	20	28.6	18	25.7	4	5.7	4	5.7
I'm scared in science class	14	20.0	24	34.3	20	28.6	8	11.4	4	5.7
It is the best of science classes.	20	28.6	28	40.0	8	11.4	1	1.4	4	5.7
I don't like science class.	18	25.7	26	37.1	18	25.7	4	5.7	4	5.7
I enjoy solving a science class problem.	28	40	12	17.1	14	20	1	1.4		
Anything related to science interests me.	24	34.3	30	42.9	14	20.0	2	2.9		
If they let me, I will remove all science classes in school.	26	37.1	18	25.7	14	20.0	4	5.7	8	11.4
science the most	22	31.4	18	25.7	28	40.0			2	2.9
If possible, I would take another class instead of the science class.	14	20.0	18	25.7	30	42.9	6	8.6	2	2.9
science lesson homework without getting bored and with pleasure	36	51.4	12	17.1	10	14.3	6	8.6	6	8.6
I shy away from science class	22	31.4	26	37.1	14	20.0			8	11.4
Science subjects are not subjects I am interested in.	28	40	12	17.1	14	20	1	1.4		
with science subjects in my spare time	36	51.4	12	17.1	10	14.3	6	8.6	6	8.6

I don't believe that reading a book about science is a very useful job.	22	31.4	26	37.1	14	20.0		8	11.4
I like the classroom work and activities in the science lesson.	28	40.0	12	17.1	14	20.0	1 0	14. 3	6 8.6
Thinking in science class is boring.	2	2.9	8	11.4	18	25.7	1 6	22. 9	26 37.1

The subjects in science lessons were reduced” was 57.1% of the highest participation (N=40).

The lowest participation expressions are “Science lesson is among my favorite subjects”; “Among the courses, I like science the most.” And it was seen that the statements "I would take another course instead of the science course if possible" were at the level of "strongly agree" with 2.9% (N=2).

4.3. Analysis of the Mean Scores of the Science Lesson Attitude Scale Level

Table 3. Distribution of Mean Scores of Science Lesson Attitude Scale Level (N= 70)

Parameters	\bar{X}	ss
Science class is one of my favorite subjects.	2.0286	1.11604
I would be happy if the subjects in science lessons were reduced.	1.6286	0.83703
Engaging in science class entertains me	2,0571	1,15327
I get bored when I study science	2.2286	0.99523
I enjoy having science class make me think .	2,2000	1.14967
I'm scared in science class	2.4857	1.11307
Science lessons are the best.	2.2857	1.19350
I don't like science class	2.2857	1.09204
Anything related to science interests me .	1,9143	0.81192
If they let me, I will remove all science classes in school.	2.2857	1.33126
, I like science the most.	2.1714	0.97760
If possible, I would take another class instead of science.	2.4857	1,00351
science lesson homework without getting bored and with pleasure	2,0571	1,33932
I shy away from science class	2.2286	1,22972
I enjoy solving a science class problem.	2.2286	1,22972
Science subjects are not subjects I am interested in.	2.3429	1,36079
I like to deal with science subjects in my spare time.	3,8000	1.14967
reading a book about science is a very useful job.	2,0571	1,33932
I like the classroom work and activities in the science lesson.	2.2286	1,22972
Thinking in science class is boring.	2.3429	1,36079
AVERAGE	2,6700	1,15000

In Table 3, the average score distribution of the Science Lesson Attitude Scale level is given. Accordingly, it was determined that the average of the attitude level calculated out of five was 2.67 ± 1.15 . Strongly disagree "1", strongly agree "5" with the highest (3.80 ± 1.14) mean "I like to deal with science subjects in my spare time", whereas "Science" with the lowest (1.62 ± 0.82) mean "I would be happy if the subjects in the lessons were reduced".

4.4. Descriptive Analyzes Between Demographic Variables and the Science Attitude Scale

In Table 4, the results of the analysis in which the science lesson attitude scale scores are compared according to gender are given.

Table 4. Comparison of Science Lesson Attitude Scale Scores by Gender

Gender	n	Median (IQR)	Group Comparison
Woman	39	47.33 (10.43)	Z= 0.16; p=0.385
Male	31	46.38 (9.90)	

p>0.05

It was tested whether the difference between the groups according to the gender variable of the Science Lesson Attitude Scale scores was significant, and it was seen that the difference between the groups according to the gender of the scale scores was not significant (p>0.05). Accordingly, it can be said that the attitudes of male and female students towards science lesson are at a similar level.

In Table 5, the results of the analysis in which the science lesson attitude scale scores are compared according to the class variable are given.

Table 5. Comparison of Science Lesson Attitude Scale Scores by Class Variable

Class	n	Median (IQR)	Group Comparison
6th grade	22	47.45 (11.75)	$\chi^2 = 0.59$; p=943
7th grade	32	46.84 (9.11)	
8th grade	16	46.31 (10.33)	

p>0.05

It was tested whether the difference between the groups according to the grade variable of the Science Lesson Attitude Scale scores was significant, and it was seen that the difference between the groups according to the grade variable of the scale scores was not significant (p>0.05). Accordingly, it can be said that the attitudes of the students towards the science lesson are at a similar level, regardless of class.

Conclusion and Recommendations

At the end of the research, it is seen that 57.1% "strongly disagree" was answered to the statement "I would be happy to reduce the subjects in science lessons". This shows that students are dissatisfied with the reduction of subjects in science lessons. In addition, 2.9% of the respondents "strongly agree" were given to the statements "Science is among my favorite subjects", "I like science the most" and "I would take another course instead of science if possible". This shows that students have a positive attitude towards science lesson and they like or prefer science lesson. These ratios reflect students' attitudes towards science lesson. The negative or positive reaction rates of students to some statements can be evaluated to understand their attitudes towards science lesson. This information can be an important resource for understanding how science is perceived among students and students' attitudes towards science.

Information was given about the average score distribution of the Science Lesson Attitude Scale and the average of the attitude level. It was determined that the average of the attitude level calculated out of five was 2.67 ± 1.15 . The highest mean score belongs to the statement "I like to deal with science subjects in my spare time", and the mean score given to this statement was determined as 3.80 ± 1.14 . This shows that students generally like to deal with science subjects in their spare time. The lowest average score belongs to the statement "I would be happy to reduce the subjects in science lessons", and the average score given to this statement was determined as 1.62 ± 0.82 . This shows that students are generally not happy or dissatisfied with the reduction of subjects in science lessons. This distribution of scores and mean values reflect students' attitudes towards science lesson and their reactions to different expressions. Analysis of students' attitudes towards science is important information to understand the science education process, to make improvements when necessary, and to increase students' motivation.

It was tested whether the difference between the groups according to the gender variable in the Science Lesson Attitude Scale scores was significant, and it was seen that the difference between the groups according to the gender of the scale scores was not significant. Based on these results, it can be said that the attitudes of male and female students towards science lesson are at a similar level. In other words, it is seen that gender does not have a statistically significant effect on science lesson attitudes. Such analyzes allow researchers to understand how

attitudes towards science change by gender and to identify differences in attitudes among different groups. In this case, it can be said that male and female students show a similar level of interest in science, since as a result of the analysis, it is seen that gender does not have a significant effect on attitudes towards science.

It was tested whether the difference between the groups according to the grade variable of the Science Lesson Attitude Scale scores was significant, and it was seen that the difference between the groups according to the grade variable of the scale scores was not significant. Based on these results, it can be said that students' attitudes towards science lesson are at a similar level regardless of class. In other words, it is seen that grade level does not have a statistically significant effect on science lesson attitudes. Such analyzes allow researchers to understand students' attitudes towards science at different grade levels and to identify differences in attitudes between classes. However, in this case, it can be said that the students exhibit similar attitudes at different grade levels, as it was seen as a result of the analysis that the grade level did not have a significant effect on the attitudes towards the science lesson.

Here are some suggestions to help students develop positive attitudes towards science:

Explaining the importance of science lesson to students: It is emphasized how science lesson is related to daily life and why it is important. It should be noted that science forms the basis of technologies used in daily life and plays a critical role in finding solutions to problems.

Provide hands-on experiences: Students should be offered hands-on experiences such as laboratory experiments, observation activities, field trips to embody science topics. This will help students find their science lessons more interesting and meaningful.

Using relevant and interesting materials: Interesting videos, images, animations and interactive materials should be used in the lessons. This will attract students' attention and increase their motivation to learn.

Encouraging student participation : Students should be encouraged to participate actively in the classroom. Students should be actively involved in science subjects by asking questions, organizing group work, or allowing for discussion.

Students should be shown real-world applications of science: Students should be attracted by explaining real-world applications of science with examples. For example, the use of science in environmental protection, energy efficiency or health should be demonstrated.

Encourage students' questions: Encourage students to ask questions about the science lesson and seek answers to these questions. It should be ensured that students discover the subjects they are curious about and understand the science lesson more deeply.

Positive feedback and rewards should be used: Students' success in science should be recognized and appreciated. Motivation of students should be increased by giving positive feedback. In addition, students should be encouraged to develop positive attitudes by creating reward systems based on their achievements.

Reference

- Badem, N., & Akyol, A. Ç. (2023). Türkiye’de Halkla İlişkiler Mesleğine Yönelik Tutum Üzerine Bir Araştırma. *Yeni Yüzyıl’da İletişim Çalışmaları*, 2(6), 52-66.
- Bakırcı, H., Ertuş Tunç, Ö. Y., & Cengiz, E. (2023). Uzaktan Eğitim Aracılığıyla İşlenen Fen Bilimleri Dersine Yönelik Beşinci Sınıf Öğrencilerinin Görüşleri. *E-International Journal of Educational Research*, 14(1).
- Balat, G. U., Akman, B., & Günşen, G. (2018). Fen eğitimine karşı tutum, öz yeterlilik algısı ve bilişsel harita bulguları. *Mersin Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 14(2), 756-777.
- Balım, A. G., & Aydın, H. S. G. (2009). Fen ve teknolojiye yönelik tutum ölçeğinin geliştirilmesi. *Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 25(25), 33-41.
- Bayar, M. E. (2023). Erken Çocukluk Dönemi Fen Eğitimi Ve Çocukların Bilişsel Gelişimi. *Türkiye Mesleki ve Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, (11), 53-66.
- Boz, S. & Özcan, H. (2023). Fen Eğitimindeki Meta-Analiz Çalışmalarının Sistemik Derlemesi. *İstanbul Aydın Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 9(1), 1-22.
- Doğan, Y. (2010). Fen Ve Teknoloji Dersi Programının Uygulanması Sürecinde Karşılaşılan Sorunlar (ss. 86-106). *Van Yüzüncü Yıl Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 7(1), 86-106.
- Gömlüksiz, M. N., & Bulut, İ. (2007). Yeni Fen Ve Teknoloji Dersi Öğretim Programının Uygulamadaki Etkililiğinin Değerlendirilmesi An Assessment Of The Implementation Of New Science And Technology Curriculum. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 32, 76-88.

- Hacıömeroğlu, G., & Şahin Taşkin, Ç. (2010). Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliği ve Ortaöğretim Fen ve Matematik Alanları (OFMA) Eğitimi Bülümü Öğretmen Adaylarının Öğretmenlik Mesleğine İlişkin Tutumları. *Journal of Kirsehir Education Faculty*, 11(1).
- Hançer, A. H., & Yalçın, N. (2007). Fen Eğitiminde Yapılandırmacı Yaklaşım Dayalı Bilgisayar Destekli Öğrenmenin Bilgisayara Yönelik Tutuma Etkisi. *Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi*, 15(2), 549-560.
- Karalı, Y., Palancıoğlu, Ö. V., & Aydemir, H. (2023). Fen Bilimlerine Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği Geliştirme; Geçerlik ve Güvenirlik Çalışması. *İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 24(1), 79-98.
- Karasar, N. (2011). Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemi, Ankara: Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.
- Kartal, M. (1998). Bilimsel Araştırmalarda Hipotez Testleri, gafak Yay, 2. Baskı, Erzurum.
- Lesinger, F. Y., Oytun, M., & Yımal, A. (2019). Görsel Medyadaki Şiddetin Lise Öğrencileri Üzerindeki Etkisi. *Folklor/Edebiyat*, (97-1), 698.
- Şahin, V., İnce.,Z. & Erhan, K. (2023). Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Türk Dünyasından Gelen Öğrencilere Yönelik Tutumları. *Cumhuriyet Uluslararası Eğitim Dergisi*, 12(1), 249-257.
- Şener, M., Odabaş, M., Işık, M., Güzel-Akputat, A., Kuzeyhan, H., Yiğit, M., & Uğurlu, T. (2023). Ortaokul 8. Sınıf Fen Bilimleri Dersi Öğretim Programının Öğretmen Görüşleri Bağlamında İncelenmesi. *Uluslararası Eğitime Özgün Bakış Dergisi*, 1(1), 13-29.
- Şenol, H., Bal, Ş. & Yıldırım, H. İ. (2007). İlköğretim 6. Sınıf Fen Bilgisi Dersinde Duyu Organları Konusunun İşlenmesinde İşbirlikli Öğrenme Yönteminin Öğrenci Başarısı Ve Tutum Üzerinde Etkisi. *Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi*, 15(1), 211-220.
- Tatar, N., & Bağrıyanık, K. E. (2012). Fen ve teknoloji dersi öğretmenlerinin okul dışı eğitime yönelik görüşleri. *İlköğretim Online*, 11(4), 882-896.
- Tekbıyık, A., & Akdeniz, A. R. (2008). İlköğretim fen ve teknoloji dersi öğretim programını kabullenmeye ve uygulamaya yönelik öğretmen görüşleri. *Necatibey Eğitim Fakültesi Elektronik Fen ve Matematik Eğitimi Dergisi*, 2(2), 23-37.

EXPLORING THE FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DIFFUSION OF FACEBOOK AS AN INNOVATIVE COMMUNICATION TOOL IN MOROCCO: A STUDY OF USER ADOPTION AND MOTIVATIONS

PROF. DR. AYTEKIN ISMAN

Cyprus International University, Faculty of Communication
aisman@sakarya.edu.tr

HOUDA EL MRASSNI

Cyprus International University, Faculty of Communication

ABSTRACT

Despite the growing popularity of social media platforms in Morocco, more was needed to know about the factors influencing the adoption of Facebook as an innovative communication tool in the country. This study aimed to identify why Moroccans adopted the Facebook platform as a primary communication tool and how they used it for their personal and professional communication needs. The diffusion of innovation theory by Rogers (1962) would provide a framework for recognizing the elements that affect the adoption and spread of Facebook as a communication tool in Morocco.

A qualitative study design was used for the purpose of this study, using semi-structured interviews to collect and analyze data from a sample of Facebook platform users in Morocco as well as allowing for an in-depth exploration of the factors influencing the adoption of the Facebook platform and the motivations behind users' adoption and use of the platform. It also explored the factors influencing the diffusion of the Facebook platform as an innovative communication tool in Morocco, specifically focusing on user adoption and motivations. Knowing that Facebook platform has gained popularity rapidly over the past decade in Morocco, becoming the most popular social networking site in the society.

The study was expected to discover that convenience, socialization, and cultural values play a significant role in the diffusion of the Facebook platform in Morocco. Also, it revealed that Moroccans adopted the Facebook platform for various purposes, including personal and professional networking, socializing, and keeping up with current events. The findings are employed in comprehending the variables in adopting creative messaging devices in Morocco, which has important implications for businesses and organizations utilizing the Facebook platform for communication and marketing so that businesses and organizations could better tailor their communication strategies to meet the targeted audience's needs.

Keywords: Diffusion – Facebook – Innovative Communication – Morocco

Introduction

The Facebook platform has become a ubiquitous communication tool today, connecting people worldwide through its innovative platform (Baruah, 2012). In Morocco, the Facebook platform has rapidly gained popularity over the past decade, becoming the country's most popular social networking site (Chebib & Sohail, 2011). More than 25 million Moroccans used Facebook as of January 2023, making up almost 66% of the nation's whole population (Noubiap et al., 2023). The Facebook platform is an effective communication tool in Morocco due to this high level of adoption, although the causes of this are yet unknown.

Researchers from various disciplines have been interested in the study of the acceptance and diffusion of new technology (Ramiz, 2023). The adoption of new technologies has been extensively studied using Rogers's (1962) theory on the diffusion of innovations. According to the theory, several variables, including the characteristics of the innovation itself, the communication channels used to spread the innovation, the social system in which it is disseminated, and the characteristics of the adopters, all have an impact on how quickly new technologies are adopted (Oliveira & Martins, 2011).

The outcomes of the study would be useful in understanding the factors that influence the adoption of innovative methods of communication in Morocco. For companies and organizations that use Facebook as a communication and marketing tool, this study might also have significant effects.

Businesses and organizations could better adjust their communication strategies to match the needs of their target audience by comprehending the reasons behind Moroccans' adoption and use of the Facebook platform.

Diffusion

Information or ideas circulate within a social system or population through diffusion. This can involve the adoption of new behaviors, the propagation of rumors, the diffusion of knowledge, and the sharing of ideas (Vargo & Akaka

& Wieland, 2020). It is a well-known concept that clarifies how ideas and information circulate within a social organization.

According to this theory, a bell-shaped curve forms when people take up new concepts or behaviors, with innovators and early adopters at the top, followed by laggards, the late majority, and then the early majority (Jungblut & Joswig & Eychmüller, 2019). The properties of the innovation its own, the channels used to convey information, the features of the social system, and the socioeconomic position of the adopters are only a few of the aspects it cites as having an impact on the rate and pattern of diffusion. Additionally, it emphasizes the acceptance of novel products, services, or technologies (Mukherjee & Ryan, 2020).

Diffusion is a framework for comprehending how ideas and information travel within a social organization. It explains the adoption of new products and technology, the spread of rumors, and the dissemination of information and ideas. It also highlights a number of variables that affect the diffusion's rate and pattern (Gruhl et al., 2004).

Facebook

Facebook users can communicate with their friends, family, and acquaintances by exchanging data, information, images, videos, and other types of content. When a group of Harvard University students in 2004, Mark Zuckerberg and others introduced it (Cheung & Chiu & Lee, 2011). Facebook is primarily a social networking site that makes communication between people simpler and share information with one another and with groups. Users can add their name, age, gender, location, education, employment, interests, and relationship status to these profiles. Users can also upload photographs and videos, post status updates, and share links and other information with their social network (Young, 2011).

Facebook's user interface is created to promote engagement and interaction. Users have the option to like, comment on, and share content produced by people in their network, which can promote community and relationships (Chugh & Ruhi, 2018). A number of actual time communication tools are also available on Facebook, including chat and video calling (Wong & Kwan & Leung, 2011).

Facebook has developed into a strong platform for businesses and advertising to reach prospective customers in addition to its social networking features (Curran & Graham & Temple, 2011). The website provides demographically and focused on interests customized marketing alternatives that can help companies more efficiently contact their target market (Iannelli et al., 2020).

Facebook has had a big impact on internet communication and information sharing (Capua, 2012). Among the most extensively utilized social networking sites worldwide, it now has a user base of over 2.9 billion monthly active users (Gouchowski & Popiel, 2023). social media's use in politics, society, privacy problems, the dissemination of false information, and other topics have drawn criticism and debate (Vaidhyathan, 2018).

Due to Facebook's popularity, various independent services and applications have been created and integrated with the network. Games, news apps, and productivity tools are among them (Li & Agarwal, 2017). The Facebook API (Application Programming Interface) enables programmers to produce new services and applications that may communicate with the website, enhancing its usability and usefulness (Bodle, 2011).

Facebook has also come under fire for how it handles user data and privacy issues. The platform has drawn criticism for its data collecting policies and for enabling unauthorized access to user personal information by third-party apps (Trottier & Lyon, 2013). Facebook has responded by introducing a number of privacy controls and tools, such as limiting who may view certain postings and deleting or downloading all of a user's data (Hargittai, 2010). Despite these difficulties, Facebook continues to rank among the most popular and important social media platforms globally. Its influence on interpersonal relationships, communication, and online culture cannot be emphasized. It is expected to have an impact on how users engage with technology and each other going forward (Bode & Vraga, 2018).

Innovative Communication

Innovative communication offers fresh, imaginative strategies to help people or organizations communicate. In order to increase communication efficacy, efficiency, and impact in many situations and contexts, it involves utilizing technology, design, and other tactics (Wani & Ali, 2015). According to the particular objectives and requirements of the communication process, it might take on a variety of shapes (Mandell & Steelman, 2003). Platforms for social media like Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and LinkedIn are some examples of innovative communication tactics. These platforms have transformed the way users communicate. They make it possible for

swift information distribution, the development of online communities, and the exchange of various viewpoints and ideas (Munar, 2012).

Social media platforms are now an essential part of many businesses' communication strategy because they provide a strong and affordable means to engage with clients, stakeholders, and the general public (Castronovo & Huang, 2012). Zoom, Skype, and Google Mee are three video conferencing tools that have grown in popularity recently, especially in the wake of the COVID-19 outbreak. They enable immediate interaction between people or groups, regardless of their physical locations, and can be used for a range of activities, from remote work and education to socializing with friends and family. They also enable users to create a texture of internet data over the actual interaction experience, making it deeper and exclusive (Pratama et al., 2020).

Additionally, artificial intelligence (AI) technologies are being employed more and more in a variety of contexts to improve communication. Chatbots, for instance, can provide customer service or respond to frequently asked requests. Large volumes of text data, like as posts on social media or customer reviews, can be processed using natural language processing (NLP) tools (Valle-Cruz, 2020).

In general, innovative communication is a dynamic and quickly developing industry that presents a variety of chances for businesses and individuals to communicate in fresh and interesting ways (George & Haas & Pentland, 2014). Humans can improve the effectiveness and impact of interacting efforts and forge deeper and more meaningful connections with people by adopting new technologies and innovative methods (Pruitt & Adlin, 2010). Innovative communication, meanwhile, is a large and diversified field that includes a variety of methods and technology that are continually evolving as new ones and approaches are developed. Organizations and individuals can develop original and successful ways to engage with their audiences and meet their communication objectives by staying current with the most recent trends and experimenting with new methods (Miles et al., 1978).

Morocco

The Atlantic and Mediterranean seas round the country of Morocco in north Africa. The Berber, Arab, and European civilizations have had an impact on its rich history and culture (Zinedine & Maes, 2009). The country is well known for its stunning natural surroundings, which range from the untamed Atlas Mountains to the Sahara Desert. Bustling markets, elaborate mosques, and historical sites may be found in its colorful and vibrant cities (Harris, 1895).

Moroccan food is well known for its flavors and spices, including cumin, cinnamon, and saffron. Dishes like tagine and couscous are enjoyed all over the world (Wolfert, 2012). Morocco is also recognized for its artistry, especially in the areas of leather, textiles, and pottery. Moroccans are kind and the country has a variety of attractions, making it an intriguing place for tourists to visit (Eliany, 2008).

One of the several nations where Facebook is accessible and frequently used as a social networking platform is Morocco. Many Moroccans use Facebook to communicate with loved ones, share news and information, advertise their businesses, and engage in online forums and communities (Veltri & Krasnova & Elgarah, 2011). Additionally, Moroccan journalists and media outlets utilize Facebook to interact with their audiences and share news (Zaid et al., 2011).

Goals and objectives

By concentrating on four primary goals, this study sought to understand the elements that affect Facebook adoption in Morocco thoroughly.

The first goal was to determine the norms, standards, attitudes, and behaviors influencing Facebook usage in Morocco. The study aimed to clarify how the social media platform fits into Moroccans' daily lives by investigating the social and cultural background of Facebook adoption in Morocco. In order to properly use Facebook as a communication medium in the Moroccan setting, it would be essential to grasp this concept.

The second goal was to employ social network analysis to look into social influence and interpersonal communication patterns that motivate Facebook use in Morocco. This study aimed to determine how and why Moroccans use Facebook to connect with others by examining the connections and relationships among Facebook members. Businesses and organizations that wished to comprehend the potential impact and reach of their Facebook marketing activities in Morocco would find this information crucial.

The third goal was to employ thematic analysis to discover the patterns and recurrent topics in Moroccan users' Facebook usage. This study focused on how Facebook serves Moroccans' communication needs by investigating

the reasons and objectives underpinning Facebook use in Morocco. Businesses and organizations that wished to adjust their messaging and content to better resonate with Moroccan Facebook users would find this helpful information.

The fourth goal was to make ideas and recommendations grounded in the study's findings. These details would help Facebook users who wanted to get the most out of the service and marketers and decision-makers who wanted to promote its use in Morocco. The suggestions might centre on tactics for utilizing the platform to further social and economic development in Morocco or enhancing Facebook's user experience, such as by enhancing privacy and security features.

By attaining these goals, this study would further knowledge of the elements that affect the adoption and spread of innovative communication technologies like Facebook in Morocco. Policymakers and other stakeholders that are interested in fostering the digital transformation of Moroccan society would find the conclusions drawn from the current study as they might attempt to interact with Moroccan customers through social media.

Importance of the Study

To understand Facebook adoption in Morocco, this study was significant because it would help to comprehend more fully the elements that contributed to the widespread usage of Facebook as a communication medium in Morocco. Facebook has over 25 million users and is widely used in Moroccan society and culture. This study would be important on the motivations for Facebook's extensive adoption and reveal how Moroccans connect and communicate on social media.

This study has examined the driving forces behind Facebook adoption. The knowledge of the driving forces behind Moroccans' adoption and use of Facebook is crucial for developing effective business and marketing strategies. Businesses and organizations could better fulfill the needs of their target audience by adjusting their communication strategy by learning why Moroccans use Facebook. For instance, businesses and organizations could create communication strategies that prioritize social connection and relationship building if Moroccans use Facebook primarily for social connection.

This study was significant for informing communication strategy for businesses and organizations looking to use Facebook for communication and marketing in Morocco. Businesses and organizations might create efficient communication strategies that meet the requirements of their intended audience by comprehending the reasons behind Moroccans' adoption and use of Facebook. Insights on how businesses and organizations might utilize Facebook to interact with their audience and develop relationships with them are provided in the current study.

Improving intercultural communication, this study was important for improving intercultural communication between Morocco and other nations. This study could offer light on the cultural practices and beliefs that underlie social media use in Morocco by examining the adoption and use of Facebook in Morocco. This comprehension could aid in bridging cultural gaps and promoting greater intercultural understanding.

The current study's significance for expanding the examination of Facebook adoption in Morocco and the diffusion of innovations theory. It would add to the body of information on the adoption and proliferation of novel communication tools in various cultural contexts by conducting a qualitative study on the use of Facebook in Morocco.

In conclusion, this study was critical for advancing our comprehension of Facebook usage and adoption in Morocco. Its results would have significant effects on businesses and groups looking to use Facebook in Morocco for marketing and communication. Additionally, the current study would advance academic inquiry into innovation diffusion and the uptake of innovative communication tools in various cultural contexts.

Problem Statement

Although social media platforms are becoming increasingly popular in Morocco, little is known about the aspects that led to the country's embrace of Facebook as an innovative means of communication. Although there are over 25 million Facebook users in Morocco, more was needed to know why Moroccans use Facebook and how they utilized it for personal and professional contact. This lack of awareness creates a severe challenge for companies and groups looking to use Facebook in Morocco for marketing and communication purposes.

Furthermore, it was crucial to comprehend the reasons for Moroccans' adoption and use of Facebook as social media grows more pervasive and significant in Moroccan culture. This knowledge helped progress academic study

on the diffusion of innovations theory and the adoption of innovative communication tools in various cultural contexts. It could also enable businesses and organizations to comprehend cross-cultural communication better.

Therefore, the issue explored in the current study was to determine the driving forces behind Moroccans' acceptance and usage of Facebook for personal and professional communication needs and investigate the variables impacting Facebook's diffusion as an innovative communication medium in Morocco. By addressing this issue, this study might contribute to academic work on the diffusion of innovations theory and the uptake of innovative communication tools in various cultural contexts. It also hoped to offer insightful information for companies and organizations looking to use Facebook for marketing and communication in Morocco.

Theoretical Basis

The diffusion of innovation explains how new concepts, innovations, and products spread across society (Dearing, 2009) and is the theoretical foundation for the present study. It was found by Rogers (1962). According to this theory, various elements, including the characteristics of the innovation, the communication channels used to promote the innovation, the characteristics of the adopters, and the social context in which the innovation is adopted, affect how quickly innovations are adopted (Lee, 2021). Also, it could offer a helpful framework for comprehending and examining the elements that affect Facebook's uptake as a communication tool in Morocco.

However, the main features of the innovation in adopting Facebook in Morocco were its simplicity of use, capacity for social interaction, and capacity for content sharing (Zygiaris, 2013). Social media marketing, word-of-mouth marketing, and media coverage were the methods of spreading Facebook in Morocco (El Yaagoubi & Machrafi, 2021). Demographics, values, and attitudes toward technology and social media were among the traits of the adopters. Cultural values, social norms, and the socioeconomic environment all contributed to the social framework in which Facebook was used in Morocco (Kalmijn & Kraaykamp, 2018).

The study could use the diffusion of innovation theory framework to determine which user group in Morocco would most likely utilize Facebook as a communication tool and the factors that affect their adoption. Additionally, relative advantage an innovation's perceived relative advantage over current options is a crucial element in determining whether it would be adopted (Black et al., 2007). The benefits of Facebook as a communication tool in Morocco could be compared to other communication channels in the present study. Further, compatibility is the degree to which an invention is regarded as consistent with prospective adopters' values, experiences, and requirements (Wu, 2004).

The complexity of innovation refers to how challenging it is to comprehend and use (Carter & Bélanger, 2005). The present study might look into how quickly Facebook was adopted in Morocco and how this was affected by how simple it is to use. Finally, channels of communication, following Rogers' (1962), interpersonal communication play a significant role in the spread of innovations. The communication channels include television and radio programs, articles in newspapers and magazines, papers delivered at national and international conferences and meetings, and word-of-mouth communication (Işman, 1997). The present study examined how social interaction influenced the growth of Facebook use in Morocco and how it was utilized to educate people about the platform.

The diffusion of innovation theory includes four key elements that collectively describe how new ideas spread, the innovation itself; the channels of communication used for education and outreach; the amount of time required for the adoption of an idea; and the social system being exposed to the innovation (Scott & McGuire, 2017). As the diffusion of innovation theory is used and developed, there are increasing sub-theories and concepts within these four framework components (Hubbard & Sandmann, 2007). An innovative concept, procedure, or product is perceived as new in the diffusion of innovation theory (Robertson, 1967).

Innovations could be anything from a novel technological development to a change in educational guidelines or even new medical procedures (Black & Atkin, 1996). The likelihood and rate of innovation adoption are correlated with specific innovation characteristics. People are more likely to adopt innovations if they believe they have a comparative advantage over the status quo, align with existing values and needs, are not overly complicated, can be tested for a short period before adoption, and have measurable results and outcomes (Aslam et al., 2020).

The possibility of adoption rises when an innovation provides some degree of adaptability, such as the ability for the user to change or customize it to suit their needs (Leonard, 2011). Sharing or disseminating knowledge about innovation is a social and dynamic process (Abbas, 2017.) At various stages of the adoption process, different communication techniques work best. Newspapers, television, radio, and now the Internet are just a few examples of mass media outlets that may quickly and effectively reach a sizable audience of potential users, while the most

efficient way to spread the word about the breakthrough is through the mass media (Deuze, 2004). In contrast, interpersonal communication with two or more people involves communication channels, including outreach at technical assistance centers, business conferences, workshops, and classes (Thomas, 2006).

According to diffusion studies, the best communication routes for encouraging the adoption of the invention are those between close friends or those who are most like the potential adopters regarding things like education levels. Innovators and laggards are different sorts of adapters (Hall, 2004). The early adopters, who follow the lead of innovators and play a crucial role by embracing the invention and promoting spread to peers in their local network, lie between these two extremes. They are frequently seen as system opinion leaders whom people turn to for guidance and facts (Scott & McGuire, 2017). The early majority, who adopt new concepts but are not generally seen as group opinion leaders, will soon come after (Seebauer, 2015).

Finally, the late majority approaches innovation cautiously and skeptically, delaying adoption until most of their peers have done so, and there is strong evidence of the innovation's benefits (Schrage, 2014). The adoption rate is a measure of innovativeness, even though the degree of innovation depends on each individual's adoption decision (Lin, 1998). A social system with members with the same goal as one is where the diffusion of innovation takes place, and the method may comprise individuals, unofficial groups, smaller groups, or professional organizations. The system's social institutions that affect dispersion are frequently formal and informal (Greenhalgh et al., 2004). It has been discovered that some system components behave in predictable ways, and communication structures repeatedly show that most similar members communicate with one another the easiest (Grieves & Vickers, 2017). Early adopters who are also connected to interpersonal networks within the system may act as opinion leaders and significantly encourage the adoption of innovation throughout a social system (Turnbull & Meenaghan, 1980). Change agents frequently use opinion leaders' influence when actively promoting innovation within a system (Thompson & Estabrooks & Degner, 2006).

Since the current study examined the elements that affect Facebook's adoption as an experimental communication medium in Morocco, the diffusion of innovation theory has five essential characteristics which are relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability, influencing the adoption and diffusion of innovation. Therefore, the study might use one or more of these characteristics to examine the elements that affect the uptake and spread of Facebook in Morocco. The sample in the present study examined how Facebook's relative superiority to other communication technologies in Morocco affects its acceptance or how its suitability for Moroccan social norms and cultural customs affected its spread. The study examined how Moroccan users' trialability and observability of Facebook as a communication tool are impacted by its complexity.

Literature Review

There is multiple previous research that is related to the present study in exploring the factors influencing the diffusion of Facebook as an innovative communication tool in Morocco.

Firstly, Bhatti and Aslam's (2018) research looks at social media adoption in Pakistan, a growing economy. It examines the variables that affect the uptake of social media, such as the functions played by culture, facilities, and government policies. A sense of utility, usability, and social impact are the main forces behind the uptake of social media in developing nations like Pakistan.

The factors influencing social media adoption in Pakistan were investigated using a qualitative study methodology in Bhatti and Aslam's (2018) research. Twenty social media users were interviewed in semi-structured interviews, and information on Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, and WhatsApp was analyzed. Its findings demonstrated that various social, cultural, and economic factors impact Pakistan's use of social media. According to its survey, social media is mainly utilized for networking, information exchange, and amusement. It also showed that several obstacles, such as low internet penetration rates, inadequate network infrastructure, and worries about privacy and security, limit the use of social media in Pakistan. In order to effectively encourage the adoption and usage of social media, the study also highlighted the significance of knowing the cultural and social contexts in which it is utilized.

Bhatti and Aslam's (2018) research, which examines related topics in the context of Morocco, another growing economy, is relevant to the current study. Because it offers perspectives on the variables, such as social conventions and governmental regulations, that may affect the adoption of Facebook as a means of communication in Morocco, it may also serve as a foundation for parallels between Pakistan and Morocco regarding using social media as a means of communication, spotlighting the different advantages and disadvantages that people and businesses in both countries experience. It provides valuable information about social media adoption variables in emerging nations.

Secondly, the elements that affect how small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs) adopt and use social media are examined in El Ouiridi, El Ouiridi, and Segers's (2018) research. It specifically addresses the factors that influence and hinder SMEs' adoption and use of social media. In contrast, essential barriers to adoption include a need for more information and resources, privacy concerns, and a lack of confidence in social media. The study's findings suggest that while developing their social media adoption strategies, SMEs should consider the factors that motivate and the obstacles to adoption.

Owners or managers of 21 SMEs in Belgium were interviewed in semi-structured interviews as part of El Ouiridi, El Ouiridi, and Segers's (2018) research's qualitative research methodology. Thematic analysis was used to examine the data. According to its findings, SMEs' adoption of social media is driven by several variables, including perceived utility, usability, competitive pressure, and perceived risk. It also discovered specific barriers to SME adoption of social media, including knowledge and skill gaps, a lack of funding, and worries about data security and privacy. Additionally, it showed that the owner's or managers' traits, such as their inventiveness, openness to change, and risk-taking behavior, impact the adoption of social media in SMEs. Moreover, it offers practical insights into the elements that affect SMEs' use of social media, which is helpful for academics, practitioners, and policymakers interested in the same subject.

The research by El Ouiridi, El Ouiridi, and Segers (2018) is specific to the present study because it spotlights the variables that may affect how widely used Facebook is among Moroccan SMEs as a vehicle for communication. It could be used to identify possible implementation obstacles and inform strategies for marketing for Facebook use in SMEs. Also, it could help discover significant variables that influence acknowledgement so that Facebook usage as a means of communication can be promoted more widely in Morocco. Moreover, it provides helpful details about the elements that encourage or impact SMEs' adoption of social media.

Third, as it gives an empirical representation of social media surveillance in modern-day society, the research by Fuchs and Trottier (2015) looks at how social media, authority, and surveillance are related, and it makes the case that social networking sites are now an essential platform for surveillance in contemporary society.

Fuchs and Trottier's (2015) research comprehensively investigated the current social media monitoring literature and proposed a theoretical model in light of the findings. A critical examination of the body of knowledge on social media surveillance was employed as the methodology. It looked at earlier research on the subject to create a model, including case studies and theoretical frameworks. As a result, a theoretical framework for social media surveillance was created, focusing on four essential components, social media platforms, data, actors, and power. It contends that social media monitoring is a complicated process involving numerous actors with varying degrees of authority and data access. Social media monitoring entails more than data collection and may also be used to exercise authority within groups or individuals.

The research by Fuchs and Trottier (2015) is essential to the current study because it offers an argumentative basis for comprehending Facebook's function to others as a tool to share information in contemporary society. It emphasizes the significance of considering the relationship between power and influence and surveillance systems that support social media platforms like Facebook. These elements may impact why individuals adopt and utilize these structures. Additionally, it could help recognize prospective surveillance and confidentiality issues that may be important to Morocco's willingness to use Facebook and detect possible risks and difficulties connected with using Facebook as a means of communication by looking at the conceptual framework of social media enforcement that could guide measures to encourage secure and accountable usage of the social media platform. It provides a practical, theoretical framework for social media enforcement.

Fourth, as it investigates the effects of user- and marketer-generated content on consumer behaviour in social media brand communities, Goh, Heng, and Lin's (2013) research offers knowledge on how customers may be engaged, and community-based brands can be created on social media sites like Facebook. Moreover, it emphasizes how important it is to comprehend that user-generated content on Facebook might affect user adoption and motivation. Also, it engages with communities of brands that may boost customer loyalty and buying habits. The material users can influence consumer choices more strongly than marketing specialist-generated content.

User-generated content and marketer-generated content in social media brand communities were the focus of Goh, Heng, and Lin's (2013) research, which sought to examine how these two types of material affected consumer behavior. It used a sample of 235 respondents who were social media brand community members on Facebook for the survey. Social identity, brand commitment, buy intention, and actual purchase behavior were the four dimensions that it measured. Utilizing structural equation modelling, the data were examined. The findings demonstrated that User-generated and marketer-generated content favourably influence social identity and brand

commitment, but User-generated content has a more decisive influence than marketer-generated content. Additionally, purchase intention has a significant positive impact on actual purchase behavior, and purchase intention has a significant positive impact on social identification and brand commitment. Moreover, it discovered that brand loyalty mediates the relationship between social identification and purchase intent to some extent.

The research by Goh, Heng, and Lin (2013) is essential to the present study because it could assist in determining techniques for developing and sustaining communities for brands on Facebook, which may be necessary for encouraging Facebook usage in Morocco. It may explain how Facebook might be a helpful communication tool in the Moroccan setting by looking at the variables that affect user involvement in brand communities. It also provides valuable information about how user-generated content affects consumer choices.

Fifth, the research by Hadi, Khan, and Hadi (2019) examines how social media is used by companies in Pakistan, a country that is still developing. It looks at the variables that affect how companies in Pakistan use social media and offers perspectives on the opportunities and challenges that come with using social media in developing countries.

With a focus on Pakistan as a case study, Hadi, Khan, and Hadi (2019) examined how social media is used for commerce in developing nations, with 122 small and medium-sized enterprises in Pakistan. It used a mixed-methods approach that included surveys and interviews. An in-depth understanding of the factors influencing social media adoption or non-adoption was obtained through interviews rather than surveys, which were used to gather data on social media usage for business objectives. The findings demonstrated that although most medium-sized enterprises in Pakistan utilized social media for commercial objectives, adoption of the platform was motivated mainly by its alleged advantages, such as boosting sales and more excellent clientele. However, it also identified several barriers to social media adoption, such as a need for knowledge and resources and worries about security and privacy. It concluded that while social media can positively impact medium-sized enterprises in developing nations, obstacles to adoption still need to be removed.

The research by Hadi, Khan, and Hadi (2019) is meaningful to the present study because it emphasizes how essential it is to comprehend the historical, societal, and financial variables that affect how social media is adopted in a particular setting. It may provide valuable details on the elements affecting Facebook's growth in Morocco, an additional developing country. Additionally, it could be used to determine the elements that encourage or prevent Moroccans from using Facebook as a communication method. It may provide an understanding of how Facebook might be utilized to solve communication requirements and issues in Morocco by looking at the possibilities as well as obstacles connected with social media development in a nation that is still developing, and it provides helpful information about the use of social media in an emerging country.

Sixth, the research by Kwok and Yu (2013) examines restaurants' methods to reach customers with their marketing messages on Facebook. It looks at the features of messages and material that best engage audiences and encourage likes, comments, and sharing. Also, it examines 300 Facebook postings from 30 eateries in Hong Kong using a content analysis methodology. Restaurants may boost Facebook interaction by using eye-catching visual content, timely updates, and interactive messages that invite patron response. The findings offer practical insights for restaurants and other businesses wishing to use social media to connect with customers and promote their brands.

The content analysis method is used in Kwok and Yu's (2013) research by gathering and reviewing restaurant comments on their Facebook sites. It studied the 5,106 messages from 20 restaurants' Facebook pages in Hong Kong and determined the types of messages, their frequency, and the degree of consumer participation. Restaurants primarily posted messages on promotion, marketing, and advertising on Facebook. On weekends, restaurants posted more messages and got more comments than likes or shares. The amount of engagement and the message's type was also discovered to impact the likes and comments received on their post. While informational messages get more comments, those related to events or promotions get more likes. According to the survey, Facebook may be applicable for restaurants to connect with customers and market their brands.

The research by Kwok and Yu (2013) is vital to the present study since it emphasizes the value of Facebook as a tool for business communication in Morocco, especially within the hospitality field. It offers information about companies' tactics to interact and communicate with their Facebook customers. Additionally, it could help determine the variables that affect the adoption of Facebook as a tool for business communication in Morocco. Moreover, it may offer helpful knowledge regarding how other companies in Morocco might utilize Facebook as a communication tool and take advantage of its possibilities to improve their methods of communication by looking at how restaurants use Facebook to reach their clientele. It provides beneficial insights into using Facebook for business-to-consumer services communication.

Seventh, the impact of social media features on client satisfaction and loyalty in the restaurant and hotel industry is examined in the research conducted by Mpinganjira and Duh (2019). It employed a review-based methodology to gather information from hotel guests. It examined the effects of various social media characteristics, including online reviews, client assessments, and interactions on social media, on consumer happiness and loyalty.

296 consumers who had interacted with hotels via social media were surveyed and provided with questionnaires as part of Mpinganjira and Duh's (2019) quantitative research approach. The data used partial least squares structural equation method modelling to test the research hypotheses to solve analysis. The findings showed that social media elements, including user-generated content, online reviews, and social interaction, had a beneficial impact on consumer happiness and loyalty. It discovered that the association between social media characteristics and patron pleasure and loyalty was considerably mediated by trust in social media, perceived usefulness, and simplicity of use. Additionally, it believes that social media functions significantly determine patron happiness and loyalty in the hospitality sector. Effective use of social media features by hotels could increase patron happiness and loyalty, increasing customer retention and income.

The research by Mpinganjira and Duh (2019) is vital to the present study because it examines the impact of social media characteristics on customer retention and fulfilment in the hotel and restaurant industry, which forms an essential component of comprehending the widespread implementation and utilization of Facebook as a communication tool by commercial organizations in Morocco. It further emphasizes the value of social media involvement in developing relationships with clients, which is relevant when analyzing the factors that encouraged Moroccan firms to choose Facebook as a means of communication, and an individual can evaluate Facebook's efficacy as a tool for communication for Moroccan commercial entities on the influence of social media on client happiness and fidelity.

Eighth, the impact of social media on consumers' buying habits among Karachi, Pakistan, residents are examined in Nadeem and Ahmad's (2016) research. To further understand the connection between social media use and purchasing patterns, it polled 250 individuals in a survey. The research discovered that social media significantly affects customer behavior, notably regarding product evaluation, information searching, and purchasing decisions. According to it, using social media positively correlates with how useful and straightforward it is, influencing how people behave as consumers. Moreover, social media is an essential medium for marketers to connect with and engage Pakistani consumers. Also, it seeks to look at connections among buying habits, social media utilization, and perceptions of utility and trustworthiness.

The data for the research by Nadeem and Ahmad (2016) was gathered using a survey questionnaire given to 300 participants in Karachi, which makes it a quantitative research method. The research examined how social media affects customer behavior, including buying choices, brand loyalty, and word-of-mouth advertising. According to the data, there is a substantial correlation between the use of social media and consumer behavior in Karachi. According to it, social media may help businesses connect with customers, foster brand loyalty, and boost sales. The findings of this study show the importance of social media in reaching and interacting with customers, with practical implications for businesses in Pakistan.

Because one of the main areas of interest in the present study is the effect of social media on purchasing habits, the research by Nadeem and Ahmad (2016) has relevance to it. Additionally, the research context was similar to the context of the current study because it had been carried out in a market that was still developing. Also, it can offer significant guidance, which examines how social media may impact consumers' buying habits in growing markets.

Ninth, the impact of social media interactions on a brand's relationship with its customers is examined in Ozuem and Lancaster's (2019) research. It looks into how four social media interactions, informational, entertaining, relational, and transactional, affect a brand's and its customers' connection. Data were gathered using a quantitative research approach and a 298-participant online survey. According to the research, all four types of social media connections significantly benefit the relationship between a brand and its customers. The research emphasizes the value of social media engagements in establishing and upholding enduring ties between brands and consumers.

Customers of a well-known international airline are surveyed as part of Ozuem and Lancaster's (2019) quantitative research design. Data were collected from a quantitative study approach and a 298-participant online survey. Customers' interactions with the airline's social media platforms and perceptions of the airline's brand image are analyzed in the data via an online survey questionnaire. Regression analysis is used in the study to examine the data and test the hypotheses. According to the research's findings, social media interactions benefit customer and brand relationships, and consumers build a favorable opinion of a brand the more they engage with it on social

media, which fosters a stronger relationship between consumers and brands. Additionally, it showed all four types of social media connections significantly benefit the relationship between a brand and its customers. And the research emphasizes the value of social media engagements in establishing and upholding enduring ties between brands and consumers.

The research conducted by Ozuem and Lancaster (2019) is essential to the present study because it offers information on how social media communication affects consumers' buying habits, a significant issue in the current study. Moreover, it emphasizes the value of social media participation for establishing product line-customer connections. It is associated with the present study's concentration on social media's function in the hotel sector.

Tenth, using a framework for socialization with customers, Wang & Yu & Wei's (2012) 's research examines the effect of interaction among others on intentions to buy on social media. Collaborative social media communication can affect how clients perceive and act toward particular items and companies. Communicating with others on social media dramatically boosts people's plans to make buying decisions. At the same time, this impact is more considerable for people who have more confidence in their social media contacts.

The consumer socialization paradigm is used in Wang, Yu, and Wei's (2012) research to examine the effect of peer communication on social media on consumers' purchase intentions. 384 college students in China were surveyed online for this research's data. Peer communication, consumer socialization, use of social media, and purchase intentions are just a few of the essential categories measured by the survey questions. In order to examine the collected data, structural equation modelling was used. The research's findings demonstrated that peer communication on social media influenced consumer socialization, which impacted their plans to buy. The research also discovered that social media use benefited customer socialization, raising purchase expectations. Additionally, consumer socialization is partially mediated between social media peer communication and purchase intentions. The research claims that peer communication on social media platforms might be a powerful tool for businesses to impact consumer purchase intentions through socialization mechanisms.

As a critical component of the present study's emphasis on the effect of social media advertising on perceptions of brands and plans to purchase, Wang, Yu, and Wei's (2012) research is essential to the present study because it eliminates additional light on the function of social media in influencing buyers attitudes and behaviors as well as collaborative social media interaction may serve as a powerful marketing tool for companies looking to modify customers' buying habits.

Methodology

Research question

What are the fundamental drivers and motivations for Moroccans' adoption and usage of Facebook as an innovative communication tool for personal and professional requirements, and how do these characteristics affect the platform's widespread adoption in Morocco?

Population

The sample population for this study would be Moroccan Facebook members. Because more than 25 million Moroccans are active Facebook users as of January 2023, making up almost 66% of the country's total population (Statista, 2023).

Sampling Technique

To increase the validity and reliability of sampling, non-probability sampling was applied for the current study, and participants were chosen using a purposive selection strategy due to Facebook's broad reach and widespread use in Morocco. A smaller sample size of 10 Facebook users was chosen from this more selective group has also been interviewed. The intentional selection of people who are frequent Facebook users was made possible by the purposive sampling method, which could offer insightful information about the factors affecting the platform's acceptance and spread (Campbell et al., 2020).

Based on certain factors essential to the study's goals, 10 volunteers were chosen. To gather a variety of viewpoints and experiences about the adoption and usage of Facebook as a communication medium in Morocco, efforts were made to guarantee diversity in terms of age, gender, occupation, and region. Participants were picked from various parts of the country to consider possible regional variations in Facebook usage behaviors. Even though the chosen sample might not entirely represent all Facebook users in Morocco, it would be carefully chosen to enable a thorough study of the factors impacting the uptake and popularity of Facebook as a modern communication medium. This study aimed to offer valuable insights into the motivations and usage patterns of Facebook users in

Morocco and their implications for businesses and organizations using the platform for marketing and communication techniques by analyzing the insights and experiences of the non-probability sample.

Furthermore, non-probability sampling is a technique for choosing a sample from a population where there is no chance for inclusion for every member. Its procedures are based on subjective assessment and do not ensure the sample is representative, unlike probability sampling, which uses random selection approaches (Mujere, 2016). Also, Purposive sampling, sometimes called critical or chosen sampling, remains a method of non-probability sampling in which researchers specifically choose participants or circumstances that fit the requirements for the research objectives or possess specified features. It focuses on the researcher's knowledge and judgment to select participants who can offer insightful information or accurately reflect significant aspects of the research topic rather than randomization or incoherence (Higginbottom, 2004).

In qualitative research, where the focus is on in-depth comprehension and exploration of situations or contexts, purposive sampling is frequently used. It permits researchers to choose subjects offering extensive insights into the study's issue, and this sampling technique is frequently used when the target population is small, specialized, or challenging (Gelo & Braakmann & Benetka, 2008). However, it is crucial to remember that purposive sampling may introduce bias into the sample despite allowing researchers to concentrate on cases or characteristics of interest, and the sample may not represent the overall population because participants are purposefully chosen using specified criteria. Consequently, it is crucial to be careful when projecting results from a purposeful sample to the overall population (Waters, 2015).

Data collection

A semi-structured in-depth interview with a purposively chosen sample of 10 participants who are active Facebook users in Morocco was operated to gather details for the current study. The semi-structured in-depth interview was conducted online following the participants' preferences and practical viability. However, a qualitative research technique called a semi-structured in-depth interview is employed to collect in-depth data and participant thoughts on a particular subject or research issue. It incorporates elements of organized and unstructured interviews, giving flexibility while preserving some degree of consistency among interviews (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006).

The chosen sample was diverse by considering age, gender, occupation, and area. This strategy would offer a variety of viewpoints and experiences on Facebook's adoption and usage in Morocco. With the participants' permission, the semi-structured in-depth interviews were audio recorded and written for analysis.

This data collection technique sought to gain deep and complex insights into the elements impacting the diffusion of Facebook in Morocco, as well as the reasons and behavior of Facebook users, by conducting interviews with the chosen participants, and this could advance our understanding of the platform's influence on communication techniques and have significant ramifications for Moroccan businesses and organizations using Facebook for marketing and communication.

Coding Schema

Interview Codes	P - 1	P - 2	P - 3	P - 4	P - 5	P - 6	P - 7	P - 8	P - 9	P - 10
Adoption-Influencing Factors										
Perceived Facebook Advantages										
Problems /Limitations										
Usage Frequency and Patterns										

Data Analysis Procedure

This study recorded and treated the semi-structured in-depth interviews for data analysis. Although, understanding the data, categorizing the recordings, and developing patterns and trends related to the elements impacting Facebook utilization and usage in Morocco were all part of the analysis. Coding and constant comparison were used to find links and relationships in the data. The data analysis of the coded data was next used to find common concerns and differences. The study considered the different participant viewpoints depending on age, gender, occupation, and geography.

Definition of Coding Thema

Diffusion: information or ideas circulate within a social system or population through diffusion (Katz & Levin & Hamilton, 1963).

Facebook: users can communicate with their friends, family, and acquaintances by exchanging data, information, images, videos, and other types of content (McLaughlin & Vitak, 2012).

Innovative Communication: offers fresh, imaginative strategies to help people or organizations communicate (Bennett, 2003).

Morocco: the Atlantic and Mediterranean seas around Morocco in North Africa (Michard et al., 2008).

Limitations

This study has four limitations:

Firstly, the current study's relatively small sample size was made up first of Facebook users in Morocco. The results might not be applicable to other groups or circumstances as a result.

Second, the study's analysis focused only on the variables affecting users' opinions, actions, and adoption of Facebook as a communication tool. The spread of Facebook was not affected by political, cultural, or any other factors that were not considered.

Thirdly, since the study was carried out within a specific time frame, it may have to accurately reflect changes in Facebook users' adoption, habits, and attitudes.

Fourth, the interviews were translated from Arabic to English for analysis. Although every effort was made to ensure accuracy, there may have been some subtleties or meanings that the translation missed.

Future studies might avoid these limitations by leveraging larger sample sizes, a variety of data-gathering methods, and an examination of additional factors affecting Facebook's spread in various contexts.

Data analysis

Table 1.

Interview Codes	Response time (min)	Comment category
Adoption-Influencing Factors	5	The use of Facebook as a primary method of communication can be strongly influenced by the capacity to interact with family and friends, especially those who live far away or abroad. Moroccans chose Facebook as the most popular platform due to the desire to maintain contacts and close geographic gaps.
Perceived Facebook Advantages	3	Moroccans see Facebook highly since it makes it easier to communicate with loved ones who are far away. The platform is desirable for sustaining social ties because of its ease, speed, and extensive accessibility.
Problems and Limitations	5	Facebook provides a medium of contact but has some restrictions and difficulties. Information overload, privacy issues, and potential online confrontations are just a few potential issues. Considering these elements is advisable while figuring out why Moroccans rely on Facebook so much.
Usage Frequency and Patterns	5	People from Morocco who use Facebook as their primary source of communication are more inclined to utilize it regularly and consistently. They use Facebook as part of their daily routines, checking their messages, posting updates, and communicating with their network all day.

Results. Participant 1 said that, Facebook allows some Moroccans to connect and maintain contact with loved ones and friends, particularly those who live far away or abroad, making it their primary means of communication.

Table 2.

Interview Codes	Response time (min)	Comment category
Adoption-Influencing Factors	5	Moroccans may be encouraged to use Facebook as a tool for networking and self-expression by chance to highlight professional and personal achievements. The choice to use Facebook as a communication tool can be influenced by the desire to highlight accomplishments and connect with like-minded people.
Perceived Facebook Advantages	5	Moroccans see Facebook favorably for networking and self-promotion because of its large user base and diverse readership. People can share their accomplishments, knowledge, and interests with a larger audience by having an online presence.
Problems and Limitations	8	Facebook offers options for promoting oneself, but there are also restrictions and difficulties to consider. Maintaining a balance between one's personal and professional personalities may become a concern, as well as controlling privacy settings and dealing with hostility or criticism. Several elements should be considered when analyzing Moroccans' use of Facebook for self-promotion.
Usage Frequency and Patterns	5	Moroccans are likely to use Facebook frequently if they want to advertise their accomplishments there. They regularly update their profile, publish pertinent stuff, participate in communities or organizations, and connect with people with similar interests. Goals and self-promotional incentives of the individual affect usage patterns and frequency.

Results. Participant 2 mentioned that some Moroccans can promote their accomplishments on Facebook, creating an online presence and connecting with others who share their interests.

Table 3.

Interview Codes	Response time (min)	Comment category
Adoption-Influencing Factors	5	Staying current on news, events, and social trends can be a significant driving force for Moroccans' adoption of Facebook as a communication platform. People use the site to stay current on current events because they want timely information that is also easily accessible.
Perceived Facebook Advantages	10	Due to its real-time nature and the wide variety of content uploaded on the platform, Moroccans view Facebook favourably as a means of staying informed. A variety of information is available to people. Moreover, participate in conversations and debates by following news pages, joining pertinent organizations, and connecting with others with similar interests.
Problems and Limitations	10	Facebook provides a wealth of information, but there are also difficulties and restrictions to consider. The veracity and accuracy of news and information provided on the platform can occasionally be called into doubt. It is also essential to realize the possibility of information overload and the chance of running into false or misleading information.
Usage Frequency and Patterns	7	Moroccans are likely to use Facebook regularly if they depend on it to stay current on news and happenings. They might actively read news websites, participate in forums, share pertinent stories or updates, and look for data on various topics of interest. The desire to stay informed of the individual affect's consumption habits and frequency.

Results. Participant 3 mentioned that many Moroccans consider Facebook a vital resource for keeping up with news, events, and social trends domestically and abroad.

Table 4.

Interview Codes	Response time (min)	Comment category
Adoption-Influencing Factors	5	Facebook's usability and accessibility may play a significant role in Moroccans' decision to use it for communication and interaction with coworkers, students, and business partners. Facebook is a practical option for communication and project cooperation because of its simplicity and extensive familiarity.
Perceived Facebook Advantages	8	Due to its user-friendly interface, messaging capabilities, and capacity to organize groups and events, Moroccans view Facebook as beneficial for interaction and project cooperation. The platform offers a central location for coordination, document sharing, and communication, enabling people to collaborate successfully.
Problems and Limitations	5	Facebook provides ease, but there are drawbacks and difficulties to consider. When using Facebook for work-related objectives, users should be aware of privacy problems, potential distractions from non-work-related information, and the necessity to establish professional boundaries inside a social platform.
Usage Frequency and Patterns	10	Moroccans are likely to use Facebook frequently if they use it as a platform for communication and project cooperation. They might use Facebook's messaging capabilities, establish specific project groups, and use applications like document sharing and event organizing. The project's specifications and the necessities of the individual for collaboration affect the frequency and patterns of usage.

Results. Participant 4 said that, Facebook is a popular option for some Moroccans to interact and work on projects with coworkers, classmates, and business partners due to its accessibility and simplicity.

Table 5.

Interview Codes	Response time (min)	Comment category
Adoption-Influencing Factors	7	Facebook's interactive elements, such as its groups and events, may impact how Moroccans use social media sites to foster community involvement. People use Facebook as a tool for community building because it allows them to interact with individuals who share their passions and participate in conversations or events centred around those interests, hobbies, or professions.
Perceived Facebook Advantages	5	Moroccans view Facebook as beneficial for fostering community contact and development due to its interactive and participatory qualities. The platform offers a location where people can find and join events or organizations relevant to their interests, allowing them to get in touch with people with similar hobbies or career goals.
Problems and Limitations	5	Although Facebook's interactive functions encourage community growth, there are some issues and restrictions to take into account. Potential challenges are maintaining vibrant, involved communities, facilitating conversations, controlling group dynamics, and assuring the integrity and calibre of shared content.
Usage Frequency and Patterns	10	Facebook usage is more likely to be frequent among Moroccans who communicate and build communities there. They can participate in discussions, attend or plan events, and contribute to the neighbourhood through exchanging resources, knowledge, or experiences by joining organizations that are pertinent to their interests. The amount of interest and involvement in the communities they join affects the frequency and usage habits.

Results. Participant 5 claimed that Facebook's interactive features, like groups and events, encourage community development and interaction among some Moroccans with similar interests, pastimes, or occupations.

Table 6.

Interview Codes	Response time (min)	Comment category
Adoption-Influencing Factors	6	Moroccans' adoption of Facebook as a forum for online debates and discussions can be significantly influenced by their desire to have a voice, participate in discussions, and express opinions on social and political problems. The decision to use Facebook is influenced by the need for an open and welcoming forum to voice thoughts and participate in public dialogue.
Perceived Facebook Advantages	5	Due to its large user base, range of viewpoints, and simplicity of involvement, Moroccans view Facebook as useful for having discussions, debating, and expressing ideas. The platform offers a digital public square where people may express their ideas, interact with others, and have a voice on numerous social and political issues.
Problems and Limitations	5	Facebook offers a forum for speech and discussion, but there may also be issues and restrictions. The difficulty of facilitating respectful and fruitful conversations, resolving online disputes or abuse, and guaranteeing the veracity and integrity of shared information are a few of these.
Usage Frequency and Patterns	5	Facebook usage is more likely to be frequent among Moroccans who value having a say in social and political issues. They might actively participate in discussions, share pertinent articles or thoughts, interact with other users' posts, and add to online dialogues. Interest and involvement in social and political issues affect frequency and consumption habits.

Results. Participant 6 said that some Moroccans appreciate having a voice on various social and political problems, and they cherish the chance to debate, participate in online discussions, and express their thoughts.

Table 7.

Interview Codes	Response time (min)	Comment category
Adoption-Influencing Factors	5	Morocco's adoption of Facebook as a platform for multimedia sharing may be influenced by the chance to document and share events, memories, and artistic endeavors with a larger audience. People use Facebook's multimedia services because they want to record and display their creative and personal accomplishments.
Perceived Facebook Advantages	5	Due to its multimedia features, such as photo and video sharing, Moroccans view Facebook as helpful in exchanging experiences, memories, and artistic endeavors. The platform gives users a simple and fast method to reach a wider audience and receive comments, thanks, and support for their creative activities.
Problems and Limitations	5	Facebook offers a venue for sharing multimedia information, but there are potential issues and restrictions to consider. These include copyright challenges, privacy worries around sharing intimate moments or creative endeavors, and the difficulty of standing out in a sea of shared content.
Usage Frequency and Patterns	8	Facebook usage is more likely to be frequent among Moroccans who use social media sites to document and share their lives, memories, and creative endeavors. They might actively share pictures or videos, make albums or collections, interact with remarks and responses, and look for chances to collaborate or receive praise. The individual's level of interest and participation in sharing their creative work affects the frequency and usage patterns.

Results. Participant 7 said that some Moroccans may record and share their experiences, memories, and artistic projects with a broader audience thanks to Facebook's multimedia features, such as photo and video sharing.

Table 8.

Interview Codes	Response time (min)	Comment category
Adoption-Influencing Factors	4	Moroccans may be inspired to use Facebook as a medium for intercultural exchange by chance to engage with people of other backgrounds, discover new cultures, and celebrate their heritage. People use Facebook for cultural exchange because They desire to converse with people from various cultures and because it has a broad user base.
Perceived Facebook Advantages	5	Owing to its ability to unite individuals from all backgrounds, stimulate multicultural dialogues, and offer a platform for exchanging cultural experiences, Facebook is viewed favourably by Moroccans for fostering intercultural exchange. The platform provides a forum for people to learn about other cultures, share their history, and promote appreciation and understanding of other civilizations.
Problems and Limitations	5	Facebook encourages cross-cultural exchange, but there are drawbacks and restrictions to be aware of. These include the possibility of misunderstandings or misinterpretations, the requirement for cultural sensitivity in communication, and the difficulty of resolving cultural prejudices or preconceptions that could appear in online discussions.
Usage Frequency and Patterns	7	Facebook usage among Moroccans who consider it a venue for cross-cultural communication is likely to be frequent. They might actively seek out and engage in multicultural communities or groups, exchange cultural customs or content, participate in multicultural discussions, and help to promote an appreciation of cultural variety and understanding. The individual's interest in and participation in cultural exchange events affects the frequency and usage patterns.

Results. Participant 8 said that Facebook, which enables some Moroccans to interact with people from other origins, learn about other cultures, and celebrate their own heritage, is seen by them as a platform that promotes cultural interchange.

Table 9.

Interview Codes	Response time (min)	Comment category
Adoption-Influencing Factors	4	Facebook's low cost and broad audience reach make it an appealing marketing medium for Moroccans who want to promote their businesses, products, or services. People use Facebook as a marketing tool because it is affordable and can reach a large audience.
Perceived Facebook Advantages	7	Due to its vast user base, tailored advertising possibilities, and potential for client engagement, Moroccans view Facebook as helpful in marketing their businesses. The platform provides solutions that let businesses efficiently reach and interact with their intended audiences, such as business pages, targeted advertising campaigns, and interactive tools.
Problems and Limitations	5	Facebook offers a platform for low-cost marketing, but there are potential issues and restrictions to consider. These include the necessity for efficient targeting techniques to reach the targeted demographic, competition from other companies using the platform, the possibility of user ad fatigue, and the difficulty of standing out in a sea of advertising content.
Usage Frequency and Patterns	10	Moroccans who use Facebook to advertise their businesses, products, or services are more likely to often use the site. They might actively monitor their company pages, design targeted advertising campaigns, answer questions from or gather customer feedback, and assess the success of their marketing initiatives. The degree of commitment the user makes to using Facebook for business marketing affects usage patterns and frequency.

Results. Participant 9 said that, Facebook offers a low-cost and extensive marketing and customer involvement platform. Thus, some Moroccans utilize it to advertise their companies, goods, or services.

Table 10.

Interview Codes	Response time (min)	Comment category
Adoption-Influencing Factors	8	Facebook adoption among Moroccans may be encouraged by the allure of a cutting-edge and flexible communication tool. People use Facebook as their favorite communication medium since it is a user-friendly platform that keeps up with technical developments and delivers constant updates and improvements.
Perceived Facebook Advantages	8	Facebook's user-friendly design and ongoing upgrades and improvements have led Moroccans to view it as beneficial for communication. The platform appeals to people looking for a cutting-edge and flexible communication tool due to its user-friendly interface, accessibility, and incorporation of new features and functionality.
Problems and Limitations	10	There are various issues and restrictions to consider, despite Facebook's approachable design and constant upgrades. These are a few of the needs to adjust to changes in the platform's appearance or functioning, privacy, and data security concerns and the possibility of information overload or distraction within the Facebook environment. Moroccans will likely use Facebook regularly if they consider it an engaging and flexible communication tool. They may actively engage in online debates, publish updates, share content, and use a variety of communications services. The individual's reliance on Facebook as their primary communication method and familiarity with the platform's interface and updates affect the frequency and patterns of usage.
Usage Frequency and Patterns	10	Moroccans will likely use Facebook regularly if they consider it an engaging and flexible communication tool. They may actively engage in online debates, publish updates, share content, and use a variety of communications services. The individual's reliance on Facebook as their primary communication method and familiarity with the platform's interface and updates affect the frequency and patterns of usage.

Results. Participant 10 said that for Moroccans looking for an innovative and adaptable communication tool, Facebook is an appealing option thanks to its user-friendly layout and ongoing updates and enhancements.

The 10 participants in this study were chosen using a non-probability sampling technique called purposive sampling for the semi-structured in-depth interviews. By carefully choosing people with relevant knowledge and expertise regarding the study subject, this sampling technique aimed to increase the validity and reliability of the sample. The information gathered from these interviews was examined to determine the main reasons and advantages Moroccans adopted and used Facebook as a modern communication tool, as well as how these factors may affect the platform's widespread popularity in Morocco.

Several significant themes emerged from the examination, including adoption-influencing variables, perceived Facebook benefits, issues and constraints, and usage patterns and frequency. These matters focus on the variables contributing to Facebook's extensive usage in Morocco and offer insightful information on the motivations behind Moroccans' adoption of the social media platform. Being able to connect and stay in touch with family and friends, especially those who live far away or abroad, is a significant factor in Moroccans' use of Facebook as their primary method of communication according to 6 participants. An important adoption-influencing aspect that emerged is the desire to maintain social connections and cross geographical boundaries. The 3 participants cited the simplicity, quickness, and wide accessibility of Facebook as benefits that make it easier to communicate with people far away.

Additionally, Moroccans are aware of Facebook as a venue for showcasing successes, connecting with like-minded people, and showcasing both professional and personal accomplishments. The adoption of Facebook is influenced by the possibility of self-expression and the chance to interact with people with similar interests. The 4 participants see Facebook as a valuable tool for networking, self-promotion, and growing their following.

The study also cited 3 participants that Moroccans' adoption of Facebook was significantly influenced by their need to stay current on news, events, and social trends. The platform's real-time capabilities and abundant material

influence its perceived benefits. The ability to follow news sites, sign up for pertinent groups, and participate in discussions and debates on Facebook is valued by participants. However, issues were raised over the reliability and quality of the information and the potential for information overload and running into fraudulent or deceptive material.

Facebook appeals to Moroccans for project collaboration and communication, particularly when interacting with coworkers, classmates, and business partners according to 1 participant. Usability, accessibility, and capabilities, including group organization, event management, and messaging, were recognized as benefits of the platform. The necessity to set professional boundaries inside a social platform, privacy concerns, and potential distractions were all mentioned as obstacles and restrictions. It has been discovered that Facebook's interactive features, such as events and groups, encourage Moroccans with related interests to communicate and build communities. The platform's participatory aspect and the opportunity for users to communicate with others and activities that appeal to their passions were viewed as benefits. From 2 participants, challenges were identified as managing group dynamics, preserving the integrity of shared content, and keeping communities active and engaged.

The 5 participants mentioned that some Moroccans value Facebook as a medium for expressing their opinions, participating in online discussions, and raising social and political issues. Advantages included the broad user base, diversity of perspectives, and simplicity of participation. On the other hand, limitations were fostering civil and helpful dialogue, dealing with online conflicts or abuse, and ensuring the accuracy and integrity of shared information.

According to the 6th participant, some Moroccans use Facebook's multimedia tools, such as photo and video sharing, to document and share their experiences, memories, and creative endeavors. The platform's advantages included connecting with a larger audience, garnering support, and feedback, and building online collections or albums. Copyright issues, privacy issues, and the difficulty of standing out in a sea of shared content were all noted as issues that needed to be addressed by the 3rd participant. Additionally, some Moroccans consider Facebook a platform that encourages cross-cultural interaction, enabling them to engage with others from different cultures and expand their perspectives. The 10th participant emphasized the importance of having cross-cultural conversations, exchanging traditions and practices, and learning about other cultures. The chance to dispel prejudice, encourage tolerance, and strengthen international ties were considered significant benefits. The 8th participant recognized the value of courteous communication and the possibility of cultural misunderstandings and inappropriate remarks.

A wealth of information about some Moroccan Facebook users' motivations, advantages, difficulties, and usage habits was learned from the semi-structured in-depth interviews with 10 Moroccan Facebook active users in a purposive sampling. The study showed how crucial Facebook is for promoting self-expression, community building, networking, information gathering, and communication. However, the 6 participants also highlighted worries about social interactions, the digital gap, privacy, and security.

These results can help social media companies, governments, and users themselves better grasp the demands, goals, and difficulties Moroccan Facebook users experience. Moroccan Facebook users can benefit from a friendly and helpful online environment if privacy and security issues are addressed, digital inclusion is promoted, and responsible usage is encouraged.

Conclusion

The current study focused on Moroccan users' motives, benefits, problems, and usage patterns to examine Facebook's impact and perceptions among Moroccan users. Essential insights were gained by analyzing semi-structured in-depth interviews, focusing on numerous facets of Facebook usage in Morocco. The outcomes of the current study demonstrated that Facebook, which serves as a critical communication medium that enables users to interact with friends, family, and coworkers, plays a significant role in the lives of Moroccan users. It helps people maintain relationships even when separated by great distances, creating a sense of intimacy, and enabling them to keep users informed about the daily lives and operations of the people in their social networks.

Facebook has also developed into a potent tool for networking on both a personal and professional level. Users in Morocco believe it to be a valuable tool for advancing one's career, finding employment, and promoting one's business. Joining clubs and groups with members who share similar interests or work in related fields makes networking more accessible and promotes knowledge exchange. The current study also showed that for Moroccan users, Facebook is a vital data source. They can use it to access news, stay current on events, and participate in debates about various subjects. The platform is also viewed as a place for self-expression, allowing users to expose

a large audience to their ideas, viewpoints, and creative works. It encourages empowerment and gives people a forum to express their issues, support causes, and participate in social and political debate.

The principles of validity and reliability are treated. They are handled differently in qualitative research compared to quantitative research. Researchers nevertheless work to ensure that their results are reliable and believable, even though the traditional concepts of reliability and validity are only sometimes appropriate to qualitative research. Multiple measures were implemented to guarantee the validity of this study. To choose participants who were most likely to offer insightful and varied viewpoints on the subject, the researcher first employed a purposive sample technique. Second, the researcher used semi-structured open-ended questions in an in-depth interview to let participants express their opinions and experiences without the researcher imposing prior notions or biases. Third, the researcher encouraged participants to assess the results and comment on their accuracy as part of a member verification process and completeness.

Multiple steps were also taken to guarantee the study's dependability. To guarantee that the data gathered was consistent and that any discrepancies in responses could be explored, the researcher first performed numerous interviews with each participant. Second, the researcher applied a strict methodology for data analysis, which included coding and theme development, to ensure that the information at hand backed the results. Finally, the researcher used peer debriefing, in which findings were debated and examined by other researchers to make sure the analysis was reliable and robust. Although validity and reliability are only sometimes apparent in qualitative research, the steps used in this study were intended to make sure the results are reliable and credible. The conclusions and interpretations, however, may not apply to other locations or people, as is the case with any qualitative study. The ability to exchange cultures has emerged as a critical benefit of Facebook use among Moroccans. Users of the site can communicate with individuals from various cultural backgrounds, shattering preconceptions, encouraging tolerance, and establishing cross-cultural relationships. Participants stressed the importance of respectful dialogue to guarantee successful cultural exchange, but they also noted the possibility of misunderstandings and inappropriate remarks due to cultural differences. Additionally, Facebook offers Moroccan users entertainment and leisure activities. Users can unwind and kill time by engaging with various media, including videos, memes, and online games. Balancing online and offline interests is crucial to prevent addiction, time loss, and essential activities.

Moroccan Facebook users mentioned privacy and security concerns as crucial factors. Concerns were made concerning identity theft, unauthorized access, and exposure to fraud and scams. Participants emphasized better privacy settings, robust security safeguards, and greater user awareness of online safety. The report also brought up concerns about the digital divide and disparities in internet access. While Facebook offers potential for networking and communication, addressing access issues, particularly in rural areas, is essential to guaranteeing that all Moroccans have the same opportunities. The effect of Facebook on social ties was also investigated. Users expressed worries about shallow relationships, less face-to-face communication, and blurred personal and professional boundaries, even if they acknowledged the advantages of keeping connections. Users stressed the significance of balance and moderation in Facebook usage to maintain and foster meaningful relationships.

The current study's findings offer important new information about Moroccan users' Facebook usage patterns, motives, benefits, and difficulties. The results provide information on Moroccan Facebook users' requirements, expectations, and difficulties to governments, social media platforms, and users. To help create a friendly and helpful online environment for Moroccan users of Facebook and similar platforms, privacy and security issues can be addressed, digital inclusion is encouraged, and responsible usage is encouraged. To address the issues observed and encourage responsible Facebook usage among Moroccan users, additional research may examine interventions and techniques. Comparative research across various demographic groups and areas in Morocco could also provide a more nuanced picture of the various experiences and views of Facebook usage in the nation.

The current study offers also insights that can influence and direct future research, policy development, and platform design, adding to the increasing body of information on social media usage in Morocco. Researchers and professionals can create specialized interventions, educational programs, and policies that meet Moroccan users' particular requirements and difficulties by knowing the context of Facebook usage in that country. The outcomes of the current study have numerous importance for social media companies and politicians. First, more user education and knowledge about privacy settings, security precautions, and appropriate online conduct is required. Users should be given access to clear information that is simple to comprehend so they preserve their privacy and choose how to present themselves online. Additionally, closing the digital gap is essential to ensuring that all Moroccans have equal access to and advantages from social networking sites like Facebook. Making attempts to raise is crucial. Internet connectivity and infrastructure in rural regions and to make internet services more accessible and cheaper. We can lessen inequality and advance digital inclusion nationwide by bridging the digital

divide. Social media platforms should also consider incorporating user preferences and comments into their design and functionality. Moroccan users' trust and confidence can be boosted by improving privacy controls, bolstering security precautions, and giving users more power over their data. Platforms can also promote cross-cultural exchange by fostering courteous and inclusive conversation between users from different backgrounds.

The results of the current study provide Moroccan users with knowledge and suggestions for enhancing their Facebook experience. Users should know their privacy settings, periodically monitor and update their online accounts, and take caution when talking with strangers or conducting business online. Users should balance their online and offline activities to prevent Facebook users from negatively impacting their productivity, relationships, or general well-being. By identifying their motives, benefits, difficulties, and usage patterns, this study adds to our understanding of how Moroccan people use Facebook. The results highlight Facebook's importance in networking, communication, information sharing, cross-cultural interaction, and enjoyment. However, issues with privacy, security, the digital gap, and interpersonal interactions all surfaced.

Policymakers, social media platforms, and users can encourage a healthy, inclusive, and productive online environment by addressing these issues and taking advantage of Facebook's advantages. The dynamics of social media usage in Morocco should be further investigated in future studies, as the efficacy of initiatives to encourage responsible and constructive Facebook usage. Ultimately, Morocco may advance toward a digitally empowered society that promotes connection, collaboration, and advancement by utilizing the potential of social media platforms like Facebook.

Further recommendation

The following suggestion is offered using the current study's findings as an initial motivation. However, users should be given clear instructions and educational materials on how to use Facebook safely to improve users' comprehension of the platform and any potential threats, promote digital literacy programs, additionally, increasing the accessibility and exposure of Facebook's privacy settings and make it easier to change privacy options and ensure users that have complete the power to select who can access confidential information. As well as boosting efforts at content moderation to deal with problems including hate speech, cyberbullying, and false information.

To ensure a safer and more satisfying user experience, implement reliable reporting tools and speed up the review procedure. Also, create algorithms more suited to Moroccan people's preferences and interests, and increase the platform's capacity to deliver timely material from various cultural perspectives, generating a more inviting environment. Also, encouraging collaborations with Moroccan community groups and influencers to advance Facebook usage that is ethical and responsible and facilitate discussion, criticism, and active participation in determining platform policies and features. Likewise, increase the openness of data collecting and usage procedures and Confirm compliance with regional data protection laws and give users more clarity about how users' data is being handled.

References

- Abbas, K. D. (2017). Knowledge sharing and dissemination among academics in Nigerian universities: Patterns and trends. *Journal of Balkan Libraries Union*, 5(1), 21-27.
- Aslam, F., Aimin, W., Li, M., & Ur Rehman, K. (2020). Innovation in the era of IoT and industry 5.0: Absolute innovation management (AIM) framework. *Information*, 11(2), 124.
- Baruah, T. D. (2012). Effectiveness of social media as a tool of communication and its potential for technology-enabled connections: A micro-level study. *International journal of scientific and research publications*, 2(5), 1-10.
- Bennett, W. (2003). Communicating global activism. *Information, Communication & Society*, 6(2), 143-168.
- Bhatti, M., & Aslam, U. (2018). Social media adoption in emerging economies: The case of Pakistan. *Telematics and Informatics*, 35(1), 78-90.
- Black, E. W., Beck, D., Dawson, K., Jinks, S., & DiPietro, M. (2007). Considering implementation and use in the adoption of an LMS in online and blended learning environments. *TechTrends*, 51(2), 35-53.
- Black, P. J., & Atkin, J. M. (Eds.). (1996). *Changing the subject: Innovations in science, mathematics, and technology education*. Taylor & Francis.
- Bode, L., & Vraga, E. K. (2018). See something, say something: Correction of global health misinformation on social media. *Health communication*, 33(9), 1131-1140.
- Bodle, R. (2011). Regimes of sharing: Open APIs, interoperability, and Facebook. *Information, Communication & Society*, 14(3), 320-337.
- Campbell, S., Greenwood, M., Prior, S., Shearer, T., Walkem, K., Young, S., ... & Walker, K. (2020). Purposive sampling: complex or simple? Research case examples. *Journal of research in Nursing*, 25(8), 652-661.
- Capua, I. D. (2012). A literature review of research on Facebook use. *The Open Communication Journal*, 6(1).

- Carlson, M. (2018). Facebook in the news: social media, journalism, and public responsibility following the 2016 trending topics controversy. *Digital journalism*, 6(1), 4-20.
- Carter, L., & Bélanger, F. (2005). The utilization of e-government services: citizen trust, innovation, and acceptance factors. *Information systems journal*, 15(1), 5-25.
- Castronovo, C., & Huang, L. (2012). Social media in an alternative marketing communication model. *Journal of marketing development and Competitiveness*, 6(1), 117-134.
- Chebib, N. K., & Sohail, R. M. (2011). The reasons social media contributed to the 2011 Egyptian revolution. *International Journal of business research and Management (IJBRM)*, 2(3), 139-162.
- Curran, K., Graham, S., & Temple, C. (2011). Advertising on Facebook. *International Journal of E-business development*, 1(1), 26-33.
- Dearing, J. W. (2009). Applying diffusion of innovation theory to intervention development. *Research on social work practice*, 19(5), 503-518.
- Deuze, M. (2004). What is multimedia journalism? *Journalism studies*, 5(2), 139-152.
- DiCicco-Bloom, B., & Crabtree, B. F. (2006). The qualitative research interviews. *Medical education*, 40(4), 314-321.
- El Ouiridi, M., El Ouiridi, A., & Segers, J. (2018). Examining the drivers and inhibitors of social media adoption in SMEs. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 25(2), 265-285.
- El Yaagoubi, W. L., & Machrafi, M. (2021). SOCIAL MEDIA INFLUENCERS, DIGITAL MARKETING AND TOURISM IN MOROCCO. *Economic and Social Development: Book of Proceedings*, 145-152.
- Eliany, M. (2008, July). Artistic Creation and the Moroccan Jewish Diaspora. In *Bar Ilan University, Dahan Centre, Madrid Conference on Moroccan Jewry, Madrid, Spain*.
- Fuchs, C., & Trottier, D. (2015). Towards a theoretical model of social media surveillance in contemporary society. *Communications*, 40(1), 113-135.
- Gelo, O., Braakmann, D., & Benetka, G. (2008). Quantitative and qualitative research: Beyond the debate. *Integrative psychological and behavioral science*, 42, 266-290.
- George, G., Haas, M. R., & Pentland, A. (2014). Big data and management. *Academy of management Journal*, 57(2), 321-326.
- Goh, K. Y., Heng, C. S., & Lin, Z. (2013). Social media brand community and consumer behavior: Quantifying the relative impact of user-and marketer-generated content. *Information Systems Research*, 24(1), 88-107.
- Gołuchowski, J., & Popiel, A. (2023). Users' trust and attachment to social media after crises: The case of Facebook. In *Trust, Digital Business and Technology* (pp. 130-143). Routledge.
- Greenhalgh, T., Robert, G., Macfarlane, F., Bate, P., & Kyriakidou, O. (2004). Diffusion of innovations in service organizations: systematic review and recommendations. *The milbank quarterly*, 82(4), 581-629.
- Grieves, M., & Vickers, J. (2017). Digital twin: Mitigating unpredictable, undesirable emergent behavior in complex systems. *Transdisciplinary perspectives on complex systems: New findings and approaches*, 85-113.
- Grimmelmann, J. (2008). Saving facebook. *Iowa L. Rev.*, 94, 1137.
- Hadi, M., Khan, A. M., & Hadi, A. (2019). Investigating the adoption of social media for business purposes in developing countries: A case study of Pakistan. *Information Technology & People*, 32(4), 802-824.
- Hall, B. H. (2004). Innovation and diffusion.
- Hargittai, E. (2010). Facebook privacy settings: Who cares? *First Monday*.
- Harris, W. (1895). *Tafilet: The Narrative of a Journey of Exploration in the Atlas Mountains and the Oases of the North-west Sahara*. W. Blackwood and Sons.
- Higginbottom, G. M. A. (2004). Sampling issues in qualitative research. *Nurse Researcher (through 2013)*, 12(1), 7.
- Hubbard, W. G., & Sandmann, L. R. (2007). Using diffusion of innovation concepts for improved program evaluation. *Journal of Extension*, 45(5), 1-7.
- Iannelli, L., Giglietto, F., Rossi, L., & Zurovac, E. (2020). Facebook digital traces for survey research: Assessing the efficiency and effectiveness of a Facebook Ad-based procedure for recruiting online survey respondents in niche and difficult-to-reach populations. *Social Science Computer Review*, 38(4), 462-476.
- Işman, A. (1997). Diffusion of distance education in Turkish higher education. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 45(2), 124-128.
- Kalmijn, M., & Kraaykamp, G. (2018). Determinants of cultural assimilation in the second generation. A longitudinal analysis of values about marriage and sexuality among Moroccan and Turkish migrants. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 44(5), 697-717.
- Katz, E., Levin, M. L., & Hamilton, H. (1963). Traditions of research on the diffusion of innovation. *American sociological review*, 237-252.
- Kwok, L., & Yu, B. (2013). Spreading social media messages on Facebook: An analysis of restaurant business-to-consumer communications. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 37(2), 192-212.

- Lee, J. W. (2021). Diffusion of innovations. In *Encyclopedia of Sport Management* (pp. 137-138). Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Leonard, D. A. (2011). Implementation as mutual adaptation of technology and organization. *Manag Knowl Assets, Creat Innovs*, 17, 429.
- Li, Z., & Agarwal, A. (2017). Platform integration and demand spillovers in complementary markets: Evidence from Facebook's integration of Instagram. *Management Science*, 63(10), 3438-3458.
- Lin, C. A. (1998). Exploring personal computer adoption dynamics. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, 42(1), 95-112.
- Mandell, M., & Steelman, T. (2003). Understanding what can be accomplished through inter-organizational innovations The importance of typologies, context, and management strategies. *Public Management Review*, 5(2), 197-224.
- McLaughlin, C., & Vitak, J. (2012). Norm evolution and violation on Facebook. *New media & society*, 14(2), 299-315.
- Michard, A., Frizon de Lamotte, D., Saddiqi, O., & Chalouan, A. (2008). An outline of the geology of Morocco. *Continental Evolution: The Geology of Morocco: Structure, Stratigraphy, and Tectonics of the Africa-Atlantic-Mediterranean Triple Junction*, 1-31.
- Miles, R. E., Snow, C. C., Meyer, A. D., & Coleman Jr, H. J. (1978). Organizational strategy, structure, and process. *Academy of management review*, 3(3), 546-562.
- Mpinganjira, M., & Duh, H. B. L. (2019). Examining the influence of social media features on customer satisfaction and loyalty in the hospitality industry. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, 10(3), 433-450.
- Mujere, N. (2016). Sampling in research. In *Mixed methods research for improved scientific study* (pp. 107-121). IGI Global.
- Munar, A. M. (2012). Social media strategies and destination management. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 12(2), 101-120.
- Nadeem, W., & Ahmad, M. (2016). The impact of social media on consumer behavior: An empirical study of Karachi citizens. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences*, 10(2), 401-415.
- Noubiap, J. J., Millenaar, D., Ojji, D., Wafford, Q. E., Ukena, C., Böhm, M., ... & Mahfoud, F. (2023). Fifty Years of Global Cardiovascular Research in Africa: A Scientometric Analysis, 1971 to 2021. *Journal of the American Heart Association*, e027670.
- Oliveira, T., & Martins, M. F. (2011). Literature review of information technology adoption models at the firm level. *Electronic journal of information systems evaluation*, 14(1), pp110-121.
- Ozuem, W., & Lancaster, G. (2019). The influence of social media interactions on the relationship between a brand and its customers. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 51, 148-157.
- Pratama, H., Azman, M. N. A., Kassymova, G. K., & Duisenbayeva, S. S. (2020). The Trend in using online meeting applications for learning during the period of pandemic COVID-19: A literature review. *Journal of Innovation in Educational and Cultural Research*, 1(2), 58-68.
- Pruitt, J., & Adlin, T. (2010). *The persona lifecycle: keeping people in mind throughout product design*. Elsevier.
- Ramiz, A. L. I. (2023). INSTITUTIONAL ADOPTION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF BLENDED LEARNING: DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT PERCEPTIONS. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, 24(1), 37-53.
- Robertson, T. S. (1967). The process of innovation and the diffusion of innovation. *Journal of marketing*, 31(1), 14-19.
- Schrage, M. (2014). *The innovator's hypothesis: How cheap experiments are worth more than good ideas*. MIT Press.
- Scott, S., & McGuire, J. (2017). Using Diffusion of Innovation Theory to Promote Universally Designed College Instruction. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 29(1), 119-128.
- Scott, S., & McGuire, J. (2017). Using Diffusion of Innovation Theory to Promote Universally Designed College Instruction. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 29(1), 119-128.
- Seebauer, S. (2015). Why early adopters engage in interpersonal diffusion of technological innovations: An empirical study on electric bicycles and electric scooters. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, 78, 146-160.
- Thomas, R. K. (2006). *Traditional approaches to health communication* (pp. 119-131). Springer US.
- Thompson, G. N., Estabrooks, C. A., & Degner, L. F. (2006). Clarifying the concepts in knowledge transfer: a literature review. *Journal of advanced nursing*, 53(6), 691-701.
- Trottier, D., & Lyon, D. (2013). Key features of social media surveillance. In *Internet and Surveillance* (pp. 89-105). Routledge.
- Turnbull, P. W., & Meenaghan, A. (1980). Diffusion of innovation and opinion leadership. *European Journal of Marketing*, 14(1), 3-33.

- Vaidhyathan, S. (2018). *Antisocial media: How Facebook disconnects us and undermines democracy*. Oxford University Press.
- Valle-Cruz, D., Criado, J. I., Sandoval-Almazán, R., & Ruvalcaba-Gomez, E. A. (2020). Assessing the public policy-cycle framework in the age of artificial intelligence: From agenda-setting to policy evaluation. *Government Information Quarterly*, 37(4), 101509.
- Veltri, N. F., Krasnova, H., & Elgarah, W. (2011). Online disclosure and privacy concerns: a study of Moroccan and American Facebook users.
- Wang, D., Yu, C., & Wei, Y. (2012). Social media peer communication and impacts on purchase intentions: A consumer socialization framework. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 26(4), 198-208.
- Wani, T. A., & Ali, S. W. (2015). Innovation diffusion theory. *Journal of general management research*, 3(2), 101-118.
- Waters, J. (2015). Snowball sampling: A cautionary tale involving a study of older drug users. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 18(4), 367-380.
- Wolfert, P. (2012). *The food of Morocco*. A&C Black.
- Wu, C. (2004). A readiness model for adopting Web services. *Journal of Enterprise Information Management*, 17(5), 361-371.
- Zaid, B., Ibahrine, M., Dragomir, M., Thompson, M., Jamaï, A., Chan, Y. Y., ... & Tambini, D. (2011). *Mapping digital media: Morocco*. London: Open Society Institute.
- Zinedine, A., & Mañes, J. (2009). Occurrence and legislation of mycotoxins in food and feed from Morocco. *Food Control*, 20(4), 334-344.
- Zygiaris, S. (2013). Smart city reference model: Assisting planners to conceptualize the building of smart city innovation ecosystems. *Journal of the knowledge economy*, 4, 217-231.

HUMAN RESOURCES AND MOBBING IN BUSINESSES

Elif HACIVELİ

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
220609482@std.akun.edu.tr

Hidayet YAĞIZERLER

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
220609472@std.akun.edu.tr

Cemkan ASLANTAŞ

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
220609015@std.akun.edu.tr

Assist. Prof. Dr. Azmiye YINAL

Akdeniz Karpaz University
azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to determine the relationship between human resources and mobbing in enterprises and to determine the perceptions of HR practices on mobbing. The study was conducted with the relational survey model, one of the quantitative research methods. The population of the study consisted of 320 people working in the private sector in TRNC and the sample consisted of 222 people who could be reached and answered the questionnaires at the level that could be used. In the study, socio-demographic information form, Human Resources Practices Scale and Mobbing (Psychological Violence) Scale were used to collect data. The data were analysed using SPSS 28.00 statistical analysis software. Frequency, mean, standard deviation statistics were used.

At the end of this research, it is seen that the HR practices perception scores of male participants are higher than female participants. It should be noted that the relationship is also significant. It is also seen that it does not affect the perceptions of HR practices. It is seen that the marital status variable does not affect the perceptions of HR practices. When the arithmetic averages are analysed, it is seen that the scores of single participants are higher than the scores of married participants with a small difference. In the study, it was observed that gender variable did not affect mobbing perception. When the arithmetic averages are analysed, it is seen that the mobbing perception of female participants is higher than that of male participants. It is seen that the perception of mobbing does not change according to the age of the participants; therefore, the mobbing perception of all age groups is similar to each other. It is seen that HR practice perceptions have a statistically positive effect on mobbing perception. In this case, it can be said that HR practices have a positive effect on the perception of mobbing applied in the organisation.

Keywords: Business, Human Resources, Mobbing

1. Introduction

1.1. Problem status

Human resources (HR) departments play a strategic role in companies. In line with its strategic role; it is important to take decisions together with top management and direct management in the workplace, to determine the needs of the department management and to be in constant communication with top management and direct management (Yinal and Banje, F2023). Due to this role, HR departments are expected to align business strategies with HR strategies, support line management and senior management in this direction, and bring added value to business operations (Vardarlier & Canol, 2017). In this context, most of the issues related to employees are among the duties of the HR department. One of these tasks is the prevention of some negative situations that occur or may occur in the workplace. Among these negative situations, mobbing, which has recently been on the agenda, is expressed as emotional assault (Çopur, 2017). Mobbing can be confused with conflict at the beginning of working life. Some workplace jealousies can also be considered as mobbing. Employees express a warning from a supervisor or a conflict or incident with a colleague as violence and treat it as violence. However, it must be consistent in order to be called mobbing (Akman, 2014). Mobbing can have a negative impact on organisations in terms of efficiency, productivity and job satisfaction of employees. Employees' reluctance to work due to low job satisfaction limits employee creativity (Yılmaz & Kaymaz, 2014). As a result of workplace rebellion, employees' attention is distracted from the goals of the organisation and the importance of their own duties. In addition to the employees who are exposed to mobbing, as a natural consequence, those who witness the events in the process experience a significant decrease in their trust in the organisation, thinking that they will also face violence. events, their commitment to the organisation and their commitment to work. While

harmony among the employees of the organisation who are subjected to violence is weakened, an environment of complete distrust prevails (Tetik, 2010). In the fight against mobbing, the personnel management of organisations, i.e. HR department, has important duties. Human resources management, which is the backbone of companies, should be the first unit to identify abusive behaviours. In this framework, the problem situation of the study was determined as "what are the duties of human resources management regarding mobbing in enterprises?".

1.2. Aim of the research

The aim of this study is to determine the relationship between human resources and mobbing in enterprises and to determine the perceptions of HR practices on mobbing. The sub-objectives of the research are as follows:

- Do the participants' perceptions of human resources practices differ significantly according to their socio-demographic characteristics?
- Do the participants' perceptions of mobbing differ significantly according to their socio-demographic characteristics?

1.3. Importance of research

Human resources management in businesses is of great importance to ensure that employees work efficiently and happily. Mobbing, i.e. psychological harassment, is an important issue in terms of human resources management in enterprises because it can negatively affect employees' psychological health and work performance by affecting the working environment. Mobbing, i.e. psychological harassment, is an important issue in terms of human resources management in enterprises because it can negatively affect employees' psychological health and work performance by affecting the working environment. Human resources management in enterprises should take preventive measures for the prevention of mobbing and the safety, health and welfare of employees. In order to prevent mobbing, a transparent policy and procedures should be established in enterprises, a safe environment should be provided for employees to report mobbing behaviours, and mobbing behaviours should be responded seriously and quickly.

Prevention of mobbing in enterprises will contribute to the success of the enterprise by increasing employee happiness and job performance. Therefore, human resources management in enterprises should endeavour to prevent mobbing and provide a good working environment for employees. In this sense, this study is considered to be important in terms of contributing to the literature.

1.4. Limitation

This research is limited to the sources used in the study.

1.5. Description

Human resource management: Strategic value for businesses is a set of management processes that include many practices such as recruitment, selection and placement, training, evaluation, rewarding, increasing performance, managing human relations and providing communication to achieve goals (Çetin, Elmali, Arslan, 2019).

Mobbing: In any community living together or in a common place, if they consciously/intentionally choose one of them as a victim because of certain differences, they start to see him/her as incompetent, gradually become increasingly incompetent, and with their annoying behaviours, a person is defined as the process of making him/her an incompetent, unsuitable, unhappy, problematic person (Dökmen, 2005; Tınaz, 2006).

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Human Resources Concept

Human resource management as a discipline is developing rapidly. Although it is claimed that HRM and classical HRM are materially similar or identical, the concept of HRM encompasses the purpose, work and functions of HRM and the wider field. Since scientists have different views on human resource management, there is no consensus on the subject. One of the main reasons for this is that the boundaries between HR and HRM cannot be drawn exactly (Aykaç, 1999).

Human resource management is the business function that helps the company to apply organisational tools such as production, marketing and finance to the company, which assess and respond to the company's individual needs and provide incentive working conditions to get very good results from the employee. In particular, production management is about goods or services, financial management is about money and personnel management is about people. Human resources are the people working in the organisation who add value to the organisation with their knowledge and skills. Effective human management is a very complex process (Çetin, Elmali, & Arslan, 2017).

The main purpose of human resource management is to enable people to create benefits together to achieve organisational goals. Leaders carry out their activities through others. Managers at different levels deal with human resources. Human resource management is the effective use of personnel resources to improve organisational performance. Such a situation requires a strategic approach to staffing. It aims to reveal the factors affecting employees, what employees should do in the current situation and what they should do in the future. In order to ensure the effectiveness of the organisation, attention should be paid to all the issues mentioned and their interactions should be considered (Aksan, 2022).

2.2. Human Resources Management (HRM) and Applications

Companies trying to survive in a rapidly differentiating competitive environment try to manage situations such as ensuring customer satisfaction, increasing profit margins and improving quality. For this purpose, companies try to manage their human resources effectively, accurately and efficiently (Barutçugil, 2004). Human resource management is seen as a key unit in the proper management of employees' skills, abilities, qualifications and attitudes in achieving the objectives of the organisation. In this sense, business management supports innovation, knowledge management skills and staff learning by planning and directing HR practices in this direction. HR practices therefore have critical value in the knowledge economy (Aydem, Mutlu, & Katircioğlu, 2019). In this context, it is possible to summarise HR practices as follows:

Human Resource Planning: HRM practices provide systems for an organisation to collect, store, update and easily access information about the current knowledge, competencies, skills and abilities of its employees. In this way, an easy and fast flow of information can be provided between organisational units (Doğan, 2011).

Selection and Recruitment: It is seen that the most important resource that increases the effectiveness and quality of the organisation and enables it to adapt to changes is human. In this context, the HR department has a critical importance in ensuring the recruitment and continuity of personnel according to the sufficient number and quality of the organisation and in determining the right strategies for the organisation to achieve its goals (Barutçugil, 2004).

Training and Development: Training and development includes the processes that provide the desired change in the skills, knowledge, attitudes and behaviours of employees (Sabuncuoğlu, 2008). In order for the training to be beneficial to the employee and then to the organisation, first of all, the correct training needs analysis should be made. Because the training programmes implemented according to the needs ensure that the skills and behaviours of the employees are compatible with the organisation.

Performance Management: Performance management system is the process of modelling the objectives to be achieved in organisations and the performance expected from employees for this purpose, and directing, developing and guiding employees in a way to increase their loyalty and productivity in this context (Barutçugil, 2004).

Remuneration management and rewarding: Remuneration is a non-monetary contribution and/or monetary value received by the physical or mental effort of work in exchange for a product or service provided and is determined by the governing bodies of organisations (Olanrewaju et al., 2020).

Career Management: Career management, which is generally managed by corporate HR departments, can be defined as processes such as synchronising HR practices with the business system, sharing career information, informing employees about the conditions of career stages, advising and guiding subordinates, evaluating employee performance and implementing career development training practices (Kahraman & Fındıklı, 2018).

Digital Work Environment: As companies are digitising as a whole, HR is leading the digital organisation. In addition to the digitalisation of personal platforms, this means digital workplaces and a digital workforce, as well as the implementation of technology that changes the way people work and interact at work (Deloitte, 2017). Such practices force companies to completely change the language of digital communication and working methods, leading to an increase in competence and enhancing the development of the existing workforce in this direction.

2.3. Mobbing Concept and Scope

Mobbing is derived from the word "mob" as a concept, and the word mob is derived from the Latin word "mobile emphasis", which is defined as "unstable crowd". In English, mob refers to an irregular crowd or gang group that uses violence and pressure against the law (Lokmanoğlu, 2019).

The concept of mobbing has recently started to be included in Turkish academic literature. It has been translated into Turkish as anxiety, emotional harassment, threat, psychological terror, intimidation, mental violence, moral and emotional harassment, bullying or workplace bullying. The term was first used by Konrad Lorenz in the 1960s to "describe the abuse used by birds to intimidate, upset and frighten stronger and lonely birds inside and outside the flock" (Yıldırım & Ekinci, 2019).

Leymann (1996) examined adult behaviour since 1982 and focused on so-called difficult people in the business world. It has been determined that these so-called difficult people are not genetically such and their behaviours change due to the corporate culture and environment. With these studies, the concept of mobbing has been investigated not only in terms of children and animals but also in terms of adults and business life. Leymann emphasised that bullying, which he also called professional terrorism, is a hostile behaviour directed at another person by one or more people, and noted that people who cannot get help and are vulnerable are open to intimidation policy.

Mobbing is defined as "intimidation or psychological terror resulting from systematic hostile and unethical behaviour of one or more persons against another person or persons" (Çobanoğlu, 2005). In this Leymann statement, it is understood that the systematic characterisation of immoral acts against the victim and acts of violence against the same victim by a specific person is routine, not of short duration and lasts for at least six months (Karakaş, 2010).

2.4. Stages of Mobbing

There is a five-stage process related to mobbing (Baykal, 2014; Yılmaz & Kaymaz, 2014);

First stage; Victims are prevented from expressing themselves, interrupted and ignored in meetings, insulted and slandered, successes are ignored and failures are exaggerated, privacy is constantly criticised and threatened by phone or verbally.

Second stage: Attack on social relations; relations with the victim of violence are minimal, complaint channels are limited, they are isolated from other employees, and those who try to establish close relations with the victim feel themselves at risk of becoming a victim of violence and the victim is neglected; they are treated as if they do not exist, their rights and personality are not respected.

Third stage - Attack on reputation; a campaign of slander is launched against the victims, unfounded reports, ridicule, belittling achievements and attributing success to external factors, rumours about their mental health, that they are "dangerous", about their political or religious status. beliefs are ridiculed. Their beliefs and values are verbally and physically attacked, they are accused of short-sightedness and lack of vision, and their views are ignored.

Fourth stage - Attack on the quality of life and work; their primary responsibilities and authorities are limited, they are deprived of their rights, they are forced to take all their rights through the judiciary, the implementation of decisions in their favour is deliberately delayed, they are given tasks that exceed their abilities. it negatively affects their self-confidence, they are forced to leave.

Fifth stage - Assault affecting health; the victim is forced to perform a physically difficult task; if the victim is a woman, it may refer to verbal or actual sexual harassment.

2.5. Parties to Mobbing

In business life, everyone can suddenly become a party to mobbing. A person may be a victim because he/she is a victim of another violence, or he/she may participate in the process as a bystander. There are three parties to a mobbing action (Palabıyık, 2018; Ekinci, 2022):

Mobbing Perpetrator: The person who applies mobbing is called the perpetrator (aggressor, bully). This person can be a civil servant or an employee, as well as an employer, official or supervisor. In other words, the status of the person is not important. Also, the number of people involved in this process is not important. The mobber can be one person, or it can be more than one person, or it can be all employees of the whole department or group. In this case, the bullying is usually initiated by one person and then others join the bullying.

1. **Victim of mobbing:** A person who is mistreated by a bully is called a victim of violence (mobbing victim). Leymann made a general definition of this subject. For him, a victim is anyone who feels like a victim. Victims are generally honest and reliable people who do their job well, do not compromise their working principles, and are identified with their work. Regardless of the hierarchy, any employee in the

workplace can be a victim. The victim of mobbing can be one or more persons. The common point of all international research is that there are many more victims of violence and harassment.

2. **Mobbing Monitor:** People who do not directly participate in the ongoing mobbing processes but observe the mobbing process and experience its reflections are called mobbing bystanders (witness, spectator). These people are considered as eyewitnesses from the moment they become aware of mental harassment in the work environment. The mobbing bystanders may be the victim's own colleagues or the victim's supervisor, employer or employer's representative. In other words, anyone other than the perpetrator and the victim can be a bystander to workplace violence.

2.6. The Role of Human Resources Department in Combating Mobbing

In the literature, researchers have tried to express the role and importance of the HR department in the company in the same way. The importance of the strategic nature of the department is shown by the fact that the HR department, alone or in co-operation with direct managers, is primarily responsible for making political decisions regarding HR management (Özçelik, 2006). Every manager and every employee can be a "mobbing preventer". In order to protect companies, it is necessary to avoid mobbing in companies by combining the strategic role and the goals of the company and the staff in a single goal. Because the conflict between HR goals and business goals is a potential threat for violence. A direct manager can put pressure on the staff in order to protect the interests of the company and therefore, it is inevitable that the motivation and cohesion of the employees will further decrease if they cannot achieve their goals. The important point here is that HR roles should not be seen as independent of each other. Human resources can also intervene in the process in the change role (Vardarli & Canol, 2017).

3. METHOD

3.1. Research Model

The study was conducted with the relational survey model, one of the quantitative research methods. Relational survey model is a model used to search and retrieve related data in a database (Büyüköztürk, 2012).

3.2. Universe and Sample

The population of the study consisted of 320 people working in the private sector in TRNC and the sample consisted of 222 people who could be reached and answered the questionnaires at a level that could be used.

3.3. Data Collection Tools

The data were collected by sending questionnaires by e-mail. A total of 310 questionnaires were sent, and incorrect, incomplete or non-returned questionnaires were eliminated. Finally, 222 questionnaires could be evaluated after the questionnaire control. In the study, socio-demographic information form, Human Resource Practices Scale and Mobbing (Psychological Violence) Scale were used to collect data.

Human Resources Practices Scale The Human Resources Practices Scale taken from Yıldırım (2013) was used. The scale was prepared in 5-point Likert type. The main dimension of the scale was found to be reliable with a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.965.

Secondly, the **Mobbing (Psychological Violence) Scale** developed by Leymann (1996) and adapted from Ehi (2011) was used. The Cronbach Alpha value of the scale was found to be highly reliable at the level of 0.783.

3.3. Data Analysis

The data were analysed using SPSS 28.00 statistical analysis programme. Frequency, mean, standard deviation statistics were used.

4. Findings

4.1. Demographic Information

Table 1 shows the demographic information of the participants:

Table 1. Information on Participants

		N	%
Gender	Woman	145	60,9
	Man	75	31,5
Age	20-30 age	68	28,6
	31-35 age	52	21,8

	36-40 age	47	19,7
	41-45 age	32	13,4
	46 age and older	21	8,8
Marital status	Married	89	37,4
	Single	131	55,0
Education status	High School	39	16,4
	Associate Degree	84	35,3
	Licence	60	25,2
	PhD	37	15,5
	Total	220	92,4

When Table 1 was analysed, it was seen that 60,9% of the participants were female and 75% were male. When the age distribution is analysed, it is seen that 28.6% of the participants are between 20-30 years old, 21.8% of them are between 31-35 years old, 19.7% of them are between 36-40 years old, 13.4% of them are between 41-45 years old and 8.8% of them are between 46 years old and above. 55% of the participants are single and 37.5% are married. It is seen that 35.3% of the participants have associate degree, 25.2% have bachelor's degree, 16.4% have high school degree and 15.5% have doctorate degree.

4.2. Findings Related to Participants' Perceptions of Human Resources Practices According to Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Table 2 shows the results of the analyses on the participants' perceptions of HR practices according to their gender:

Table 2. T-Test on Participants' Perceptions of Human Resources Practices According to Gender

	N	\bar{X}	Ss	f	p.
Woman	145	107,7379	16,60615	0,061	0,005
Man	75	113,8933	16,61941		

p=0,005

When Table 2 is analysed, it is seen that gender variable affects HR practice perceptions (p=0,005). In this case, it is seen that male participants ($\bar{X} = 113,8933$) have higher HR practices perception scores than female participants ($\bar{X} = 107,7379$). It should be noted that the relationship is also significant.

Table 3 shows the results of the analyses on the participants' perceptions of HR practices according to their age:

Table 3. ANOVA Test on Participants' Perceptions of Human Resources Practices According to Age

	N	\bar{X}	Ss	For average %95 Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum	F	p.
				Lower Limit	Upper limit				
20-30 age	68	111,0294	15,79530	107,2061	114,8527	82,00	158,00	0,830	0,507
31-35 age	52	111,7308	17,45259	106,8719	116,5896	76,00	147,00		
36-40 age	47	108,9149	16,14046	104,1759	113,6539	78,00	140,00		
41-45 age	32	105,4375	14,97080	100,0399	110,8351	82,00	136,00		
46 age and above	21	110,0476	22,24517	99,9217	120,1735	77,00	152,00		

p>0,05

When Table 3 is analysed, it is seen that the age variable does not affect the perceptions of HR practices (p>0,05). However, it should be noted that the 31-35 age group ($\bar{X} = 111,7308$) scored higher than the other age groups with a slight difference in arithmetic averages.

Table 4 shows the results of the analyses on the perceptions of HR practices according to the marital status of the participants.

Table 4. T-Test on Participants' Perceptions of Human Resources Practices According to Marital Status

	N	\bar{X}	Ss	f	p.
Married	89	109,6629	17,61968	1,908	0,169
Single	131	109,9542	16,33725		

p>0,05

When the results of the analyses are evaluated, it is seen that the marital status variable does not affect the perceptions of HR practices (p>0,05). When the arithmetic averages are analysed, it is seen that the scores of single participants ($\bar{X} = 109,9542$) are higher than the scores of married participants ($\bar{X} = 109,6629$) with a slight difference. In this case, it is possible to say that the HR practice perceptions of married and single participants are similar to each other.

Table 5 shows the results of the analyses on the participants' perceptions of HR practices according to their level of education:

Table 5. ANOVA Test on Participants' Perceptions of Human Resources Practices According to Education Level

	N	\bar{X}	Ss	For average %95 Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum	F	p.
				Lower Limit	Upper Limit				
High School	39	108,9487	17,21069	103,3697	114,5278	76,00	140,00	0,208	0,891
Associate Degree	84	110,6905	17,67442	106,8549	114,5261	77,00	152,00		
Licence	60	110,1333	15,95807	106,0109	114,2557	79,00	138,00		
PhD	37	108,3514	16,35919	102,8969	113,8058	81,00	158,00		

p>0,05

When Table 5 is analysed, it is seen that the education level variable does not affect the HR practice perceptions (p>0,05); therefore, the HR practice perceptions of each education level are similar to each other. When the arithmetic averages are analysed, it is seen that associate degree graduates ($\bar{X} = 110,6905$) have higher scores than other education levels. Basically, this may be due to the higher number of associate degree graduates.

4.3. Findings Regarding Mobbing Perceptions of Participants According to Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Table 6 shows the results of the analyses on the mobbing perceptions of the participants according to their gender:

Table 6. T-Test for Participants' Perceptions of Mobbing According to Gender

	N	\bar{X}	Ss	f	p.
Woman	145	116,6552	12,09762	0,267	0,606
Man	75	115,8267	12,50013		

p>0,05

As a result of the analysis, it was seen that gender variable did not affect mobbing perception (p>0,05). Considering the arithmetic averages, it is seen that the mobbing perception of female participants ($\bar{X} = 116,6552$) is higher than that of male participants ($\bar{X} = 115,8267$).

Table 7 shows the results of the analyses on the mobbing perceptions of the participants according to their age:

Table 7. ANOVA Test for Participants' Perceptions of Mobbing According to Age

	N	\bar{X}	Ss	For average %95 Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum	f	p.
				Lower Limit	Upper Limit				
20-30 age	68	115,6912	12,76803	112,6007	118,7817	85,00	144,00	2,619	0,036
31-35 age	52	112,7115	11,90376	109,3975	116,0256	81,00	140,00		

36-40 age	47	117,7021	12,58003	114,0085	121,3958	92,00	144,00
41-45 age	32	118,3750	11,01831	114,4025	122,3475	94,00	141,00
46 age and above	21	121,6190	9,90190	117,1118	126,1263	100,00	140,00

p>0,05

When Table 7 is analysed, it is seen that the perception of mobbing does not change according to the age of the participants (p>0,05); therefore, the mobbing perception of all age groups is similar to each other. When the arithmetic averages are analysed, it is seen that the age group of 46 and over ($\bar{X} = 121,6190$) has a higher score than the others.

Table 8 shows the results of the analyses on the mobbing perceptions of the participants according to their marital status:

Table 8. T-Test for Participants' Perceptions of Mobbing According to Marital Status

	N	\bar{X}	Ss	f	p.
Married	89	116,7978	12,28375		
Single	131	131,0840	12,20532	0,012	0,00

p=0,00

When Table 8 is analysed, it is seen that mobbing perception of the participants differed according to marital status (p=0,00). Accordingly, it is seen that the mobbing perceptions of single participants ($\bar{X} = 131,0840$) are higher than married participants.

Table 9 shows the results of the analyses on the mobbing perceptions of the participants according to their educational status.

Table 9. ANOVA Test for Participants' Perceptions of Mobbing According to Educational Background

	N	\bar{X}	Ss	For average %95 Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum	F	p.
				Lower Limit	Upper Limit				
High School	39	114,3590	10,71764	110,8847	117,8332	94,00	140,00		
Associate Degree	84	116,7619	12,04471	114,1480	119,3758	92,00	141,00	0,618	0,604
Licence	60	117,5833	13,24386	114,1621	121,0046	81,00	144,00		
PhD	37	115,6486	12,51492	111,4760	119,8213	88,00	144,00		

p>0,05

When Table 9 is analysed, it is seen that educational status does not affect mobbing perception (p>0,05). In this case, it is possible to say that the mobbing perceptions of the participants with different educational status are similar to each other. When the arithmetic averages are analysed, it is seen that bachelor's degree graduates ($\bar{X} = 117,5833$) have higher scores than the others.

3. Findings on the Relationship between Human Resources Practices and Mobbing Perception

1. Table 10 shows the results of the analyses on the relationship between HR practices and mobbing perception:

2. Table 10. Correlation Analysis between Human Resources Practices and Mobbing Perception

		Mobbing Perception	
	r		,076
Perceptions of Human Resources Practices	p.		0,00*

When the results of the analysis are analysed, it is seen that the perception of HR practices has a statistically positive effect on the perception of mobbing ($r = ,076$; $p = 0,00$). In this case, it can be said that HR practices have a positive effect on the perception of mobbing applied in the organisation.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

As a result of this research, it is seen that the HR practices perception scores of male participants are higher than female participants. It should be noted that the relationship is also significant. It is also seen that it does not affect the perceptions of HR practices. It is seen that marital status variable does not affect HR practice perceptions. When the arithmetic averages are analysed, it is seen that the scores of single participants are higher than the scores of married participants with a small difference. In this case, it is possible to say that the HR practice perceptions of married and single participants are similar to each other. It is seen that the education level variable does not affect the HR practice perceptions; therefore, the HR practice perceptions of each education level are similar to each other. When the arithmetic averages are analysed, it is seen that associate degree graduates have higher scores than other education levels. Basically, this may be due to the higher number of associate degree graduates.

In the study, it was observed that gender variable did not affect mobbing perception. When the arithmetic averages are analysed, it is seen that the mobbing perception of female participants is higher than that of male participants. It is seen that the perception of mobbing does not change according to the age of the participants; therefore, the mobbing perception of all age groups is similar to each other. When the arithmetic averages are analysed, it is seen that the age group of 46 and over has a higher score than the others.

It is seen that the perception of mobbing differs according to the marital status of the participants. Accordingly, it is seen that the mobbing perceptions of single participants are higher than married participants. In addition, it is possible to say that the mobbing perceptions of the participants with different educational status are similar to each other. When the arithmetic averages are analysed, it is seen that bachelor's degree graduates have higher scores than the others.

Finally, it is seen that HR practice perceptions have a statistically positive effect on mobbing perception. In this case, it can be said that HR practices have a positive effect on the perception of mobbing applied in the organisation. At the end of the research, the following recommendations were developed:

The study was conducted quantitatively and within a specific sample. Future studies can be conducted as mixed or qualitative; in different sample segments.

- It is suggested that demographic variables should be diversified in future studies.
- The human resources department should play an active role in the workplace to help prevent and address mobbing cases. This ensures that employees work in a healthy and safe working environment and increases motivation and productivity in the workplace.

REFERENCES

- Akman, G. (2014). *Türkiye'de Mobbinge İlgili Düzenlemeler Ve Bir Kamu Üniversite Hastanesinde Taşeron Çalışanlara Yönelik Mobbing Araştırması*, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Gazi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.
- Aksan, H. (2022). *İnsan Kaynakları Yönetiminde Eğitim ve Geliştirme Uygulamalarının İş Tatminine Etkisi Kamu Sektöründe Bir Araştırma*, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İstanbul Ticaret Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.
- Aydem Çiftçiöğlü, B., & Mutlu, M., Katırcıoğlu, S. (2019). Endüstri 4.0 Ve İnsan Kaynakları Yönetiminin İlişkisi. *Bandırma Onyedli Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 2(1), 31-53.
- Aykaç, B. (1999). *İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi ve İnsan Kaynaklarının Stratejik Planlanması*. Ankara: Nobel Yayınları.
- Barutçugil, İ. (2004). *Stratejik İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi*. İstanbul: Kariyer Yayıncılık.
- Baykal, C. (2014). Eski Bir Suç, Yeni Bir Tanım; Mobbing. *Türk Kütüphaneciliği* 28(4), 629-634
- Büyüköztürk, Ş., Örneklem Yöntemleri. 2012:30. <http://w3.balikesir.edu.tr/~msackes/wp/wp-content/uploads/2012/03/BAYFinal-Konulari.pdf>, Erişim Tarihi: 12.01.2018.
- Çetin, C., Dinç Elmalı, E. ve Arslan, M.L. (2017). *İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi*, İstanbul: Beta Basım Yayım Dağıtım.
- Çobanoğlu Ş., (2005). *Mobbing, İşyerinde Duygusal Saldırı ve Mücadele Yöntemleri*, İstanbul: Timaş Yayınları.
- Çopur, F. (2017). *Mobbingin Çalışanlar Üzerindeki Etkileri: Türk Hukuk Sisteminde Mobbing*, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimleri Enstitüsü.
- Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu Limited Şirketi. (2017). *2017 Deloitte Global Human Capital Trends Report*. Deloitte University Press.
- Doğan, A. (2011). Elektronik insan kaynakları yönetimi ve fonksiyonları. *Journal of Internet Applications and Management*, 2(2), 51-80.
- Dökmen, Ü.(2005) *Küçük Şeyler*, İstanbul: Sistem Yayıncılık.

- Ekinci, F. (2022). *Mobbingin Örgüt İklimi Üzerindeki Etkisi: Belediye Çalışanlarına Yönelik Bir Uygulama*, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Aksaray Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.
- Kahraman, H. B., & Fındıklı, M. M. A. (2018). *Kariyer Yönetimi Kapsamında Eğitim ve Geliştirme Faaliyetlerine Yönelik Algıların Çalışan Memnuniyeti Üzerindeki Etkileri*. *Beykent Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 11(2), 51-68.
- Karakaş Y. (2010). *Çalışma Hayatında Mobbing (Sivas Milli Eğitim Örneği)*, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, SBE, Cumhuriyet Üniversitesi, Sivas.
- Leymann, H., (1996). The Content and Development of MOBİNG at Work European, *Journal Of Work And Organizational Psychology*. 5(2), 165–184.
- Lokmanoğlu, S. Y. (2019). *İşyerinde Psikolojik Taciz Mobbing (2 b.)*. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.
- Olanrewaju, A. S. T., Hossain, M. A., Whiteside, N., & Mercieca, P. (2020). Social media and entrepreneurship research: A literature review. *International Journal of Information Management*, 50, 90-110.
- Özçelik, A. Oya (2006), Türkiye ve ABD’deki İşletmelerde İnsan Kaynakları Departmanlarının Stratejik Rolüne İlişkin Karşılaştırmalı Bir Çalışma, *Yönetim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 4(1), 69-97.
- Palabıyık, B.B. (2018). *Türk İş Hukukunda Mobbing*, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.
- Sabuncuoğlu, Z. (2008). *İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi (Uygulama Örnekleriyle)*. İstanbul: Beta Yayınları.
- Tetik, S. (2010). Mobbing Kavramı: Birey ve Örgütler Açısından Önemi, *KMÜ Sosyal ve Ekonomik Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 12, 86
- Tınaz, P. (2006). *İşyerinde Psikolojik Taciz (Mobbing)*, İstanbul: Beta Yayınları.
- Vardarlier, P., & Canol, S. (2017). İnsan Kaynakları Departmanının İşyerinde Mobbingi Azaltmaya ve Engellemeye Yönelik Uyguladığı Stratejiler: Çalışanlar Üzerine Yapılan Bir Araştırma. *PESA Uluslararası Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 3(3), 1-17.
- Yıldırım, F., & Ekinci, O. (2019). *Mobbing: Nedenleri Aktörleri & Etkileri*. Ankara: Gazi Kitabevi.
- Yılmaz, H., ve Kaymaz, A. (2014). Kurumsal bir risk unsuru: Mobbing (iş yerinde psikolojik taciz). *Denetim*, (14), 73-81.
- Yinal, A., & Banje, F. U. (2023). Social Media Habits Of University Students And The Effects Of Media On Students. *The Online Journal Of New Horizons İn Education-April*, 13(2).

MOBBING EXPERIENCES OF WOMEN EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE: A QUALITATIVE STUDY ON THE PERCEPTIONS OF MOBBING THAT WOMEN EMPLOYEES ARE EXPOSED TO IN THE TRNC

Melek ARİFOĞLU

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
mefuat@hotmail.com

Hüseyin OLGAN

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
olgan.gondeya@gmail.com

Assist. Prof. Dr. Azmiye YINAL

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to determine the realization forms of mobbing events that women are exposed to, by whom the mobbing is carried out and the effects of the event on the mobbing victim; At the same time, it is the examination of mobbing perceptions of female employees who are victims of mobbing in the workplace. In the study, qualitative research method was preferred in order to capture the details of mobbing incidents, which are thought to be relatively difficult to statistic within the framework of quantitative research, and to determine mobbing perceptions by enabling mobbing victims to convey their experiences with their own words. In this context, 23 female employees who have different positions and seniority in various sectors in the town of Nicosia in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus and who stated that they are victims of mobbing in the workplace were selected by snowball sampling method and semi-structured interviews were conducted with these female employees. Afterwards, the interview records were analyzed in detail and the codes, categories and themes were determined; Accordingly, the similar and divergent aspects of mobbing experiences, the effects they experienced and mobbing perceptions of female employees participating in the research were interpreted by revealing. According to the findings obtained within the scope of the research, mobbing for office workers emerges as a very common problem that can lead to serious negative consequences. Mobbing, which is a type of psychological violence or bullying that is carried out systematically and for months and in some cases for years, in order to incapacitate the person in the workplace or to force him to leave the job; It can reduce employee performance by destroying employee motivation and health, lead to loss of productivity and resources in the workplace, create a toxic atmosphere within the organization, cause the organization and/or organizational managers to lose their reputation, and cause qualified employees to leave the job. In the research, the findings that the protective, preventive and deterrent mechanisms against mobbing are often ignored by mobbing perpetrators were also noteworthy. On the other hand, although the positions of the perpetrators who apply mobbing to the interviewees vary and the perpetrators are not always managers, all of the victims clearly stated that they think that the managers of the workplace where they work are responsible for preventing mobbing. Accordingly, the overlapping aspects of the findings with the upper-level theory were also tried to be interpreted.

Keywords: mobbing in the workplace, female employees, mobbing perception, mobbing effects

1. Introduction

Human relations, ways of doing business and lifestyles change within the framework of current opportunities and constraints. In this respect, as technology develops, there may be situations where human contact decreases in some workplaces, and although concepts such as "dark factories" and "remote working" are becoming more and more common in global business circles, especially after the Covid19 pandemic; In the business world, it is out of the question to completely cut off human relations. Therefore, as in every situation in which human has played a leading role throughout history, no matter how much technology develops in business environments, there may be situations where conflict is inevitable due to the existence of the human factor. However, there is a situation that distinguishes itself from interpersonal conflict, which is a part of human nature, which is mobbing behavior. Mobbing, which is a systematic intimidation behavior unlike the usual conflict situation between people; It is a problem that lasts for a large period of time spanning months or even years, causing many negative effects, especially stress, and increasing the intention to leave (Baillien, Escartin, Gross, & Zapf, 2017).

Mobbing experiences of female employees in the workplace is a common problem worldwide. Mobbing is the practice of systematic, persistent and malicious behavior towards a person. These behaviors are carried out in order to damage the reputation of the person and cause psychological or emotional pain (Burns, 2022). Women

may be more prone to mobbing in the workplace, and some studies show that women are more exposed to mobbing. Female employees may be exposed to workplace mobbing because they may be targeted because of their gender, role or hierarchical position. Forms of mobbing can include constant criticism, belittling, humiliation, spreading gossip, ostracism, abuse and harassment. Such behaviors may negatively affect the self-confidence, motivation and work performance of employees (Yinal, Kalkan, & Çakici, 2022).

The Concept of Mobbing Whenever people who are social beings are in contact, there is a possibility of conflict between them, this is a part of human nature. These disputes can be resolved between the parties as well as; it can grow to the point of fighting, violence or breaking the relationship between the parties (Aquino, 2000). Legislators around the world have defined certain behaviors as crimes in the legal framework against the harm of the parties or the violation of rights in cases of disagreements (Hasekioğlu and Karadaş, 2022). Although the deterrent effect of the penal provisions in the legislation for violent behavior, which has been considered a crime for decades, is the subject of another discussion; It is thought that it is obvious that the fact that they are accepted as a crime in the social memory facilitates the detection of these behaviors. On the other hand, due to the fact that psychological violence, especially types of psychological violence such as bullying and mobbing, are relatively difficult to detect and prove; While there is not always a definition and punishment in the legislation, it can be said that it is relatively new to be perceived by the society as a crime or at least as a type of behavior that causes significant negativities. In this context, it is important to examine the literary process from separating mobbing from normal human conflict situations and defining it as a systematic bullying and intimidation behavior (Yinal & Banje, 2023).

Mobbing can cause both physical and psychological health problems. Aggrieved workers may experience physical and psychological symptoms such as stress, anxiety, depression, sleep problems and stomach problems (Köprü, 2022). In addition, results such as job dissatisfaction, loss of motivation, desire to leave the job and loss of professional reputation may occur. Many studies have been conducted on the effects of mobbing and the experiences of female employees. However, it should not be forgotten that mobbing and gender inequality may show local and sectoral differences. For this reason, it is important to consult local surveys, surveys or official reports to get up-to-date information about mobbing perceptions and experiences of female employees in the TRNC (Öksüzöğlü and Şeşen, 2018).

Although we do not have specific data on the mobbing experiences of female employees in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC), it is known that mobbing is a common problem among female employees in general. Women may have certain factors that put them at risk of being exposed to workplace mobbing. Female employees may be targeted because of their gender, gender roles or balance of power. Mobbing can occur in the form of constant criticism, ridicule, belittling, humiliation, spreading gossip, exclusion from work and even sexual harassment. Such behaviors may negatively affect women's self-confidence, motivation and job performance (Yinal, Kalkan, & Çakici, 2022).

Mobbing can negatively affect the physical and psychological health of female employees. It can lead to health problems such as stress, anxiety, depression, sleep problems, stomach ailments. In addition, results such as job dissatisfaction, loss of motivation, desire to leave the job and loss of professional reputation may occur. It is important that you examine the studies carried out by official institutions, research institutions, women's rights organizations or universities in the TRNC in order to reach definitive data on the mobbing experiences of female employees in the workplace. Such resources can provide more detailed information about mobbing perceptions, experiences and gender inequality in the workplace of female employees in the TRNC (Öksüzöğlü, Kilili, & Cizrelioğullari, 2020).

Assuming that, in general, where there is a tort committed by an offender and a victim adversely affected by it, the perpetrator has more power or advantage than the victim; In workplace mobbing cases, it can be thought that the perpetrator is generally in a higher position than the victim in the organizational hierarchy, and some studies show that mobbing applied to subordinates by superiors is the most common type of mobbing (Burton & Hoobler, 2006); However, studies conducted especially in the 2000s reveal that employees in almost every position in any organization can be victims of mobbing, even if they are managers. Mobbing behavior can be applied by managers to employees at lower levels, as well as mixed situations where it occurs between peers at the same level, mobbing against managers of lower levels, or employees at different hierarchical levels come together and mobbing other employees (Glambeek, Einarsen, & Notelaers, 2020).

These are referred to as "downward" when applied to their subordinates by the manager, "horizontal" when applied by people at the same hierarchical level, "upward" when applied by subordinates to people in higher

positions, and "inter-level" mobbing when employees at different levels group and mobbing other employees. (Birknerová, Zbihlejšová, & Droppa, 2021).

It is beneficial to examine the nature of mobbing behaviors that female employees are exposed to, to determine the motivations of the perpetrators, and to investigate whether the gender of the victim plays a role in the emerging mobbing behavior. Similarly, it is thought that determining which gender members are exposed to mobbing more frequently among the same number of male and female employees in a research group may be instructive. In this framework, in this period when gender roles came to the fore and the state of women's existence in social life and business world, as they should be, was discussed; Since it was concluded that there is a need to increase the number of studies investigating the mobbing behaviors that female workers are exposed to in Turkey and to diversify the scope of mobbing studies currently conducted mainly on health workers, with different focus groups, this study, which examines the forms of mobbing and its effects on the victim, has a special focus on female workers (Seçgin, Arslan and Tari Selçuk, 2022).

In order to determine the effects of mobbing experiences on the victim, and to enable mobbing victims to express their experiences in their own words without being bound by a certain standard, qualitative research method was preferred instead of quantitative research within the framework of this research. Moreover, since it is aimed to investigate the mobbing experiences of female employees in Nicosia; Considering the female population working in Nicosia, it was thought that qualitative research would be more appropriate, considering that the population of the research would be too large if quantitative research was preferred. Accordingly, semi-structured interviews were conducted with female employees working in different positions in various sectors and who stated that they were systematically exposed to mobbing for at least 3 months in the workplace, in line with the definition of mobbing in the literature, by snowball sampling method. The data collected accordingly; tried to be classified by separating them into themes, categories and codes, and a descriptive analysis was made according to this categorization. From the findings obtained in this framework, the mobbing forms that the victims are exposed to were tried to be categorized in terms of both the direction of mobbing and the mobbing methods applied, the effects of mobbing victims as a result of their experiences were examined and the perceptions of the victims about mobbing were also examined and interpreted.

As a result of the research, within the framework of the research conducted in Nicosia, it has been seen that mobbing is a very common problem for female employees in business life, which is normalized from time to time and can lead to negative consequences for both the victim and the workplace. It was also noted that while women who were more quiet, who were seen as "toothless", especially those working at lower levels, were the victims of mobbing, the cases were generally the downward mobbing applied to the subordinates by the managers. While effects such as loss of motivation, loneliness, alienation from work, and sometimes unhappiness that can reach depression are experienced by almost every victim; in some cases the effects have even been so severe as to cause physical illness. Although sexual harassment is a different subject from mobbing; Based on the findings, it is thought that the mobbing that took place can be accepted as the leading indicator of the sexual harassment that follows from place to place. However, according to the opinions of the women participating in the research, it has been determined that there is no consensus that female employees may be victims of mobbing more, and that the views that mobbing can be applied regardless of gender are quite common.

1.1. Purpose of the research

The primary aim of this research, which focuses on female employees selected from various sectors and exposed to mobbing in their workplaces, in order to ensure the validity criteria of the snowball sampling method in the district of Nicosia; The aim is to reveal the effects of mobbing on the victims by taking into account the details of the mobbing that the employees in question are exposed to in the workplace, such as the way it occurs, the people who apply it, and the organizational environment in which it takes place. The second aim of the research is to determine the perceptions and views of these female employees who are victims of mobbing in the workplace.

1.2. Variables of the Study

Accordingly, the research has one independent and two dependent variables. The independent variable can be named as the mobbing experienced by female employees working in Nicosia. Dependent variables were determined as the effects experienced by the victims as a result of this mobbing and the perceptions of the victims about mobbing.

1.3. Research Questions

The research questions sought to be answered in the research conducted with these variables are as follows:

1. By whom and what types of mobbing are women employees most exposed to in Nicosia?
2. What are the personal and professional effects of being exposed to mobbing on female employees in Nicosia?
3. What are the perceptions of female employees who have been exposed to mobbing in Nicosia?
4. Do female employees who have been victims of mobbing in Nicosia associate their mobbing experiences with their gender?

2. Method

2.1. Creating the Sample

2.1.1. Sample type

Following the preparation of the interview questions, a female employee working in the district of Nicosia, who was known to have been systematically exposed to mobbing for at least 3 months in accordance with the minimum mobbing period, which is understood to be the most widely accepted in the national and international literature, was reached and thanks to her guidance, that is snowball. With the sampling method, a group of 23 women who were exposed to mobbing at their workplaces in Nicosia for at least 3 months was formed by finding 42 other female employees who were victims of mobbing in the workplace in Nicosia.

2.1.2. Advantages of snowball sampling

The reason for choosing the snowball sample is the thought that although some people may have left the workplace where they were mobbed, some employees who are victims of mobbing may still be working in the workplaces where they are exposed to mobbing, so they may hesitate to openly declare their experiences in order to avoid problems in the workplace. The snowball sampling method enabled people who are known to have experienced mobbing more easily to persuade others who they know to have experienced similar experiences to participate in the research. Moreover, among female employees whose mobbing experience is uncertain, the burden of searching for suitable individuals to be included in the sample is eliminated and resources, especially time, can be used efficiently for research.

2.1.3. Disadvantages of snowball sampling

The apparent disadvantage of the snowball sampling method is that it is an improbable sampling type. Therefore, the selected sample group may consist of people with similar characteristics or the results obtained may be biased (Sadler, Lee, Lim, & Fullerton, 2010). In order to prevent this handicap, efforts were made to form the group as much as possible from women from different professions and workplaces. At this point, we had the impression that it is more difficult to find a female employee who works in Nicosia and is not a victim of mobbing, than it is to find a female employee who is exposed to mobbing; therefore, it is useful to note that there is not much difficulty in keeping the sample as diverse as possible.

2.2. Sample characteristics

Among the women included in the sample determined by the snowball sampling method, 11 out of 23 (46.6%) graduate education graduates, 11 out of 23 (46.6%) undergraduate degrees, 1 out of 23 (6%) is a high school graduate. The average age of women aged between 24 and 41 was calculated as 30.4. The average of 63 years of seniority for women, whose years of seniority ranged from 2 to 21, was calculated as 9.1. 4 out of 23 participants (26.6%) are in positions with their subordinates at their workplaces. Of the women included in the sample, 11 out of 23 (73.3%) worked in more than one workplace; 5 of them stated that they experienced mobbing in more than one workplace. Accordingly, the distribution of mobbing experiences among the sectors within the total work experience of the participants is as follows: 40% of the participants were mobbed while working in non-governmental organizations in Nicosia, 20% in the finance sector, 13.3% in the consultancy sector, 13.3% in the media sector, 13.3% secretaries, 6.6% public, 6.6% media, 6.6% informatics, 6.6% energy, 6.6% medical technology, and 6.6% were exposed to mobbing in the clinical research sector.

3. FINDINGS

3.1. General Results

Table 1: Demographic Information of the Participants and the Sectors They Experienced Mobbing

Demographic Information of the Participants and the Sectors They Experienced Mobbing			
Participant	Age	Education level	Sector(s) Mobbed
K1	27	High school	Public
K2	31	Degree	Media

K3	30	Degree	Non-governmental organisation
K4	24	Licence	Secretary
K5	41	Degree	Media
K6	29	Degree	Non-governmental organisation
K7	31	Licence	Informatics/Civil Society Organization
K8	31	Licence	cashier
K9	31	Licence	Non-governmental organisation
K10	32	Degree	ClinicSecretary
K11	28	Licence	MedicalTechnology
K12	26	Licence	consultancy
K13	31	Degree	Energy
K14	33	Licence	finance
K15	32	Degree	finance
K16	34	Licence	Secretary
K17	32	Licence	Public
K18	28	Licence	Advisor
K19	31	Degree	Non-governmental organisation
K20	31	Degree	Secretary
K21	31	Degree	Public
K22	32	Degree	Cashier
K23	28	Licence	Secretary

In the semi-structured interviews conducted with 23 female employees aged between 24 and 41 in different positions and professions, working in jobs in different sectors and victims of mobbing; It was observed that 11 of the participating women were graduates, 11 of them were undergraduates and 1 of them were high school graduates, almost all of them were exposed to mobbing more at the beginning of their careers, and 5 of them were victims of mobbing while working in organizations operating for the benefit of civil society.

3.2. Findings on mobbing methods

In the qualitative research conducted on the sample of female employees in Nicosia, the findings about mobbing experiences, which is the independent variable of the research; As far as it was determined in the literature review, the most common mobbing forms were classified according to their methods in order to help understand the mobbing methods frequently seen in the relevant sample. The findings obtained from the mobbing experiences shared by the participants in this context were compiled under the relevant classifications according to the mobbing methods used.

3.2.1. Findings on verbal mobbing methods

In the interviews, the participants were asked to describe their mobbing experiences with examples; Accordingly, among the findings obtained, mobbing was carried out orally; Findings covering methods such as using offensive expressions, mocking, slandering, gossiping about, insulting, and excessive criticism were compiled.

K4 described the mobbing applied to her using verbal methods with the following sentences: *“For example, at my first workplace, your behavior in the community is encouraged by a female president under the name of warning, your attitudes, your speeches, your actions, etc. You are constantly being restricted. Then, due to a development in my private life, due to a situation in my life, the comments of the employees there, who were all women, were like, “Oh, you’re not a very solid shoe”. Insults all day. In my next two jobs, they were different methods, but in the last one, there were insults, humiliations and verbal abuse, very clearly.”*

K14 exemplified the verbal mobbing methods applied to him as follows: “Now, my peer who is mobbing me, for example, when I try for something or make a presentation or something, he says, 'Good luck, but it won't happen'. Always negative, negative. Or, for example, he constantly gives me examples of being fired at work. I work closely with our general manager, there are situations where I get a job directly from him, my peer tells me things like, 'The closer you are to the sun, the faster you burn'.”

K8 gave an example of the verbal mobbing he was exposed to as follows: “You have to do the job perfectly, it doesn't support you either. What is expected of you is to do it perfectly. When he can't do it, he says 'You couldn't do something' in public, and he spreads it to everyone and takes his name out because he couldn't do it.”

3.2.2. Findings on mobbing methods related to duties and responsibilities

As another form of mobbing, giving jobs outside of the job description, determining a workload that is too high or below the capacity, forcing others to do their jobs, taking the jobs out of their hands and making them passive, over-controlling their jobs, preventing or disrupting their work, blocking the ways of promotion, blocking the work they do. Findings pointing to methods such as possessiveness were compiled.

K23 conveyed the mobbing he saw through his duties and responsibilities as follows: “Due to a development in my private life, my peers and managers organized against me and tried to force me out of work. Insults by day, business calls by night. They had reached the last point of cleaning the toilet. After that, in the second time, a male general secretary made requests from me about my life. Since this was not met there, unfortunately, nothing that should have been approved by me was approved. I couldn't produce work unless it was approved, I felt stuck and helpless unless I could produce work. As I felt helpless, I tried to try other ways, so I tried to get over the manager. That desperation eventually led to the termination of my employment contract there by them. I've always seen vertical mobbing there. In the third, both the managers and the team were a matched mobbing process. My jobs are being taken away from me, I am being confiscated, the responsibility of my team is being taken away from me. The managers do not communicate with me directly, the words come from other channels, the responsibility of my team is not given. I cannot go and account for the responsibility of my team.”

K18 described mobbing applied by methods such as devaluing their work or preventing them from doing business with these words: “I was exposed to mobbing by the same person on more than one issue. The smallest of these is that he talks about me sarcastically with the phrase 'the girl who tweeted' in order to devalue my work because I am in the communication team, to devalue me and my work within the organization. Something very ugly and unsuitable, not nice at all. Apart from that, he started calling his room and asking for account on matters that had nothing to do with him.”

K14 exemplified the mobbing he was exposed to regarding his duties and responsibilities as follows: “The workload and working hours started to become more than we talked about at the beginning, I had to do all the work by myself, and besides, all the work such as office cleaning, cooking, and garbage disposal was on me. Now I started to be unhappy and unproductive because I started doing jobs that were not in my job description. For example, when a guest came, I was asked to serve tea and coffee. None of this was in my job description. He put everything on me because I was the only one.”

K10 used the following statements about the mobbing applied to him over his duties and responsibilities: “My second workplace was an international company, my own manager was using me a lot of mobbing, he was giving me excessive work, he was shouting and calling. I tried so hard to get rid of it. Then a Spanish manager, who was the leader of another team at an event, liked me and wanted to join his team. The ones I was attached to also said ok. But then the woman who was my manager pulled me over and said, what do you think? Now you will do the job I gave you and you will do the job they gave you, I guess you can sleep here now, she said.

I was going to have a heart attack, so I can't get rid of it. After that, when I was leaving work, he said to me, 'You couldn't come tight'. By tight he means to make me work 24/7

3.2.3. Findings on mobbing methods in the form of interference with private life

In the interviews, questions were asked about the details of mobbing incidents, which were included in the intervention of the participants' private life, personal rights and personal time. At this point, according to the findings obtained from the answers given, the fact that all participants' private lives are ignored, especially by their managers, emerges very clearly. In this context; Findings regarding the types of mobbing, such as not respecting the personal time of the participants outside of working hours, being disturbed outside of working hours, not being allowed to use their rights such as breaks or leave, and making excessive comments about their private life, were compiled.

K5, on the other hand, expressed his mobbing experiences that interfered with his private life as follows: "The coincidental crossing of my private life at my first workplace with someone from someone else's past in the workplace caused the employees there to turn against me en masse, and they started to bother me with phone calls at night. In my last workplace, the boss thinks he owns everyone he gives money to. He calls whenever he wants, you have to pick up, it doesn't matter if you are not available at that time, you are asleep, you are drunk, you are sick."

K7 exemplifies mobbing that interferes with his private life, which actually falls within the limits of his sexism (and some of it is shared under that title): "I went back to the office after giving birth, there is nothing more than 'Moms don't have more than half of their minds, the best profession is actually motherhood, work motherhood. You can't run it at the same time, other women leave their 40-day-old child and start working', I don't know what. Without questioning anyone's living conditions, he constantly says that you are half-witted, no sir, your IQ is low, no, we give you this job, but you don't sleep at night. I can't sleep, what's wrong with you? The next day comes, he says, did you not sleep? What's it to you. I did not sleep and came and can do my job. If I can't come, I'll ask permission anyway. No, sir, we can't send you on a trip. Yes you can't, I have a small child, let's see. I listen to these words of God every day about motherhood, about the fact that mothers should work less and take care of their children."

3.2.4. Findings on mobbing methods related to communication and social environment

From the answers given by the participants, the findings regarding the forms of communication and the situations in which the social environment is used as a mobbing method were compiled. Accordingly, it is seen that the methods such as ignoring, ignoring or ignoring, hiding information, exclusion and manipulation, which are prominent in the answers given, can also be used by the perpetrators in the mobbing process.

K2, on the other hand, conveyed his experiences with these words: "My colleagues who competed with me often tried to deny my words. He constantly questions my knowledge of English and Turkish grammar, then realizes that he is wrong and breaks down. I say that my mother's side is Pakistani, I am talking about some information about Pakistan, it is said, 'come on, don't throw yourself away'. Open Google? Or I need to understand the logic of a business design, I question why, instead of telling me why, he goes and complains to the manager. Or, for example, when I asked a question, I couldn't get an answer, as if I didn't exist."

K12 expressed his experiences in this context with the following words: "For example, there are rumors to the senior management, I am trying to produce work, I can't talk to the general secretary, he has built a wall. There are rumors from other places that my team is unhappy, I am trying to catch up with them, and that was something else entirely. It was a point where it was said that the upper management built a wall, and allusions and gossip on the horizontal were the best form of communication. Communication was also my job there and such talk. At my last job, the boss ignores me when he feels like it."

K8 expressed his experience in this framework as follows: "He doesn't tell you to do something, he already expects you to do it. I'm new to work, I don't know how the procedure should work. The person above me comes and gets angry that you haven't done this yet. No giving me information, no instructions, no teaching me directions."

K19 shared her experience in this regard: "Not only did she belittle my work, she also did things that prevented her team from communicating with me, that is, she tried to exclude me."

3.2.5. Findings on gender-based mobbing methods

Findings in this direction were compiled from the answers given by the participants to the questions asked in order to determine how much of the mobbing experiences of the female employees participating in the research were directly related to their gender.

K20 described the mobbing incidents related to her gender with the following words: “He often said that the man they banned me from was manipulating women in particular. He was justifying it. It implied that women were more easily manipulated.”

K21 stated that she was mobbed over her gender as follows: “It was a workplace where I worked with my wife and had one-on-one contact with the boss. Some disturbing things happened, I felt that my limits were exceeded, and after that, when I tried to set my limit, mobbing started. For example, this boss was a very conservative person, he doesn't go to places where there is no harem or selamlık or something with his wife. Despite this, he tells me to work alone and takes me to a cafe outside the office so that we can work. These made me and my wife very uncomfortable and I drew a border. After that, extreme mobbing. The insults and scoldings are both about my work and about my personality. That's why I consider the feminine part of this job, because before that, my wife and I had no problems. In the meantime, mobbing began to be applied to my wife at the same time as me. I encountered such a situation in my first work experience and much later we realized that it was mobbing.”

K5 expressed her views on this subject as follows: “Unfortunately, being a woman and moreover, being an extroverted woman has a huge impact. If you are a little extroverted, cheerful, have high energy, drink alcohol, can exist in the environment, if your intellectual capacity is high, what we call attraction is a very abstract thing, but if you are high in their eyes, your professional identity disappears in front of them in 30 seconds. But I can't say if I wasn't a woman because I am whole and femininity is fundamentally related to my character, my perspective on life and everything. Therefore, I can't say if I wasn't a woman, but frankly, I would say if I wasn't me. When I think about the processes I've been through so much, I wish I could handle it more easily and keep it at a more business level. I think I could deal with mobbing more easily, but it was very, very difficult to deal with the harassment part. In this process, I saw the effect of being a woman much more. I guess it would be easier if we weren't women. To be honest, I think I would prefer not to be a woman in this geography anyway. In particular, I notice that female employees either do not realize that what they experience around them is mobbing or they have normalized it so much that someone had to come out and say the king is naked. This was very sad in every sense. It really came to the point of saying that what you are experiencing is not normal, you cannot normalize it. Everyone realizes this, but no one can express it that much, I understood it.”

Conclusion and Recommendation

In the literature review, it has been seen that both qualitative and quantitative research techniques are preferred in researches on this subject around the world. Both of these have distinct benefits. Quantitative research allows to interpret statistical data and turn it into information by standardizing a large number of data. However, qualitative research is also considered more useful in revealing and analyzing the nuances of social situations that may not be reflected in statistics. In this study, it is aimed to investigate the mobbing experiences of female employees in the workplace, the feelings and events they experience, the consequences of mobbing for them and their perceptions about mobbing as people who have experienced all these. In this context, it has been decided that qualitative research is the more appropriate technique to measure the mobbing experiences and perceptions of female employees in the Nicosia district.

In the literature research, it has been revealed that the methods used as a method of mobbing are mostly used in Nicosia and many negative effects seen worldwide as a result of mobbing are clearly experienced by the women working in the district of Nicosia. All but one of the participants witnessed that other employees in their place were also victims of mobbing. During the research process, it was a matter of curiosity whether the employees abused the employers by accusing them of mobbing in non-mobbing situations. However, at the end of the study, it can be thought that this is not a very common situation, at least at this stage, especially considering that none of the interviewed employees took any action other than resignation. However, it is thought that this can be the subject of future research, and if mobbing prevention mechanisms can be developed on an institutional and national scale in the future, it will be beneficial when it comes to that point. Finally, the comments of some participants that mobbing themselves and others may not be aware of the mobbing they do sometimes seem interesting. Since mobbing is defined as a behavior with the intention of intimidation in the current literature and laws, it is thought that not evaluating the negative behaviors of people who are not aware that they are doing mobbing within the scope of mobbing may create a deficit. In this context, it is thought that it may be necessary to update the definitions of mobbing by doing more research on the perpetrators.

References

- Aquino, K. (2000). Structural and Individual Determinants of Workplace Victimization: The Effects of Hierarchical Status and Conflict Management Style. *Journal of Management*, 26(2), 171-193. doi:10.1177/014920630002600201
- Baillien, E., Escartín, J., Gross, C., & Zapf, D. (2017). Towards a conceptual and empirical differentiation between workplace bullying and interpersonal conflict. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 26(6), 870-881. doi:10.1080/1359432X.2017.1385601
- Birknerová, Z., Zbihlejšová, L., & Droppa, M. (2021). Assessment of Abusive Supervision – BOSS Methodology. *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 22(1), 197-216. doi:https://doi.org/10.3846/jbem.2020.13552
- Burns, S. T. (2022). Workplace mistreatment for US women: best practices for counselors. *Humanities and Social Sciences Communications*, 9(131). doi:https://doi.org/10.1057/s41599-022-01154-z
- Burton, J. P., & Hoobler, J. M. (2006). Subordinate Self-esteem and Abusive Supervision. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 18(3), 340-355. https://www.jstor.org/stable/40604544 Received from
- Glambek, M., Einarsen, S. V., & Notelaers, G. (2020). Workplace bullying as predicted by non-prototypicality, group identification and norms: A self-categorisation perspective. *Work and Stress*, 34(3), 279-299. doi:https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2020.1719554
- Gök, S., Karatuna, I., & Tınaz, P. (2022). The Psychological Harassment Scale at Work (İPTÖ) Regulation and Validity and Reliability Study of the Short Form. *Journal of Research in Business*, 7(1), 63-89. doi:10.54452/jrb.1029683
- Hasekioğlu & Karadaş. (2022). Termination of Employment Contract Due to Mobbing. hk attorney.com:https://www.Hkattorney.com/tag/mobbing-case-winners/retrieved from
- Köprü, İ. (2022). Employee problems and mobbing in the context of gender inequality: The case of Kayseri media. Master Thesis. Kayseri: Erciyes University / Institute of Social Sciences / Department of Journalism.
- Öksüzoğlu, T. Ö., Kilili, R., & Cizrelioğulları, M. N. (2020). The perspective of mobbing in public workplaces and trade unions in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. Train hyperlink. forward. arrow. singing. trade and ltd. sty..
- Öksüzoğlu, T., & Şenen, H. (2018). The phenomenon of mobbing in public workplaces in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus: A qualitative research on the role of trade unions. *Journal of Public Administration*, 51(1), 133-166.
- Seçgin, L., Arslan, T., & Tarı Selçuk, K. (2022). Violence Against Women in the Last Five Years in Turkey: Impact of the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Humanistic Perspective - Journal of International Psychological Counseling and Guidance Researches*, 4(1), 28-43. doi:https://doi.org/10.47793/hp.1025470
- Yinal, A., Kalkan, F., & Cakici, M. (2022). A qualitative study on violence against women and the impact of printed media in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. *Alpha psychiatry*, 23(3), 128.
- Yinal, A., & Banje, F. U. (2023). Social Media Habits Of University Students And The Effects Of Media On Students. *The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education-April*, 13(2).

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTOR EMPLOYEES ORGANISATIONAL LONELINESS AND ITS EFFECT ON JOB SATISFACTION

Emine Aksoy

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
emineaksoy8282@gmail.com

Münüre Gökbörü

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
munure.gokboru@hotmail.com

Assist. Prof. Dr. Azmiye Yinal
Akdeniz Karpaz University
azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

Organizational loneliness is an undesirable situation that occurs due to the lack of satisfactory social relationships between individuals at work. Loneliness at work prevents communication between employees and leads to undesirable results for the individual and the organization. Job satisfaction is the positive evaluations made by the individual towards his/her job and he/she enjoys his/her job. The importance of high job satisfaction for organizations is due to the fact that it strengthens the competitiveness of the organization by increasing organizational success. The aim of this research is to determine the effect of employees' organizational loneliness perceptions on their job satisfaction levels. The population of the study consists of employees working in public and private sector organizations throughout Turkey. According to the findings obtained as a result of the research, organizational loneliness has a significant and negative effect on job satisfaction. In other words, as employees' perceptions of loneliness increase, their job satisfaction decreases. In addition, in this study, when the concept organizational loneliness and job satisfaction, which are extremely important for businesses, are examined in terms of demographic variables, differences were found between the averages.

Keywords: Organizational Loneliness, Job Satisfaction, Social Friendship.

1. Introduction

Organisational loneliness is an employee's feeling of lack of social support or loneliness at work. Job satisfaction is the level of satisfaction with the job. The relationship between organisational loneliness and job satisfaction for private sector employees can be affected by many factors (Kılıç, 2021). First of all, a sense of social support and connectedness in the workplace can reduce organisational loneliness and increase job satisfaction. This can help employees feel important at work and build a strong relationship with their colleagues at work. Moreover, social support at the workplace can help employees cope with stress, which can positively affect their job satisfaction and performance.

On the other hand, workload, job demands and workplace conflicts may have negative effects on organisational loneliness and job satisfaction. High workload and job demands can increase employees' stress levels and reduce job satisfaction. Conflicts in the workplace may also cause employees to feel organisational loneliness and negatively affect job satisfaction. The relationship between organisational loneliness and job satisfaction is complex and can be affected by many factors. For private sector employees, social support and a sense of connectedness in the workplace may increase job satisfaction, while high workload and workplace conflicts may increase the feeling of organisational loneliness and decrease job satisfaction. Therefore, it is important to adopt strategies that will reduce employees' sense of organisational loneliness and increase their job satisfaction. For example, organising activities that encourage employees to communicate with each other and increase social interaction can reduce organisational loneliness and increase job satisfaction. Moreover, respecting employees' views and involving and involving them can increase the feeling of commitment at work and reduce the feeling of organisational loneliness. Keeping workload at a reasonable level and practices that help employees maintain work-life balance can also reduce employees' stress levels and increase job satisfaction.

In addition, keeping communication channels open at work and having a support system to help employees solve their problems can also reduce organisational loneliness and increase job satisfaction. These support systems can help employees cope with difficulties and reduce stress factors in the workplace (Kılıç, 2021).

In conclusion, the relationship between organisational loneliness and job satisfaction of private sector employees is complex and can be affected by many factors. However, it is known that factors such as social support, sense of commitment, low workload, good communication and having a support system at workplaces can reduce

employees' sense of organisational loneliness and increase job satisfaction. Prioritising these factors in workplaces can help employees have a good working experience and be happier and more productive at work.

1.1. Problem Status

In general, organisational loneliness, which emerges as a communication problem, damages employees' feelings of commitment, belonging and integration with the organisation and causes a decrease in organisational efficiency by negatively affecting the performance of individuals. In this context, the efforts of senior management are important in determining the factors that cause organisational loneliness and finding solutions for them. Job satisfaction refers to an individual's reaction to the environment in which he/she works or a positive attitude towards his/her job and colleagues (Yınal, Kalkan, & Çakici, 2022).

The importance of job satisfaction in organisational terms stems from its relationship with concepts such as productivity, turnover, alienation from work, absenteeism, intra-organisational conflict, etc. High job satisfaction motivates employees intrinsically and increases work performance and productivity accordingly. In addition, an individual who experiences job dissatisfaction may become alienated from his/her job over time since he/she cannot see himself/herself as a part of the organisation. Another factor that increases the importance of job satisfaction for organisations is absenteeism and turnover (Kocak & Tunc, 2022). The rate of absenteeism of an employee with low job satisfaction increases. Continuous absenteeism results in quitting behaviour. In addition to these, an employee who is dissatisfied with his/her job often experiences restlessness, stress and uneasiness, and health problems arise. Since such employees exhibit aggressive behaviours, conflicts within the organisation arise (Şişman & Turan, 2004).

1.2. The Concept of Organisational Loneliness

Organisational loneliness is a situation where employees feel lonely or experience a sense of loneliness at work. This situation can be caused by many factors. For example, workload that may cause employees to feel isolated at work, monotony of tasks, poor friendship relations at work, lack of social interaction, lack of cooperation and support from managers, changes in the workplace or changes in the organisational structure (Erdirencelebi & Ertürk, 2018). Organisational loneliness can negatively affect employees' job performance and job satisfaction. When employees feel lonely, they may have difficulty in being motivated at work and their work performance may decrease. In addition, less social interaction of employees with friends or colleagues at work means a decrease in social support networks at work. Therefore, strengthening employees' social support networks at work can help reduce organisational loneliness (Koçak & Yener, 2019).

Loneliness is synonymous with perceived social isolation, not objective social isolation. People can live relatively lonely lives and not feel lonely, and conversely they can live a seemingly rich social life and still feel lonely. Loneliness is defined as a distressing feeling that accompanies the perception that one's social needs are not being met by the quantity or especially the quality of one's social relationships. To date, the widely accepted typology of loneliness has been proposed by Weiss (1973).

Emotional loneliness is caused by the absence of a close emotional bond, an attachment figure, and is associated with a sense of emptiness and anxiety. Social loneliness results from the absence of a network of relationships. It is associated with a sense of lack of belonging, aimlessness and boredom (Metz, 2021).

To reduce organisational loneliness in the workplace, activities and organisations can be organised where employees can interact with each other. For example, employees can be encouraged to meet and interact with each other through social events or training programmes. In addition, managers' providing more support and cooperation to their employees can reduce employees' feeling of organisational loneliness. Keeping the workload at a reasonable level and providing work-life balance for employees can also reduce organisational loneliness. Organisational loneliness is a situation in which employees feel lonely or experience a sense of loneliness at work. This situation may negatively affect job performance and job satisfaction. Strengthening social support networks in the workplace can help reduce employees' feeling of organisational loneliness.

1.3 Factors Affecting Organisational Loneliness

Factors affecting organisational loneliness may include:

- Workplace culture: Workplace culture can determine how employees feel at work. For example, if a workplace has a hierarchical structure and employees only communicate with their boss, other employees may feel isolated.
- Workload: Intense workload may make it difficult for employees to interact socially with other colleagues. In addition, working under constant work stress may cause employees to feel lonely at work (Erdil & Ertosun, 2011).

- Relationships with colleagues: Social relationships at the workplace can influence employees' feelings of organisational loneliness. For example, employees interacting less with each other or not having social relations with each other may increase the feeling of organisational loneliness.
- Changes in the workplace: Changes in the workplace, especially changes in the organisational structure, may cause employees to feel lonely. For example, after working with the same team or department for many years, employees may encounter a new management team, which may cause employees to feel lonely (Kılıç, 2021).
- Management support: Management can play an important role in reducing employees' feelings of organisational loneliness at work. Managers can support their employees, encourage cooperation and teamwork, and organise activities that make it easier for employees to communicate with each other.
- Working conditions: Working conditions can affect how employees feel at work. For example, jobs where employees have to work alone or long periods of office work can increase feelings of organisational loneliness.

These factors may cause employees to feel lonely at work and increase organisational loneliness. Therefore, it is important for workplaces to pay attention to these factors and encourage employees' social interactions at work (Özyıldırım & Kayıkçı, 2019).

1.4. Definition and Importance of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an employee's evaluation and feeling about his/her job, work conditions, co-workers and employers. Job satisfaction affects employees' commitment to their jobs, intentions to stay at work, productivity, performance and overall workplace satisfaction.

The importance of job satisfaction is that it improves employees' performance and productivity at work by increasing their commitment to their jobs. Satisfied employees tend to be happier, healthier and less stressed, which contributes to morale and motivation at work. At the same time, satisfied employees may tend to stay at work longer, which can help increase experience and knowledge in the workplace (Aktaş, 2019).

Job satisfaction is also a more important factor than material incentives such as wages and benefits that employers offer to their employees. Satisfied employees feel more satisfied with their salaries and have more positive views about their jobs. Therefore, it is important for employers to continuously monitor job satisfaction levels in order to increase employees' commitment to their jobs and improve productivity in the workplace.

As a result, job satisfaction is an important factor to increase performance, productivity and satisfaction in the workplace. Employers' monitoring employees' job satisfaction levels and trying to strengthen social relations in the workplace is an effective method to increase employees' commitment to their jobs and productivity (Deniz & Ünsal, 2010).

It is one of the most studied work attitudes especially by organisational behaviour researchers. More than 12,000 studies on job satisfaction were conducted in the 1990s and continue to be conducted today. The importance of job satisfaction for managers and researchers stems from the fact that job satisfaction affects a wide range of behaviours in organisations and contributes to the welfare of employees (Kılıç, 2021).

1.5. Purpose and Importance of the Research

Organisational loneliness is an undesirable situation caused by the lack of satisfactory social relations between people at work. Loneliness at work prevents communication between employees, which leads to undesirable results for both the individual and the organisation. People who feel lonely at work have low organisational commitment and job satisfaction. People who are not satisfied with their jobs may leave the organisation.

Job satisfaction is a person's positive evaluation of his/her job and he/she enjoys his/her job. The importance of high job satisfaction for organisations stems from increasing organisational success and strengthening organisational competitiveness. The aim of this research is to determine the effect of employees' perceptions of organisational loneliness on their job satisfaction levels.

1.6. Hypotheses

The hypotheses of the research are as follows:

H₁: Organisational loneliness has a significant and negative effect on job satisfaction.

H₂: Do organisational loneliness, sub-dimensions of organisational loneliness and job satisfaction levels differ according to demographic characteristics of employees?

1.7. Assumptions / Assumptions

It was assumed that the research participants answered the scales sincerely.

1.8. Limitations

Since the human element is at the centre of the research, the general limitations of social science research are accepted as valid for this study, and the reliability of the numerical data collected is limited by the characteristics of the scale used to collect data. In addition, this study is limited to the data obtained from individuals working in the TRNC public and private sectors in 2022.

2. Research Methods and Findings

2.1. Research Methodology

In this study, survey technique, one of the quantitative research methods, was used. Data were obtained from the participants through a scale. Relational and Screening Research Model was used in the data collection part of the study with quantitative research method. Determining the research method is the determination of the general research design and the steps of the research process. Method is the techniques and tools used in the research. The techniques, measurements or tools used constitute the research method. Researchers explain the techniques and tools (scale, interview, test, observation, etc.) they use in their research. The research explains the techniques included in the research, all the tools used in data collection and analysis, and the reasons for using these tools (Aslan, 2018). The method of this research is to determine the purpose of the research, to collect the data and to analyse the data obtained. Therefore, this purpose will be carried out with the screening method and has a descriptive nature. Scale technique was used to obtain the research data.

2.2. Population and Sample of the Study

The population of the research consists of 400 public and private sector employees actively working within the borders of TRNC. The sample of the research consists of public and private sector employees in Nicosia, Kyrenia, Famagusta, Iskele and Güzelyurt districts in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus.

2.3. Data Collection Tools

The scale used in this study consists of two parts. The first part includes questions about the personal characteristics of the respondents and the second part includes questions about loneliness in the organisation and job satisfaction.

2.3.1. Personal Information Form

In the personal information form created by the researcher; gender, marital status, educational status, sector of employment, position and age information were asked.

2.3.2. Organisational Loneliness Scale

This scale was developed by Wright et al. (2006) and adapted into Turkish by Doğan et al. (2009). The scale consists of two dimensions as "Emotional Deprivation" and "Social Friendship". The first 9 questions in the scale are Emotional Deprivation and the other 7 questions are Social Friendship. Items 5, 6, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15 and 16 of the scale are negative questions. These eight items were reverse coded after being transferred to the computer environment. The questions try to determine how often employees experience loneliness in organisational life. The answers to the questions were formed in 5-point Likert type (1- Strongly disagree, 2- Disagree, 3- Neutral, 4- Agree, 5- Strongly agree). The scale with an acceptable Cronbach Alpha value of $0.81 < \alpha < 1.00$ was considered highly reliable.

2.3.3 Job Satisfaction Scale

The Job Satisfaction Scale developed by Hackman and Oldham (1974) was used in the study. The validity and reliability studies of the scale were conducted by Yakut and Certel (2016) in Turkey. The scale contains 14 items. All of the scale items are positive. The questions question the level of satisfaction of the employees with their jobs. The answers to the questions are formed in 5-point Likert type. The scale with an acceptable Cronbach's Alpha value of $0,61 < \alpha < 0,80$ is considered to be moderately reliable and the scale with a value of $0,81 < \alpha < 1,00$ is considered to be highly reliable.

2.4. Analysing the Data

SPSS 28.0 programme was used in the evaluation of the research data. Descriptive tests such as T-Test, Anova Test and ANOVA Tukey test were applied.

3. Research Findings

3.1. Personal Information of the Participants

Personal information of the participants is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic Information of the Participants

	Frequency (F)	Per cent (%)
Gender		
Woman	250	54,9
Man	150	45,1
Marital Status		
Married	200	50
Single	200	50
Education Status		
High School	81	15,3
Associate degree	75	14,8
Licence	130	52,0
Postgraduate	114	17,9
Sector Worked in		
Public	130	47,1
Special	270	52,9
Position		
Administrator	116	22,1
Ast	284	77,9
Age		
Between 18-25 years old	90	19,90
26-35 years old	100	24,4
36 + age	210	55,7
Total	400	100

According to the results of the analysis, 54% of the participants were female and 45% were male. The majority of the participants are in the 36 + age range and 50% of them are married. When the education levels of the participants are analysed, 52% of the participants are undergraduate graduates. When the positions of the participants in the workplace are analysed, it is seen that 77% of them work as subordinates, and according to the sector they work in, 52% of them are private sector employees.

The Relationship Between Organisational Loneliness and Job Satisfaction

The direction and degree of the relationship between the participants' perceptions of organisational loneliness and job satisfaction levels were obtained through Pearson Correlation Coefficient and the findings are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Relationship between Organisational Loneliness and Job Satisfaction

N=400	1	2	3	4
Organisational Loneliness	1	,869**	,770**	-,469**
p. (2-tailed)		,000	,000,	,000
Emotional Deprivation		1	,560**	-,379**
p. (2-tailed)			,000	,000
Social Friendship			1	-,438**
p. (2-tailed)				,000
Job Satisfaction				1
p. (2-tailed)				

According to the findings in the table, there is a significant and negative relationship between organisational loneliness and job satisfaction ($r = -.469, p = .000$). In other words, as employees' feelings of loneliness increase, their job satisfaction levels decrease. Accordingly, there is a significant negative relationship between organisational loneliness and job satisfaction.

There is a significant and negative relationship between emotional deprivation, a sub-dimension of organisational loneliness, and job satisfaction ($r = -0.379$, $p = .000$). In other words, situations such as not having a sincere relationship with others in the organisation, feeling restless and anxious in the organisation, and thinking that they are excluded cause employees to feel emotionally lonely and reduce their job satisfaction. Accordingly, a significant negative relationship between emotional deprivation, a sub-dimension of organisational loneliness, and job satisfaction was supported. There is a negative and significant relationship between social friendship, another sub-dimension of organisational loneliness, and job satisfaction ($r = -0.438$, $p = .000$). Individuals who do not feel belonging to a group in the organisation, who do not participate in the activities organised by the organisation, who cannot find someone to spend their free time and spend time together feel lonely at the point of social friendship and therefore their job satisfaction levels decrease. Therefore, there is a significant and negative relationship between the sub-dimension of organisational loneliness, social friendship and job satisfaction.

The Effect of Organisational Loneliness on Job Satisfaction

Regression analysis provides a cause-effect relationship between variables. Under this heading, simple regression analysis was performed to determine the effect of organisational loneliness on job satisfaction. The findings related to the analysis are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. The Effect of Organisational Loneliness on Job Satisfaction

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	B	sh	t	R ²	F	p
	Fixed	4,566	0,072	63,569			
Job satisfaction	Organisational Loneliness	0,460	0,032	14,506	0,220	210,425	,000

The meaning of the values in the table is explained below.

F and p values indicate whether the regression model is significant or not. In other words, it questions whether the model can explain the effect of organisational loneliness on job satisfaction. Since the significance level is ($.000$) $p < 0.05$, the regression model is significant. If $p > 0.05$, it would be interpreted that the relationship was not significant. However, since $p < 0.05$, the model is significant and explains the effect of organisational loneliness on job satisfaction.

B (constant value) expresses the value that the dependent variable (job satisfaction) will take if the independent variable (organisational loneliness) is 0. Accordingly, if organisational loneliness is 0, job satisfaction will take the value of 4,566.

B (independent variable) value shows the rate at which an increase of the independent variable by 1 unit will change the dependent variable. Accordingly, an increase in organisational loneliness by 1 unit causes a decrease in job satisfaction by -0,460.

β expresses the correlation between the two variables. Therefore, there is a negative and significant (-,469) relationship between organisational loneliness and job satisfaction.

R² value is expressed as the explanatory power of the model. This value shows that 22% of the job satisfaction variable (variance) is explained by the independent variable in the model, namely organisational loneliness. In other words, employees' organisational loneliness has 22% effect on their job satisfaction. The remaining 78% is related to other factors. Based on this information, it can be concluded that organisational loneliness has a low level and negative effect on job satisfaction. Accordingly, hypothesis H1 (Organisational loneliness has a significant and negative effect on job satisfaction) is supported.

Comparison of Means According to Demographic Variables

As a result of the analyses, since the data were found to be normally distributed, parametric tests were used to compare the averages according to the demographic information of the participants. T-Test was used to compare the mean of two groups (gender, marital status, sector of employment, position in the workplace), and One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to compare more than two groups (age, education level). In the

comparison of more than two groups, the different group or groups were determined by Post-hoc (LSD) test. While the participants' perceptions of organisational loneliness did not differ according to gender, sector of employment and position in the workplace variables, the job satisfaction levels of the participants differed according to the sector of employment and position.

In the comparisons made according to age, marital status and education level, differences were found between the averages of both organisational loneliness and job satisfaction of the participants. When examined in terms of age variable, differences were observed in employees' perceptions of organisational loneliness, job satisfaction levels and social friendship dimension. Considering the marital status data, there were differences between married and single individuals in the organisational loneliness and job satisfaction levels of the participants in the social friendship dimension. According to the educational status, the emotional deprivation dimension and job satisfaction of the employees differed. Therefore, H2 hypothesis (employees' perceptions of organisational loneliness and job satisfaction levels differ according to their demographic characteristics) was partially supported.

According to the results of the analyses, only the cases showing differences are tabulated and shown below.

Comparison of Means According to Marital Status Variable

The averages of the scales were compared according to marital status and the findings are shown in Table 4.

N=400	Marital Status	N	\bar{X}	t	p*
Organisational Loneliness	Married	200	2,00	-2,505	0,012**
	Single	200	2,16		
Social Friendship	Married	200	1,74	-3,306	0,001**
	Single	200	1,95		
Job Satisfaction	Married	200	3,75	1,152	0,002**
	Single	200	3,50		

If *p < 0,05, there is a difference between the means of the groups.

Table 4. Comparison of Means According to Marital Status (t-Test)

According to the table, it was determined that the mean organisational loneliness of the employees showed a significant difference especially in the social friendship dimension (p=0,001), and single employees experienced more loneliness in the organisation than married individuals (p=0,012). Single individuals may have difficulty in establishing close friendships if they do not find the friendship environment in the organisation sincere. When they cannot find a friend to share their troubled moments and cannot create a relationship network, they may feel loneliness in the social friendship dimension.

Comparison of Means According to Age Variable

The averages of the scales were compared according to the age variable and shown in Table 5.

N= 400	Age	N	\bar{X}	Ss.	F	p*	What is different groups
Organisational Loneliness	1818-25 years old between	90	2,00	0,8463	3,428	0,033	36 + age group is different from others.
	26-35 age	100	2,04	0,8897			
	36 + age	210	2,22	0,8638			
	1818-25 years old between	90	3,48	0, 7339			18 - 25 age group

Job Satisfaction	26-35 age	100	3,61	0,8718	3,216	0,041	is different from others.
	36 + age	210	3,72	0,9249			

If $p < 0,05$, the mean ranks of the groups are statistically different from each other.

Table 5. Comparison of Means According to Age Variable (ANOVA)

According to the findings obtained, it was determined that employees in the 36 + year age group experienced loneliness more than other age groups ($\bar{X}=2,22$). This may be due to the fact that individuals have recently joined the business life and are in the period of adaptation to this business life. Because individuals may have difficulty in establishing relationships when they enter a new environment, and this may make the process of adaptation to working life difficult. In addition to this, it can be concluded that individuals in the age group of 18-25 years feel lonelier at work because they have not fully grasped the rules of business life and are more hesitant to participate in various activities organised in the organisation.

Comparison of Means According to Education Level Variable

The averages of the scales were compared according to the level of education and shown in Table 6.

According to the findings obtained, it was determined that the organisational loneliness levels of employees with postgraduate education level were higher in the dimension of emotional deprivation according to their own perceptions. As the level of education increases, employees' feelings of loneliness increase.

Table 6. Comparison of Means According to Level of Education (ANOVA)

N= 400	Education Status	N	\bar{X}	Ss.	F	p*	What is different groups
Emotional Deprivation	High School	81	2,13	0,9321	3,917	0,009	The postgraduate is different from the others.
	Associate degree	75	2,00	0,8994			
	Licence	130	2,04	0,8621			
	Postgraduate	114	2,19	0,8538			
Job Satisfaction	High School	81	3,45	0,9199	3,118	0,026	The associate degree is different from the others.
	Associate degree	75	3,79	0,8324			
	Licence	130	3,61	0,8642			
	Postgraduate	114	3,55	0,8088			

If $p < 0,05$, there is a difference between the means of the groups.

When the averages of job satisfaction according to educational status are compared, it is seen that associate degree graduates have higher job satisfaction than the others (Ss. 0,9199). The reason for this situation may be that associate degree graduates graduate with a certain professional qualification, they start their professional life earlier thanks to these professional skills and in parallel with this, they are more senior than other employees.

Comparison of Means According to Sector of Employment Variable

In order to determine whether there is a significant difference in the job satisfaction levels of the participants according to the sector they work in, t-test was applied. The findings related to this analysis are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Comparison of Means According to Sector of Employment (t-Test)

N=400	Sector worked in	N	\bar{X}	T	p*
Job Satisfaction	Public Sector	270	3,71	3,444	,001*
	Private Sector	130	3,50		

If *p < 0,05, there is a difference between the means of the groups.

According to the results of the analysis, job satisfaction levels of individuals working in the public sector are higher than those working in the private sector (\bar{X} =3,71). This situation can be explained by the fact that employees in the public sector are more intrinsically motivated due to reasons such as the fact that employee rights and job security are clearly secured in the legal framework and working conditions are better structured in the public sector.

Comparison of Means According to Position Variable

In order to determine the job satisfaction levels of the participants according to the position in the workplace, t-test analysis was performed and the results of the analysis are shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Comparison of Means According to Position at Workplace (t-Test)

N=400	Position	N	\bar{X}	t	p
Job Satisfaction	Administrator	284	3,86	-4,388	,000*
	Ast	116	3,53		

If *p < 0,05, there is a difference between the means of the groups.

According to the result obtained, job satisfaction of individuals working in managerial positions is higher than those working in subordinate positions (\bar{X} =3,86). This finding can be explained by the fact that managers are provided with more opportunities such as progress, development, promotion, participation in decisions and high wages.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Results

In this study, the relationship between organisational loneliness and job satisfaction was examined. Below are the results obtained on the basis of the findings obtained from the research and various suggestions for these results.

While the averages for job satisfaction were high, the averages for organisational loneliness and its sub-dimensions were low. It can be said that the participants have a low level of loneliness perception based on their answers to the scale of loneliness in work life. In organisational life, it is important for employees to feel peaceful and happy both for themselves and for the organisation they work for. As a result of the absence of such an environment in the workplace, employees' job satisfaction, motivation and performance decreases. Likewise, employees who feel lonely may be reluctant to communicate and share things with other employees. For this reason, it is a positive result that employees working in public and private sector organisations have a low level of loneliness, and some practices should be applied to reduce loneliness in general. Determining the cause of loneliness is the first step to be taken in this way. For example, if the individual does not like to work alone, he/she can be included in a group. Communication channels can be made more easily accessible so that employees can easily express their feelings and thoughts. Such practices can reduce feelings of loneliness at both organisational and individual levels.

Significant and negative relationships were found between job satisfaction and organisational loneliness and its sub-dimensions. In other words, as the feelings of loneliness in the organisation increase, employees' job satisfaction level decreases. One of the main effects of loneliness in organisational life on employees is the decrease in job satisfaction. While there is an increase in the sense of failure in employees with a feeling of loneliness, there is also a decrease in job satisfaction. In fact, the increase in feelings of loneliness in the workplace can even lead to quitting the job due to the continuous low level of job satisfaction.

As a result of the analysis, a negative and significant relationship was found between social friendship, which is a sub-dimension of organisational loneliness, and job satisfaction. Individuals who experience loneliness in terms of social friendship have limited number of friends in the organisation and poor communication with their friends.

An employee who feels loneliness in the social friendship dimension feels excluded and cannot see himself/herself as a member of a group. These individuals may engage in behaviours contrary to organisational rules. Therefore, loneliness that may be experienced in the social friendship dimension in public and/or private sector workplaces negatively affects employees' ability to communicate and leads to a decrease in job performance, job success and ultimately job satisfaction.

As a result of the analyses conducted to compare the averages according to the demographic characteristics of the employees, while the organisational loneliness perceptions of the employees did not differ according to gender, sector of employment and position in the workplace, the job satisfaction levels of the participants differed according to the sector of employment and position. In the comparisons made according to age, marital status and educational status, differences were observed between the averages of both organisational loneliness perceptions and job satisfaction of the participants.

4.2. Discussion

As a result of the research, situations such as not having a sincere relationship with others in the organisation, individuals feeling restless and anxious in the organisation, and thinking that they are excluded cause employees to feel emotionally lonely and reduce their job satisfaction. There is a negative and significant relationship between social friendship, another sub-dimension of organisational loneliness, and job satisfaction. Individuals who do not feel belonging to a group in the organisation, who do not participate in the activities organised by the organisation, who cannot find someone to spend their free time and spend time together, feel lonely in terms of social friendship and thus their job satisfaction levels decrease.

The findings obtained as a result of this research and the studies that reached similar results in the literature are explained below. According to the results of the study conducted by Yelboğa (2007), there is a negative relationship between loneliness in work life and job satisfaction. In other words, an increase in loneliness in work life decreases job satisfaction. According to the results of the analysis conducted by Tabanlı (2016) to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and workplace loneliness, it was determined that there was a negative and significant relationship between the sub-dimensions of loneliness at work and job satisfaction. In other words, the increase in the feeling of loneliness at work decreases job satisfaction. As a result of the study conducted by Koçak (2017) on administrative employees of Mersin University, there is an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and loneliness in work life. Erdirençelebi, Ertürk (2018) concluded that there is a negative relationship between organisational loneliness and job satisfaction as a result of their study conducted in two different public banks. Each sub-dimension of organisational loneliness has a negative relationship with job satisfaction. Accordingly, employees' feeling of loneliness causes a decrease in job satisfaction. Kayaalp (2019) conducted a study on Hitit University administrative staff to determine the effect of workplace loneliness on job and life satisfaction and found that workplace loneliness negatively affects job and life satisfaction. According to the result of the research conducted by Gafa, Dikmenli (2019) with teachers, there is a high level and significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and loneliness in work life. According to the findings obtained as a result of the research conducted by Gümüş Dönmez (2019), it was revealed that emotional loneliness negatively affects job satisfaction, that is, employees' feeling emotionally lonely reduces their job satisfaction. Dönmez and Kılıç (2021) conducted a study with hotel employees to determine the relationship between perceived organisational support, workplace loneliness and job satisfaction and found a negative and significant relationship between emotional loneliness, which is a sub-dimension of loneliness in business life, and job satisfaction. Koçak, Tunç (2020) conducted a study to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and loneliness in working life and determined that there is a negative relationship between loneliness in working life and job satisfaction. As employees' feelings of loneliness increase, their job satisfaction levels decrease.

As a result of this research, it was concluded that organisational loneliness has a low level and negative effect on job satisfaction.

Erdirençelebi, Ertürk (2018) found that organisational loneliness negatively affects job satisfaction as a result of their study to determine the effect of employees' perceptions of organisational loneliness on job satisfaction. Gümüş Dönmez (2019) determined that the effect of emotional loneliness on job satisfaction is negative and at a low level as a result of his study with hotel employees in order to determine the mediating role of workplace loneliness in job satisfaction. The results obtained from these studies are similar to the findings of our research.

As a result of the research, it was determined that the mean organisational loneliness of the employees showed a significant difference especially in the social friendship dimension, and single employees experienced more loneliness in the organisation than married individuals. Single individuals may have difficulty in establishing close friendships if they do not find the friendship environment in the organisation sincere. When they cannot find a friend to share their troubled moments and cannot create a relationship network, they may feel loneliness in the dimension of social friendship. Many studies in the literature are in parallel with our research. Kaplan (2011) determined in his study with teachers that the mean scores of loneliness at work of single teachers were significantly higher than married teachers. According to the research findings of Yılmaz, Aslan (2019), a significant difference was observed between marital status and loneliness at work in the social friendship dimension. Accordingly, single employees feel more lonely in the organisation. Koçak (2020) concluded that single employees have higher loneliness levels than married employees. According to Gün's (2006) research findings, divorced widows have higher feelings of loneliness. When job satisfaction averages according to marital status are analysed, it is found that married employees have higher job satisfaction and are more satisfied with their jobs than single employees. The reason for this may be that married employees are obliged to continue working due to some responsibilities. In addition, positive family relationships of married employees may have a positive effect on job satisfaction. Geyik (2016), in his thesis study to determine the job satisfaction levels of the personnel working in the Directorate of Youth Services and Sports, found that the job satisfaction of married employees was higher than single individuals. The current study is consistent with our study.

Different results were obtained in the studies on the differentiation of organisational loneliness according to age variable. Çiftçi, Dikmenli (2015), Demirbaş, Haşit (2015), Yakut, Sertel (2016) determined that the level of loneliness increases with age and loneliness scores differ significantly in the 50-59 age range.

In the study conducted by Kaplan (2011), it was determined that employees in the 20-25 age group experienced more loneliness in business life and their feelings of loneliness increased as the age level decreased.

4.3. Recommendations

In the light of this information, the following suggestions can be made.

- It should be ensured that the new members of the organisation adopt the policy of the organisation and the rules within the organisation thoroughly.
- Newly recruited employees should be provided with professional and technical support by managers and other individuals who have been working in the organisation for a long time. Support from managers and colleagues is an important issue in reducing employees' feelings of loneliness.
- Managers should give importance to the opinions of subordinates and allow them to take initiative and participate in decision-making processes.
- The existence of ways of communication where employees can freely express their opinions without any fear, the inclusion of timid individuals in a group by conducting group work frequently, and the organisation of various training seminars for the development of communication skills can reduce feelings of loneliness.
- Managers should adopt a fair approach among employees. Being fair among the employees can reduce their feelings of loneliness by increasing their trust in their organisations and managers.
- In order to establish close relations among the employees and to enable them to get to know each other better, various social activities can be organised inside and outside the organisation and the participation of the employees in these activities can be encouraged.
- Ensuring job satisfaction is a necessity for all organisations. Because ensuring job satisfaction brings organisational success. In order to ensure job satisfaction, a rigid management style should be avoided.
- Employees should be paid in proportion to their work and wage payments should be made on time.
- Establishing support units in the organisation for the solution of problems that individuals may encounter in both work and family life can reduce the dissatisfaction caused by these problems.
- Managers in the organisation should adopt a supportive approach for employees to fulfil their family responsibilities. For example, providing crèche services for employees with young children.
- Facilitative steps should be taken for career progression, especially for women employees.

Reference

- Aktaş, C.E. (2019). Investigation of the Relationship between Job Satisfaction, Emotional Labour and Corporate Reputation on Banking Sector Employees within the Framework of Cognitive Dissonance Theory. Istanbul Marmara University Institute of Social Sciences, Unpublished Master's Thesis.
- Aslan, M. and Açıroğlu, A. (2014). Teachers' Views on Organisational Commitment in Schools, *International Journal of Social Science*, 11-1: 30-44.
- Çiftçi, T. and Dikmenli, Y. (2015). Investigation of Geography Teachers' Job Satisfaction and Loneliness Levels

- in Work Life. *Journal of Academic Social Research*, 3-21: 142-160
- Demirbaş, B. and Haşit, G. (2016). Loneliness at Work and Its Effect on Turnover Intention: An Application on Academicians. *Anadolu University Journal of Social Sciences*, 16-1: 137-158.
- Deniz, D. and Ünsal, P. (2010). The Role of Extraverted and Neurotic Personality Structures and Gender in Workplace Intimidation. *İş-Güç: Journal of Industrial Relations and Human Resources*, 12-1: 32-44.
- Erdirencelebi, M. and Ertürk, E. (2018). The Effects of Employees' Perception of Organisational Loneliness on Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention. *Gaziantep University Journal of Social Sciences*, 17-2: 603-618.
- Gafa, İ. & Dikmenli, Y. (2019). Investigation of Classroom Teachers' Job Satisfaction and Loneliness Levels in Work Life. *Ahi Evran University Journal of Institute of Social Sciences*, 5-1, 131-150.
- Geyik, Y. (2016). Investigation of the Job Satisfaction Levels of the Personnel Working in the Provincial Directorate of Youth Services and Sports in Terms of Different Variables. Balıkesir University Institute of Social Sciences, Master's Thesis.
- Gümüş Dönmez, F. (2019). The Mediating Role of Workplace Loneliness in the Relationship between Perceived Organisational Support and Job Satisfaction: The Case of 4 and 5 Star Hotel Employees. Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University Institute of Social Sciences, Doctoral Thesis.
- Gün, F. (2006). The Sense of Loneliness in Urban Culture. Ankara University Institute of Social Sciences, Unpublished Master's Thesis.
- Kaplan, M. S. (2011). Investigation of Teachers' Feelings of Loneliness in the Workplace in terms of Organisational Trust Level in Schools and Some Variables (Master's Thesis) Selçuk University Institute of Educational Sciences, Konya.
- Kayaalp, E. (2019). The Relationship of Teachers' Perceptions of Organisational Silence, Organisational Loneliness and Alienation with Organisational Cynicism Levels. Fırat University Institute of Educational Sciences, Unpublished Master's Thesis.
- Kılıç, A. S. (2021). The Relationship Between Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction: The Case of Elazığ Municipality Fire Brigade Directorate. Munzur University. Master Thesis.
- Koçak, E. and Tunç, B. (2020). Job Satisfaction and Loneliness in Working Life: A Research on Mersin University Administrative Employees. *Manas Journal of Social Research*, 9-4: 2092-2112
- Metel, A. H. (2021). Evaluation of the Relations between Social Kaytarma, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment in Health Institutions, [Unpublished Master's Thesis], Hacettepe University, Institute of Social Sciences, Ankara.
- Özyıldırım, G. and Kayıkçı, K. (2019). Development of Organisational Loneliness Scale and Investigation of Organisational Loneliness of Provincial Education Inspectors. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy University Journal of Faculty of Education*, 52: 137-164.
- Şişman, M. and Turan, S. (2004). Job Satisfaction and Social - Emotional Loneliness Levels of Employees in Terms of Some Organisational Variables. *Osmangazi University Journal of Social Sciences*, 1, 119-120.
- Tabancalı, E. (2016). The Relationship Between Teachers' Job Satisfaction and Loneliness at The Workplace. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 66: 263-280.
- Wright S.L, & Burt C.D.B., Strongman, K.T. (2006). Loneliness in the workplace: Construct definition and scale development, *NZ J Psychology*, 35(2), 59-68.
- Yakut, S. and Certel, H. (2016). Investigation of Loneliness Level in Teachers in Terms of Various Variables. *Journal of Individual and Society Social Sciences*, 6-11: 69-93.
- Yakut, S. and Certel, H. (2016). Examining the level of loneliness in teachers in terms of various variables. *Journal of Individual and Society Social Sciences*, 6(1): 69-94.
- Yelboğa, A. (2007). Investigation of the Relationship between Individual Demographic Variables and Job Satisfaction in the Finance Sector. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 4-2: 2007.
- Yılmaz, F. (2019). The Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction: An Application at Bayburt University. *Iğdır University Journal of Social Sciences* (17), 533-556.
- Yımal, A. ve Kalkan, F. & Çakıcı, M. (2022). A qualitative study on violence against women and the impact of printed media in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. *Alpha psychiatry*, 23(3), 128.

REALIZING THE IMPORTANCE OF COURSE DESIGN THROUGH RAPID AND FREQUENT MODIFICATIONS IN INSTRUCTIONAL MODALITY

Roushdy Al-Shawwa

Assistant Director of IT Service Management, NYU Shanghai, China, roushdy.shawwa@ghyth.com
ORCID: 0000-0002-8091-8182

Rodolfo Cossovich, MFA

Assistant Arts Professor, NYU Shanghai, China, todocono@gmail.com
ORCID: 0000-0003-3979-8737

Yinmiao Li, MS

Doctoral Student, Northwestern University, USA, yinmiaoLi2027@u.northwestern.edu
ORCID: 0000-0001-9570-3961

Jace Hargis, PhD

Associate Vice President Academics, University of Doha Science and Technology, Qatar,
jace.hargis@gmail.com
ORCID: 0000-0002-9372-2533

ABSTRACT

At the beginning of the pandemic, universities implemented a variety of learning modalities to offer learning experiences. Many approaches attempted to help students who may have difficulties attending classes on-campus. The university implemented a mixed-mode (MM) approach to teaching and learning. The aim of this research is to operationalize, share outcomes and connect MM to the literature and practice. The research aims at providing a better understanding of how the model impacts the academic experience in the perspective of the faculty and students. A course using a MM of delivery is one that is delivered in a combination of online and on-campus instruction. In MM, students who are in an on-campus class can communicate with students in an online class via teleconferencing, allowing them to collaborate with each other and engage in the course material with each other. Ultimately, most faculty did not use the sophisticated technology purchased to support the mixed-mode approach. Through many conversations between colleagues, students and IT staff, it was clear that the majority of the faculty ranked their preference for instruction as F2F as the most preferred; online teaching second; and at a distant third, mixed-mode.

Keywords: Classroom Technology, Mixed-mode, Online Teaching, Course Design, Distance Learning

INTRODUCTION

The context for our study was a comprehensive liberal arts Sino-American University. Students spend up to two semesters at study away campuses across the world, which is critical to the University's objective of developing globally-minded individuals. The University has less than 1500 undergraduate and graduate students, half of whom are from China and the other half from 70 other nations. The university is staffed by faculty members from 27 countries teaching mathematics, data science, neuroscience, and finance. The technology teams are structured into two groups. The first group is called Research and Instructional Technology Services, who provide technology assistance for teaching, learning, and scholarly pursuits. The second technology group is the IT Services unit whose technology experts in Servers, Network, Cloud, Multimedia, Development and Service Design build and maintain the datacenter, technological infrastructure and make sure the campus is integrated with other global campuses.

In the Fall 2020, restrictions over international flights were imposed globally, which impacted the ability of students to attend classes on-campus. Therefore, a large number of the student body were not able to return physically to the campus. Academic units along with technology departments discussed the potential of digitizing the on-campus experience by implementing a digital teleconference technology into the classroom allowing two-way communication. This mode of involves using a classroom digital camera to transmit activities to online students, while the camera and audio of online students are broadcasted on a large monitor display in the classroom. Technology departments created several iterations of design and training, in addition to offering several classroom technologists on stand-by to support the faculty operating the technology in their classrooms.

For this study, we will discuss and connect the following methods for applying technology into higher education classrooms. Each technology approach will be aligned with a theoretical framework and current literature, resulting in specific instructional strategies deployed.

- How mixed methods of integrating various technology affect the quality of instruction
- Instructional Environment/Ecosystem;

- Classroom management and dynamics for using each technology;
- Instructor prior/during/after beliefs, perceptions and motivations; and
- What technology was the most and least effective.

In addition, we noted various attributes for exploring effective teaching and learning in various modalities throughout the project, which included:

- Scenarios where some or all of the students are online and in-person influences factors that plays key roles in the teaching quality;
- Context of the knowledge designed for face-to-face (F2F) may not translate efficiently for alternate modes of instruction (especially without additional training on how to design courses for different settings);
- Classroom design and changes to adopt to classroom, and number of total students participated in the design and implementation stage;
- Feedback received (from students, instructors and IT staff);
- Course enrollment in mixed mode for each semester detailing the number of students (and instructors) who were F2F or online (and if online, which timezone);
- Student engagements (indicators used to judge level of engagement);
- Misconceptions of classroom design as technology solutions without consideration of course design;
- Student expectations for each of the proposed learning environments; and
- Common misconceptions formed by stakeholders between mixed-mode and hybrid learning.

METHODS AND LITERATURE REVIEW

This study adopted a systematic review methodology to connect (I) research-based learning modes with the (II) current literature; (III) applied technology and (IV) instructors' pedagogy. There are many ways we can create and offer learning opportunities and in several different types of environments or modes. Numerous teaching modalities have been developed over the years, some include (alphabetically) Blended, Computer-based, Correspondence, Digital, Distance, Distributed, e-Learning, Flipped, Hybrid, m-Learning, Massive Open Online Course (MOOC), Mixed-Mode (contemporary), Mixed-Mode (historical), Online, Virtual and Web-based. In addition to connecting the literature, technology and pedagogy, in this project, we share operational definitions of major learning modes; ideas for implementing mixed mode instruction; challenges for mixed mode instruction; and corresponding outcomes.

SECTION I. INSTRUCTIONAL MODALITIES

The Spring term of 2020 witnessed a pivotal shift in educational methodologies across the globe. Faculties were universally urged to quickly adapt their in-person courses to an online format, setting the stage for an unprecedented era of remote learning. Discussions of how we might best interact with students during these times were paramount and continue today. The follow represent options which are typically discussed when considering alternate instructional modalities (Maloney & Kim, 2020):

- **Face-to-face (F2F):** This traditional form of education takes place when both the students and the instructor are present simultaneously at a shared physical location. [note: research that has been compiled on this approach has often shown a lecture, linear approach to be ineffective for sustained, deep learning (Wiggins, 2017)].
- **Start online and transition to F2F:** If courses are delayed due to continued health challenges around the world (which as we now know, returning to 'normal' was/is delayed).
- **Start F2F and transition to Online:** This approach is adopted in anticipation of a potential second wave of COVID-19. Most universities chose not to plan for this occasion, instead incorporating temporary plans and waiting for normal to return.
- **Fully Online:** In case the pandemic persists; or institutions do not have the resources to offer F2F programs which would provide a safe environment for students - or that students perceive the conditions did not meet their criteria for safety. Additional variables for potential online learning encompassed the accelerated timeframe; the high volume of faculty and students affected; inadequate infrastructure; a dearth of experience in online pedagogy; unexplored attitudes and perceptions towards virtual instruction (encompassing elements like faculty self-efficacy and students' aptitude for autonomous learning); and for some, significant time zone discrepancies among students.
- **Blended (BL)/Hybrid:** This teaching style is a fusion of face-to-face (F2F) and online methodologies. Garrison and Kanuka (2004) interpret BL as a considered harmonization of in-person learning and online experiences. Through an exhaustive 2015 meta-study named "Blended Learning Over Two Decades", Zhonggen evaluated 30 articles to examine the concept, merits, and issues of BL, concluding that an innovative shift in pedagogy towards a blended model could be beneficial for institutions. The analysis identified several key insights on BL, including:

- BL allows for a varied emphasis on different instructional strategies, encouraging educators to devise courses that incorporate diverse teaching methodologies (Carbonell, Dailey-Hebert & Gijsselaers, 2013);
- It underscores interaction as an engaged process that prompts learners to actively participate, rather than merely receive information passively (Dias & Diniz, 2013);
- Improved BL methodologies can progressively refine pedagogy, effectuating significant shifts in educational paradigms (Graham, 2006);
The extent of teachers' self-efficacy in internet usage and web-based learning plays a crucial role in shaping their attitudes towards web-based instructional development (Kao & Tsai, 2009);
- The incorporation of interactive learning activities within a BL environment proves effective in assisting students to attain their learning objectives (Kember, McNaught, Chong, Lam & Cheng, 2010).
- **Lab Considerations:** As much as possible F2F (e.g., lab courses, studios, discussion sections, etc.), and offer the remainder of the course online. Virtual labs could include [American Chemical Society](#), [Labster](#), Harvard's [LabXchange](#), and CSU's [MERLOT](#).
- **Additional Sections:** Hold multiple sections of the same class at the same day/time in smaller numbers in different rooms to maintain social distancing (and/or teach the same class four times in a row to ¼ of the students enrolled).
- **Large Classes:** Move all large lecture classes to an online format; hold small enrollment classes F2F with social distancing.
- **Targeted Curriculum:** By reducing the quantity of offered courses, campus density can be limited and support resources can be focused primarily on essential courses or distinctive experience classes. This strategy may involve postponing low-enrollment courses and giving preference to those that can be flexibly adapted to various modalities.
- **Divided Curriculum:** Courses are deliberately architected as either in-person or online offerings. Whenever feasible, each class is provided in two sections to cater to varying learner needs and preferences.
- **Block Module:** This model has students concentrate on a single course at a time for a condensed duration of 3-4 weeks. These intensive sessions or blocks are lined up back-to-back throughout the entire semester, offering increased flexibility.
- **Hybrid-Flexible (HyFlex) Module:** Courses are delivered via face-to-face and online modes simultaneously, steered by the same instructor either synchronously or asynchronously based on student preference. This model generally leans towards synchronous learning and to execute it effectively, it often necessitates real-time classroom assistance, a purposefully structured classroom environment, and a hefty amount of patience.
- **Adapted Tutorial Approach:** This model involves students attending a shared online lecture, followed by faculty-led tutorial sessions with smaller groups, thus facilitating social distancing. Unlike the HyFlex model, this adapted tutorial approach doesn't necessitate additional in-class assistance. However, it might require a significant investment of time from faculty members.
- **Mixed-mode:** This is a combination of various modes. Modules were developed at such a rapid speed during the pandemic. As such there was no adequate research or evidence to assist the faculty in developing an efficient course design.
 - Mixed-mode (as per our IT department) uses a specially designed classroom that enables students to engage both physically and remotely in the same course concurrently. The technology allows two-way communication and aims to increase student engagement. The faculty, in-person and remote participants can all communicate with each other simultaneously. The class technology allows the classroom to be recorded for asynchronous, or note taking, while the artificial intelligence (AI) technology allows auto-switch, track and zoom-in/out between the lecturer and students to trace and broadcast it to the remote students and keep it focused on the active participant(s).

SECTION II. CONNECT TO CURRENT LITERATURE

As a combination of different modes, mixed-mode modality adds an additional layer of complexity, since it incorporates F2F and online modes, synchronous and asynchronous aspects. As a starting point for further discussion of mixed-mode learning, we would like to borrow some insights from the literature on HyFlex regarding challenges and design implications. Beatty (2020) identified four pillars of the HyFlex modality:

- **Principle 1 - Learner Choice.** Learners choose the mode of participation for each class based on their preferences and their best suitability (Wang & Hargis, 2021).
- **Principle 2 - Equivalency.** No matter which modes learners choose, they all have learning activities “leading to equivalent learning outcomes (Gourneau & Smart, 2022).”

- **Principle 3 - Reusability.** The learning activities from different modes could be accessed and reused as resources for learning.
- **Principle 4 - Accessibility.** Students have the technological competence to access learning activities in each mode in order to facilitate students' choice of learning, as well as to enhance the reusability of learning resources.

A number of students faced barriers during the pandemic, including technological limitations and mental health challenges resulting from housing and financial conditions, anxiety about the pandemic, difficulty adapting to changes in the course, and lack of motivation and focus during online learning (Gillis & Krull, 2020). Specifically related to the challenges faced by students with the teaching modality, according to Bubacz et al. (2021), online or hybrid learning posed problems in facilitating teacher-student and peer-to-peer interactions, as well as encouraging students' active participation and involvement. In the online learning mode, students experienced self-teaching as they spent more time reviewing instructional materials and attempting to figure things out on their own. Additionally, students' learning experiences were negatively impacted by audio-visual delays and video quality (Bubacz et al., 2021).

Though moving to different learning modality is challenging, there is potential to bring in students' engagements and resolve technological issues if schools and educators draw attention to course design and classroom technology (Gillis & Krull, 2020; Bubacz et al., 2021). To implement HyFlex principles suggested by Beatty (2020), we reviewed literature in classroom technology and course design to further investigate the role they play in mixed-mode learning.

Mixed-Mode and Classroom Technology: Due to the pandemic, the widespread rapid transition to distance learning presents challenges for the di Numerous pre-pandemic studies explore the use of information and communication technologies (ICTs) due to their adaptability, accessibility, convenience, and practicality. (Shen & Ho, 2020; Hue & Jalil, 2013; Marcelo-García et al., 2015). The initial rise of classroom integrating technology is to enhance the learning experience by designing and presenting content knowledge and the execution of instructional methodologies (Marcelo-García et al., 2015). The types of technology include materials delivery platforms such as PowerPoint, communication software platforms such as Zoom, Google Meet and Microsoft Team. Other collaborative sharing and organizing platforms were also used such as Google Classroom, Google Suite, social media platforms, blog posts and podcasts. The implementation of cloud services were integrated to encourage active engagement by collecting feedback, as well as e-learning platforms that support personalized learning, and augmented reality that enables students to immerse in novel learning experiences (Shelton, 2013; Marcelo-García et al., 2015; Dudar et al., 2021; Lyakhova, 2020).

The pandemic's worldwide impact requires technology to be utilized more effectively across all industries. The challenges of incorporating technologies into course design lie in the use of appropriate and relevant technology that can support the course and be acceptable to students, the instructors' varied attitudes towards technology, the high expectation of both students and teachers to master technology, and the provision of comprehensive technology training (Popova, 2020; Rasheed et al., 2020; Hue & Jalil, 2013). In addition, Makarenya et al. noted that communication technologies such as Zoom and Microsoft Team are insufficient to facilitate long-term distance learning (Makarenya et al., 2020). The objective of classroom technology should be so revolutionary that it not only serves as a replacement for traditional in-person learning, but also facilitates the creation of new activities (Makarenya et al., 2020; Puenteduro, 2006).

Mixed-mode learning requires a more selective deployment of technology that needs to support the online students, and also the interaction between classroom participants and online students. This would demand a greater level of technical proficiency from both students and instructors. In Addition, the pandemic constraints and logistic challenges the technology blueprint was designed as general as possible to accommodate different course needs.

Course Design under Mixed-Mode: Under normal circumstances and with an abundance of resources, an effective course design supports the creation of engaging learning environments and the improvements of students' performances regardless of the teaching modality (Black et al., 2014; Swan, 2010; Moon et al., 2021; Yuan et al., 2022). As a result of instructors' reflections, Yuan et al. (2022) suggests that while shifting from F2F to online learning, it is important to maintain the academic objectives and follow the backward design concept which identifies the expected learning outcomes first, and then designs the assessments and instructions with the outcomes in mind (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). There is, however, a need to modify assessments and instructional design so that students can interact with teachers and their peers in time and that mental stress due to the pandemic and teaching modality change can be reduced (Yuan et al., 2022).

According to Gillis and Krull (2020), a comparative study of two online course designs identified three design implications relating to the theme of; “Balanced Interaction, Enjoyment, and Accessibility”. Based on students’ responses to a survey regarding their perceptions of instructional techniques:

- To achieve a successful online teaching experience, autonomy needs to be given to students for determining their schedules and learning activities, along with flexibility on deadlines, but at the same time, an organized course structure should encourage them to complete learning events and keep on track.
- Increase the engagement between students, as the instructors facilitate peer interaction in class, so that they could help each other if they have some questions or need clarification during class.
- Students should have timely communication with faculty members. A supportive online learning environment and communication platform would help students ask questions without fear and maintain motivation.

Calafiore and Giudici’s study (2021) compared and evaluated students’ performance in hybrid and Hyflex mode introductory finance classes. Most participants were “non-traditional students,” meaning that some were from the industry and have been out of school for some time. The only difference between the two groups is the delivery mode. Both groups were provided with the same learning outcomes, activities, assessments, instructors, and content. The results of the study showed that the mode of delivery had no effect on the performance of the students. However, the researchers noted that students in the Hyflex group prepared for tests by reviewing recorded lectures. Landin and Pacenka (2021) noted that, despite the fact that some online student response platforms (such as Padlet and Kahoot) made it easier for instructors to relocate traditional formative evaluations online, summative exams have become difficult since instructors cannot guarantee academic integrity. Therefore, the authors suggested that educators could add more formative assessments. As an example, instructors could incorporate “on-camera engagement” to increase student engagement in lectures and discussions (Landin & Pacenka, 2021). In reference to Fuller et.al (2020), as well as Titarenko and Little (2021), Landin and Pacenka (2021) also emphasized the importance of personalized learning and student-centered learning environments (Beatty, 2019) especially in the online settings.

SECTION III. APPLIED TECHNOLOGY

Ideally, Mixed Mode teaching should require instructors to attend at least one training session and adjust the course design as required. In this approach, students either participate remotely (synchronously or asynchronously) or in person at the institution. It is crucial to be familiar with the various tools the institution provides to help ensure that remote and on-site students receive quality education. Faculty should also be able to teach effectively and comfortably in this setting. Our Mixed-mode classroom design has three main elements, comprised of three to six items each:

- **Multimedia**, which includes the 1) AI Cameras, 2) speakers, 3) ceiling and handheld microphones, 4) computer, 5) tablet which acts as a shared whiteboard, and 6) monitor(s) that display the remote participants and allow them to interact with the on-site group;
- **Controller**, which plays a role of 1) integrating and controlling multimedia components, 2) managing the digital videos layout and quality, and 3) resizing the different video feeds to make them more transferable for the conferencing tool; and
- **Conferencing Platform**, a popular third party conferencing tool such as Zoom video conferencing, the platform contains a solid infrastructure with datacenter distributed across the globe, and has the ability to broadcast video and audio in two-ways communication with a very low latency.

Classroom Design: The classrooms were physically re-designed to fulfill different academic needs. There are several designs for the mixed-mode classroom, which are focused on a principle that allows two-way communication between in-person and remote students. Faculty, in-person and remote students will be able to see one another via two cameras (one facing the faculty, one facing the in-person students) set up on a classroom computer running Zoom teleconferencing. Remote students’ cameras are displayed on a 70” monitor located on the wall facing the in-person students. In some scenarios, the student in the classroom may join the same teleconference session to form a working group with the remote student. The faculty has two monitors mounted on the desk, one displaying the remote students with no need to turn around, while the other displaying the content presented to the students. With the AI camera enabled, the camera will track the faculty and auto-focus into the whiteboard while the faculty is writing on it. The camera will continue to focus leveraging the space where the remote-student can observe the faculty body language, and the text written on the whiteboard. The faculty may also choose to add an extra tablet with a smart pen as a whiteboard which will be presented for remote students and projected in the classroom. The faculty may add an extra laptop to display other materials where in-person and remote students are viewing the same materials.

For cases where the faculty will use the classroom with a presentation, without whiteboard, the same presentation

will be broadcasted for in-person and remote students. While the AI camera will track the faculty movement and capture body language, the ceiling microphone will broadcast the instructor's voice in a high quality to the remote-students. Faculty are expected to make minor adjustments to the course design to incorporate technology, without making any core changes to the course materials or learning objectives.

Operating the Classroom: Faculty received demonstrations and training on the mixed-mode technology. A dedicated technical team helped to set up the room in advance. The IT group tested the technology to ensure its functionality. Each classroom is equipped with an emergency landline telephone that can be used to call support in case of an unexpected event. The technician troubleshoots the classroom remotely, or in-person within three to five minutes. Each classroom received a daily check to make sure all equipment is functioning.

The integration between ceiling microphone, speakers and the AI cameras, provides the online students can enjoy a more immersive classroom experience. Faculty and students (in-classroom and online) can maintain visual contact with each other with several new technology additions. These include digital correction of the ceiling microphone arrays, digital handheld and lapel microphones to improve classroom sound while avoiding sound echos, and extra monitors to improve user experience for both online and in-person students.

SECTION IV. INSTRUCTION

In this section, we will connect theory, literature and available technology to the application and challenges of instruction. Categories of Learning Environment, Course Design and Student Engagement will be used to organize the ideas.

Learning Environment: The years 2020 and 2021 impacted teaching and learning conditions worldwide, nevertheless China kept most of their institutions open with Covid-19 policy and restrictions applied. During 2022 the same strict policies created unmatched circumstances for students and instructors. In higher education course planning typically requires at least 12 months in advance and for a new course. A submission for review to the curriculum committee is required about six months in advance. However, during the COVID-19 emergency stage, in early 2020, education institutes in China were one of the first to transition to remote learning, the pandemic restrictions added time stress where in many occasions the instructors had as little as ten day notice of course policy changes and less than 24 hours notice of whether we will have access to the campus.

In March 2022, the Omicron variant arrived in the part of China where our university is located, which renewed the emergency status and forced a lockdown to the city where logistics was suspended. The pandemic developed rapidly, challenging the healthcare system and bringing a level of uncertainty. Public health took the highest priority of daily life, where social volunteers perform Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) testing on a daily basis for a city of over 25 million population. Every resident was required to take a daily PCR test, where volunteers will knock on the door to notify people. In addition, the residents members worked consistently leveraging the resources provided by their companies and local communities to secure their basic needs from food, water and medicals.

The academic community focus was divided between the academic obligation and their personal safety. On a daily basis, the instructor and students will answer the volunteers' calls for the PCR tests. Regularly, at least one student (or instructor) is called for the PCR test. Taking the PCR is efficient, however the whole process, including waiting in a queue can take 20 minutes or longer.

The university staff and students received support from the school, colleagues and the community personnel. We realized that an individuals' health (physical, mental and cognitive) is crucial for their ability to function and engage at a high quality manner. On several occasions, the instructor had no option but to rely on instructor-generated materials only as educational vendors were not allowed to ship, and private cars were not allowed to operate in the city. Attempts were made to digitize the co-curricular events of the classes such as field trips and other community engaged learning. There is ample research that demonstrates the effectiveness of virtual learning (Lee, et al., 2022).

Examples of how these conditions affected students' ability to engage and focus for a sustained amount of time differed greatly. Students from one course reported some of their challenges including being able to procure basic hygiene products. Some students needed mental health support, or access to critical medicine. Despite all these challenges, in addition to external factors such as internet stability, students in the centralized quarantine, the instructors were highly resilient to continue with the academia journey teaching their classes.

Course Design: Faculty were required to teach using mixed-mode methods, with a training focus on the

technology. With the pandemic and logistics challenges, it was difficult for the training to address pedagogy and course design. For lab skill-based learning outcomes, advanced experimentation with electronics was substituted for basic experiences that were performed remotely or simply viewed online. Classes that typically integrate physical robotics, alternative methods using simulations were offered instead. Classes that included learning outcomes such as interpersonal skills and working in groups were asked to perform similar activities online. Courses that were aiming to have students apply knowledge in design frameworks such as Inclusive Design or Co-Design Methodologies used online tools to engage students with other community members.

A significant modification in the Assessment Tools was implemented in the oral presentations for the Project-Based Learning (PBL). Classes originally planned to present physical materials were modified into highly edited videos presenting ideas about what they could have built physically. Instead of presenting functional prototypes, the students were evaluated based on their ability to express how a hypothetical solution could work for their PBL. In terms of the teaching methods adopted by faculty, the pandemic elevated the uncertainty of modality, in some cases instructors were not informed until two hours prior to the class. In addition, different areas may receive different messages from their neighborhood community.

Additional methods that instructors experimented with included flipped classrooms; using physical manipulatives remotely; video threaded conversations; and online collaborative tools for drawing, coding, brainstorming, researching and discussions. What is noteworthy is that faculty consistently indicated that they did NOT use sophisticated technology such as AI-powered cameras, or specially dedicated computers. Many reported that the most used tools were ones that involved low threshold technology such as an extra webcam, illumination, or extra screens, together with a stable internet connection and sufficient time to design their classes. Student response systems such as Kahoot and Poll Everywhere were reported to improve student engagement, the same as video-games, classes held in VR, and co-working virtual digital spaces.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A major outcome of this research is the reaffirmation that successful online teaching does not rely on sophisticated technology. Technology plays an important role while the circle element for successful online teaching is related to how the course has been designed, then integrated with the technology factors and skills the instructors and students have. There is substantial research that indicates effective teaching in any mode has common elements (Angelo & Cross, 1993; Davis, 2009; Uttl, White, & Gonzalez, 2016). The research finds that learning-centered teaching “can be” similar for an online format as for traditional F2F settings. The methods on how we attend, connect, process and apply conceptual frameworks are different. The authors of this research recommend effective instruction typically occurs when we focus on foundational learning theories, whether the context for teaching is F2F, experiential, service, internships, informal settings (museums, aquaria, zoological parks, etc.) online. Often course design will need modifications to capitalize on a different learning ecosystem. Ideally, we might aim to integrate as many of the essential, research-based learning-centered teaching approaches into our online course design:

- Using backwards design to create active, measurable student learning outcomes;
- Implementing learning outcomes to guide student assessment, measurement and evaluation that aligns with active learning experiences;
- Intentional course planning involving far more than deciding on the content that “instructors” cover (instead of the learner “uncovering” or “discovering”);
- Being explicit about how and why you organize the content;
- The instructor's primary role is to facilitate learning, rather than disseminate knowledge;
- Engaging students actively in their learning through interactions with each other and with the instructor;
- The instructor needs to create a supportive environment for success including building rapport (which is even more essential in online learning); and
- Provide timely, helpful formative feedback on student performance.

We will discuss our findings as they relate to the configuration of this project (mode, literature, technology, instruction). In the introduction, we identified various attributes that impact effective teaching and learning. This section focuses on the attributes that were most influenced by our adoption of a Mixed-Mode style of instruction, as implemented by our institution. However, the type of teaching we provided in the beginning and continued for several years was, in fact, emergency remote teaching (ERT). ERT is a temporary switch to remote teaching methods during a crisis. It involves using fully remote teaching solutions for courses that are typically delivered face-to-face or as a blend of online and in-person learning. The goal is not to recreate a complete educational ecosystem but instead to provide temporary access to instruction that is quick to implement and reliably available during an emergency (Hodges, et al., 2020). In this section, we will focus on how the technology was adapted and implemented to address the highly dynamic circumstances at the university where often students and instructors

were not aware of the conditions for instruction until the day prior to class.

The context of the knowledge, skills and dispositions originally designed for F2F learner interactions does not translate across alternate modes of instruction (i.e., mixed-mode); and classroom design and changes to adapt to the classroom. This is especially true in the absence of well-aligned experiences on how to design courses for different settings. In our case, where mixed-mode was quickly adopted, without enough time to properly design and align with the academic course that would use effective practices of teaching. It requires a joint effort between different units including Center of Teaching and Learning Department, and IT experts with solid background in the area of pedagogy/andragogy (in any modality) (Lockard & Hargis, 2017). Evidence to support these assumptions can be found within specific courses and instructor summaries of learner interactions.

Freeman (2015) found that on average, faculty members spend over 70 hours developing an online course. Although faculty were not developing fully online courses, they were significantly modifying their course designs to be more flexible in order to adapt to the mixed-mode requirements and limitations. Standard course design includes at least three components, i.e., Learning Outcomes; Assessment (measurement and evaluation); and Teaching Methods. Data for this study found that for the learning outcomes in a course with lab components found that when working in groups, students needed to support each other online when not in F2F settings; a co-design methodology was implemented to identify ways to engage students online with potential users. Assessment tools were modified substantially as well. Oral presentations were shifted to ask students to create video recording and editing (these required serious editing); presenting a functional prototype where students needed to describe how a hypothetical solution could work; and extenuating circumstances as the new rule.

Teaching Methods were also modified. There was continual uncertainty whether the class will be online or F2F until two hours prior to each class. This meant that the instructor had to prepare multiple representations of how they would engage students in conceptual activities. Suggestions of implementing a “flipped classroom” model were made. The time factor, in addition to the logistics challenges, made it almost impossible to provide any associate training on how to create, deploy or assess the outcomes of this relatively new teaching method.

Course enrollment in mixed-mode for each semester varied significantly. The number of students (and instructors) who interacted F2F or online (and if online, which time zones since there were many international students unable to travel to campus physically). To adopt the mixed-mode teaching, the university spent the summer of 2020 to upgrade and enhance the classroom technologies, installing nearly 300 new devices in 60 classrooms in the main Academic Building. After the pandemic began, students were distributed across 61 nations while waiting for the fall of 2021, when the university began offering 383 out of a total of 556 courses in a “mixed-mode” semester.

As our literature review suggests, the student engagement varied widely, mostly dependent upon their situation (i.e., F2F, online, quarantined, in transit; waiting to travel; home conditions, etc.). Some of the indicators used to judge level of engagement included:

- Video games as a way for students to connect (Classes held in VR, co-working digital spaces, etc.);
- Student response systems (Kahoot and Poll Everywhere); and
- Discussion of student health (mental, physical, emotional health, etc.).

The pandemic's aforementioned circumstances introduced a gap between the technology and the course designer, which resulted in misconceptions throughout the terms about classroom dynamics as a technology solution missing consideration of research-based course design. Data was collected from public-facing university websites:

- “Faculty members shared that it was very important for them to be able to write on a whiteboard, so tracking cameras were added to the mixed-mode classroom.”
- “IT installed new ceiling microphone arrays and digital handheld and lapel microphones to improve classroom sound, and extra monitors and TVs to improve user experience.”

Ultimately, many faculty expressed a similar notion that they **did not use the sophisticated technology to support the mixed-mode approach, or to deliver a successful online teaching experience**. Through many conversations between colleagues, students and IT staff, it was clear that the majority of the faculty ranked their preference for instruction as F2F as the most preferred; online teaching second; and at a distant third, mixed-mode.

Challenges to Mixed Mode Instruction

Beatty (2019) identified four challenges including: 1) manage a multi-modal learning environment, 2) manage resources and workload, 3) enhance the student interaction, and 4) assess learning progression. We will incorporate these into additional ideas below:

1. **Pedagogy, Teaching Methods, Course Design.** If there are no better options, mixed-mode instruction should be more intentional about how can we create an inclusive and accessible environment for ALL students, most of the time. This will require a complete course redesign with the following considerations:
 - The course design takes in consideration the participants' common environment, educational atmosphere and human body language.
 - How we teach will need substantial redesign as we will need to create opportunities for differentiated instruction based on how students are connecting. Active learning in a face-to-face setting can also be applied to online synchronous students through live webcasts. Students receive a clear structure on how to interact individually and then share their work with the group through Google Doc, Jamboard, or other student response systems. They can also collaborate with others in breakout rooms. Whereas creating similar active learning opportunities for students learning online asynchronous will need another approach that offers similar interaction and connections to the concepts as well as community building with other students online and F2F.
 - Timely, critical assessment needs to align with outcomes and methods, measurement and evaluation. Assessment in an online mode is one approach, however, if there are students studying in three different modes, attention to consistent, reliable, valid measurement instruments will need extra attention, most likely assistance from an instructional specialist.
 - We need to maintain the original learning outcomes from those approved by curriculum committees, which for some may be a challenge.
2. **Student Informed Choice.** Some students may be unable to select (or may have no choice due to location, family, cost, etc.) the most effective alternate form of instruction (i.e., students who believe they can learn online, asynchronously, although have low ability to self-regulate their learning). How can we support and inform students (perhaps offering diagnostics on how to learn, self-regulated learning, self-efficacy, technology skills, etc.) as well as advising on study skills, time management, etc.?
3. **Identifying Student Selection.** How do we decide which students (and instructors) are able to select and/or engage with which mode? If this is open, there may be significant challenges with scheduling; if closed, how do we make the decision for allocating students into each mode, plus what happens if students are not able to function in that mode?
4. **Equity, Equity, Equity.** Technology access, instructional resources, interaction, assistance from instructors, formative assessments, response time for answering questions, logistics of hearing/seeing material, participation/attendance (if graded, how will this be equal), instructor presence and approach (how will they not forget the students online while attending to F2F students).
5. **Time.** Mixed-mode will require more of stakeholders' time including an increased workload for instructors (before, during and after term) as well as IT, Academic Affairs, Registrar and Facilities, The reason mixed-mode demands more time;
 - Administering both F2F and online students simultaneously is a formidable task.
 - Maintaining out-of-class interactions with students expecting in-person support, and with students requiring online assistance, might entail a reshuffling of engagement hours.
 - Beatty (2019) work emphasizes that the creation of the course plan and its accompanying materials is a time-intensive process. In fully online courses, there exists a potential disparity in the treatment of online and F2F students, with the former potentially receiving less interaction, relationship-building opportunities, and a sense of community. Therefore, strategic planning should prioritize the establishment of a vibrant learning community that caters to all students, regardless of their mode of learning.

Universities perceive a need for mixed-mode instruction as emergency or temporary measures, recommendations from a grant (TPHE, 2020) suggest to focus on student learning by letting go of:

1. Everyone having to do the same thing at the same time;
2. Classical instructors “covering” the content;
3. The traditional “policing” syllabus;
4. Assignments that invite cheating; and
5. Normal order contact hours.

Instead, the authors suggest:

1. Successful online teaching is beyond technology;
2. Start from academic design and user experience and backwards to technology integration
3. Collaborating with students on their learning;
4. Fostering community and connections that facilitate learning;
5. Embracing care for students as whole people;

6. Responding with flexibility; and
7. De-emphasize grading and emphasizing interaction, feedback, and learning (TPHE, 2020).

REFERENCES

- Angelo, T. & Cross, P. (1993). *Classroom Assessment Techniques*. Jossey-Bass: San Francisco, CA.
- Beatty, B. J. (2019). Teaching a Hybrid-Flexible Course: The Faculty Experience in HyFlex. In B. J. Beatty, *Hybrid-Flexible Course Design: Implementing student-directed hybrid classes*. EdTech Books. Retrieved from https://edtechbooks.org/hyflex/teaching_hyflex
- Black, G. S., Daughtrey, C. L. & Lewis, J. S. (2014). The importance of course design on classroom performance of marketing students. *Marketing Education Review*, 24(3), 213–226. <https://doi.org/10.2753/mer1052-8008240303>
- Bower, M., Kennedy, G. E., Dalgarno, B., Lee, M. J. W. & Kenney, J. (2014). Blended synchronous learning: A handbook for educators. Retrieved from <http://blendsync.org/handbook>
- Boyle, T. (2005). A dynamic, systematic method for developing blended learning. *Education, Communication & Information*, 5(3), 221-232.
- Bubacz, M., Niksiar, P., Elamin, G., Ragan, D., & Bass, P. (2021). Potentials and limitations of Face to Face and Hybrid Teaching Modes. *ASEE Southeastern Section Conference*.
- Calafiore, P., & Giudici, E. (2021). Hybrid versus hyflex instruction in an introductory finance course. *International Journal of Education Research*, 16(1).
- Carbonell, K. B., Dailey-Hebert, A., & Gijsselaers, W. (2013). Unleashing the creative potential of faculty to create blended learning. *The Internet and Higher Education*, value(19), 29–37.
- Chun, H. & Hargis, J. (2020). Linear Algebra online learning objects: A focus on pedagogy, *The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education*, 10(4).
- Conrad, D. & Openo, J. (2018). *Assessment Strategies for Online Learning: Engagement and Authenticity*. Edmonton, AB: Athabasca University Press.
- Cossovich, R., Hargis, J. & Chun, H. (2020). Working with electrons: Integrating “Kits” for hands-on online learning in homes. *The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education*, 10(4).
- Dabbagh N., Marra, N., & Howland, J.L. (2018). *Meaningful Online Learning: Integrating Strategies, Activities, and Learning Technologies for Effective Designs*. London: Routledge.
- Darby, F. (2020). Students are more successful when instructors are present, *Chronicle of Higher Ed*. Retrieved from <https://www.chronicle.com/article/how-to-be-a-better-online-teacher/>
- Davis, B. (1993). *Tools for Teaching*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Dias, S. B. & Diniz, J. A. (2013). Fuzzyqoi model: a fuzzy logic-based modeling of users’ quality of interaction with a learning management system under blended learning. *Computers & Education*, (69), 38–59.
- Dudar, V. L., Riznyk, V. V., Kotsur, V. V., Pechenizka, S. S., & Kovtun, O. A. (2021). Use of modern technologies and digital tools in the context of distance and mixed learning. *Linguistics and Culture Review*, 5(S2), 733–750. <https://doi.org/10.21744/lingcure.v5ns2.1416>
- Educause (2010). The seven things you should know about the hyflex course model. Educause. Retrieved from <https://library.educase.edu/-/media/files/library/2010/11/eli7066-pdf.pdf>
- Freeman, L. (2015). Instructor Time Requirements to Develop and Teach Online Courses. *Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, Volume XVIII, Number I.
- Fuller, R., Joynes, V., Cooper, J., Boursicot, K., & Roberts, T. (2020). Could COVID-19 be our ‘There is no alternative’ (TINA) opportunity to enhance assessment? *Medical Teacher*, 42(7), 781–786.
- Garrison, D. R. & Kanuka, H. (2004). Blended learning: uncovering its transformative potential in higher education. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 7(2), 95–105.
- Gillis, A., & Krull, L. M. (2020). COVID-19 Remote Learning Transition in Spring 2020: Class Structures, Student Perceptions, and Inequality in College Courses. *Teaching Sociology*, 48(4), 283–299. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0092055X20954263>
- Gourneau, B., & Smart, K. (2022). Using the HyFlex Model in Teacher Education: Faculty Reflections and Insights. *NATIONAL SOCIAL SCIENCE TECHNOLOGY JOURNAL*, 10, 100–117.
- Graham, C. R. (2006). *Blended learning systems: definitions, current trends, and future directions*. San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.
- Greene, J. (2020). Keep calm and keep teaching. *Inside Higher Ed*. Retrieved from <https://www.insidehighered.com/advice/2020/03/17/shifting-unexpectedly-remote-instruction-requires-many-human-solutions-tech>
- Hargis, J. (2020). [What is effective online teaching](#) and learning in higher education? *Academia Letters*, Article 13. <https://doi.org/10.20935/AL13>
- Hargis, J., Yuan, Y. & Wu, T. (2020). Rapid course migration: Comparing the changes of instructor self-efficacy. *Glokalde: Global and Local Distance Education Journal*, 6(2), 40-57.

- Hodges, C., Moore, S., Lockee, B., Trust, T. & Bond, A. (2020). The difference between emergency remote teaching and online learning. *Educause Review*. Retrieved at <https://er.educause.edu/articles/2020/3/the-difference-between-emergency-remote-teaching-and-online-learning>
- Hofmann, J. & Miner, N. (2008). Real blended learning stands up. *T+D*, 62(9), 28-31.
- Hue, L. & Jalil, H. A. (2012). Attitudes towards ICT integration into curriculum and usage among university lecturers in Vietnam. *International Journal of Instruction*, 6, 53-66.
- Kao, C. P. & Tsai, C. (2009). Teachers' attitudes toward web-based professional development, with relation to internet self-efficacy and beliefs about web-based learning. *Computers & Education*, 53(1), 66–73. doi:10.1016/j.compedu.2008.12.019
- Kember, D., McNaught, C., Chong, F. C., Lam, P. & Cheng, K. (2010). Understanding the ways in which design features of educational websites impact upon student learning outcomes in blended learning environments. *Computers & Education*, 55(3), 1183– 1192.
- Knowles, M. (1984). *The adult learner: A neglected species*. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing.
- Landin, J. (2021). Reframing Education Delivery and Assessment during and after the COVID-19 Pandemic. In N. PACENKA (Ed.), *Proceedings of IAC 2021 in Vienna* (pp. 9–14). essay, Czech Institute of Academic Education z.s..
- Lee, J., Leibowitz, J., Rezek, J., Millea, M. & Saffo, G. (2022). The impact of international virtual exchange on student success. *Journal of International Students*, 12(20), 77-95.
- Lockard, E. & Hargis, J. (2017). *Andragogical design thinking: A transition to anarchy in and beyond the classroom*. *Transformative Dialogues*, 10(4), 1-15.
- Lyakhova, N. B., Tatyeva, E. V., Rustamov, F. H., & Kamarova, N. S. (2020). Technology for conducting online lectures using cloud services in distance education for students of humanitarian specialties. *EurAsian Journal of BioSciences*, 14(2), 6189-6195.
- Makarenya, T. A., Stash, S. V., & Nikashina, P. O. (2020). Modern educational technologies in the context of distance learning. *Journal of Physics: Conference Series*, 1691(1), 012117. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-6596/1691/1/012117>
- Maloney, E. & Kim, J. (2020). 15 Fall scenarios. Inside Higher Ed. Retrieved from <https://insidehighered.com/digital-learning/blogs/learning-innovation/15-fall-scenarios>
- Marcelo-García, C., Yot-Domínguez, C. & Mayor-Ruiz, C. (2015). University Teaching with Digital Technologies. *Comunicar*, 23(45), 117–124. <https://doi.org/10.3916/c45-2015-12>
- Moon, J. & Hargis, J. (2021). Differences, limitations and advantages of effective online and face-to-face teaching methods for a Media Arts course. *The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education*, 11(1).
- Popova, O. I., Gagarina, N. M., & Karkh, D. A. (2020). Digitalization of educational processes in universities: Achievements and Problems. Proceedings of the International Scientific Conference “Digitalization of Education: History, Trends and Prospects” (DETP 2020). <https://doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.200509.131>
- Puentedura, R. R. (2006). Transformation, Technology, and Education. Transformation, technology, and Education. Retrieved from <http://hippasus.com/resources/te>.
- Rasheed, R. A., Kamsin, A. & Abdullah, N. A. (2020). Students and teachers' challenges of using technology in blended learning environments. Proceedings of the 2020 the 3rd International Conference on Computers in Management and Business.
- Shelton, C. (2013). “Virtually mandatory”: A survey of how discipline and Institutional Commitment Shape University lecturers' perceptions of Technology. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 45(4), 748–759.
- Shen, C. & Ho, J. (2020). Technology-enhanced learning in higher education: A bibliometric analysis with Latent Semantic Approach. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 104.
- Swan, K. (2002). Building Learning Communities in online courses: The importance of interaction. *Education, Communication & Information*, 2(1), 23–49.
- Titarenko L. & Little C.B. (2021) An asynchronous university distance course as a possible model for international online collaboration. *Mir Rossii*, 30(1), 134–150.
- TPHE (2020). The elephant in the Zoom room. Inside Higher Ed. Retrieved from <https://insidehighered.com/advice/2020/05/06/pandemic-brings-home-need-focus-humane-and-meaningful-student-learning-experiences>
- Uttl, B., White, C., & Gonzalez, D. (2016). Meta-analysis of faculty's teaching effectiveness: Student evaluation of teaching ratings and student learning are not related, *Studies in Educational Evaluation*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2016.08.007>
- Wang, J. & Hargis, J. (2021). Reflections on productive discomfort and the right amount of confusion, frustration and success, *Journal of Transformative Learning*, 8(2).
- Wiggins, G. (2017). The more I lecture, the less I know if they understand, Teachthought. Retrieved from <https://www.teachthought.com/pedagogy/lecture>

- Wiggins, G. & McTighe, J. (2005). *Understanding by Design (Expanded 2nd Edition)*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Yuan, Y. & Hargis, J. (2021). Measure instructor self-efficacy for online teaching, just prior to migrating courses online, *Eastern European Journal of Transnational Relations*, 4(1).
- Yuan, Y., Hargis, J., Lu, H., Lian, J., Huang, X. & Song, Y. (2022). A qualitative comparison of the same courses offered face-to-face and online. *Transformative Dialogues: Teaching and Learning Journal*, 14(3).
- Zhonggen, Y. (2015). Blended learning over two decades. *International Journal of Information and Communication Technology Education*, 11(3), 1–19.

SELF-ORGANISED FORUM AS HORIZONTALIZED PEDAGOGY PRACTICE FOR PHD STUDENTS: THE PEER-LEARNING, MENTAL SUPPORT, AND COMMUNITY BUILDING OF “CHINESE TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING PHD FORUM”

Ye Tian

Affiliation: Manchester China Institute, University of Manchester

Email: y.tian@translation.ac.nz

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4591-272X>

ABSTRACT:

Purpose – This paper theorises how international PhD student community of certain language group in the UK use self-organised activity as a way of horizontalized pedagogy to enhance their study and well-being during and after the COVID-19 Pandemic. It introduces the “Chinese Translation and Interpreting PhD Forum” as one such activity and explores its impact on participants.

Methodology – The paper is a case study of the Forum. The case is analysed by two major ways: The former theoretically constructs the case in concern, which not only highlights the importance of peer-learning as a pedagogy in PhD learning experience, but compares and signifies how the practice concerned in this paper is different from other activities, especially peer-mentor schemes and reading groups. The latter part of the paper is a qualitative analysis based on the feedback from participants. It reveals how participants actually think peer-learning, mental support, and community-building functions of the activity.

Findings – The result shows that while the effort in community building and online organisation is a success, PhD students are not necessarily interested in involving in a broad range of topics, especially those different from their area of expertise, even within the same discipline. Meanwhile, despite the initial intention of mental support, participants seem to be less impressed by this particular function. Finally, the use of their native language is considered to be less significant, compared with the original hypothesis.

Originality – The paper provides an alternative model for PhD training, especially on top of the traditional supervisor-PhD power hierarchy. The model also provides solutions for low-quality and less-motivated peer-learning activities like peer-mentor scheme and too-demanding activities like reading group.

Keywords: community building; mental health; peer learning; horizontalized pedagogy; translation and interpreting studies

1. Introduction

In early 2020, the COVID-19 pandemic broke out. Among those who are influenced are PhD students. Efforts are seen where universities carry out a range of policies catering for their students’ pedagogical and mental needs. Against this backdrop, I reformed and reorganised the long-abandoned Chinese Translation and Interpretation Forum at Queen’s University Belfast (referred to as “the Forum” hereinafter). The Forum was established in 2018 when some PhD candidates at the Centre of Translation and Interpreting of Queen’s University Belfast (“The Centre”) decided they would want to gather to practice interpreting. The interpreting practice had not lasted long before the gathering turned to more academic discussion, exploring topics in translation studies and beyond. It was that time that I joined the Centre and learned a lot from the gathering. However, the gathering ceased after the senior candidates started writing their thesis and eventually graduated. I always felt pity about the “sudden death” of the gathering and wanted to restart the scheme. COVID-19 gave me a good excuse. Reflecting on the failure of the previous gathering, when I restarted the scheme, I decided to reduce the used-to-be frequency to once every week. I held the gathering, now rebranded as Forum, monthly. In the meantime, as I advertise the Forum on social media (e.g. Twitter, WeChat, and Weibo) every time it runs, some PhD candidates outside the Centre’s community contact me and ask if they can participate. Their participation enlarged the range of topics that the Forum covers.

In short, there used to be a range of problems for PhD candidates. For example, they lack peer learning support and chances to reach the broader research area in translation studies. The Centre provides us with the Monday Seminars, inviting renowned scholars for a one-hour presentation each week. However, from personal contacts, many PhDs would like a more open discussion rather than lectures. After COVID-19 broke out, the more disconnected environment may lead to mental issues. By restarting the Forum, I wish to address these problems by allowing peer candidates to meet each other every month, have formal and informal discussions over various topics, and open the Forum to a broader community. After more than two years of running, I hope to systematically explore what is achieved by holding such a Forum as a peer-learning practice.

The topics of the Forum are not solely academic. As it is a PhD forum, in most cases, the discussions are academic and about translation studies. However, there is a vast space to explore under the tag of translation studies: the discipline is, as argued by Gabriela Saldanha and Sharon O’Brien (2014, 1), “interdisciplinary in nature.” This is

one of the reasons the Forum opens to the broader community: there is a lack of variety in topics researched at our Centre alone. However, academic topics cannot address every problem COVID-19 has brought and those that PhD candidates have been dealing with in a larger context. The Forum, therefore, is also a space for PhD candidates to either share their experience in career development or ask questions whenever in doubt.

Now that the Forum has run for 3 years, the rather longevity nature of it requires close examination, as its success may have potential implications for an overall PhD pedagogy. As I am the organiser of this Forum, the paper is, on the one hand, self-reflective; but on the other hand, it relies on theories developed in studies of higher education pedagogy and beyond to formulate its own theoretical foundation. Meanwhile, the paper reflects on the feedback collected from participants. Due to the number of respondents, the paper approaches the feedback qualitatively rather than quantitatively.

2. Theoretical discussion: Forum Compared with other Pedagogical Practices

Reviewing the literature on different forms of pedagogy for PhD candidates helps formulate the theoretical foundations for this Forum. The literature review also points out how the Forum differs from other pedagogical practices and the similarities. The paper mainly reviews three practices: supervisor-PhD candidate teaching and learning, peer-mentor scheme, and reading groups. On top of comparing the Forum to these practices, the review section discusses another distinctive feature of the Forum: it uses Chinese in an English-teaching and researching environment.

2.1 Forum and vertical pedagogy from supervisory

Study to the success of a PhD research is seen as primarily an individual effort that aims at training fellow PhD candidates to be researchers of “independence and autonomy” (Johnson, Lee and Green 2000, 136). In the making of a successful researcher, supervisors play a considerable teaching role that is different from all other teaching roles in, for instance, undergraduate or high school. Scholars (for instance, Lee and McKenzie 2011, 69) identify the difficulty in supervising PhD candidates where “supervision is neither simply ‘teaching’ nor ‘research’ but an uneasy bridge between both”, asking for a balanced pedagogy that can enlighten supervisory relationship between supervisors and their PhD candidates. Some principles are pointed out. For instance, Sara Cotterall (2011, 529–531) argues that “good pedagogy” involves the practices of “respect and concern”, “structure and support”, “engagement in scholarly practices”, and “reflection”. Other research focuses more on PhD candidates’ learning under supervision. Mary-Helen Ward and Sandra Helen West (2008) follow the definition of pedagogy as “a concept draws attention to the process through which knowledge is produced” (Lusted 1986, 3), and they focus on how PhD candidates can use blogging as effective pedagogy practice. They argue that “blogging is a text-based social practice that can be useful to both candidates and supervisors in the co-production of knowledge within PhD candidacy” (Ward and West 2008, 61). While exploring supervisor-PhD candidate pedagogy from different approaches, the above literature directly labels the teaching and learning relationship between the two parties as “doctoral pedagogy”, demonstrating the dominant discourse of supervisory in PhD pedagogy research.

The most significant difference the PhD Forum in concern of this paper differs from the supervisory pedagogy is that it lays more emphasis on peer learning instead of learning from supervisors. The efforts of the peers should be no less important than supervisory. David Boud and Alison Lee (2005 502) argue that the supervisor-PhD candidate relationship is only one kind of pedagogy, the “vertical pedagogy”, while peer learning should be introduced to PhD pedagogy discourse. As they argue (ibid.), peers construct the invaluable environment for “horizontalised” pedagogy. Reconceptualising pedagogy this way “allows a particular kind of investigation of the research ‘environment’ as an explicitly pedagogical space” (ibid., 504). Building on this foundation, Elke Stracke (2010, 6–7), even though engaging the PhD candidates as a supervisor, identifies peer learning as “a successful and enjoyable PhD experience”. He argues that peer learning among PhD candidates facilitates “exchange”, provides “insight into the PhD process”, “feedback” from peers is appreciated, and “moral support in [...] a friendly, supportive environment” is gained. These research outputs highlight the importance of the peer learning nature of the Forum.

There are, however, some peer learning activities that are theorised as PhD pedagogy. The paper reviews these activities in the following two sections, highlighting mainly two activities, namely the peer-mentor scheme and reading groups. This review is to gain insights from these activities while distinguishing the Forum from them.

2.2 Forum and peer-mentor scheme as peer support

An increasing number of universities in the UK and worldwide take up the peer-mentor scheme to support the new PhD students and candidates. Mentor scheme as peer support follows the emphasis on peer learning as environmental construction (see Boud and Lee 2005 discussed above), and Amanda Mason and Jarmila Hickman (2017) look into how the scheme benefits mentees and mentors, what are the expectations regarding the mentors’

role, and how to make the scheme successful. They theorise the mentor scheme as a mutually beneficial pedagogical practice where mentors and mentees identify problems like lack of training for mentors and ambiguity in the role of mentors. Similarly, Justin Fam and Jessica C. Lee (2019) see peer mentor schemes as an opportunity to address inequalities. They identify the different resources PhD students have access to in different programmes. They argue that, while PhD programmes are “largely unstructured”, PhD students can benefit from having “access to structured programs that are dedicated to creating opportunities for social support and mentoring.”

Therefore, the emphasis on peer support becomes the core for both groups of researchers talking about the peer mentor schemes. Peer support is used widely beyond pedagogy discourse, highlighting a non-professional helper-helpee relationship that features non-hierarchy and flexibility (Mead and MacNeil 2004). In researching PhD candidates’ well-being, peer support is believed to address the “invisible” feelings and isolation of these candidates (McAlpine and Norton 2006). Daniel Jolley et al. (2015) reflect on peer support in an autoethnographic manner, demonstrating the importance of peer support during the writing-up phase of a PhD candidate, coping with a range of pressures ranging from facing feedback from supervisors to the delay of data collection.

The Forum is similar to the peer-mentor scheme in many ways. First, the peer-mentor scheme is usually carried out by the institutions or the departments. It is therefore structured not by PhD candidates themselves but rather by another top-down, i.e. vertical, approach, although the approach is different from that of the supervisory. The Forum, however, is even more horizontalised, as it is organised, participated in, and reformed by PhD candidates. There is no, so to speak, authority ruling over the running and management of the Forum. More specifically, from the feedback¹ I heard from Forum participants, we can have a glimpse into what the differences are. Some participants complain about the effectiveness of their peer mentor scheme: “Our peer-mentor scheme is rubbish... As for the Forum, I meet with many friends”, says one of the participants (P17). Some highlight the importance of academic topics in the Forum and regard it not only as a supportive event: “There is a much larger amount of knowledge” (P9). Others maintain that the Forum provides an opportunity for getting to know and communicate with more peers: “I can communicate with more peers and expand my horizon” (P13). In short, the Forum mainly differs from the traditional peer-mentor schemes in its focus on autonomy, effectiveness, knowledge transfer, and a larger community of peers.

2.3 Forum and reading groups

Another similar pedagogical practice is reading groups. The practice of reading groups is not limited to PhD candidates’ learning and researching careers. Reading groups are organised in different forms. Some of these groups can be a teaching activity that aims at cultivating students for active learning (Railton and Watson 2005), while others are (self-)organised outside higher educational settings, where the groups conflict and corroborate HE (Hansen and prince 2019). Claudia Firth (2021) comprehensively reviews history’s different reading groups. She sees these groups on the peripheries of the institutions and organisations, emphasising the political significance of these groups against the social and political context. The loose formations of these “mainly leisure-based friendship groups” play “a valuable role in social movements as a form of informal organisation” (Firth 2021, 113). Others reveal that reading is a social activity (for example, Allington and Swann 2009). David Peplow (2011) explores how reading groups generate and negotiate their interpretations of texts as a social practice, revealing how a reading group “talks about texts” (310, original emphasis).

The Forum differs from the reading groups in how activities are organised. The Forum does not see interpreting texts as its primary responsibility. While, in reading groups, “all members (should) have read” the books before discussion (Peplow 2011, 295), the Forum requires fewer reading tasks and preparation, at least for most participants. This is due to the consideration of the motivations of the participants. As discussed in the introduction, the Forum ceased for more than one year because those who constantly contributed to organising and presenting on the Forum stopped for various reasons. Besides, while many reading groups, especially those online, are not institutional-based, Forum started as primarily a practice within our institution community. It is only recently that the Forum tried to expand more widely. On the one hand, this differs the Forum from the political-movement-oriented reading groups and less emphasises the friend-making function. Most, if not all, Chinese PhD in translation and interpreting got to know each other well before the Forum came into place.

2.4 Doing research in a second language

The Forum, therefore, is a distinctive, horizontalised pedagogical practice that shares some of the features of the peer-mentor scheme and the reading groups. One more feature that distinguishes it from other peer support and peer learning practices in the UK is the use of language. In UK institutions like ours, Chinese PhD candidates

¹ As will explain later, I collect 21 feedback questionnaires. When referring to answers from specific participants, I will use P1-P21 respectively according to the sequence of them finishing the questionnaire.

research in a second-language environment, and to do research in a non-native language is complex. Ana Ramírez-Adrados et al. (2020) show how native language users perform better in dissertation writing and defence, even though there is no significant difference between the pressures students are under either defending in the native or non-native languages. Meanwhile, especially for early-stage PhD candidates, being situated in a second-language environment may lead to a sense of periphery linguistically, culturally, and psychologically (Samimy, Kim, Ah Lee, and Kasai, 2011). Further, Yu Ren Dong (1998) surveys non-native graduate students, reporting that a lack of social networks leads to disadvantages for these students in writing scientific papers. However, the language – in this case, English – these students research with tends to become their “working language or science language”, which means that “they were either not aware of any differences at all or they considered it easier to do scientific writing in English than in their native languages anyway” (385).

3. Research questions and hypothesis

Based on the existing pedagogical practices that emphasise peer learning, peer support, and community construction, and considering the differences between the Forum and these practices, the research questions can be categorised into three types, namely motivation, ways of support, and community construction.

3.1 Motivations

First, one should suppose that not everyone comes to the Forum every time. Instead, judging by the experience of running the Forum, even without rigorous roll calling every time, my observation is that most participants come once every two or three times. Due to the more loosely requirement for participation, there should be a number of participants who participate in the Forum for an extended period. Second, there should be a high level of motivation to meet face-to-face once the pandemic is over, as, like Jolley et al. (2015, 36) report, the online support can be limited as “you are unable to be there physically and so unable to offer support in this way, such as a hug”.

3.2 Ways of support

According to the topics, the Forum mainly offers peer support in three aspects: academic research, mental health, and career development. As the organiser, I hypothesise that participants may find it most useful as mental support, followed by helping their research projects, and finally in career development. As the Forum was restarted at the beginning of the pandemic, I got to know some peer PhD candidates complaining about the pressure and the sense of isolation, especially when locking down. As for career development, students have different career plans and, therefore, may not relate to each others’ experiences to a great extent. Meanwhile, I expect participants to find the wide range of topics covered in the Forum more helpful than the topics of their own expertise. As PhDs can discuss with supervisors who can even point to extra reading materials, I suppose that the chance to be exposed to topics outside any of the research from the supervisors of our Centre is a good chance for PhD candidates to open up to the interdisciplinarity of translation studies.

3.3 Community construction

Initially, the Forum was inclusive to PhD candidates of our Centre only. As it gradually opens up, I would expect some reluctance in accepting the involvement of external members. For external participants, in turn, I suspect they have only limited, if any, contact with participants from our Centre. Should the Forum work as a community building practice, the link between internal and external participants are crucial? Another hypothesis in this category points to the use of language. The hypothesis is that using Chinese instead of English is important to participants, as language reinforces the identity of being a more extensive research community and could be easier to convey specific ideas more clearly.

These hypotheses are not only proposed for the research purpose alone, but more importantly, they are the basis on which I organise the Forum in the first place. Therefore, examining the validity of these hypotheses is essential both in illuminating similar practices that other researchers wish to carry out, and in providing a more successful Forum that is sustainable in the long run.

3.4 Research questions

To examine the hypotheses above, the paper investigates how participants reflect on the Forum in the following questions:

1. How motivated are participants to participate in the Forum, online and offline?
2. What themes do participants find most useful for their PhD development?
3. How well are internal participants linked with external ones?
4. Is the discussion in the native language seen as helpful among the participants?

4. The survey: Results and analysis

A questionnaire of 17 questions (Q1-Q17) is designed to examine the hypotheses and address these questions. Q1 asks about the expertise of each participant; Q2–5 concern the motivations of participants; Q6–10 inquire about the usefulness of different topics and themes; Q11, Q12, and Q17 compare the Forum with other PhD pedagogies (peer-mentor scheme and supervisory), and Q13–16 are about community building. The questionnaire is designed in Chinese, and the original questionnaire is attached as Appendix 1 after the paper with English translation attached as Appendix 2. The questionnaire is sent via email to the mail list of all the participants of the Forum. After one week, 21 responses are collected.

4.1 The background of the respondents

The respondents are asked about their backgrounds regarding their PhD research topics and if they are from our Centre. 20 Participants responded to the first question. The answers demonstrate the variety of topics for PhDs in translation and interpreting. At least ten different topics are seen in the response: 2 participants have expertise in the interpreting process, 2 in the translation process, 2 in literature translation, 2 in audio-visual translation (AVT), and 1 in translators’ training, contemporary translation theories, travel translation, opera translation, translation and metaphor, and computer-aided interpreting each. Others respond with more general terms like translation studies. Most noticeably, 1 participant identifies themselves as doing research in “neurosurgery”, extending the disciplinary boundary of the Forum even further. Despite the vast spread of interests, researchers in process research, either in translation or interpreting, are the most in numbers (5 out of 20) among the participants responding to this question. Regarding respondents’ institutions, 7 are from other institutions, and 14 are PhDs from our Centre.

4.2 Motivations

Q2 asks how long since the first time the participant has participated in the Forum. The options range from “less than one month” to “over one year” as the Q3 asks the frequency of them turning up. Respondents are expected to choose from “never”, “occasionally”, “often”, and “every time”, but the question does not specify the detailed definition of each option. The tables below show the number of responses, and the figures give an impression of the percentage of each response.

Answers for Q2 (Table 1 and Figure 1) show that over 57.14% of the respondents (12 of them) have participated in the Forum for over one year, while there is a newcomer who only participated in the Forum very recently, under one month. The result shows consistency of participation while the Forum is constantly growing, slowly but surely. Responds to Q3, on the other hand, show how often participants are motivated to participate in the event. Most participants will not participate in the Forum every time, with scarce exceptions – only 1 person says they participate every time). More respondents believe they come to the Forum occasionally than those who often come – although, without description, the frequency difference between occasional showing up and often is unclear.

Options	Response count
<1 month	1
1 month – 6 months	4
6 months – 1 year	4
>1 year	12

Table 1: Q2 Participation Period

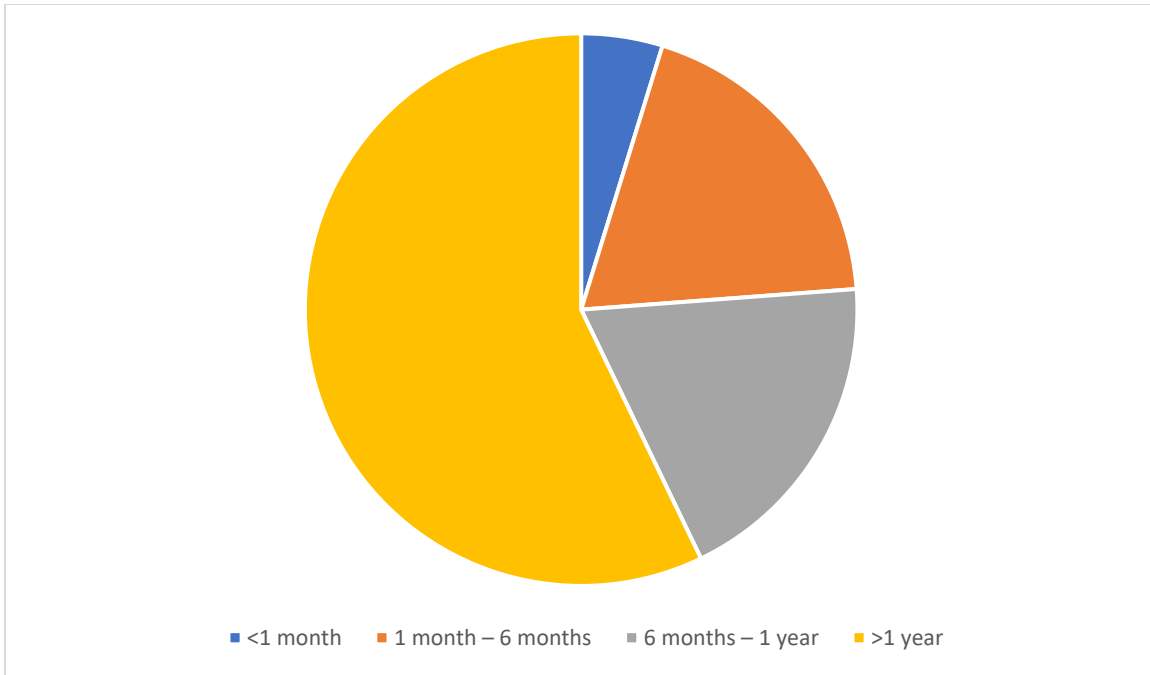


Figure 1: Q2 Participation period

Options	Response count
Never	0
Occasionally	11
Often	9
Every time	1

Table 2: Q3 Participation Frequency

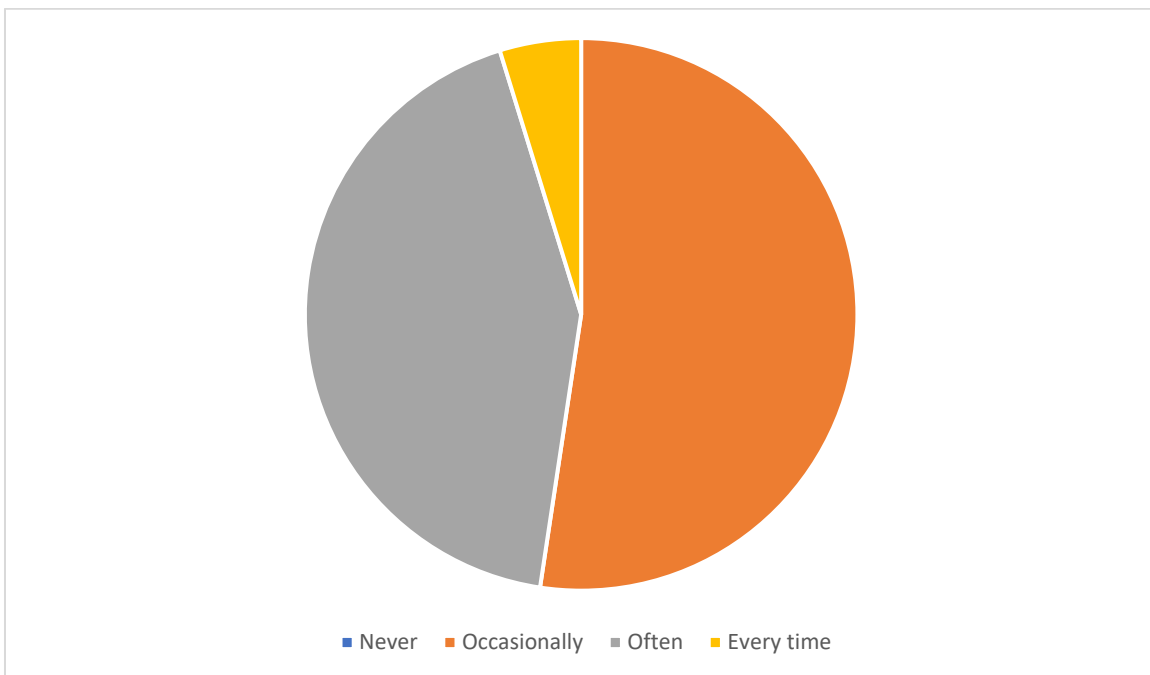


Figure 2: Q3 Participation Frequency

The questionnaire also asks about respondents' willingness to participate online and offline in Q4 and Q5. The result shows that, as demonstrated in Table 3 and Figure 3, even long after the COVID-19 lockdown, there is a clear contrast between the likelihood of online and offline participation. Respondents are generally more likely to participate in the forum online, with most indicating they are likely or very likely to do so. On the other hand, offline participation is less popular, with the majority of respondents saying they are unlikely or very unlikely to participate offline. Specifically, most participants (12) say they are very unlikely to come to the face-to-face Forum, and only 1 person is very likely to come to an offline event. By contrast, 9 out of all 21 people would love to participate in an online Forum, and the other 10 are less definite but show a high likelihood of participating. Even after considering external members who cannot meet face-to-face, among all 14 respondents from the Centre, 6 say they are very unlikely to show up at face-to-face events.

Options	1 Very unlikely	2	3	4	5 Very likely
Online participation	0	0	2	10	9
Offline participation	12	3	5	0	1

Table 3: Q4 and Q5 Online and offline participation

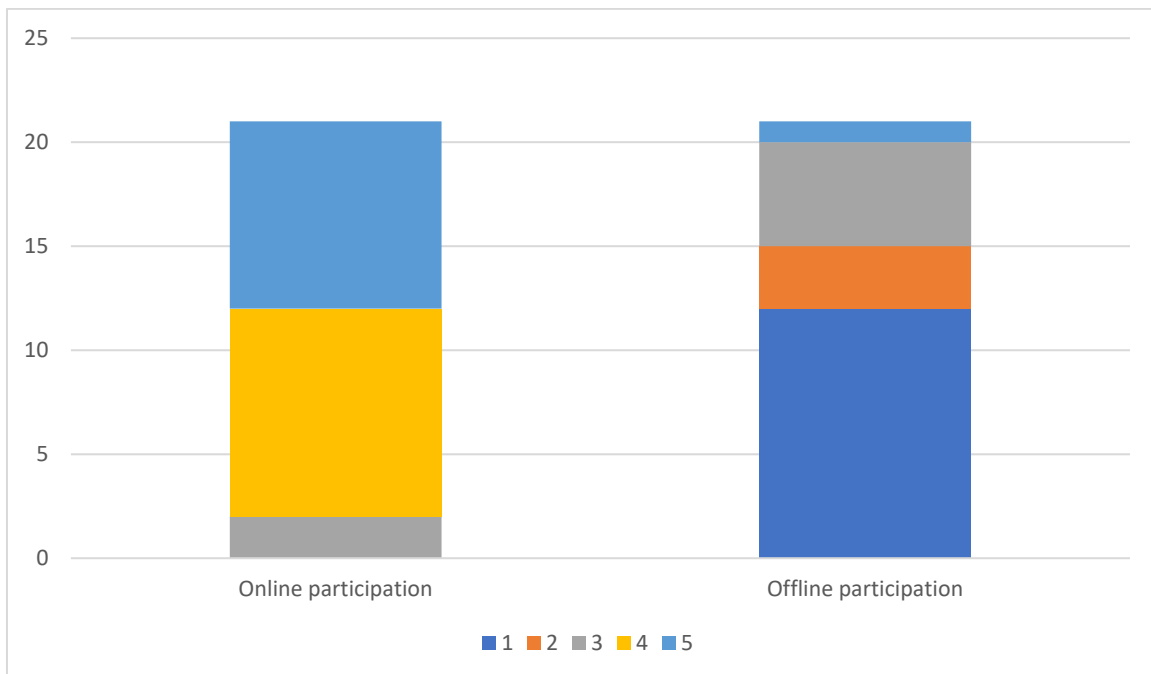


Figure 3: Q4 and Q5 Online and offline participation

4.3 Importance of different ways of support and themes

The following section explores what kinds of support and themes participants feel are most useful. Q6–Q8 ask how important the different ways of support are. Three types of support are identified: mental, academic, and career planning. The first two ways of support come from the literature on other peer learning and support projects (for mental support, see McAlpine and Norton 2006; for academic support, see Peplow 2011). The career planning support comes from one of the reoccurring themes of the Forum, where PhD graduates share their experience of job-hunting. Respondents are asked to select the importance of mental, academic, and career planning support by giving scores 1–5. 1 point means the support is unimportant, while 5 points mean it is very important.

The result shows that the respondents see the Forum as most important for career planning, followed by academic support, and then mental support. However, the differences are not stark and all three aspects hold some importance to the respondents. To be more specific, most people believe career planning matters the most to them, with 8 people thinking it is very important. However, the importance of mental support seems very scattered among respondents. 3 people believe it is not important, but 6 people think it is very important. Academic support occupies the middle group. While no one thinks it is not important, the least people (5) see it as very important among all the three types.

Options	1 Not important	2	3	4	5 Very important
Mental support	3	1	7	4	6
Academic support	0	0	6	10	5
Career planning	0	4	4	5	8

Table 4: Importance scores of different types of support

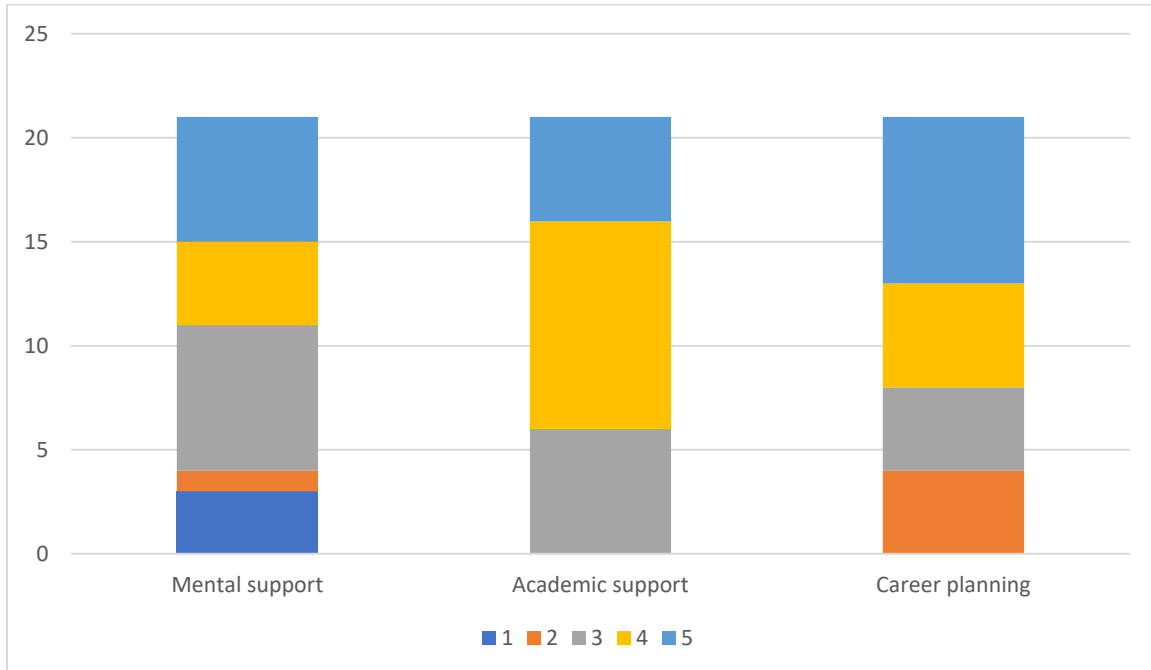


Figure 4: Importance scores of different types of support

Besides, the respondents are asked to rank the themes of the Forum from the most important to the least according to their experience and needs. The themes listed come from the topics of each Forum from the day it restarted until the one most recently. Three themes of the Forum are identified: PhD experience sharing, discussion with scholars within participants' expertise and discussion with scholars outside participants' expertise.

The results show that most people think discussing with scholars within their own expertise the most important, listening to others' experiences sharing the second, and opening up to more expansive disciplinary knowledge the least. However, a similar number of people (6) choose to rank the latter two themes the first.

Options	1st	2nd	3rd	Average rank
PhD experience sharing	6	10	5	1.95
discussion with scholars within my expertise	9	7	5	1.81
discussion with scholars outside my expertise	6	4	11	2.24

Table 5: The Rank of the importance of different Forum themes

4.4 Community building and the Forum

Finally, the questionnaire reveals how effective a community is built with the carrying out of the Forum. Participants from our Centre are asked about their willingness to accept external PhDs to participate. In contrast, external PhDs are asked whether they keep in contact with students from our Centre after the Forum. Meanwhile, they are also asked how they feel about using Chinese throughout the Forum.

In terms of the use of language, participants are asked to give scores on the importance of Chinese discussion. The result, as shown in Table 6, is again scattered. Half of the respondents think it is rather important, giving it 4 points,

but a similar number of respondents (6) think it is not important. Only 3 people think discussing in their native language is very important.

Importance	1 Not important	2	3	4	5 Very important
Response count	6	0	5	7	3

Table 6: Importance score of using Chinese

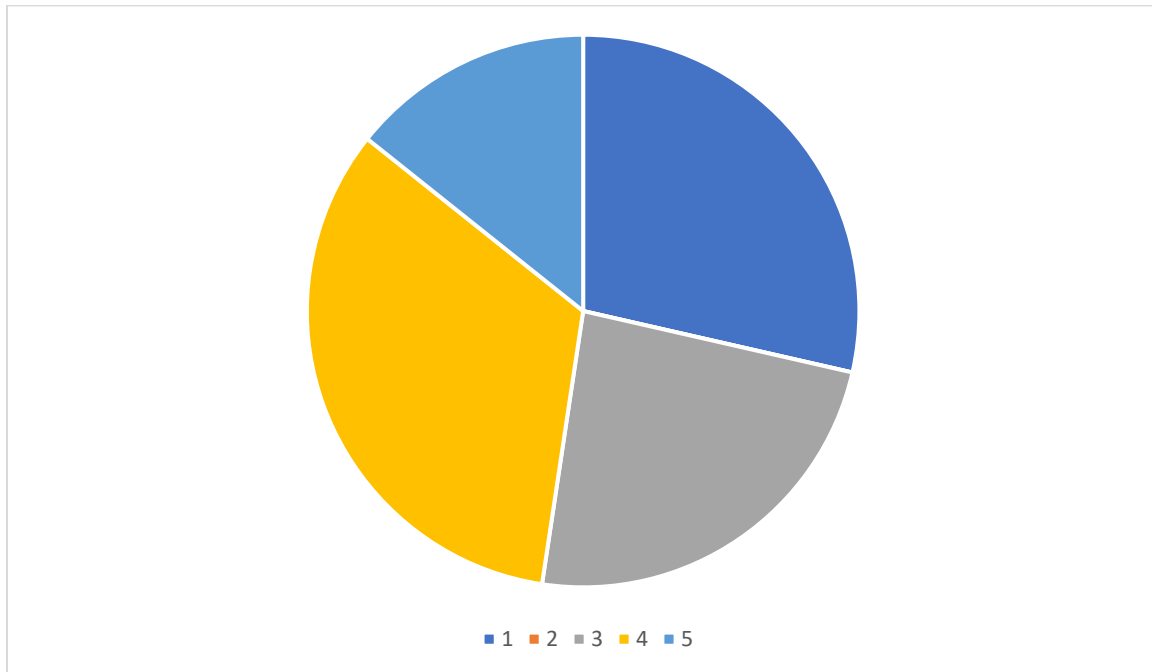


Figure 5: Importance score of using Chinese

As for networking between PhDs from the Centre and those from other institutions, those from our Centre are asked if they want external participants to join us. 13 out of 14 people say yes, and the one who does not respond positively says they “do not care”. On the other hand, when asked if they keep in contact with students from the Centre, 5 out of 7 external participants say they do.

Opinions	Yes	No	Others
Response count	13	0	1

Table 7: Willingness to take external participants

Opinions	Yes	No
Response count	5	2

Table 8: Continual contact with PhDs from the Centre

4.5 Discussion: What works and what does not?

Some of the results come as expected, but others are surprising. They serve as significant evidence for revealing what part of the Forum works so far and what does not work and needs further improvement in the following organising of the event.

4.5.1 What works?

The questionnaire results reassure some of the hypotheses – simultaneously, the initial intentions of organising the Forum. The Forum serves distinctive pedagogical functions compared with supervising and other peer-learning activities. Participants are willing to participate in the Forum continuously, while the rather loose style of the Forum gives them the freedom to choose to show up or not according to their own pace. Most participants find it helpful to listen to senior candidates’ personal experiences living through the PhD and job hunting, demonstrating that the Forum works as a peer support event. At the same time, many believe the Forum helps the most when the theme is about their PhD topic, showcasing the peer learning function of the Forum. Meanwhile, the Forum successfully perform a role in networking and community building among Chinese PhD candidates. Not only do

internal participants content with connecting with more peers than peer-mentor schemes carried out by our institution, but, more importantly, they are connected with external participants and the wider academia.

Besides, online Forum works surprisingly well. Initially as the only solution to coping with the pandemic and lockdown, the online running of the Forum now becomes the “new normal” for both the organiser and the participants. With the high motivation of participating online, it becomes possible to maintain the running of the Forum even after core organisers graduate. Online Forum also makes it much easier, or possible at all, to expand the number and variety of participants.

4.5.2 *What does not work?*

Other intentions when initiating the Forum do not work very well among participants. The most significant is the lack of interest in topics outside participants’ expertise. Even with the efforts made by the organiser in increasing the variety of topics in translation studies, especially in finding and inviting scholars on topics beyond participants’ PhD projects,² participants are keener on discussing what concerns their PhD projects the most.

Meanwhile, as PhD students are often believed to work in “solo study” (Johnson, Lee, Green 2000), the necessity for mental support from their peers is often identified ((Pyhältö, Stubb, and Lonka 2009, Fokkens-Bruinsma and Jansen 2021). However, even if participants think highly of peer support in terms of exchanging experience during and after their PhD career, many do not think it serves as mental support. Similarly, the use of the native language, in this case, Chinese, does not seem to play a vital role in improving participants’ mental and academic performance. Some participants even think using one language over another in the Forum is unimportant.

Finally, while the online Forum is a success, an attempt to recover the face-to-face Forum as a hybrid mode does not work well. Participants, living near the campus or not, are more willing to join the Forum online. In personal contact, some participants indicate they feel more comfortable hiding behind the camera than sitting next to each other.

5. Conclusion

The article explores the Forum as a distinctive way of carrying out horizontalised pedagogy practice. The participants’ feedback and relevant discussion may offer theoretical and practical implications to pedagogical research for PhD students in translation and interpreting.

Theoretically, the Forum proves that it is possible and essential to emphasise PhD candidates’ peer learning experience and explore different ways of doing so. While many peer learning practices, like peer mentor schemes, are organised by the institution with a top-down approach, the self-organising events may cater better for candidates’ needs. The growth of the Forum indicates the need for such events across the discipline of translation and interpreting. However, most PhD candidates care more about their PhD research and career development than extending their disciplinary knowledge. This proposes a challenge to theorise how self-organised peer-learning groups help with individual academic progress. Finally, as the participants of the Forum do not see the importance of discussing in their native language, it is necessary to investigate further how native language and second language influence self-organised learning activities.

Practically, the experience from the Forum may enlighten the organisation of other similar events. Based on the feedback illustrated above, future events may need to weigh more on catering for the expertise and specialities of individual participants than expanding the topics. Meanwhile, there can be a more explicit agenda for mental support besides experience sharing.

² For example, the Forum hosted neuroscientists, machine translation experts from computer science, and computer-aided tools developers.

Appendix 1. Original Questionnaire in Chinese

Q1：你的研究领域是？

Q2：你加入沙龙多久了？

<1个月

1个月-6个月

6个月-1年

1年以上

Q3：你参与沙龙的频率是？

从不参加

偶尔参加

经常参加

每次参加

Q4：你有多少可能参与线上沙龙？

1	2	3	4	5
非常不可能				非常可能

Q5：你有多可能到图书馆参与线下沙龙？

1	2	3	4	5
非常不可能				非常可能

Q6：沙龙对你心理健康是否重要

1	2	3	4	5
非常不重要				非常重要

Q7：沙龙对你的学习是否重要

1	2	3	4	5
非常不重要				非常重要

Q8：沙龙对你博士和就业规划是否重要？

1	2	3	4	5
非常不重要				非常重要

Q9：沙龙使用中文对你是否重要

1	2	3	4	5
非常不重要				非常重要

Q10：对于你来说，沙龙对你帮助最大的主题是？

- 博士生活经验交流
- 自己研究领域内的学者研究分享
- 自己研究领域外的学者研究分享

Q11：你是否参与过学校的 peer-mentor 项目？

是
否

Q12：沙龙与 peer-mentor 项目对你的帮助有何不同？

Q13 : 你是否是女王大学的学生？

是
否

Q14 : 你是否希望外校同学参加沙龙？

是
否
其他

Q15 : 沙龙后你是否与女王大学其他博士保持联系？

是
否

Q16 : 你是否愿意在沙龙中进行发言？

是
否

Q17 : (如果你是博士生) 沙龙和导师会面相比提供了哪些额外帮助？

Appendix 2. English Translation of the Questionnaire

Q1: What is your area of expertise?

Q2: How long have you been participating in the Forum?

<1 month
1 month – 6 months
6 months – 1 year
>1 year

Q3: How often do you participate in the Forum?

Never
Occasionally
Often
Every time

Q4: How likely will you participate in the Forum online?

1	2	3	4	5
Very unlikely				Very likely

Q5: How likely will you participate in the Forum at the library (face-to-face)?

1	2	3	4	5
Very unlikely				Very likely

Q6: How important is the Forum to your mental health?

1	2	3	4	5
Not important				Very important

Q7: How important is the Forum to your research?

1	2	3	4	5
Not important				Very important

Q8: How important is the Forum to your research career planning?

1	2	3	4	5
Not important				Very important

Q9: How important is using Chinese in the Forum to you?

1	2	3	4	5
Not important				Very important

Q10: Please rank the following themes according to how important they are to you:

- Communicating PhD life experience
- Discussions with scholars of my expertise
- Discussions with scholars outside my expertise

Q11: Have you participated in any peer-mentor scheme?

Yes

No

Q12: What is the difference between the Forum and the peer-mentor scheme?

Q13: Are you a PhD candidate at Q University?

Yes

No

Q14: Do you want external PhDs to participate in the Forum?

Yes

No

Others

Q15: If you are not from Q University, do you keep in touch with Q University students after the Forum?

Yes

No

Q16: Are you willing to give a talk on the Forum?

Yes

No

Q17: (If you are a PhD candidate) How does the Forum help in addition to supervisory meetings?

Acknowledgements

My sincerest appreciation goes to every participant who joins and supports the Forum over the years. Safe to say, the Forum is one of the most memorable moments that supports me all the way to the finishing of my PhD career. I would also like to thank editors and peer reviewers for their valuable insights for making this a publishable paper.

Author's Biography

Ye Tian obtains his PhD degree in translation studies from the Centre for Translation and Interpreting, Queen's University Belfast, UK. He is now a scholar in residence at the Manchester China Institute, University of Manchester, and a postdoctoral research associate at the Department of English, University of Liverpool. He is interested in theoretical explorations in topics related to translation pedagogy, semiotic translation, and broader issues linking translation studies and China studies. His recent research is published in journals like *The Communication Review* and *TTR: Traduction, Terminologie, Redaction*.

References

- Allington, D. and Swann, J. (2009). 'Researching Literary Reading as Social Practice'. *Language and Literature*, Vol. 18 No. 3, pp. 219–230.
- Amanda M. and Jarmila H. (2019). 'Students Supporting Students on the PhD Journey: An Evaluation of a Mentoring Scheme for International Doctoral Students'. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, Vol. 56 No. 1, 88–98, DOI: 10.1080/14703297.2017.1392889
- Boud, D. and Lee, A. (2005). "'Peer Learning" as Pedagogic Discourse for Research Education'. *Studies in Higher Education*, Vol. 30 No. 5, pp. 501–516.
- Cotterall, S. (2011). Doctoral Pedagogy: What Do International PhD Students in Australia Think about It? *Pertanika J. Soc. Sci. & Hum.* Vol. 19 No. 2, pp. 521–534.
- Dong, Y. R. (1998). 'Non-Native Graduate Students' Thesis/Dissertation Writing in Science: Self-Reports by Students and Their Advisors from Two US Institutions'. *English for Specific Purposes*, Vol. 17 No. 4, pp. 369–390. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906\(97\)00054-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(97)00054-9).
- Fam, J., and Lee, J. C. (2019). 'Peer Mentoring: A Move towards Addressing Inequality between PhD Students'. *Neuroanatomy and Behaviour*, No. 1, e8, DOI: 10.35430/nab.2019.e8.
- Firth, C. 2021. 'Reading Groups: Organisation for Minor Politics?'. *Ephemera: Theory and Politics in Organization*, Vol. 21 No. 3, pp. 95–120.
- Fokkens-Bruninsma, M. and Jansen, E. (2021). 'Factors that Influence PhD Candidates' Success: the Importance of PhD Project Characteristics'. *Studies in Continuing Education*. Vol. 43, pp. 48–67.
- Hansen, A. and Prince, T. (2019). 'Shakespeare Reading Groups: Education Without the "Academy"?'. *Transformations: The Journal of Inclusive Scholarship and Pedagogy*, Vol. 29 No.1, pp. 4–29.
- Johnson, L., Lee, A., and Green, B. (2000). "The PhD and the Autonomous Self: Gender, Rationality and Postgraduate Pedagogy." *Studies in Higher Education*, Vol. 25 No. 2, pp. 135–147.
- Jolley, D., Griffiths, A. W., Friel, N., Ali, J. B., and Rix, K. (2015). 'The Importance of Peer Support during the Final Stages of a PhD'. in Norris, E. ed. *A Guide for Psychology Postgraduates: Surviving Postgraduate Study*. London: The British Psychological Society, pp. 36–41.
- Lee, A., and McKenzie, J. (2011). 'Evaluating Doctoral Supervision: Tensions in Eliciting Students' Perspectives'. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, Vol. 48 No. 1, pp. 69–78.
- Lusted, D. (1986). 'Why Pedagogy?' *Screen*, Vol. 27 No.5, 2–14.
- McAlpine, L. and Norton, J. (2006). 'Reframing Our Approach to Doctoral Programmes: An Integrative Framework for Research and Action'. *Higher Education Research & Development*, Vol. 25, pp. 3–17.
- Mead, S. and MacNeil, C. (2004). 'Peer Support: What Makes It Unique'. <https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.584.6618&rep=rep1&type=pdf>.
- Peplow, D. (2011). "'Oh, I've Known a Lot of Irish People": Reading Groups and the Negotiation of Literary Interpretation'. *Language and Literature: International Journal of Stylistics*, Vol. 20 No. 4, pp. 269–370.
- Pyhäntö, K., Stubb, J., and Lonka, K. (2009). 'Developing Scholarly Communities as Learning Environments for Doctoral Students'. *International Journal for Academic Development* Vol. 14 No. 3, pp. 221–232.
- Railton, D. and Watson, P. (2005). 'Teaching Autonomy: "Reading Groups" and the Development of Autonomous Learning Practices'. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, Vol. 6 No. 3, pp. 182–193.
- Ramírez-Adrados, A., Beltrán-Velasco, A. I., Gonzalez-de-Ramos, C., Fernández-Martínez, S., Martínez-Pascual, B., Fernández-Eliás, V. E., and Clemente-Suárez, V. J. (2020). 'The Effect of Final Dissertation Defense Language, Native vs. Non-Native, in the Psychophysiological Stress Response of University Students'. *Physiology & Behavior*, Vol. 224 (October): 113043. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.physbeh.2020.113043>.
- Saldanha, G., and O'Brien, S. (2014). *Research Methodologies in Translation Studies*. London and New York: Routledge.

- Samimy, K., Kim, S., Ah Lee, J., and Kasai, . (2011). 'A Participative Inquiry in a TESOL Program: Development of Three NNES Graduate Students' Legitimate Peripheral Participation to Fuller Participation'. *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. 95 No. 4, pp. 558–574. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01247.x>.
- Stracke, E. (2010). 'Undertaking the Journey Together: Peer Learning for a Successful and Enjoyable PhD Experience'. *Journal of University Teaching and Learning Practice*, Vol. 7 No. 1, pp. 111–121. <https://doi.org/10.53761/1.7.1.8>.
- Ward, M-H. and West, S. (2008). 'Blogging PhD Candidature: Revealing the Pedagogy'. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies and Society*, Vol. 6 No.1, pp. 60–71.

SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY IN HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

Gülden BOZAT

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
gulden.bozat@vakiflarbankasi.com

Assist. Prof. Dr. Azmiye YINAL

Akdeniz Karpaz University
azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of social responsibility in human resource management. This study was conducted with the relational survey model, which is one of the quantitative research methods. The population of the study resources of 310 people working in human departments in various sectors of private enterprises in TRNC and the sample of 108 participants. At the end of the research, it was determined that the difference between the groups according to gender and marital status of the Social Responsibility in Human Resources Scale sub-dimension scores was not significant.

It was determined that the difference between the groups according to the marital status of the Social Responsibility in Human Resources Scale sub-dimension scores was not significant. In this case, it can be said that married and single participants' perceptions of social responsibility in human resources are similar to each other. It was determined that some sub-dimension scores of the Social Responsibility in Human Resources Scale differed significantly between groups according to age. Participants aged 43 and above were found to have higher perceptions of remuneration practices, harmonization of employees to the work environment, moral social responsibility, economic social responsibility, and legal social responsibility than the others. In addition, it was found that those with 1-5 years of professional seniority had higher perceptions of selection and placement; career planning and harmonization of employees to the work environment than those with other professional seniority; those with more than 15 years of professional seniority had higher perceptions of compensation performance evaluation; employee and employer relations; moral social responsibility; economic social responsibility; voluntary social responsibility; legal social responsibility than those with other professional seniority.

Keywords: Human resources, Social responsibility, Work environment.

1. Introduction

1.1. Problem status

Human resource management is a discipline that aims to effectively manage the human resources of enterprises and to increase the job satisfaction and performance of employees. In this process, human resources management should also attach importance to social responsibility principles while developing policies and practices that support the strategic goals of the enterprise (Bingöl, 2010) .

Social responsibility is the responsibility of businesses to carry out their activities by considering the needs and expectations of the society, not only profit-oriented, but also taking into account the social and environmental effects. In terms of human resource management, social responsibility includes protecting the rights of employees, promoting fair labor relations, promoting diversity and inclusion, ensuring employee health and safety, and contributing to society (Mariani et al., 2023)

The perception of social responsibility in human resources management is an approach based on values such as taking care of the needs of the employees of the enterprises, protecting human rights, promoting diversity and inclusion, providing a fair and equitable environment in business life, and contributing to the general welfare of the society. Human resource management policies and practices of businesses should be designed in a way that reflects social responsibility principles (Yavuz and Bodur, 2023) .

The HR department works to protect the rights of employees, ensure fairness in the workplace and promote equal opportunity (Yinal and Banje, 2023). Ensuring that employees work in a safe working environment without discrimination is one of the primary goals of HR. The HR department is concerned with the development, implementation and monitoring of occupational health and safety policies. It takes measures to ensure that its employees work in a healthy and safe environment at the workplace and takes the necessary measures to prevent occupational accidents (Tehci and Senbursa, 2023) .

The HR department supports the training and development of employees. Businesses offer training programs and opportunities for employees to develop their skills and advance their careers. The HR department evaluates the impact of the business on society and plans and implements social responsibility projects that will contribute to

society. These projects may include voluntary work, donations and environmental sustainability activities (Tufan, 2023) .

The HR department's perception of social responsibility helps businesses operate in a socially responsible manner by focusing on issues such as sustainability and sensitivity to social issues.

1.2. Purpose of the research

The aim of this study is to examine the effects of social responsibility in human resources management. In this context, the sub-objectives of the research are as follows:

- Do the sub-dimension scores of the Social Responsibility Scale in Human Resources differ according to gender?
- the Social Responsibility Scale in Human Resources differ according to marital status?
- Do the sub-dimension scores of the Social Responsibility Scale in Human Resources differ according to age?
- Do the sub-dimension scores of the Social Responsibility Scale in Human Resources differ according to professional seniority?

1.3. Importance of research

Social responsibility in human resources management means that businesses continue their activities by considering the interests of employees and society. It is important for businesses to take into account their social and environmental impacts and contribute to sustainability and social values, instead of acting only profit-oriented. For this reason, it is thought that this study will contribute to the literature and will guide both the researchers working on the subject and the company officials.

1.4. Limitations

Study;

- Resources used in the research;
- The scale questions used in the research;
- Participating in the research is limited to the volunteer participants.

1.5. Definitions

Human resource management: It is a process that includes the creation, implementation and management of policies related to employees in enterprises (Öge, 2011) .

Social responsibility: It is the responsibility of businesses to contribute to the goals of sustainability and social welfare by considering the needs of society and the environment, as well as their economic activities (Orhaner, 2023) .

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Human Resources Management

Human resources management (HRM) is an interdisciplinary function that enables the effective and efficient management of human resources, which is the most valuable asset of an organization (Çiftçioğlu et al., 2019) . HRM includes a series of processes such as human resources planning, recruitment, training and development, performance management, remuneration, employee relations, occupational health and safety (Bayat, 2008) .

The main purpose of HRM is to enable businesses to gain competitive advantage by using their human resources in the best way (Karacan and Erdoğan, 2011) . HRM aims to place the employees in the right position, to support their development, and to increase their job satisfaction and commitment (Dogan, 2011) . At the same time, it aims to increase the motivation of employees, increase productivity and improve work performance in order for businesses to reach their goals (Can et al., 2005; Atmaca, 2010) .

Selection and Placement Practices: It includes the processes and practices that businesses use to recruit candidates with suitable talents and place them in the right positions. The HR selection and placement process aims to find compatible and successful employees who will meet the needs of the business (Liu et al., 2016; Doyle and Locke, 2014) .

Pricing practices: HR remuneration practices include the processes and policies that businesses use to ensure that employees are paid appropriately and competitively (Develioğlu et al., 2006) . HR remuneration practices are used to define the values of the employees, to reward their performance and to increase the motivation of the employees. Pricing practices of businesses are based on factors such as market data, operating budget, performance management and internal balance (Uzuner and Englander, 2015) .

Performance appraisal practices: These are the processes and methods that businesses use to measure the performance of their employees, provide feedback, support their development and make rewarding decisions. HR performance appraisal is the process of reaching the goals of the employees, demonstrating their competencies, evaluating their contributions and determining the areas of development (Keating, 1997; Evanko et al., 2017) .

Training and development practices: Includes the processes and programs that businesses use to develop employees' skills, increase their knowledge and skills, improve their performance, and advance their careers . HR training and development practices enable businesses to reveal the potential of their employees, achieve business goals and gain competitive advantage (Bek, 2007) .

Career planning practices: It includes the processes and policies that businesses use to support their employees' career development, set their goals, direct their talents, and create career paths that are compatible with business needs. HR career planning practices increase the motivation of employees, strengthen their commitment to the business and help improve the performance of employees (Sirbu et al., 2014) .

Occupational health and safety practices: It includes the processes and policies that businesses use to protect the health and safety of employees, prevent occupational accidents, manage workplace risks and ensure compliance with legal regulations (Aytaç et al., 2016) . HR worker health and safety practices aim to ensure that businesses organize the working environment in a safe and healthy way and ensure that employees have a good workplace experience (Tozkoparan and Taşoğlu, 2011) .

Adaptation of employees to the work environment: It performs various applications to adapt it to the business environment. These practices aim to enable newly hired employees to quickly adapt to the culture, values and working environment of the enterprise (Sıgır, 2011) .

Worker-employee relations : It includes the processes and policies that businesses use to manage their relations with employees, protect workers' rights, fulfill employer's legal and ethical responsibilities, and achieve business goals (Bilgin, 2001) . HR employee-employer relations cover subjects such as communicating with employees, resolving conflicts, evaluating performance and regulating working conditions (Eraslan and Balcı, 2022) .

2.2. Social responsibility

Social responsibility is the responsibility of businesses to contribute to the goals of sustainability and social welfare by considering the needs of the society and the environment, as well as their economic activities. Social responsibility is an understanding that requires businesses to add value to society and the environment, rather than just aiming to make a profit (Tehci and Senbursa, 2023) .

Among the social responsibilities of enterprises are the following (Orhaner, 2023) :

Moral social responsibility means that businesses operate based on ethical values, considering the interests of society and its stakeholders, and contribute to the general welfare of society. It is the basis of the understanding of moral social responsibility that businesses show sensitivity to environmental, social and economic problems and carry out activities to solve these problems, rather than just seeking profit (Yu et al., 2023) .

Economic social responsibility is an approach where businesses take responsibility in environmental, social and governance areas rather than just targeting financial success. Economic social responsibility aims to strengthen the sustainability of businesses, their contribution to society and their relations with stakeholders (Kong and Liu, 2023) .

Voluntary social responsibility is when businesses contribute to society by participating in socially-oriented activities such as non-profit organizations, community groups, or environmental projects. Such activities are usually carried out independently of the businesses' own fields of activity, and the employees of the businesses often participate voluntarily. Voluntary social responsibility strengthens the relations of businesses with society and aims to create a positive impact in society (Uba et al., 2023) .

Legal social responsibility refers to businesses operating in accordance with laws and regulations, protecting the rights of employees and fulfilling their legal responsibilities (Yao, 2023) .

3. METHOD

3.1. Research Model

This study was conducted with the relational survey model, which is one of the quantitative research methods. The relational survey model is one of the quantitative research methods and focuses on the researcher's analysis of the relationships between one or more independent variables and one or more dependent variables.

3.2. Universe and Sample

The universe of the study consisted of 310 people working in the human resources department of private enterprises in the TRNC in various sectors. The sample of the study was selected by purposive sampling method. Purposeful sampling method is a quantitative research method that provides sampling in accordance with the purpose of a research. In this method, the researcher uses sampling strategies that will serve a specific purpose and takes care in the selection of the sampling unit. Accordingly, 108 participants were included in the study.

3.3. Data Collection Tools

In the research, scale application was used for data collection. The scale used in the research consists of two parts. In the first part, there are two separate scales in which the employees evaluate the social responsibility practices in human resources practices in the institution they work in and the level of corporate social responsibility in the institution they work in general; In the second part, there is information about the democratic characteristics of the employees.

The scale was developed by Alkan (2004) in order to evaluate the level of social responsibility in the human resources practices of the institution where the employees work; It contains a total of 29 expressions consisting of 8 parts. The second scale used in the research was created by Alkan (2004) and consists of 15 statements developed for the employees to evaluate the social responsibility levels of the institutions in general. The scale measures four more dimensions of social responsibility. The expressions on the scale are in the five-point liquid meat scale, and the evaluations were made for the option of my son, one point for the five negative options. In addition, both scales were evaluated over 44 statements under a single scale. Therefore, the reliability analysis of the scale was made on 44 items.

Table 1. Reliability analysis of the scale

	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Social Responsibility Scale in Human Resources	0.947	44

In Table 1, the Cronbach's Alpha value of the Social Responsibility Scale in Human Resources was found to be 0.947.

3.4. Analysis of Data

In this study, in which the effect of social responsibility perception in human resources management was examined, the data obtained as a result of the application of measurement tools for the quantitative dimension were analyzed with the SPSS for Windows 28.0 package program.

4. Findings

4.1. Demographic Information

Demographic information of the participants is included in Table 2.

Table 2. Frequency and percentage distributions of the participants

		N	%
Gender	Woman	22	20.4
	Male	86	79.6
marital status	Married	43	39.8
	Single	65	60.2
Age range	20-30 age range	54	50.0
	31-42 age range	30	27.8
	age 43 and over	24	22.2
professional seniority	less than 1 year	6	5.6
	Between 1-5 Years	43	39.8
	Between 6-10 Years	27	25.0

11-15 Years	12	11.1
more than 15 years	20	18.5
total	108	100.0

When Table 2 is examined, 79.6% of the participants were male; It is seen that 60.2% of them are single, 50% of them are in the age range of 20-30 and 39.5% of them have a professional seniority of 1-5 years.

4.2. Comparison of Social Responsibility Scale Sub-Dimension Scores in Human Resources by Demographic Variables

Table 3. Comparison of Social Responsibility Scale Sub-Dimension Scores in Human Resources by Gender

Scale Dimensions	Gender	n	Median (IQR)	Group Comparison
Selection and Placement Applications	Woman	22	15.72 (1.69)	Z= 0.39; p=0.531
	Male	86	14.95 (1.72)	
Pricing apps	Woman	22	13.86 (2.25)	Z= 0.006; p=0.938
	Male	86	13.89 (2.08)	
Performance evaluation applications	Woman	22	11.13 (1.45)	Z= 0.66; p=0.416
	Male	86	10.91 (1.21)	
Training and development applications	Woman	22	14.04 (1.29)	Z= 0.000; p=0.981
	Male	86	13.70 (1.25)	
Career planning applications	Woman	22	14.81 (1.56)	Z= 0.007; p=0.937
	Male	86	14.58 (1.52)	
Occupational health and safety practices	Woman	22	12.77 (1.23)	Z= 0.139; p=0.709
	Male	86	12.63 (1.22)	
Adaptation of employees to the work environment	Woman	22	16.68 (1.49)	Z= 0.036; p=848
	Male	86	16.38 (1.41)	
worker-employee relations	Woman	22	13.00 (1.51)	Z= 0.41; p=0.518
	Male	86	12.81(1.49)	
moral social responsibility	Woman	22	15.50(2,26)	Z= 0.008; p=0.928
	Male	86	15.24 (2.13)	
Economic social responsibility	Woman	22	16.09 (3.00)	Z= 0.784; p=328
	Male	86	16.11 (2.48)	
Voluntary social responsibility	Woman	22	10.40 (1.56)	Z= 0.22; p=639
	Male	86	10.26 (1.38)	
Legal social responsibility	Woman	22	11.77 (1.50)	Z= 0.370; p=544
	Male	86	11.63 (1.26)	

p>0.005

In Table 3, it was determined that the sub-dimension scores of the Social Responsibility Scale in Human Resources did not differ between the groups according to gender (p>0.05). In this case, it can be said that the social responsibility perceptions of male and female participants in human resources are similar to each other.

Table 4. Comparison of Social Responsibility Scale Sub-Dimension Scores in Human Resources by Marital Status

Scale Dimensions	marital status	n	Median (IQR)	Group Comparison
Selection and Placement Applications	Married	43	15.32 (1.67)	Z=0.33; p=0.562
	Single	65	14.96 (1.77)	
Pricing apps	Married	43	13.55 (1.79)	2.21; p=0.139
	Single	65	14.10 (2.27)	
Performance evaluation applications	Married	43	10.88 (1.15)	Z=0.823; p=0.366
	Single	65	11.01 (1.34)	
Training and development applications	Married	43	13.88 (1.29)	0.166;p=0.684
	Single	65	13.70 (1.24)	
Career planning applications	Married	43	14.86 (1.52)	0.704; p=0.403
	Single	65	14.47 (1.52)	
Occupational health and safety practices	Married	43	12.60 (1.31)	1,882; p=0.403
	Single	65	12.70 (1.16)	
Adaptation of employees to the work environment	Married	43	16.55 (1.40)	0.064; p=0.801
	Single	65	16.36 (1.45)	
worker -employee relations	Married	43	12.65 (1.41)	0.098; p=0.754
	Single	65	12.98 (1.53)	
moral social responsibility	Married	43	15,046 (2.09)	0.730; p=0.395
	Single	65	15.46 (2.18)	
Economic social responsibility	Married	43	15,674 (2.35)	1,544; p=0.395
	Single	65	16.40 (2.70)	
Voluntary social responsibility	Married	43	10.16 (1.30)	1,594; p=0.210
	Single	65	10.38 (1.48)	
Legal social responsibility	Married	43	11.44 (1.14)	0.740; p=0.309
	Single	65	11.81 (1.40)	

p>0.005

In Table 4, it was determined that the sub-dimension scores of the Social Responsibility Scale in Human Resources did not differ between the groups according to marital status (p>0.05). In this case, it can be said that the social responsibility perceptions of married and single participants in human resources are similar to each other.

Table 5. Comparison of Social Responsibility Scale Sub-Dimension Scores in Human Resources by Age

Scale Dimensions	Age	n	Median (IQR)	Group Comparison
Selection and Placement Applications	20-30 age range	54	15.59 (1.80)	$\chi^2 = 4.76, p=0.010$
	31-42 age range	30	14.46 (1.63)	
	age 43 and over	24	14.83 (1.40)	
Pricing apps	20-30 age range	54	13.22 (1.70)	$\chi^2 = 9.29; p=0.000$
	31-42 age range	30	13.96 (2.07)	
	age 43 and over	24	15.29 (2.33)	
Performance evaluation applications	20-30 age range	54	10.72 (1.07)	$\chi^2 = 4.11; p=0.019$
	31-42 age range	30	10.90 (1.24)	
	age 43 and over	24	11.58 (1.52)	
Training and development applications	20-30 age range	54	13.88 (1.31)	$\chi^2 = 0.507; p=0.603$
	31-42 age range	30	13.73 (1.31)	
	age 43 and over	24	13.58 (1.10)	

Career planning applications	20-30 age range	54	14.64 (1.54)	$\chi^2 = 1.12; p=0.327$
	31-42 age range	30	14.33 (1.62)	
	age 43 and over	24	14.95 (1.33)	
Occupational health and safety practices	20-30 age range	54	12.72 (1.23)	$\chi^2 = 1.47; p=0.234$
	31-42 age range	30	12.36 (1.12)	
	age 43 and over	24	12.91 (1.28)	
Adaptation of employees to the work environment	20-30 age range	54	16.48 (1.37)	$\chi^2 = 5.25; p=0.007$
	31-42 age range	30	15.86 (1.22)	
	age 43 and over	24	17.08 (1.55)	
Employee and employer relations	20-30 age range	54	12.42 (1.28)	$\chi^2 = 6.11 ; p=0.003$
	31-42 age range	30	13.00(1.31)	
	age 43 and over	24	13.62 (1.81)	
moral social responsibility	20-30 age range	54	14.68 (1.75)	$\chi^2 = 5.30; p=0.006$
	31-42 age range	30	15.63 (2.09)	
	age 43 and over	24	16.25 (2.62)	
Economic social responsibility	20-30 age range	54	15.37 (2.04)	$\chi^2 = 10.19; p=0.000$
	31-42 age range	30	15.93(2.75)	
	age 43 and over	24	18.00 (2.60)	
Voluntary social responsibility	20-30 age range	54	9.94 (1.15)	$\chi^2 = 4.11; p=0.019$
	31-42 age range	30	10.46 (1.59)	
	age 43 and over	24	10.87 (1.54)	
Legal social responsibility	20-30 age range	54	11.40 (1.03)	$\chi^2 = 13.03; p=0.000$
	31-42 age range	30	11.26 (1.25)	
	age 43 and over	24	12.75 (1.39)	

p<0.005

In Table 5, it was determined that some sub-dimension scores of the Social Responsibility in Human Resources Scale differed between the groups according to age (p<0.05). According to the other participants who are 43 years old and over; apply a fee ($\chi^2 = 9.29; p=0.000$), adaptation of employees to the work environment ($\chi^2 = 5.25; p=0.007$), moral social responsibility ($\chi^2 = 5.30; p=0.006$); economic social responsibility ($\chi^2 = 10.19; p=0.000$); It was determined that the perceptions of legal social responsibility ($\chi^2 = 13.03; p=0.000$) were higher.

Table 6. Comparison of Social Responsibility Scale Sub-Dimension Scores in Human Resources by Professional Seniority

Scale Dimensions	professional seniority	n	Median (IQR)	Group Comparison
Selection and Placement Applications	less than 1 year	6	12.50 (0.54)	$\chi^2 = 14.50; p=0.000$
	Between 1-5 Years	43	16.18 (1.41)	
	Between 6-10 Years	27	15.03 (1.72)	
	11-15 Years	12	14.25 (0.86)	
	more than 15 years	20	14.20 (1.36)	
Pricing apps	less than 1 year	6	10.50 (0.54)	$\chi^2 = 39.95; p=0.000$
	Between 1-5 Years	43	12.93 (1.12)	
	Between 6-10 Years	27	13.62 (1.62)	
	11-15 Years	12	14.75 (1.35)	
	more than 15 years	20	16.80 (1.50)	
	less than 1 year	6	8.50 (0.54)	$\chi^2 = 18.64 ; p=0.000$

Performance evaluation applications	Between 1-5 Years	43	10.65 (0.84)	
	Between 6-10 Years	27	10.96 (0.97)	
	11-15 Years	12	11.25 (0.86)	
	more than 15 years	20	12.20 (1.36)	
Training and development applications	less than 1 year	6	15.00 (0.00)	$\chi^2 = 3.51; p=0.010$
	Between 1-5 Years	43	13.88 (1.29)	
	Between 6-10 Years	27	13.96 (1.15)	
	11-15 Years	12	13.00 (1.47)	
	more than 15 years	20	13.40 (1.04)	
Career planning applications	less than 1 year	6	12.00 (0.00)	$\chi^2 = 6.12; p=0.000$
	Between 1-5 Years	43	14.88 (1.43)	
	Between 6-10 Years	27	14.85 (1.37)	
	11-15 Years	12	14.25 (1.86)	
Occupational health and safety practices	more than 15 years	20	14.80 (1.19)	$\chi^2 = 2.13; p=0.082$
	less than 1 year	6	11.50 (0.54)	
	Between 1-5 Years	43	12.81 (1.34)	
	Between 6-10 Years	27	12.51 (1.22)	
	11-15 Years	12	12.50 (1.16)	
Adaptation of employees to the work environment	more than 15 years	20	13.00 (0.91)	$\chi^2 = 5.56 ; p=0.000$
	less than 1 year	6	15.50 (0.54)	
	Between 1-5 Years	43	16.79 (1.33)	
	Between 6-10 Years	27	15.96(0.64)	
Employee and employer relations	11-15 Years	12	15.50(1.73)	$\chi^2 = 18.99 ; p=0.000$
	more than 15 years	20	17.20(1.76)	
	less than 1 year	6	11.50 (0.54)	
	Between 1-5 Years	43	12.06 (0.98)	
	Between 6-10 Years	27	13.14 (1.16)	
moral social responsibility	11-15 Years	12	12.75 (1.38)	$\chi^2 = 19.00; p=0.000$
	more than 15 years	20	14.60(1.53)	
	less than 1 year	6	12.00 (0.00)	
	Between 1-5 Years	43	14.23(1.10)	
Economic social responsibility	Between 6-10 Years	27	15.77(1.86)	$\chi^2 = 42.41; p=0.000$
	11-15 Years	12	16.50(1.56)	
	more than 15 years	20	17.20(2.46)	
	less than 1 year	6	10.50(0.54)	
	Between 1-5 Years	43	15.39(1.07)	
Voluntary social responsibility	Between 6-10 Years	27	15.48(2.04)	$\chi^2 = 22.40 ; p=0.000$
	11-15 Years	12	17.75(1.35)	
	more than 15 years	20	19.20(2.19)	
	less than 1 year	6	7.50(0.54)	
Voluntary social responsibility	Between 1-5 Years	43	9.79(0.59)	$\chi^2 = 22.40 ; p=0.000$
	Between 6-10 Years	27	10.37(1.30)	
	11-15 Years	12	11.50(0.90)	
	more than 15 years	20	11.40(1.53)	

	less than 1 year	6	9.00(0.00)
	Between 1-5 Years	43	11.60(0.65)
Legal social responsibility	Between 6-10 Years	27	11.14(0.94) $\chi^2 = 38.72$; p=0.000
	11-15 Years	12	11.50(0.52)
	more than 15 years	20	13.40(1.23)

p<0.005

Table 6 shows that some sub-dimension scores of the Social Responsibility in Human Resources Scale according to professional seniority. The difference between groups was found to be significant (p<0.05). According to this;

Selection and placement of those with a professional seniority of 1-5 years ($\chi^2 = 14.50$; p=0.000); career planning ($\chi^2 = 6.12$; p=0.000) and adaptation of employees to the work environment ($\chi^2 = 5.56$; p=0.000) compared to those with other professional seniority ;

Remuneration of those with more than 15 years of professional experience ($\chi^2 = 39.95$; p=0.000) performance evaluation ($\chi^2 = 18.64$; p=0.000); employee and employer relations ($\chi^2 = 18.99$; p=0.000); moral social responsibility ($\chi^2 = 19.00$; p=0.000); economic social responsibility ($\chi^2 = 42.41$; p=0.000); voluntary social responsibility ($\chi^2 = 22.40$; p=0.000); It was found that the perceptions of legal social responsibility ($\chi^2 = 38.72$; p=0.000) were higher than those with other professional seniority.

Conclusion And Recommendations

In this study, the effects of social responsibility in human resource management were examined. At the end of the research, it was determined that the sub-dimension scores of the Social Responsibility Scale in Human Resources did not differ between the groups according to gender and marital status. It was determined that the sub-dimension scores of the Social Responsibility Scale in Human Resources did not differ significantly according to marital status (p>0.05). In this case, it can be said that the social responsibility perceptions of married and single participants in human resources are similar to each other.

It was determined that some sub-dimension scores of the Social Responsibility in Human Resources Scale differ between groups according to age. According to the other participants who are 43 years old and over; remuneration, adaptation of employees to the work environment, moral social responsibility; economic social responsibility; It was determined that the perceptions of legal social responsibility were higher.

Selection and placement of those with a professional seniority of 1-5 years; career planning and adaptation of employees to the work environment perceptions of practice compared to those with other professional seniority; Remuneration performance evaluation of those with more than 15 years of professional experience; employee and employer relations; moral social responsibility; economic social responsibility; voluntary social responsibility; It was found that the perceptions of legal social responsibility were higher than those with other professional seniority

Here are some suggested steps to increase the effects of social responsibility in the field of human resource management (HR) and to achieve positive results for businesses:

- **Ethical Business Practices:** Businesses should base their HR policies and practices on ethical values. It is important to promote behavior that complies with ethical standards in order to protect the rights of employees, ensure fairness and prevent discrimination in the workplace.
- **Occupational Health and Safety:** The HR department should play an active role in occupational health and safety. Businesses should take appropriate measures to protect worker health and safety, and take necessary measures to prevent work accidents and ensure the safety of the working environment.
- **Training and Development Opportunities:** The HR department should provide employees with access to training and development opportunities. Businesses should offer support such as training programs, mentoring and coaching so that employees can develop their skills and advance their careers.
- **Employee Engagement and Communication:** Businesses should value employee opinions. The HR department should encourage employee engagement, effectively manage feedback processes, and provide open communication channels.
- **Community Projects and Volunteering:** The HR department can organize social projects and volunteering activities to increase the business's contribution to society. These projects increase the sensitivity of the employees to the society and enable the business to establish a stronger bond with the society.
- **Environmental Sustainability:** The HR department should take the lead in reducing the environmental impact of the business and achieving its sustainability goals. It is important to encourage environmentally

friendly practices, to ensure efficient use of energy and resources, and to conduct studies on waste management.

Reference

- Alkan F (2004). *Social responsibility practices in human resources management and its relationship with corporate social responsibility* , Master Thesis, Istanbul University Institute of Social Sciences.
- Atmaca, K. (2010). Human resource management and ethics. *Journal of the Court of Accounts* , (76), 63-76.
- Aytaç, S., Gök, MG, & Özkan, S. (2016). Examination of basic first aid training, which is an occupational health and safety practice. *Gazi Medical Journal* , 27 (2).
- Bayat, B. (2008). Strategic nature of human resource management. *Journal of Gazi University Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences* , 10 (3), 67-91.
- Bek, H. (2007). An Example Application of Training and Development Activity in Human Resources Management. *Journal of Selcuk University Institute of Social Sciences* , (17), 107-120.
- Bilgin, L. (2001). Psychological contract in employee-employer relations. *Journal of Anadolu University Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences* , 17 (1), 287-296.
- Bingol, D. (2010). *Human resource management* . Istanbul: Beta Publications.
- Can, H., Kavuncubaşı, S., & Yıldırım, S. (2005). *Human resource management* . Ankara: Political Bookstore.
- Çiftçiöğlü , BA, Mutlu, M., & Katircioğlu, S. (2019). The Relationship of Industry 4.0 and Human Resources Management. *Bandırma Onyediy Eylül University Journal of Social Sciences Research* , 2 (1), 31-53.
- Develiöğlü , K., Hasit, G., & Bağci, U. G. (2006). Managers' perspectives on human resources management within the framework of total quality management: An application in Bursa (DORSAB).
- Dogan, A. (2011). Electronic human resource management and functions. *Journal of Internet Applications and Management* , 2 (2), 51-80.
- Doyle, D., & Locke, G. (2014). Lacking Leaders: The Challenges of Principal Recruitment, Selection, and Placement. *Thomas B Fordham Institute* .
- Eraslan, E., & Balcı, A. İ. (2022). A Comparative Analysis of Changing Collective Bargaining Levels at the Conflict of Human Resources Management and Industrial Relations. *Niğde Ömer Halisdemir University Journal of Social Sciences Institute* , 4 (2), 164-180.
- Evanko , B., Boettcher, SW, Yoo, SJ, & Stucky, GD (2017). Redox-enhanced electrochemical capacitors: status, opportunity, and best practices for performance evaluation. *ACS Energy Letters* , 2 (11), 2581-2590.
- Karacan, E., & Erdogan, O. N. (2011). An analytical approach to occupational health and safety in terms of human resource management functions. *Kocaeli University Journal of Social Sciences* , (21), 102-117.
- Keating, AS (1997). Determinants of divisional performance evaluation practices. *Journal of Accounting and Economics* , 24 (3), 243-273.
- Kong, D., & Liu, B. (2023). Digital Technology and Corporate Social Responsibility: Evidence from China. *Emerging Markets Finance and Trade* , 1-27.
- Liu , Y., Cibir, R., Bralts, VF, Chaubey, I., Bowling, LC, & Engel, BA (2016). Optimal selection and placement of BMPs and LID practices with a rainfall-runoff model. *Environmental Modeling & Software* , 80 , 281-296.
- Mariani , MM, Al-Sultan, K., & De Massis, A. (2023). Corporate social responsibility in family firms: A systematic literature review. *Journal of Small Business Management* , 61 (3), 1192-1246.
- Orhaner, B. (2023). Cultural Values and Corporate Responsibility as a Global Experience: The Case of Turkey. *Academy Journal of Social Sciences* , 10 (28), 1-17.
- Orhaner, B. (2023). Cultural Values and Corporate Responsibility as a Global Experience: The Case of Turkey. *Academy Journal of Social Sciences* , 10 (28), 1-17.
- Oge, HS (2011). *Human resource management* . Istanbul: Education Publishing House.
- Sigri, U. (2011). A Comparative Study on the Harmonization of Personal and Organizational Values in the Public and Private Sectors. *Journal of Muğla University Institute of Social Sciences* , (18).
- Sirbu , J., Popa, M., & Pipas, MD (2014). Professional Career Planning-Practice and Results. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences* , 4 (7), 350.
- Tehci, A., & Senbursa , N. (2023). Corporate Social Responsibility, Corporate Image and Word of Mouth: A Marine Business Customer Perspective. *Ordu University Institute of Social Sciences Journal of Social Sciences Research* , 13 (1), 455-470.
- Tehci, A., & Senbursa , N. (2023). Corporate Social Responsibility, Corporate Image and Word of Mouth: A Marine Business Customer Perspective. *Ordu University Institute of Social Sciences Journal of Social Sciences Research* , 13 (1), 455-470.
- Tozkoparan, G., & Taşoğlu, J. (2011). A research to determine the attitudes of the employees about occupational health and safety practices. *Uludağ University Journal of the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences* , 30 (1), 181-209.

- Tufan, C. (2023). An Empirical Research to Understand the Relationships Between Employees' Perceptions of CSR, Job Ingenuity and Job Performance. *Journal of Economics, Administrative and Political Researches (İKTİSAD)* , 8 (20), 69-86.
- Uba , CD, Hasan, MN, & Mshelia, JB (2023). Social responsibility in micro businesses in an African context: Towards a theoretical understanding. *Business Ethics, the Environment & Responsibility* , 32 (1), 164-178.
- Uzuner-Smith, S., & Englander, K. (2015). Exposing ideology within university policies: A critical discourse analysis of faculty hiring, promotion and remuneration practices. *Journal of Education Policy* , 30 (1), 62-85.
- Yao , S. (2023). Corporate Social Responsibility Regulatory System Based on Sustainable Corporation Law Pathway. *Sustainability* , 15 (2), 1638.
- Yavuz, E., & Bodur, M. (2023). A Study to Examine the Relationship Between Servant Leadership and Organizational Alienation in Strategic Human Resources Management of Organizations. *International Journal of Economics and Administrative Studies* , (39), 92-106.
- Yu , Q., Wang, H., Tian, Y., Wang, Q., Yang, L., Liu, Q., & Li, Y. (2023). Moral courage, job-esteem, and social responsibility in disaster relief nurses. *Nursing ethics* .
- Yinal, A., & Banje, F. U. (2023). Social Media Habits Of University Students And The Effects Of Media On Students. *The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education*-April, 13(2).

THE EFFECT OF INTERACTIONIST AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS PERCEIVED BY BANK EMPLOYEES ON THE LEVEL OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Hüseyin HÜDAOĞLULARI
huseyin.hudaoglulari@gmail.com
Cyprus Health and Social Sciences University
North Cyprus

INTRODUCTION

Organizations are structures formed as a result of the joining forces of two or more individuals in order to achieve common goals. However, it is not enough to create an organizational structure alone in order to achieve the goals. In order to achieve these goals, the individuals forming the organizations should be willing to reach this goal and should proceed within the framework necessary to reach the goal. In this context, the necessity of high organizational commitment levels of the members of the organization emerges in order to have such willingness. The idea of working with more effective and qualified individuals in order to maintain their organizational existence in today's competitive environment emphasizes the fact of increasing the organizational commitment levels of the employees. Although the concept of organizational commitment has been examined by many researchers, it is seen that there is no common definition on it. It is known that there are many different definitions regarding the concept of organizational commitment.

According to a definition, organizational commitment is the whole of internalized normative pressures in order to behave in accordance with the goals determined by the organization (Wiener, 1982). According to Meyer and Allen (1991), organizational commitment is an attitude that shapes the relationship that the employee develops with the organization and makes them decide to be a permanent member of the organization. On the other hand, Mathews and Shepherd (2002) define the concept of organizational commitment as the process of shaping the attitudes and behaviors of the individual towards the job he/she works in and the organization he/she is involved in, and making sense of these behaviors.

O'Reilly states that this concept is a concept that qualifies the psychological dependence of the employee against the organization and includes the beliefs developed against the work participation, commitment and organizational goals and values (Çetin, 2004).

İnce and Gül (2005) define this concept as the employee's belief in the goals and values of the organization, their acceptance of these values and goals, their effort for the benefit of the organization and their desire to ensure continuity in the organization. Morrow (1983) defines the concept of commitment as the desire of the personnel to stay in the institution and to work for the institution, and the internalization of the goals and values of the institution.

According to Rowden (2000), organizational commitment is the desire of the employee to be included in an organization and to adopt the goals of the organization. Balay (2000) reports that although the employee has the opportunity to reach better opportunities in another institution, continuing in the institution he is involved in is related to organizational commitment. Boylu, Pelit, and Güçlü (2007) mention that the existence of organizational commitment is an important managerial dynamic that reduces absenteeism, being late for work, and intention to quit. There are a number of elements that affect organizational commitment. Some of these elements are in the figure mentioned below.

Individual factors are very important in order to adopt organizational goals and objectives and to exist in the institution for a long time (Çetin, 2004). Organizational commitment, which characterizes the individual's commitment to his organization and his effort to increase the performance of the organization he is involved in, is shaped by organizational elements such as age, seniority, and leadership characteristics of managers (Yalçın & İplik, 2005). The concept of organizational commitment is handled in two sub-categories as demographic elements and elements related to business life.

Factors such as gender, age, professional seniority, education level, psychological and social dynamics of the person, motivation, success motive and work habits and the value it places on business life are demographic factors. The elements related to business life are ranked as success motives, participatory and interest values (Gümüştekin and Emet, 2009).

Northcraft and Neale state that elements related to working life qualify organizational factors. In this context, it is possible to say that organizational commitment is associated with organizational elements. Organizational elements are elements such as work groups, the nature of the job, the importance and value attributed to the job, role conflict organizational culture elements, the skill capacities of the employees, work concentration, task awareness and identity, and internal rewards. Another factor affecting the level of organizational commitment of the individual is external factors. These factors are the opportunity to find a job in other organizations, the current conditions of the sector, the socio-economic characteristics of the society, professionalism and the unemployment level of the country (İnce and Gül, 2005).

Many innovations and developments in today's world have led to changes in administrative processes. As a result of the changes in this field, different types of management styles have emerged in institutions. As a result of the changes in the management understanding of institutions, the need for leaders has gained importance. As the need for leaders has become so evident, different leadership characteristics have emerged. Transformational leadership characteristics emerge as a result of all these developments and innovations. The attitudes and behaviors of the employees in the institutions have moved to an even more important position as a result of the changes in the administrative processes. The increasing competition in today's business life requires institutions to continue their activities in a sustainable way in order to gain a competitive advantage over their competitors. This requirement also reveals the importance of the concept of organizational commitment for institutions. The importance of leadership for institutions has also made the need for leadership in institutions to be felt more deeply. In this context, it can be said that leadership characteristics, especially transformational leadership characteristics, have a critical importance in determining the direction of institutions. Changes in the leadership and organizational field caused by the changes in managerial organizations have been effective in the development of the relationship between managerial process, transformational leadership characteristics and organizational commitment.

When the studies on the concept of leadership are evaluated, it is seen that there is a very rich leadership literature. Considering the leadership styles that have been examined and developed so far, it is also stated that creating a mutually accepted approach and model for the concept of leadership depends on a perspective and evaluation of the transformational leadership characteristics by determining the moral characteristics and transformational aspect of the leadership concept. This new role assigns leaders the task of managing and directing organizational efforts and actions within the framework of the transformational characteristics they characterize their organizations. While the leader directs the employees and the organization around him in line with the goals, he/she should manage the individual, situation and facts by evaluating them within the scope of transformational dimensions and moral values.

Managers with transformational leadership are the people who instantly notice an error or mistake in the organization and make an effort to eliminate the mistake. The goal of transformational leadership is to determine the limits of the transformational dimensions that exist in the decisions taken in every administrative process, to reveal them and to create transformational principles that shape the decision-making process in organizations. The aim of creating a transformational work environment within the framework of transformational features and codes within the institution adds new dimensions to the leadership approach. In line with these emerging transformative goals and codes, it will contribute to the equal and fair evaluation of work and work-related processes, which is one of the necessary elements in order to reveal both the individual satisfaction and happiness of the employees and the effectiveness they should display within the organization.

Organizations are environments where various events that affect and shape both employees, organizations and society as a result of intra-organizational dynamics occur and different attitudes and behaviors emerge. When they consider the level of commitment of individuals, workplaces where they spend most of their daily lives come first in these environments. Considering this issue within the scope of the concept of organizational commitment, employees agree that perceived commitment shapes the thoughts and behaviors of employees and that this situation has significant effects on productivity and effectiveness, emphasizing that it is an important phenomenon for understanding and evaluating organizational dynamics, intra-organizational behavior.

As a result of recorded technological developments, social and cultural innovations and increased competition, there is a need for transformation in order for institutions to keep up with these innovations. It is clear that leaders, especially those who exhibit transformational characteristics, can be successful in an intense competitive environment at the point of adapting to these innovations.

According to Bruns, transformational leadership is a type of leadership in which one or more individuals interact with each other and increase their efficiency and motivation. In other words, the focus is on mutual support of

organizational goals (Stewart, 2006). Burns also states that transformational leadership is the process of following and implementing collaborative goals within the framework of mutual interactions of internal processes and motives based on the desired efficiency and change of leaders and employees. Employees are made more efficient and prominent by transformational leaders, and they feel important and exalted for the organization (Celep, 2004).

According to Bass and Steidlmyer (1999), the main point of these leadership characteristics is personal acceptance and understanding, charisma and intellectual stimulation and inspiration principles (as cited in Özaralli, 2002). Based on all this information, the effect of leadership characteristics exhibited in today's business world on managerial dynamics such as organizational commitment is clear. In this study, it is aimed to examine the effect of perceived interactionist and transformational leadership characteristics of bank employees on organizational commitment.

2.CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Organization

Since the existence of humanity, individuals have understood the necessity of acting in unity and solidarity in order to meet their own needs, and in this direction, needs have begun to be met through mutual cooperation. The cooperation arising from this unity, which emerged depending on the basic needs, laid the groundwork for the formation of the first organizations. Organizations that go back as far as human history are structures that were consciously formed by two or more people in a planned way in order to achieve certain goals (Olgungül, 2017).

Unions, corporate companies, government institutions, schools, hospitals, clubs, political organizations State institutions, schools, hospitals, clubs, political organizations are structures that can be counted among the organizations. Organizations; it ensures that the activities of a group of people proceed in harmony, within the framework of certain rules, in order to fulfill a clear and common purpose in responsibility, authority and hierarchy by distribution of tasks and division of labor (Evans, 2001). The most basic structures of organizations are human beings. They are structures that emerge as a result of conscious action to realize the goals that have been framed. Every organization is also a social unit and exhibits its actions in a social environment. The main functions of organizations are to integrate the acquired knowledge within the framework of a common purpose. However, organizations are reported to increase effectiveness and efficiency. They effectively address individuals' requirements and meet individuals' requirements for belonging. Another purpose of organization is material requirements. Individuals realize some goals that they cannot meet alone through organizations (Tutar, 2009). Organizations that act within the framework of a goal must be compatible with the members of the organization in order to achieve these determined goals. The concept that represents the process of ensuring this harmony is the management process. Organization and management are two concepts that cannot be considered separately (Blau and Peter, 1962). Management is the process of using the existing human and material resources and power in the most effective and efficient way to reach the goal (Bozkuş and Gündüz, 2016).

2.2 Organizational Commitment Concept

The extent to which the effort and talent of the personnel are demonstrated shows their commitment to the organization. Ensuring efficiency and effectiveness is very related to the commitment of the personnel to the organization (Aydın, 2018). Organizational commitment depends on the ability of the personnel to be directed positively by the organization and to develop their skills. It is necessary to draw attention to organizational commitment in order to develop organizations and achieve organizational success. It is necessary to draw attention to organizational commitment in order to develop organizations and achieve organizational success. The effort and desire of the personnel for the organization, the sense of commitment they feel to the organization, are important elements required for the realization of the organization's goals. Organizational effectiveness can be achieved with personnel who have a sense of commitment (Olgungül, 2017). In order to ensure the continuity of the organization and to adapt to changes, the bond and harmony of the personnel with the organization is of great importance. Positive effects such as decrease in absenteeism and increase in job performance show that organizational dependence increases. It ensures the correct orientation of personnel, increased organizational commitment and continuity of the organization. Organizational commitment is the desire of the personnel to make more effort to achieve the organizational goals, to adopt the organizational goals and to continue in the organization (Karakulle, 2020). The separate treatment of teachings such as psychology, communication, sociology and management leads to the inability to obtain a generally accepted full definition of organizational commitment (Maslow, 1954).

According to Allen and Meyer (1990), organizational commitment consists of the following three sub-dimensions: continuance commitment, affective commitment, and normative commitment.

Emotional Commitment: Here, the personnel stay in the organization because they "want". The personnel knows the organization well, establishes an emotional relationship with the organization and becomes a whole with the organization and becomes identical. Personnel who have a high level of emotional commitment to their organization are in the organization because they want to. Employees are committed to the interests, goals and values of the organization.

Continuance Commitment: In continuance commitment, the personnel are attached to the organization because they "need". Continuance commitment occurs if the personnel prioritizes values such as career, benefits, and seniority. In this case, the personnel will continue to stay in the organization even if they don't want it (Gül, 2002). Continuance commitment is the preference of the personnel to stay in the organization due to perceptions such as scarcity of job options and the costs of leaving the organization.

Normative Commitment Here, the employee continues to the organization because they "feel obliged". The employee prioritizes values such as loyalty and faithfulness. The employee believes in the correctness of the commitment to the organization, considers it a task. The employee is connected to the organization with a sense of obligation.

2.3 Leadership

One of the concepts that has the most interest in the social sciences is leadership. The concept of leader, which is the result of this situation, is one of the most studies on it. The reason why this concept has been emphasized so much has led to a large-scale analysis of leadership, as well as being an area where the disagreement that we encounter on all issues related to human beings is more intensely examined (Gedik, 2020). According to Özkan (2016), he said that he has as many definitions as people trying to define the concept of leader. The most important difficulty experienced in the definition of leadership is that it is confused with a concept such as management and manager. Aksaraylı (2015) is of the opinion that the functions of leaders and management activities are different. According to Akyüz (2018), the most important task of the management is to overcome the complexities within the organization and not to ensure harmony. On the other hand, leadership is overcoming change on the condition of producing action in line with the vision of the future. Similarly, according to Ardahan and Konal (2017), while managing is defined as being able to accomplish daily tasks and dominating routine life, they define the concept of leadership as influencing others and producing vision.

Managers and leadership are defined as individuals who do their duties correctly, and leaders as people who do the right job. Although there is no reconciled definition of the concept of leadership, it can be said that there is a compromise on the fundamental factors of leadership. If we talk about the basic elements that have been agreed on; It can be said that leadership is a process, an influential concept, leadership can only be in a group, and includes common goals (Altinkurt, 2015). In the light of these factors, Yangil (2016) defined the concept of leadership as a process that affects the group in order to realize the common goals of the individual. Defining the concept of leadership as a process emphasized the interaction between the leader and the followers rather than the character trait of this situation. According to Alga (2017), he defined leadership as overcoming change. According to Yalçın and İliç (2017), vision and goals are defined as the ability to influence the group or groups in order to be successful. According to Yeşil (2016), leadership is defined as the sum of the knowledge and ability to gather a group of individuals in line with the determined goals and to mobilize the people in the group to make these goals a reality. According to Korkut (2019), leadership is defined as a role behavior that drags the individuals in the group towards certain goals in certain environments and succeeds in mobilizing people on the plane of these goals. If we summarize the definitions, it can be defined as mobilizing a certain group towards the goal in line with determining and achieving goals (Dağlı and Ağalday, 2018).

According to Başar and Basım (2018), the concept of leadership has been defined in different ways with different approaches in the process. In the first studies on the concept of leadership, the concept of leadership was examined in terms of the characteristics that a leader should have. With these studies, it has been tried to determine the universal characteristics in effective leadership and it has been seen that the trait theory has been developed. Those who think that this theory is not sufficient to define the concept of leadership have developed the skills approach by emphasizing the importance of leaders' skills in the concept of leadership, as well as the characteristics of leaders. With the emergence of this approach, the view that leadership is not an innate feature has begun to dominate. Researchers trying to reveal the behaviors that make leadership effective have revealed the theory of behavior (Alga, 2017). Studies have continued in the form of an effort to find a valid way under all conditions in the universal qualities, skills and behavioral approaches that the traits approach is the subject of. Later on, it was understood that it was not possible to determine effective leadership characteristics or behaviors under all conditions with the effect of relativist thinking, and research on the concept of leadership evolved from

the universal dimension to the situational dimension. This change in the view of the concept of leadership has reached its conclusion with the emergence of situational approaches (Özmen, Eriş, & Özer., 2020).

2.4 Transformative and Interactive Leadership

Leadership studies started in the 1900s and developed in the 1950s. Developing leadership studies In the 1980s, classical leadership theories lost their currency and were replaced by innovative approaches that involve more change (Edizler, 2013). Researchers named Bass and Burns underlined the need for innovation and differentiation in definitions of leadership in 1978. They divided this differentiation into two as “Transactional” (processor, interactionist) and “Transformational” (transformational). Transactional leadership approach consisted of old and conservative, Transformational approach consisted of innovation and future-oriented leadership approaches. This theorem was put forward against Kurt Lewin's autocratic, democratic and liberating leadership style (Eren, 2001).

Considering the phenomenon of transformational leadership, leadership models are determined by looking at the traditions and past experiences of transactional leadership, while in transformational leadership, the leader indicates a model that thinks optimistically about the future and wants a radical change (Bakan and Büyükbeşe, 2010). To put it differently, approaches that combine yesterday and today are called processors, and approaches that combine today and tomorrow are called transformational leadership approaches (Sönmez, 2010). In his research, Burns concluded that the leader can show the characteristics of either transactional leadership or transformational leadership, but that he cannot exhibit the behaviors of both trends at the same time. Because, according to Burns, these two approaches are completely separate from each other. Bass, on the other hand, sees these two approaches not as opposites, but as parts of a whole, and argues that a leader can demonstrate the behaviors of both approaches. Many subsequent studies have also confirmed Bass' view, and it has been observed that many of the transformational leaders also display strong transactional leadership characteristics. The comparison of these two approaches was first made by Mc Gregor Burns, based on Weber's (1973) studies on charismatic leadership (Korkmaz, 2006). As the age of technology and knowledge evolves, it is now insufficient to express leadership behaviors solely with concepts of development and change. For this reason, change and development must be replaced by the concept of transformation. The society, institutions, companies, social structures have started to make great researches on how they will accelerate the development and changes they will reveal. These interactions will be followers of the transformations of the century we have left behind. When intense and dominant developments and changes occur, traditional leadership approaches are insufficient and it is predicted that transformational leaders can better adapt to these changes (Aslan, 2013).

3. METHOD

In this study, descriptive screening model was used from quantitative research methods. The population of the study consists of Turkish speaking individuals between the ages of 18-65 working in private and public banks in the TRNC. 500 bank employees, determined by unselected sampling method, were included in the study. In the questionnaire of this research, there are questions about three variables: organizational commitment, transactional leadership and transformational leadership. In this study, before the data were collected, the participants were informed about the purpose, scope and way of answering the questions. After the information, questionnaires were given to individuals who agreed to participate voluntarily. Data were collected both face-to-face and online between 2022-2023 October-January. Ethical Approval was obtained from Cyprus University of Health and Social Sciences before data collection began. Questions were asked to the participants using 3 scales prepared depending on the research problem, and the analysis of the study was made in the light of the given data. The data obtained in the study were collected through Personal Information Form, Transactional Leadership Scale, Transformational Leadership Scale and Organizational Commitment Scale.

Personal Information Form: In this form prepared by the researcher, there are a total of 7 questions aiming to determine the demographic characteristics of bank employees such as gender, age, total working time and position.

Organizational Commitment Scale: In order to determine the organizational commitment levels of bank employees, the scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) and revised by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) was used. This 18-point scale is a scale used in many studies in domestic and foreign fields. In related studies, it has been reported that this scale is a measurement tool with high validity and reliability that will fully determine the level of organizational commitment. The scale was used as translated into Turkish by Gürkan (2006). The Organizational Commitment Scale includes 18 determinative statements consisting of three sub-dimensions: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. The scale is in the form of a 5-point likert, and “1= Strongly Disagree”, “2= Disagree”, “3= No Opinion”, “4=Agree” and “5= Totally Agree” indicates different answers.

Interactive and Transformative Leadership Styles Scale: In this study, the perception of interactionist and transformational leadership styles, which are considered as independent variables, was examined with a measurement tool consisting of 26 questions developed by Bass (1985) and evaluating 2 sub-leadership styles, interactionist and transformational. When both domestic and foreign literature are examined, it is seen that this scale is used in many studies where the leadership phenomenon is studied, the reliability of the questions and sub-dimensions in the scale is at a high level, and the scale has sub-dimension contents that can measure the variables to be measured. In this study, Bass's (1985) Multi-Factor Leadership Scale was used to determine the perceived leadership characteristics of bank employees. The purpose of this scale is to examine the interactional and transformational leadership styles, which are sub-leadership styles. The abbreviated form of the scale, which was also used by Çeri-Booms (2009) in Turkey, was preferred. In the research, the transformational leadership characteristics perceived by the bank employees were evaluated with 20 questions and the interactionist leadership characteristics with 6 questions. According to the findings of the study conducted by Çeri Booms (2009), Cronbach's alpha reliability value for the transactional leadership scale was found to be 0.94, while the Cronbach's alpha reliability value for transformational leadership was 0.93.

The data of the research were analyzed in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 26.0 software. The reliability of the participants' responses to the Transactional Leadership Scale, Transformational Leadership Scale, and Organizational Commitment Scale were tested with Cronbach's Alpha, and the alpha coefficients were found to be 0.733 for the Transactional Leadership Scale, 0.826 for the Transformational Leadership Scale, and 0.715 for the Organizational Commitment Scale. The distribution of the participants according to their socio-demographic characteristics was determined by frequency analysis, and descriptive statistics were given for the Transactional Leadership Scale, the Transformational Leadership Scale and the Organizational Commitment Scale.

4.FINDINGS AND COMMENTS

Table 1. *Distribution of the participants according to their socio-demographic characteristics*

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Female	281	56,31
Male	218	43,69
Marital Status		
Single	175	35,07
Married	241	48,30
Widowed/Divorced	83	16,63
Age		
18-25	69	13,83
26-34	261	52,30
35-41	83	16,63
42 and above	86	17,23
Educational Status		
High School	77	15,43
University	339	67,94
Postgraduate	83	16,63
Professional Experience		
Less than 1 year	91	18,24
1-5 years	249	49,90
6-10 years	81	16,23
11-15 years	78	15,63
Working Time in the Institution		
Less than 1 year	69	13,83
1-2 years	261	52,30
3-6 years	83	16,63

7-14 years	86	17,23
Working Time With the Manager		
Less than 1 year	148	29,66
1-2 years	159	31,86
3-6 years	162	32,46
7-14 years	30	6,01

Table 1 shows the distribution of the participants included in the study according to socio-demographic characteristics, 56.31% of the participants were female and 43.69% were male, 535.07% were single, 48.30% were married and 16.63% were widowed/divorced, 13.83% were 18-25 years old, 52.30% were 26-34 years old, 16.63% were 35-41 years old and 17.23% were 42 years old and above, it was found that 15.43% of them are high school graduates, 67.94% are university graduates, 16.63% are postgraduate graduates. 18.24% of the participants had less than 1 year, 49.90% had 1-5 years, 16.23% had 6-10 years and 15.63% had 11-15 years of professional experience, 13%, 83 of them have been in the institution for less than 1 year. 52.30% of them have been working for 1-2 years, 16.63% of them for 3-6 years and 17.23% of them for 7-14 years, 29.66% of them with their manager less than 1 year, 31%, It was determined that 86 of them worked for 1-2 years and 32.46% of them worked for 3-6 years.

Table 2. *Participants' Interactive Leadership Scale, Transformational Leadership Scale, and Organizational Commitment Scale Scores*

	n	s	Min	Max
Interactive Leadership Scale	499	2,45	0,37	1,50
Transformational Leadership Scale	499	2,34	0,16	1,90
Emotional Commitment	499	2,45	0,30	1,67
Continuance Commitment:	499	3,03	0,40	2,00
Normative Commitment	499	2,89	0,37	1,80
Organizational Commitment Scale	499	2,79	0,23	2,17

In Table 2, the descriptive statistics of the participants' Interactive Leadership Scale, Transformational Leadership Scale and Organizational Commitment Scale scores are given. When Table 2. is examined, the average of the participants is 2.45 ± 0.37 points from the Transactional Leadership Scale, 2.34 ± 0.16 points from the Transformational Leadership Scale, and 2.79 ± 0.23 points from the Organizational Commitment Scale in general. It was observed that they got an average of 2.45 ± 0.30 points, an average of 3.03 ± 0.40 points from continuance commitment and an average of 2.89 ± 0.37 points from normative commitment.

Table 3. *Comparison of Participants' Organizational Commitment Scale Scores by Gender*

	Gender	n	s	t	p
Emotional Commitment	Female	281	2,46	0,30	0,227
	Male	218	2,45		
Continuance Commitment:	Female	281	3,05	0,40	1,196
	Male	218	3,01		
Normative Commitment	Female	281	2,89	0,37	0,033
	Male	218	2,89		
Organizational Commitment Scale	Female	281	2,80	0,23	0,800
	Male	218	2,78		

In Table 3, the comparison of the Organizational Commitment Scale scores of the participants by gender was made with the independent sample t-test. According to Table 3, it was determined that there was no statistically significant difference between the scores of the participants in the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment sub-dimensions in the scale according to their gender ($p > 0,05$). The scores of female and male participants in the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and in the sub-dimensions of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment were similar.

Table 4. Comparison of Participants' Organizational Commitment Scale Scores by Marital Status

	Marital Status	n	s	Min	Max	F	p
Emotional Commitment	Single	175	2,46	0,29	1,83	3,33	0,078
	Married	241	2,45	0,31	1,67	3,33	
	Widowed/Divorced	83	2,46	0,30	1,67	3,33	
Continuance Commitment:	Single	175	3,04	0,40	2,00	4,00	0,155
	Married	241	3,03	0,38	2,25	4,00	
	Widowed/Divorced	83	3,01	0,41	2,00	4,25	
Normative Commitment	Single	175	2,88	0,34	2,00	3,80	0,419
	Married	241	2,90	0,39	2,00	4,00	
	Widowed/Divorced	83	2,87	0,37	1,80	3,60	
Organizational Commitment Scale	Single	175	2,79	0,22	2,21	3,36	0,123
	Married	241	2,79	0,24	2,17	3,61	
	Widowed/Divorced	83	2,78	0,23	2,27	3,32	

Table 4 presents the ANOVA results for the comparison of the Organizational Commitment Scale scores of the participants included in the study according to their marital status. According to Table 4, it was determined that there was no statistically significant difference between the scores of the participants in the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment sub-dimensions in the scale according to their marital status ($p>0,05$). It was observed that the scores of the single, married and widowed/divorced participants in the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and in the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment sub-dimensions in the scale were similar.

Table 5. Comparison of Participants' Organizational Commitment Scale Scores by Age Group

	Age Group	n	s	Min	Max	F	p
Emotional Commitment	18-25	69	2,42	0,32	1,67	3,17	0,388
	26-34	261	2,46	0,30	1,83	3,33	
	35-41	83	2,46	0,35	1,67	3,33	
	42 and above	86	2,46	0,26	1,83	3,17	
Continuance Commitment:	18-25	69	3,08	0,39	2,25	4,25	0,705
	26-34	261	3,04	0,39	2,00	4,00	
	35-41	83	3,00	0,39	2,00	3,75	
	42 and above	86	3,01	0,42	2,25	4,00	
Normative Commitment	18-25	69	2,91	0,35	2,20	3,80	0,345
	26-34	261	2,89	0,38	1,80	4,00	
	35-41	83	2,86	0,40	2,00	3,80	
	42 and above	86	2,88	0,35	2,00	3,80	
Organizational Commitment Scale	18-25	69	2,80	0,25	2,23	3,34	0,399
	26-34	261	2,80	0,22	2,17	3,61	
	35-41	83	2,77	0,26	2,27	3,46	
	42 and above	86	2,78	0,22	2,21	3,27	

The ANOVA results for the comparison of the participants' Organizational Commitment Scale scores according to their ages are shown in Table 5. When Table 5 is examined, it has been determined that there is no statistically significant difference between the scores of the participants included in the study from the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment sub-dimensions in the scale ($p>0,05$). The scores of the participants aged 18-25, 26-34, 35-41 and over the age of 42 in the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and in the sub-dimensions of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment were similar.

Table 6. Comparison of Participants' Organizational Commitment Scale Scores According to Professional Experience

	Professional Experience	n	s	Min	Max	F	p
Emotional Commitment	Less than 1 year	91	2,44	0,32	1,67	3,17	0,410
	1-5 years	249	2,47	0,30	1,83	3,33	
	6-10 years	81	2,43	0,33	1,67	3,33	
	11-15 years	78	2,46	0,27	1,83	3,17	
Continuance Commitment:	Less than 1 year	91	3,08	0,39	2,25	4,25	1,070
	1-5 years	249	3,04	0,39	2,00	4,00	
	6-10 years	81	2,99	0,41	2,00	4,00	
	11-15 years	78	2,99	0,41	2,25	3,75	
Normative Commitment	Less than 1 year	91	2,94	0,34	2,20	3,80	0,986
	1-5 years	249	2,88	0,38	1,80	4,00	
	6-10 years	81	2,85	0,40	2,00	3,80	
	11-15 years	78	2,88	0,36	2,00	3,80	
Organizational Commitment Scale	Less than 1 year	91	2,82	0,24	2,23	3,34	1,171
	1-5 years	249	2,80	0,22	2,17	3,61	
	6-10 years	81	2,76	0,25	2,27	3,46	
	11-15 years	78	2,78	0,22	2,21	3,27	

In Table 6, the comparison of the Organizational Commitment Scale scores of the participants according to their professional experience was made with ANOVA. According to Table 6, it was determined that there was no statistically significant difference between the scores of the participants in the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment sub-dimensions in the scale according to their professional experience ($p>0,05$). Participants with less than 1 year of professional experience, 1-5 years, 6-10 years, and 11-15 years have similar scores in the Organizational Commitment Scale and in the sub-dimensions of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.

Table 7. Comparison of Participants' Organizational Commitment Scale Scores by Working Time in the Institution

	Working Time in the Institution	n	s	Min	Max	F	p
Emotional Commitment	Less than 1 year	69	2,42	0,32	1,67	3,17	0,388
	1-2 years	261	2,46	0,30	1,83	3,33	
	3-6 years	83	2,46	0,35	1,67	3,33	
	7-14 years	86	2,46	0,26	1,83	3,17	
Continuance Commitment:	Less than 1 year	69	3,08	0,39	2,25	4,25	0,705
	1-2 years	261	3,04	0,39	2,00	4,00	
	3-6 years	83	3,00	0,39	2,00	3,75	
	7-14 years	86	3,01	0,42	2,25	4,00	
Normative Commitment	Less than 1 year	69	2,91	0,35	2,20	3,80	0,345
	1-2 years	261	2,89	0,38	1,80	4,00	
	3-6 years	83	2,86	0,40	2,00	3,80	
	7-14 years	86	2,88	0,35	2,00	3,80	
Organizational Commitment Scale	Less than 1 year	69	2,80	0,25	2,23	3,34	0,399
	1-2 years	261	2,80	0,22	2,17	3,61	
	3-6 years	83	2,77	0,26	2,27	3,46	
	7-14 years	86	2,78	0,22	2,21	3,27	

In Table 7, the comparison of the Organizational Commitment Scale scores of the participants within the scope of the research according to the length of time they worked in the institution was tested with ANOVA. When Table 7 is examined, no statistically significant difference was found between the scores of the participants in the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment sub-dimensions in the scale according to the length of time they worked in the institution ($p>0.05$). It was determined that the scores of the participants with less than 1 year, 1-2 years, 3-6 years and 7-14 years of service in the institution were similar in the Organizational Commitment Scale and in the sub-dimensions of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.

Table 8. Comparison of Participants' Organizational Commitment Scale Scores by Working Time with the Manager

	Working Time With the Manager	n	s	Min	Max	F	p
Emotional Commitment	Less than 1 year	148	2,47	0,31	1,67	3,17	0,323
	1-2 years	159	2,44	0,33	1,83	3,33	
	3-6 years	162	2,46	0,28	1,67	3,33	
	7-14 years	30	2,48	0,30	2,00	3,17	
Continuance Commitment:	Less than 1 year	148	3,05	0,40	2,25	4,25	0,421
	1-2 years	159	3,04	0,39	2,25	4,00	
	3-6 years	162	3,03	0,40	2,00	3,75	
	7-14 years	30	2,96	0,38	2,25	4,00	
Normative Commitment	Less than 1 year	148	2,89	0,37	1,80	4,00	0,821
	1-2 years	159	2,91	0,36	2,00	3,80	
	3-6 years	162	2,86	0,38	1,80	3,80	
	7-14 years	30	2,95	0,41	2,20	3,80	
Organizational Commitment Scale	Less than 1 year	148	2,80	0,24	2,21	3,61	0,157
	1-2 years	159	2,79	0,23	2,17	3,46	
	3-6 years	162	2,78	0,23	2,27	3,31	
	7-14 years	30	2,80	0,21	2,23	3,18	

The comparison of the Organizational Commitment Scale scores of the participants according to the duration of working with the manager was made with ANOVA and the findings are shown in Table 8. When analyzed according to Table 8, it was determined that there was no statistically significant difference between the scores of the participants from the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment sub-dimensions in the scale according to the duration of working with the manager ($p>0.05$). The scores of the participants with less than 1 year, 1-2 years, 3-6 years and 7-14 years of working with the manager were similar in the Organizational Commitment Scale and in the sub-dimensions of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment in the scale.

Table 9. Correlations Between Participants' Interactive Leadership Scale, Transformational Leadership Scale, and Organizational Commitment Scale Scores

	Interactive Leadership Scale	Transformational Leadership Scale	Emotional Commitment	Continuance Commitment:	Normative Commitment	Organizational Commitment Scale
Interactive Leadership Scale	r 1					
	p					
	N 499					

Transformative Leadership Scale	r	0,303	1				
	p	0,000*					
	N	499	499				
Emotional Commitment	r	0,361	0,124	1			
	p	0,000*	0,005*				
	N	499	499	499			
Continuance Commitment:	r	0,409	0,161	0,160	1		
	p	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*			
	N	499	499	499	499		
Normative Commitment	r	0,441	0,233	0,095	0,113	1	
	p	0,000*	0,000*	0,034*	0,012*		
	N	499	499	499	499	499	
Organizational Commitment Scale	r	0,629	0,271	0,581	0,702	0,642	1
	p	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	
	N	499	499	499	499	499	499

* $p < 0,05$

In Table 9, the correlations between the Interactive Leadership Scale, Transformational Leadership Scale and Organizational Commitment Scale scores of the participants in the study were examined with the Pearson test. According to Table 9, there were statistically significant and positive correlations between the scores of the participants from the Interactive Leadership Scale and the scores they got from the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and from the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment in the scale ($p < 0.05$). As the scores of the participants from the Interactive Leadership Scale increase, the scores they get from the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and from the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment in the scale increase. It was determined that there were statistically significant and positive correlations between the scores of the participants included in the study from the Transformational Leadership Scale and the scores they got from the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and from the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment in the scale ($p < 0.05$). As the scores of the participants from the Transformational Leadership Scale increase, the scores they get from the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and from the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment in the scale increase.

Table 10. *The Prediction Status of the Participants' Interactive Leadership Scale and Transformational Leadership Scale Scores and Organizational Commitment Scale Scores*

	Non-Std.		Std.			F	R ²
	β	S.H.	Beta	t	p	p	DüzR ²
(Fixed)	1,587	0,116		13,712	0,000*	166,928	0,402
Interactive Leadership	0,372	0,023	0,602	16,515	0,000*	0,000*	0,400
Transformational Leadership	0,124	0,051	0,089	2,437	0,015*		

* $p < 0,05$

In Table 10, the predictive status of the Organizational Commitment Scale scores of the Interactive Leadership Scale and Transformational Leadership Scale scores of the participants included in the study was examined by multivariate regression analysis, and it was determined that the model was significant and the explained variance was 40%. It was determined that the participants' Interactive Leadership Scale ($\beta = 0.602; p < 0.05$) and Transformational Leadership Scale ($\beta = 0.089; p < 0.05$) scores predicted the Organizational Commitment Scale scores statistically significantly and positively.

5. DISCUSSION

In the study, it was determined that the organizational commitment levels of bank employees did not differ according to gender. When the studies on the subject are examined, although there are similar studies with the findings of this study, there are also studies reporting that organizational commitment differs according to gender, unlike this result. Erkmén and Bozkurt (2011) in their study in which they examined the relationship between organizational culture and organizational commitment, found that there was no significant difference in

the levels of organizational commitment of women and men, similar to the findings of this study. In the study of Özkaya, Kocakoç, and Kara (2006) in which they investigated the commitment of administrators, it was seen that the dimensions of commitment did not differ according to gender. In the study conducted by San (2017), it was reported that the organizational commitment scores of the participants did not differ according to gender. Günce (2013) examined the relationship between organizational justice and organizational commitment and determined that the organizational commitment levels of women and men were similar as a result of the study. In the studies conducted by Pelit and Öztürk (2010) and Nartgün and Menep (2010), it was observed that organizational commitment did not differ according to gender. In the study of Karataş and Güleş (2010), in which they examined the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, it was concluded that the organizational commitment scores of female and male participants were similar. Unlike these findings, there are also studies reporting that organizational commitment levels of individuals differ according to gender. Yavuz and Bedük (2016) found that women's organizational commitment levels were higher in their study in which they examined the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational cynicism. İnce and Gül (2005) and Güllüoğlu (2011) reported that women's organizational commitment levels are higher than men. It is also stated that this result may be related to the fact that the problems women face in their business life motivate them more, they are persistent in the organization they are involved in, and they do not have the thought of constantly changing jobs. Küçüközkan (2015), on the other hand, found that women's emotional commitment and normative commitment levels were higher than men's. Türkmen (2016), on the other hand, stated that men work in higher positions compared to women and that business life is a priority for men; On the other hand, it is stated that women's priorities are family, so their organizational commitment is lower. In the studies carried out by Özkaya, Kocakoç and Kara (2006) and Gözen (2007), it was reported that organizational commitment differs according to the gender variable. The fact that there are different results in the literature on organizational commitment and gender may be due to the difference in the sample groups included in the studies.

In this study, it is observed that the organizational commitment levels of bank employees do not differ according to marital status. Günce (2013), similar to the findings of this study, stated that organizational commitment levels of individuals do not differ according to marital status; It has been reported that the organizational commitment scores of married and single individuals are similar. Cihangiroğlu (2010) examined demographic variables affecting organizational affiliation and found that marital status did not make significant differences on organizational commitment. Yıldız (2013) reported that there was no significant difference in the organizational commitment levels of married and single individuals in his study. Yavuz and Bedük (2016) examined the relationship between organizational cynicism and organizational commitment and found that marital status did not make a significant difference on organizational commitment. Other studies on the subject have also found similar results; organizational commitment does not differ according to the marital status variable (Akgül, 2012; Cevahiroğlu, 2012; Coşkun, 2014; Kaygısız, 2012). Uzun and Yiğit (2011) examined the organizational commitment and organizational stress levels of managers and focused on the relationship between demographic factor and variables and stated that marital status is a demographic variable that creates a significant difference on organizational commitment. Günlük (2010) examined the relationship between organizational commitment, job satisfaction and intention to leave, and revealed a relationship between marital status and organizational commitment. Sarıkaya (2011) reported that total organizational commitment scores of married individuals and continued commitment and emotional attachment lower dimension scores were higher than single individuals. The study also concluded that normative adherence sub-dimension scores did not differ according to marital status. It seems that the field of marital status and organizational affiliation is not consistent with each other. This situation, regardless of whether married or single, individuals need an income to keep their lives and a job to obtain this income. In this study and some related studies, the result that marital status does not differ on organizational commitment may be related to this situation.

The study concluded that the organizational commitment levels of bank employees did not differ significantly according to age groups. Özdemir, (2020) reported that the age variable is not a predictor of organizational commitment, similar to the findings of this study. Belloda, Bilir Güler, and Oğuzhan (2017) similarly reported that organizational commitment and age were not related. Demirkol (2014) states that, unlike the findings of this study, age and total organizational commitment scores and emotional and normative commitment sub-dimension scores differ according to the age variable. Cihangiroğlu, Teke, Özata, and Çelen (2015) revealed in their study that organizational commitment differs significantly according to the age variable. According to this result, the total scores of organizational commitment and emotional attachment lower dimension scores of individuals in the age group 41 and older were higher than those of other age groups. Also, Gider (2010) concluded that the age variable made a significant difference on the total scores of organizational commitment and emotional and normative dependence. Kardeşahin (2019) stated that there is a significant difference between emotional commitment and age; He reported that the emotional commitment levels of individuals aged 18-28 and

individuals aged 51-61, and individuals aged 40-50 and those aged 18-28 differed. Robins and Judge (2013) examined the factors affecting organizational dynamics and found that the age variable is related to organizational commitment, and the level of organizational commitment increases as age increases. In another study examining organizational commitment, organizational cynicism and associated variables, it was found that organizational attachment increases in parallel with age (Yücel and Çetinkaya, 2015).

Another variable considered in the study is professional experience. Accordingly, the organizational commitment levels of bank employees do not differ according to their professional experience. Although similar results are reached with the findings of this study in the literature on professional seniority and organizational commitment, there are also studies reporting that professional seniority creates a significant difference on organizational commitment. Memişoğlu and Kalay (2017) reported that professional seniority is not an effective variable on organizational commitment. In another study on the subject, similar to these results, it was revealed that there was no significant difference between seniority and organizational commitment (Eğriboyun, 2013). In the study conducted by Polat and Yavuz (2021), it was concluded that total organizational commitment scores and continuance commitment sub-dimension scores differ according to the seniority variable. Accordingly, organizational commitment total scores and continued commitment sub-dimension scores increase as seniority increases. In the study, however, it was found that normative commitment and emotional attachment scores did not differ according to seniors. As the seniority increases, the experience gained in the profession increases, the person gets used to the institution and his colleagues, and internalizes the goals, culture and value judgments of the organization (Canbaz, 2019). As a result, organizational commitment is increasing. On the other hand, Güner (2015) states that employees with this seniority have a higher fear of losing all their professional capital; reported that this situation will increase organizational commitment. Alcan (2018) stated that organizational commitment of individuals with lower professional seniority due to their feeling of alienation to both the organization and other employees in the organization; In other related studies, it has been determined that as professional seniority increases, the level of organizational commitment also increases (Atik and Üstüner, 2014; Ertürk, 2014). Finally, in the study conducted by Nartgün and Menep (2010), it was determined that continuance commitment and normative commitment did not differ according to professional seniority, but emotional commitment sub-dimension scores differed according to professional seniority.

In the study, it was determined that the working time of the bank employees in the institution did not make a difference on organizational commitment. Dikmen (2012), in his study examining the effects of leadership theories and transformative leadership theory on individuals' organizational commitment levels, reached similar results with the findings of this study and reported that the working time in the institution did not make a significant difference from the organizational commitment levels of individuals. In a study conducted by Zagenczyk et al., (2020) on bank employees, organizational commitment and job satisfaction levels of bank employees were examined; as a result of the study, it was determined that the working time in the institution was related to job satisfaction but did not make a significant difference on organizational commitment. In their study, Bayer and Özkan (2019) examined the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational commitment and the factors affecting perceived organizational support and commitment, and reported that, unlike these results, the working time in the institution has a predictive effect on organizational commitment. The perceived leadership styles and organizational commitment levels of individuals working in private banks were examined, and as a result of the study, it was determined that organizational commitment increased as the working time in the bank increased (Kim, Eisenberger, & Baik, 2016). In another study conducted on bank employees, demographic variables affecting individuals' organizational commitment levels were examined and it was determined that the total working time in the bank made a significant difference on organizational commitment. According to this difference, the organizational commitment levels of individuals who have worked in the current bank for 6-10 years are higher than those who have worked for 1-3 years (Knight & Haslam, 2010).

In this study, organizational commitment levels of bank employees were examined according to the time they worked with their managers, and it was determined that the duration of working with the manager did not make a significant difference on organizational commitment. When the relevant literature is examined, it is seen that there is no study that directly examines the effect of working time with the manager on organizational commitment. However, in studies on the subject, there are studies examining the effect of trust in the manager on organizational commitment. Khan, Mukhtar, and Khan (2010) stated in a comprehensive study that organizational commitment increases as employees' trust towards their managers increases. Collie, Shapka, and Perry (2011) report that employees who have worked with their managers for many years have higher levels of organizational harmony and organizational commitment than other individuals. In the study conducted by Knoll and Van Dick (2013), it is stated that individuals who have worked with a manager for 4-7 years perceive their managers more democratic than individuals who have worked for 1-3 years, and this situation positively affects

many organizational dynamics, including organizational commitment. It is clear that there are no direct results on the subject, but related studies should be increased.

In the study, it was determined that there were statistically significant and positive correlations between the scores of the bank employees from the Interactive Leadership Scale and the scores they got from the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and from the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment in the scale. In addition, in the study, it was determined that there were statistically significant and positive correlations between the scores of the bank employees from the Transformational Leadership Scale and the scores they got from the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and from the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment in the scale. These findings are consistent with the field. Kaygın and Güllüce (2012) state that employees' commitment to the organization increases in return for the emotional bond and value they show to the leaders who exhibit transformational leadership characteristics. In the study conducted by Çakınberk and Demirel (2010), it was reported that there is a strong relationship between transformational leadership style organizational commitment and emotional commitment. Accordingly, as transformative leadership traits increase, organizational commitment total scores and emotional attachment sub-dimension scores increase. Similar results were obtained in another study; The relationship between transformational leadership and emotional and normative commitment was mentioned (Morçin & Bilgin, 2014). In a study conducted in the USA on 322 employees, it was determined that there is a positive and significant relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment (Porter, 2015). Çankaya (2023) reported that transformative leadership characteristics increase the level of organizational commitment in the study between transformative leadership and organizational commitment. In a study conducted on individuals working in public institutions, it was revealed that transformational leadership characteristics have a strong relationship with affective commitment and normative commitment sub-dimensions. Accordingly, the levels of emotional and normal attachment increased as the scores received from the transformation leadership scale increased (Kara and Bozkurt, 2021). Similar results were obtained in a study conducted in the health sector, and as a result of the study, there was a strong positive correlation between transformative leadership and emotional commitment sub-dimensions; it was determined that there is a moderate positive relationship with continuance commitment and commitment sub-dimensions (Sorucuoğlu and Öztürk, 2021). Kulinskaya, Morgenthaler, and Staudte (2008) found that there is a strong positive relationship between transactional and transformational leadership, organizational commitment and organizational cohesion in their study on bank employees. The interactional leadership characteristics, which describe the fact that the employees receive the rewards given by the leader when they successfully complete the tasks and responsibilities given by the leader, motivate the employees towards the work and the organization; it is stated that this situation increases their organizational commitment if it persists (Owen, Hodgson, & Gazzard ., 2011). When the studies on the subject are examined, it is possible to say that there are positive relations between interactionist and transformational leadership and organizational commitment, although the levels differ. In this context, the importance of interactionist and transformational leadership characteristics has been demonstrated once again in order to increase commitment in organizations.

Finally, in this study, it was determined that the Interactive Leadership Scale and Transformational Leadership Scale scores of the bank employees predicted the Organizational Commitment Scale scores statistically significantly and positively. Similar results are achieved when examining the relevant field. Schaijk (2018) and Xerri and Brunetto (2013) reported in their studies that interactionist and transformational leadership predicted organizational commitment positively and significantly. This result is consistent with the findings that the level of organizational commitment, which is related to the fact that the employees see themselves as a permanent member of the organization and reveal attitudes that will integrate with the organization, is shaped according to the attitudes and behaviors of the leaders, and the results of the research that the interactionist and transformational leadership characteristics increase organizational commitment (Avolio, Zhu, Koh and Bhatia, 2004; Dunn, Dastoor and Sims, 2012; Hulpia, Devos and Keer, 2011; Jackson, Meyer and Wang, 2013; Khasawneh, Omari and Abu-Tineh, 2012; Leithwood and Sun, 2012; Lok and Crawford, 2004; Thamrin, 2012). It is seen that the results obtained in many studies examining the effects of leadership theories on organizational dynamics are that transformational leadership characteristics increase organizational commitment in general. Transactional and transformational leaders are positively related to the attitudes and behaviors of their employees; and predicts these attitudes and behaviors positively (Bo, 2013; Dumdum, Lowe, and Avolio, 2002). It is seen that similar results were obtained in the meta-analysis study conducted by Leithwood and Sun (2012). In this context, it is possible to say that interactionist and transformational leadership characteristics increase the motivation of employees and this positively affects their commitment to the organization (Jackson, Meyer, and Wang, 2013; Khasawneh, Omari, and Abu-Tineh, 2012; Thamrin, 2012). In studies conducted by Jafri (2010), Hakimian, Farid, İsmail, and Nair (2016), transformational leadership characteristics are an important predictor of organizational commitment; It has been reported that as the transformational leadership characteristics

increase, the organizational commitment levels of the employees also increase. Bozalp Ünal, Karadağ, and Gök (2023), in their study examining the effect of transformational leadership on organizational outputs, reached such results and concluded that transformational leadership positively and moderately predicts organizational commitment.

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the study, it was concluded that the scores of the bank employees in the Organizational Commitment Scale and in the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment sub-dimensions in the scale did not differ according to gender, age, marital status, professional experience, working time in the institution and working with the manager. It has been determined that there are statistically significant and positive correlations between the scores of the bank employees from the Interactive Leadership Scale and the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment in the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and the scale. According to this finding, as the scores of the participants from the Interactive Leadership Scale increase, the scores they get from the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and from the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment in the scale increase. It was determined that there were statistically significant and positive correlations between the scores of the bank employees included in the study from the Transformational Leadership Scale and the scores they got from the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and from the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment in the scale. Accordingly, as the scores of the participants from the Transformational Leadership Scale increase, the scores they get from the Organizational Commitment Scale in general and from the emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment in the scale increase. Finally, it was determined that the Interactive Leadership Scale and Transformational Leadership Scale scores of the bank employees predicted the Organizational Commitment Scale scores statistically significantly and positively.

Today, it is clear that organizations that want to adapt better to changing conditions with globalization and to ensure their employees' loyalty to the organization should invest more in expanding their existing human resources. In addition, the quality and level of the relationship between leader member interaction and leadership styles is an important way to ensure organizational commitment of employees. Considering the mission of leaders to guide employees, it can be said that leaders who value their employees and who show transformative leadership styles have an important determining role in organizations. It is necessary to consider the importance of transformative leaders in order for qualified human resources to be committed to the organization and to perform their work in a peaceful, happy and productive way, especially in sectors such as banks, where working conditions are difficult.

Increasing the number of leaders who adopt interactionist and transformational leadership styles will be possible with long-term training rather than short-term planning. In this context, it is important to organize training programs that aim to provide these leadership characteristics to the managers who are already working in banks, to give priority to individuals with transformative leadership characteristics in the selection of leaders, and to add training contents that aim to bring these skills to the curricula of training programs that train bank managers. All these interventions will be effective in increasing the number of happy and committed employees in the institutions of the future.

REFERENCES

- Akgül, S. (2012). *Relationship between perception of organizational identity and organizational adherence of primary school teachers (Sakarya as a model)* (Master Thesis), Institute of Educational Sciences, Sakarya University, Sakarya.
- Aksaraylı, M. F. (2015). Transformational leadership and transformational leadership paradigm in change. *Süleyman Demirel University Vizyoner Journal*, 6 (12), 108-124.
- Alcan, E. E. (2018). *The relationship between teachers' organizational support, organizational identification and organizational commitment perceptions* (Master's Thesis). Sabahattin Zaim University, Istanbul.
- Alga, E. (2017). The effect of perceived leadership styles in organizations on employee burnout. *Pamukkale University Journal of Social Sciences Institute*, (28), 97-124.
- Altinkurt, Y. (2015). *Strategic leadership in educational organizations and strategic leadership practices of school principals* (PhD Thesis), Anadolu University, Eskişehir.
- Ardahan, M., and Konal, E. (2017). Management and leadership in nursing. *Gümüşhane University Journal of Health Sciences*, 6 (1), 140-147.
- Aslan, Ş. (2013). *Leadership theories from the past to the present from the perspective of health management*. Eğitim Publishing House.
- Atik, S. and Üstüner, M. (2014). The relationship between the organizational type of primary schools and the organizational commitment of teachers. *Ahi Evran University Journal of Kırşehir Faculty of Education*,

- 15 (2), 133-154.
- Avolio, B. J., Zhu, W., Koh, W. & Bhatia, P. (2004). Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: Mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 25, 951-968.
- Aydın, M. (2018). *Educational management*. Hatiboğlu Publishing House.
- B.M. Bass, Leadership and performance beyond expectations, *Free Press* New York, 1985, 1-266, p. 2
- Bakan, İ., Büyükebeşe, T. (2010). Current-future situation comparison of leadership “types” and “power sources”: A field study based on the perceptions of educational institution administrators. *KMU Journal of Social and Economic Research*, 12 (19), 73-84.
- Balay, R., (2000). *Organizational commitment in managers and teachers*, Ankara: Nobel Publication Distribution.
- Bass, B. M., Steidlmyer P. (1999). Ethics, character and authentic transformational leadership behavior. *Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 181-217. Academic database
- Başar, U., and Basım, N. (2018). Paradoxical leadership model. *Journal of Amme İdaresi*, 51 (3), 121-153.
- Bayer, E., & Özkan, Ş. (2019). The relationship between the perception of organizational support and organizational commitment: A research on nurses. *The Journal*. 12(68).
- Belloda, B., Bilir Güler, S. and Oğuzhan, A. (2017). *Management of differences and organizational commitment*. A survey of Kosovo Prizren public schools. *Journal of Balkan and Near East Social Sciences*. 3(2). . 1-19
- Blau, Peter M., W. R. Scott. (1962). Formal organizations. *Chandler Publishing Company*.
- Bo, Y. (2013). The influence study of transformational leadership in university on teachers' organizational commitment: the construction and verification of a theoretical model. *Canadian Social Science*, 9(4), 126-137.
- Boylu, Y., Elbeyi, P. ve Güçer, E., (2007). A research on the organizational commitment levels of academicians. ”<http://www.acikarsiv.gazi.edu.tr/dosya/akademisyenlerinorgutselbagliliklari.pdf>.
- Bozalp Ünal, S., Karadağ, E., & Gök, H. (2023). Effect of transformational leadership on organizational outputs: A meta-analysis study. *Journal of Society, Educational and Cultural Studies*, 2(1), 12–33. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7881771>
- Bozkuş, G. and Gündüz, Y. (2016). Modeling the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment. *Kastamonu Journal of Education*, 24 (1), 405 — 420.
- Canbaz, O. (2019). *The relationship between the ability of secondary school administrators to manage differences and teachers' organizational commitment*. (Master's Thesis). Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal University, Bolu.
- Celep, C., (2004). *Transformational leadership in educational organizations*, Ankara: Anı Publishing
- Cevahiroğlu, E. (2012). *The relationship between primary school branch teachers' perceived leadership behaviors and organizational commitment: Example of Bayrampaşa District of Istanbul Province*. (Master's Thesis). Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Educational Administration and Supervision, Yeditepe University, Istanbul.
- Cihangiroğlu, N. (2010). A study on the organizational levels of attachment of military medical. *Gulhane Medical Journal*, 52 (2), 82.
- Cihangiroğlu, N., Teke, A., Özata, M., & Çelen, Ö. (2015). Analysis of the relationship between professional commitment and organizational commitment. *Gulhane Medical Journal*, 57 (4), 367-72.
- Collie, R. J., Shapka, J. D., & Perry, N. E. (2011). Predicting teacher commitment: the impact of school climate and social- emotional learning. *Psychology in the Schools*. 48(10), 1034- 1048.
- Coşkun, E. (2014). *The relationship between the effectiveness of school administrators and teachers' organizational commitment: Example of Istanbul-Bağcılar*. (Master's Thesis). Graduate School of Social Sciences, Department of Educational Management and Supervision. Yeditepe University, Istanbul.
- Çakınberk, A., & Demirel, E. T. (2010). Leadership as a determinant of organizational commitment: Example of health workers. *Selçuk University Journal of Social Sciences Institute*, 24, 103—119.
- Çankaya, M. (2023). Examining the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment: an application in the health sector. *Journal of EKV Academy*, (94), 206-217. DOI: 10.17753/sosekev.1257344
- Çeri-Booms, M. (2009). *An empirical study on transactional, transformational and authentic leaders: Exploring the mediating role of trust in leader on organizational identification*. (Unpublished PhD Thesis). Yeditepe University, Istanbul.
- Çetin, M., (2004). *Organizational commitment*, Ankara: Nobel Publications.
- Dağlı, A., and Ağalday, B. (2018). Analysing headmasters’ paternalistic leadership behaviours *Electronic Journal of Social Sciences*, 17(66), 518-534.
- Demirkol, A. Y. (2014). Organizational commitment in educational institutions: A research on vocational schools. *Journal of Educational Sciences Research*, 1-15.
- Dikmen, B. (2012). *An applied research on the effects of leadership theories and transformational leadership*

- theory on employees' perceptions of organizational commitment.* (Master's Thesis). Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Business Administration, Department of Business Administration, Aydin University, Istanbul.
- Dumdum, U. R., Lowe, K. B. & Avolio, B. (2002). *A meta-analysis of transformational and transactional leadership correlates of effectiveness and satisfaction: An update and extension*, B. J. Avolio & F. J. Yammarino (Ed.). Transformational and charismatic leadership: The road ahead 2 (pp. 35-66). Oxford, UK: Elsevier Science.
- Dunn, M. W., Dastoor, B. & Sims, R. L. (2012). Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: A cross-cultural perspective. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 4(1), 45-59.
- Edizler, G. (2013). A literature study on the emotional intelligence dimension and gender factor in charismatic leadership. *Selçuk İletişim*, 6 (2), 137-150. <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/josc/issue/19020/200638>.
- Eğriboyun, D. (2013). *Relation among organizational trust, organizational support and organizational commitment of the administrators/teachers who are charged in secondary education schools* (Example of Bolu province) (Unpublished PhD Thesis), Abant İzzet Baysal University, Institute of Educational Sciences, Bolu.
- Eren, E. (2001). *Management and organization*. Istanbul: Beta Publications.
- Erkmen, T. & Bozkurt, S. (2011). A Study About the Relationship Between Organizational Culture and Organizational Commitment *Marmara University Journal of Economics and Administrative Sciences*, 31 (2), 197-227. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/muibd/issue/498/4453>
- Evans, D. (2001). Supervisory management: Principles and practice. *Cengage Learning EMEA*.
- Gedik, Y. (2020). Transformational and transactional leadership. *International Journal of Leadership Studies: Theory and Practice*, 3 (2), 19-34.
- Gider, Ö. (2010). "Investigation of organizational commitment, organizational trust and job satisfaction levels of personnel working in training and research hospitals". *Istanbul University Faculty of Business Administration Institute of Business Administration Journal of Management*, 65: 81-105.
- Gözen, E.D. (2007). *A research on job satisfaction and organizational commitment insurrances companies* (Unpublished Master's Thesis), Atılım University Institute of Social Sciences, Ankara.
- Güllüoğlu, Ö. (2011). *Organizational communication-communication satisfaction and organizational commitment*. Konya: Eğitim Akademi Publications.
- Gümüştekin, E.G. and Emet, C., (2009). "The interaction of change in empowerment perceptions on organizational culture and commitment" <http://sbe.dumlupinar.edu.tr/17/90-116.pdf>, date of access: 20.05.2023. p.1-25.
- Günce, S. (2013). *The relationship between organizational justice and organizational commitment in primary schools.* (Master's Thesis), Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Educational Sciences, Department of Educational Administration and Supervision, Harran University, Şanlıurfa.
- Güner, A. G. (2015). *Evaluation of the organizational commitment levels of the instructors* (Example of Giresun University). (Master's Thesis). Cumhuriyet University, Sivas.
- Günlük, M. (2010). *A research on accountants' professional and organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover tendencies.* (Unpublished PhD Thesis), Institute of High Technology. Social Sciences Institute,
- Gürkan, G. Ç., (2006). *Organizational commitment: The effect of organizational climate on organizational commitment and the investigation of the relationship between organizational climate and organizational commitment at Trakya University.* (Master's Thesis). Trakya University, Institute of Social Sciences, Edirne.
- Hakimian, F., Farid, H., İsmail, M.N. ve Nair, P.K. (2016). Importance of commitment in encouraging employees' innovative behaviour. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Business Administration*, 8(1), 70- 83.
- Hulpia, H., Devos, G. & Keer, H. V. (2011). The relation between school leadership from a distributed perspective and teachers' organizational commitment: Examining the source of the leadership function. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 47(5), 728-771.
- İnce, M. and Gül, H. (2005). *A New Paradigm in Management: Organizational commitment*: Ankara: İleri Giden Ofset.
- Jackson, T. A., Meyer, J. P. & Wang, X. H. (2013). Leadership, commitment, and culture: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 20(1) 84–106.
- Jafri, M.H. (2010). Organizational commitment and employee's innovative behavior. *Journal of Management Research*, 10 (1), 62-68.
- Kara, E., & Bozkurt, Ş. (2021). Determining the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment *EKV Academy Journal*, (87), [143-160](https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/sosekev/issue/71551/1151060). <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/sosekev/issue/71551/1151060>
- Karakulle, I. (2020). *The effects of employees' perceptions of human resource management practices on organizational commitment and job satisfaction: an application in the service sector, (PhD Thesis)*

Karabuk University

- Karaşahin, T. (2019). *Management of differences and organizational commitment*. (Master's Thesis). Karamanoğlu Mehmetbey University, Institute of Social Sciences, Karaman.
- Karataş, S. & Güleş, H. (2010). The relationship between primary school teachers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment. *Uşak University Journal of Social Sciences*, 3 (2), 74-89. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/usaksosbil/issue/21650/232758>
- Kaygın, E., & Güllüce, A. Ç. (2012). Determining the transformational leadership perceptions of employees: a comparative study. *Atatürk University, Journal of Social Sciences Institute*, 16(3)
- Kaygısız, A. (2012). The relationship between primary school teachers' organizational commitment levels and their participation in decision making (Example of Kütahya). (Master's Thesis). Eskisehir Osmangazi University, Institute of Educational Sciences, Department of Educational Sciences.
- Khan, S., Mukhtar, S. N., & Khan, M. A. (2010). Link between organizational justice and employee job performance in the work place. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 2(3), 121-132.
- Khasawneh, S., Omari, A. & Abu-Tineh, A. M. (2012). The relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment: The case for vocational teachers in Jordan. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 40(4), 494-508
- Kim, K. Y., Eisenberger, R., & Baik, K. (2016). Perceived organizational support and affective organizational commitment: Moderating influence of perceived organizational competence. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 37(4), 558-583.
- Knight, C. ve Haslam, S. A. (2010). Your place or mine? Organizational identification and comfort as mediators of relationships between the managerial control of workspace and employees' satisfaction and well-being. *British Journal of Management*. 21(3). 717-735.
- Knoll, M., & Van Dick, R. (2013). Do I hear the whistle...? A first attempt to measure four forms of employee silence and their correlates. *Journal of business ethics*, 113(2), 349-362.
- Korkmaz, M. (2006). The relationship between the personality traits of school administrators and their leadership styles. *Journal of Educational Management in Theory and Practice*, 12 (46), 199-226.
- Korkut, H. (2019). Leadership behaviors of university academic administrators. *Ankara University Journal Of Faculty Of Educational Sciences (Jfes)*, 25(1), 93-111.
- Kulinskaya, E., Morgenthaler, S. & Staudte, R. G. (2008). *Meta analysis: A guide to calibrating and combining statistical evidence*. London: John Wiley & Sons.
- Küçüközkan, Y. (2015). The relationship between organizational commitment and gender: A research on health personnel working in hospitals. *International Journal of Academic Management Sciences*, 1 (1), 14-37. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/yonbil/issue/42548/512774>
- Leithwood, K. & Sun, J. (2012). The nature and effects of transformational school leadership: A meta-analytic review of unpublished research. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 48(3), 387-423.
- Leithwood, K. & Sun, J. (2012). The nature and effects of transformational school leadership: A meta-analytic review of unpublished research. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 48(3), 387-423.
- Lok, P. & Crawford, C. (2004). The effect of organisational culture and leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment: A cross-national comparison. *Journal of Management Development*, 23(4), 321-338
- Maslow, A.H. (1954) *Motivation and personality*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Mathews, BP, Shepherd, JL. (2002). Dimensionality of cook and wall's (1980) british organizational commitment scale. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 75, 369-375.
- Memişoğlu, S. P., & Kalay, M. (2017). The relationship between the organizational commitment and motivation of teachers working in primary and secondary schools (Example of Bolu province). *Turkish Studies (Electronics)*.
- Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J. & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 78, 538-551.
- Meyer, J.P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational Commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1(1), 61-89.
- Morçin, S. E., & Bilgin, N. (2014). The effect of transformational leadership on organizational commitment: Example of a group travel agencies in Adana. *Çukurova University, Journal of Social Sciences Institute*, 23(2), 113-128
- Morrow, P.C., (1983). Concept redundancy in organizational research: the case of work commitment, *Academy of Management Review*, Vol:8, 486-500, 1983.
- Nartgün, Ş. S. and Menep, İ. (2010). Examining the perception levels of teachers working in primary schools about organizational commitment: Example of Şırnak/İdil. *International Journal of Human Sciences*, 7 (1), 288-316.
- Olgungül, F. K., (2017). A research on the relationship between Organizational Commitment and working time:

- the example of teachers working in public and private secondary schools (PhD Thesis) Gazi University
- Owen, H., Hodgson, V. & Gazzard, N. (2011). *Leadership handbook*. (Çev., M. Çelik). İstanbul: Optimist.
- Özarallı, N., (2003). Effects of transformational leadership on empowerment and team effectiveness. *Leadership Organization*. 24(6), 335-344.
- Özdemir, H. Ö. (2020). Predicting organizational commitment perceptions of health workers from organizational justice perceptions and other factors. *Journal of Business Economics and Management Research*, 3 (2), 172-181. DOI: 10.33416/baybem.702316
- Özkan, M. (2016). What adjectives does leadership acquire and how? Examination of articles on leadership. *Gaziantep University Journal of Social Sciences*, 15 (2), 615-639.
- Özkaya, M. O., Kocakoç, İ.D. and Kara, E. (2006). A field study to examine the relationships between managers' organizational commitment and demographic characteristics. *Celal Bayar University Journal of Management and Economics*. 13 (2), 77-96.
- Özmen, Ö. N., Eriş, E., and Özer, P. (2020). A look at digital leadership studies. *Journal of Süleyman Demirel University Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences*, 25 (1), 57-69.
- Pelit, E., & Öztürk, Y. (2010). Business satisfaction levels of hotel business employees: A research on the employees of summer resort and city hotel businesses. *Journal of Business Research*, 2 (1), 43-72.
- Polat, I. and Yavuz, Y. (2021). The relationship between teachers' participation in decision making and their organizational commitment. *Academia Journal of Educational Research*, 6 (1), 263-281.
- Porter, J. A. (2015). The relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment in nonprofit long term care organizations: The direct care worker perspective. *Creighton Journal of Interdisciplinary Leadership*, 1(2), 68–85.
- Robins, S.P. and Judge, T.A. (2013). *Organizational Behavior* (translation: İnci Erdem). Ankara: Nobel Publications.
- Rowden, R., (2000). The relationship between charismatic leadership behaviors and organizational commitment. *The Leadership & Organizational Development Journal*. 21(1), 30-35.
- San, İ. (2017). *An empirical study to determine the relationship between organizational justice and organizational commitment*. (Master's Thesis). Institute of Social Sciences, Istanbul Ticaret University, Istanbul.
- Sarıkaya, E. (2011) The relationship between primary school teachers' organizational commitment and performance. (Master's Thesis). Maltepe University, Institute of Social Sciences. İstanbul.
- Schajik, V. S. (2018). *The relationship between affective organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and innovative behavior (Unpublished Master's Thesis)*. Radboud University Nijmegen.
- Sorucuoğlu, A. Y., & Öztürk, Z. (2021). The effect of hospital staff's transformational leadership perceptions on their organizational commitment (Example of a state hospital in Ankara). *Journal of Sağlıkta Performans ve Kalite*, 18 (1), 61-88. <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/download/article-file/1342984>
- Sönmez, S. (2010). *The effect of emotional intelligence on transformational leadership in organizations*. (Unpublished Master Thesis), Zonguldak Kara Elmas Üniversitesi.
- Stewart, J., (2006). Transformational leadership: an evolving concept examined through the Works of Burns, Bass, Avolio and Leitwood.
- Thamrin, H. M. (2012). The influence of transformational leadership and organizational commitment on job satisfaction and employee performance. *International Journal of Innovation, Management and Technology*, 3(5), 566-572.
- Tutar, H. (2009). *Organizational communication*. Seçkin Publishing
- Türkmen, F. (2016). *The effect of secondary school administrators' servant leadership behaviors on teachers' organizational commitment (Example of Sinop province)*. (Master's Thesis). Ondokuz Mayıs University Educational Sciences Institute Educational Sciences Department Educational Administration Inspection. Planning and Economics Department, Samsun.
- Uzun, Ö. and Yiğit, E. (2011). A study on the relationship between organizational stress and organizational commitment on middle-level hotel managers. *Eskişehir Osmangazi University İİBF Journal*. 6 (1), 181-213.
- Weber, M. (1973). “Kirchen und Sekten in Nordamerika”, *Soziologie – Universalgeschichtliche Analysen: Politik*. J.Winckelmann (drl.). Alfred Kröner Verlag, Stuttgart, 382-397.
- Wiener, Y. (1982). Commitment in organizations, anormative view. *Academy Of Management Rewiev*, 1(7), 418-428.
- Xerri, M.J. ve Brunetto, Y. (2013). Fostering innovative behaviour: The importance of employee commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(16), 3163-3177. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.775033>.
- Yalçın, A and İplik, F.N., (2005). “A study to determine the relationship between the demographic characteristics of employees in five-star hotels and their organizational commitment: Example of Adana Province”. *Çukurova University, Journal of Social Sciences Institute*, 23(2), 113–128 14 (1): 395–412.

- Yalçın, B., and İlic, D. K. (2017). Differentiating business values and leadership perceptions of its generation. *Yaşar University E-Journal*, 12 (46), 136-160.
- Yangil, F. M. (2016). Leadership in the information society: Sustainable leadership. *Dumlupınar University Journal of Social Sciences*, (48), 128-143.
- Yavuz, A. & Bedük, A. (2016). The relationship between organizational cynicism and organizational commitment: Sample application in Konya branches of a public bank. *Atatürk University, Journal of Social Sciences Institute*, 35(301-313) Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/susbed/issue/61815/924920>
- Yeşil, A. (2016). A conceptual review of leadership and motivation theories. *International Journal of Academic Management Sciences*, 2 (3), 158-180.
- Yıldız, B. (2013). *Examination of primary and secondary school teachers' perceptions of job stress, organizational commitment and job satisfaction*. (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Maltepe University, Institute of Social Sciences, Istanbul.
- Yücel, İ., & Çetinkaya, B. (2015). Relationship Between Organizational Cynicism and Organizational Commitment and Moderating Effects of Age of Employees on the Relationship- "Sometimes We May Have to Stay Even if We Don't Want it!" *Atatürk University, Journal of Social Sciences Institute*, 19(3)
- Zagenczyk, T. J., Purvis, R. L., Cruz, K. S., Thoroughgood, C. N., & Sawyer, K. B. (2020). Context and social exchange: Perceived ethical climate strengthens the relationships between perceived organizational support and organizational identification and commitment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1-20.

THE EFFECT OF LEADER MEMBER INTERACTION AND POWER DISTANCE ON JOB INSECURITY PERCEPTIONS OF BANK EMPLOYEES

Mehmet ERÇELİK

mehmetercelik1@gmail.com

Cyprus Health and Social Sciences University
North Cyprus

1. INTRODUCTION

Job insecurity is a major concern among workers today. Especially in the private sector, the fear of losing their jobs continues to exist as a constant threat in the minds of employees. The perception of job insecurity may arise from objective factors (downsizing in the workplace, changes in the organizational structure, etc.), but it also often emerges as a subjective phenomenon due to the personal characteristics of the employee. This perception causes employees to be afraid that they will lose their jobs from time to time, even if they continue to work (Etyemez and Aslan, 2016).

In recent years, the concept of job insecurity has come to the fore in the field of management and organization (Önder and Wasti, 2002). Since the 1980s, the issue of job insecurity began to be dealt with systematically in Europe and other countries. During this period, major changes in the economy such as firm closures, restructurings and an increase in temporary employment contracts had significant effects on job insecurity (De Witte, 2005). Job insecurity can cause an increase in the level of anxiety in employees and affect their psychological health (Yıldırım and Yavan, 2008). However, it is stated that employees can gain energy during this change process and protect their psychological health by reflecting this energy to their workplace and family. Although there are many factors affecting the perception of job insecurity, the importance of organizational factors such as leader-member interaction and power distance perception is emphasized.

The concept of leader member interaction was first discussed by Dansereu, Graen and Haga in 1975 as the "Vertical Bilateral Connection Model". It is a theory developed due to the heterogeneity of the communication and relationship between the leader and each of the employees in the organization (Graen and Schiemann, 1978).

According to this theory; The communication and relationship developed between the leader and the group members develop within the framework of basic dynamics such as trust, sincerity, respect, love, closeness and openness. Due to the time limitation in the institution and the pressure created by this, the leaders have to develop relationships based on distance and distance with some group members, while they are in a relationship where they can display these dynamics mutually. This relationship, which leaders develop with group members within the institution, is evaluated in two contexts as in-group and out-group (Dienesch and Liden, 1986).

The concept of power distance characterizes the acceptance of the inequality between individuals or groups and their categorization in terms of factors such as authority, prestige, status, power and wealth (Matveev and Del Villar, 2014). The situation of inequality differs between societies and its sources are diverse. This inequality may result from factors such as innate physical characteristics and abilities, as well as acquired factors such as education and occupation. How individuals or groups perceive this inequality determines the power distance (Ertürk and Bedük, 2015). Power distance relates to how close or far an individual feels from the power and status they see as authority. This perception can also be associated with the policies implemented by the authority (Gül, 2019). Power distance is a measure that reflects the power imbalance in a society and the degree to which individuals accept this imbalance (Yorulmaz et al., 2018). The power distance in society represents the level of acceptance and expectations of individuals with less power. This concept offers an understanding of the behavior of the power holders and how power is distributed (Jahangirov, 2012).

Although the perception of power distance exists in social life, it is a concept that affects many organizational dynamics in business life. High power distance can be seen when employees accept the inequality between them and their managers. In such organizations, a centralized structure and a strict hierarchical order are found. Communication channels are limited and decisions are often made by senior management. The managed cut is obliged to enforce the authority and rules of managers without question. Employees who do not follow manager instructions or meet expectations can be penalized and denied rewards. The executive segment uses various control mechanisms to monitor the performance and compliance of the managed segment (Demir and Albayrak, 2019).

The salary system applied within the organization creates a significant gap between senior managers and lower

level employees. This gap is not only limited to the salary difference, but also becomes evident with the privileges offered to the managers; concessions such as private cars, separate offices and residences (Çelik, 2007). In organizations where high power distance is dominant, communication between managers and employees is almost non-existent (Becerikli and Kılıç, 2012). Employee ideas are often not taken into account, so the emergence and adoption of new ideas is low. As a result, the disparity between manager and employee is increasing. Openness in salary levels leads to high social distancing (Ulus, 2018). In situations where power distance is high within the organization, employees may be reluctant to participate in decisions. They tend to obey the decisions managers make. The area of movement of employees within the organization is quite limited, and communication usually takes place hierarchically downward. It is quite difficult for subordinates to express their opinion. In an organization with a high power distance, older and senior employees who work for a long time are often more respected. Also, decisions can be made quickly in such organizations. Things proceed faster, since it is unlikely to resist or object to the decision of the manager. Limited communication channels within the organization can create a basis for unethical behavior. (Khatri, 2009; Gül, 2019). The wide salary range of managers and employees in the organization is an evidence that the power distance in the organization is high (Hofstede et al., 2010). In high power distance organizations, managers often tend to make quick decisions, direct and control. Therefore, managers cannot go beyond making routine decisions. In cultures with high power distance, features such as authority, obedience, moderation, control, solidarity, cooperation and harmony are at the forefront. Such organizations are usually authoritative. In this case, it is common that the distribution of power is unequal and a strict hierarchical structure is accepted (Ertürk, 2014).

In organizations where the power distance is low, managers and employees are almost equally positioned. Inequality stems from different roles within the organization, and these roles are open to change. An employee may be elevated to the position of manager in the future. The hierarchy is flat and there is a limited number of supervisors. The concept of decentralized management is adopted within the organization. Young managers are valued more than older ones. Managers may have slightly higher salaries than employees, but the salary gap is not huge. Common areas, such as toilets, cafeterias, canteens, for example, are shared by all members of the organization. Access to the manager is fast, and communication is strong. Employees are willing to participate in decisions that will be made within the organization. Elements such as symbols expressing power are ignored (Hofstede and Minkov, 2010). In low power distance organizations, the process of resolving conflicts between the manager and the managed is easier. In organizations of this type, rules and status are insignificant. Managers and those governed do not differ from each other. In organizations with low power distances, there is little tendency to accept inequality, and decentralization and hierarchy are minimal. The facilities offered by the organization are presented equally for each member. Managers adopt a democratic leadership approach (İlhan and Yemişçi, 2020). An organization with low power distance can make internal communication quality and effective. When the relationship between the ruler and the ruled is strong, a bond is formed and the ruled can express themselves more freely (Bialas, 2009). In such organizations, inequality is almost non-existent. It is deemed to have equal rights between the manager and the administrator except for status. Individuals are aware that each other has equal rights. In the case of the use of force by managers, this situation is legally questionable. A discreet harmony and cooperation exist across segments. Management has a more flexible structure instead of decentralization, control is limited and has a low hierarchy structure. The salary scale is also not wide (Ersoy and Levent, 2020). The fact that the manager considers the views of the employees and encourages their participation while making the decisions of the organization shows that the organization has a low power distance. Achieving the goals set by the organization and the successful completion of the plans implemented to realize these goals is related to the low power distance of the organization (Erdemir, 2022).

It is known that the banking sector is a sector with intense competition and a tendency to reduce labor force frequently. The banking sector is one of the sectors most affected by economic crises in our country and frequently reduces employees. For this reason, bank employees may encounter the perception of job insecurity more intensely than in other sectors. In this context, it is of great importance to understand the factors that may affect the perception of job insecurity of bank employees. However, there is limited research on the effect of factors such as leader member interaction and power distance on this perception. At this point, a more detailed examination of the factors affecting the perception of job insecurity in the banking sector; The relationship between leader member interaction and power distance and this perception needs to be understood (Çağatay and Kızılkaya, 2021). In this study, the relationship between bank employees' perceptions of job insecurity and leader-member interaction and power distance perception was examined.

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Job Insecurity

Job insecurity is defined as the anxiety of employees about the continuity of the job (Erlinghagen, 2008). In other definitions, work insecurity is expressed as “a person's anxiety about the future of his or her job” (De

Witte, 2005). Job insecurity is seen as a whole of the anxieties experienced by employees with the threat of losing their jobs. De Witte (2005) grouped the reasons for this situation under three headings: variables at the regional and institutional level (national and regional unemployment rates, institutional changes, etc.) and personality traits such as negative mood or internal control. The issue of job insecurity not only affects the individual, it can also significantly affect families. In particular, the state of uncertainty associated with job insecurity can deeply affect the person psychologically and create stress in the individual (Seçer, 2007).

The developments in today's world are one of the key elements that increase competition in business. Mergers, acquisitions and the ever-changing business environment increase the sense of uncertainty and future anxiety about job security among employees. Such factors highlight the perception of job insecurity and trigger job anxiety in employees (Hesselink and Van Vuuren, 2003).

The most important element of job insecurity is the state of uncertainty. The lack of a guarantee of work affects the decision-making processes of employees. This state of uncertainty can lead to behavioral disorders in individuals. The feeling of uncertainty can give people a sense of helplessness (Wichert, 2001). Employees may experience uncertainty in the face of uncertainty and do not know which direction to move. In this case, the person's sense of control decreases and he feels helpless and tired and experiences anxiety about the future (Çakır, 2007). Working conditions and the quality of work are of great importance for employees. Working conditions are among the factors affecting job security. The nature of the job increases the threat of job insecurity if workers' rights and working conditions are not improved (Holm and Hovland, 1999). Similarly, job insecurity arises when the follow-up of the job is reduced and process control is lost (Temiz, 2004). During periods when unemployment is highest, individuals' greatest concern is to remain unemployed. This anxiety can cause people to feel powerless and psychologically affected. People who are particularly responsible may be more affected by this anxiety. In a work environment that provides job security, employees tend to look to the future with hope. Individuals with job security tend to fulfill their responsibilities more carefully.

2.2 Leading Member Interaction

As a result of individuals living their lives together, the concept of leadership has emerged with the need to manage segments of the society (Ercan and Sıgır, 2015). A leader is defined as a person who has the ability to find solutions to various problems in a group or between people, who creates and manages the organizational culture, and who brings people together for a goal from time to time, and who has an influence on people due to their internal motivation and individual qualities (Mumford & et al., 2000). Over the years, the theory has begun to be described as leader member exchange (interaction) theory by examining the relationship between the leader and the individuals in the organization. The theory offers a different scope from other leadership styles theories by focusing on the communication and relationships between the leader and the employees, focusing on the fact that leaders do not develop communication and interaction with all employees in the organization within the scope of a similar and equal leadership style (Liden and Graen, 1980).

One of the most important facts of our time is to keep up with change. Since everything is changing rapidly, organizations must also be able to keep up with this change and stay afloat. To achieve this, one must set out with equipped leaders. The leading characteristics necessary for these changes to be realized may vary according to the structures, objectives and environments of organizations. But most importantly, a leader must be well-educated, visionary, prone to teamwork, curious and willing (Tunçer, 2011).

The relationships that are described as in-group are more sincere, sincere and close between the leader and the group member, and the leader reveals more sincere and sincere behaviors to these group members by using different and more privileged duties and informal personal communication styles. Similar to this style of relationship, group members exhibit their work by accepting the leader completely with their personal tastes, accepting the leader's instructions and expectations in a willing and sincere way. Therefore, it can be said that there is a response between the leader and the group member in terms of both communication and the way of revealing the behavior. In the relationship type of those who are described as out-of-group, while they try to display the responsibilities given by the leader in a hierarchical order, in accordance with the duties and job descriptions, they are not as willing and sincere as the employees in in-group relations. In this type of relationship, a close and sincere environment and relationship has not emerged between the leader and the group member, and they perform their duties and responsibilities without excessive effort and adopting too much (Fazeli, Farhangdoost and Fazeli, 2011).

Group members have the freedom to communicate with their superiors in a way that is not directly related to their duties and responsibilities, except for official persons, in a way that cannot be reached by people outside the group. They have the freedom to communicate with his superiors about matters not directly related to his work,

outside of official channels, in a way that is not accessible to members outside the group. This form of non-hierarchical communication paves the way for a leader to have an idea about the group member, to have an opinion about the factors affecting the job quality and productivity of the group member, and to develop a close and personal relationship with the members (Waldron, 1991).

The group leader establishes a more sincere and sincere closeness with the group members with whom he/she develops a perception that he/she can contribute to the efficiency of the organization, and provides the members with the right to make individual decisions by providing autonomy in managerial dimensions. The leader's relationship with other group members is framed within the scope of hierarchy and administrative processes, and the leader's attitude towards the members in this group is to protect the hierarchy (Saylı and Baytok, 2014). According to Liden and Graen (1980), superiors give group members motivations such as ability, competence, qualification, level of self-confidence, and taking on more tasks than normal in the organization for certain tasks and responsibilities. Members take part in the fulfillment of these responsibilities; in return, they receive more closeness, support and attention than usual from their superiors.

According to another field expert, the most important distinguishing point in this theory is that the leader develops good and close relationships with group members vertically. Within the scope of these relations, it is very important to support group members within the organization. As a matter of fact, the members and the leader provide a productive work environment and produce works that are much better than the level that would normally be performed and achieved. However, the members undertake more than the duties and responsibilities in their job descriptions and waive their individual time when necessary because a good and qualified communication and closeness environment has been created between the member and the leader. Members taking on more duties and responsibilities than normal are welcomed by the leader and they show more understanding than normal by giving these members more opportunities and authority (Gençer Çelik and Öngel, 2022).

The interaction that develops between the leader and the group member allows the leadership to more clearly connect its social aspects to the institutional functioning. This interaction occurs in various ways. As it creates differences in the framework of personality, it also causes different results than normal depending on the content of the job (Dienesch and Liden, 1986). The sense of closeness and trust between the leader and the group member is important. It is possible for group members who have developed a close, sincere and unshakable relationship with their leader to come up with different works and ideas effectively. In this context, group leaders will act to protect the thoughts of the group members' capacities, ideas, qualifications and commitment to the job. Trust is very important between the leader and subordinates. Employees who have strong relationships with their leaders are likely to actively generate new ideas. Thus, leaders will tend to maintain confidence in their subordinates' abilities, dedication, and commitment to work. (Pak and Jo, 2018).

2.3 Power Distance

When we look at the general definitions of the concept of power, it is seen that it is the ability to demand from the other person, to lead the task or how to do the job, or to make the other person do what you want. The basis of power is the ability to control the behavior of others and to manage them. Power is the right to want something to happen (Schermerhorn Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn, 2000). The ability to direct and influence the opposite person is called the concept of power (Daft, 2001). There are different definitions related to the concept of power. According to Robbins, Hatterjee and Canda (2006), power is; It is "the ability to reach and control resources and people" (cited in Plummer 2007). According to Foucault, power is everywhere, it comes from everywhere that regulates and determines relations and knowledge (cited in Shamai). The concept of power can be defined as the ability to create a change in nature, human beings or the person himself (Gong, 2006). Pfeffer (1992) mentions that dealing with organizational power is a problem while defining the concept of power. It is not possible to ignore power in every environment where there is sociability. For this reason, it has been determined that all people in institutions have a power relationship, even if it is not complicated (as cited in Koşar and Çalık, 2011).

It is possible to define the concept of power in three basic headings. There is personal power that is present in individuals during the first of the titles. Personal power is defined as the capacity and ability of the individual to achieve the desired results. The second title is the class or dominant social force. Such relationships are associated with being unequal or dominant. The third is the social force, which is equal and fair. At this point, people are in an equal position and there is empathy, respect and value on the basis of the relationship (Neath and Schriener, 1998).

3. METHOD

This study was carried out using the relational survey model, one of the quantitative research methods, in order to determine the relationship between job insecurity perceptions of bank employees in the TRNC, perceived leadership styles, power distance and locus of control. The universe of the study consists of bank personnel working in banks in TRNC. 500 bank employees identified by randomized sampling method were included in the study. Before the study data started to be collected, bank employees were informed in detail about the purpose, importance, limitations and confidentiality principles of the research. After the persons were informed, questionnaires were given to the participants who agreed to participate in the study on a voluntary basis. Before the questionnaires were answered, the individuals who agreed to participate in the study were informed in detail about the answers to the questionnaires. Study data were collected through Personal Information Form, Job Insecurity Perception scale, Leader-Member Interaction (LMX) Scale, Power Distance Perception Scale, and Locus of Control Scale. Study data were collected both face-to-face and online between January and May 2023. Before the data were collected, necessary permissions were obtained from the Scientific Research Ethics Committee of Cyprus University of Health and Social Sciences.

Personal Information Form: In the personal information form prepared by the researcher, there are a total of questions including gender, age, marital status, education level, position, time in the bank and total banking experience of the bank employees.

Job Insecurity Perception Scale: Ashford, Lee and Bobko (1989); De Witte (1999); The scale developed by Hellgren, Sverke, and Isaksson (1999) was adapted into Turkish by Şeker (2011) (Dede, 2017). The scale, which consists of a total of 9 questions, is in a 5-point Likert type. The scale has a total of 2 dimensions: quantitative job insecurity and qualitative job insecurity. The first sub-dimension consists of 4 questions and the second sub-dimension consists of 5 questions. Since the scale questions represent negative statements, low scores indicate that the person perceives his/her job with confidence.

Leader-Member Interaction (LMX) Scale: The scale, which aims to identify leadership and management styles, was developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998), and the scale was adapted into Turkish by Baş, Keskin and Mert (2010). The scale, which consists of a total of 12 questions, has a total of 4 sub-dimensions: loyalty, impact, contribution to change and professional respect. The scale is a 5-point Likert type scale.

Power Distance Perception Scale: The scale developed by Dorfman and Howell (1988) in order to determine the power distance perceptions of the employees was reviewed by Clugston et al., (2000), and Turkish validity and reliability study was conducted by Gül (2019). Consisting of one dimension, the scale is a 5-point Likert type and consists of a total of 6 questions.

Statistical analysis of the data collected from the participants was done in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 26.0 software. The Cronbach Alpha test was conducted for the reliability of the answers given by the bankers to the Job Insecurity Scale, Leader-Member Interaction Scale and Power Distance Perception Scale. It was found 0.764 for Bankers' Job Insecurity Scale, 0.985 for Leader-Member Interaction Scale and 0.812 for Power Distance Perception Scale. The distribution of bankers according to their socio-demographic characteristics is given by frequency analysis, and descriptive statistics of Job Insecurity Scale, Leader-Member Interaction Scale and Power Distance Perception Scale scores are given. Information on the scales used in the study is given below.

4. FINDINGS AND COMMENTS

Table 1. Distribution of Bankers by Socio-Demographical Characteristics

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Female	266	53,31
Male	233	46,69
Marital Status		
Single	209	41,88
Married	223	44,69
Divorced	67	13,43
Age		
30 years and under	143	23,05

31-35	164	32,87
36-40	131	26,25
41 and above	61	12,22
Educational Status		
High School	169	33,87
University	232	46,49
Postgraduate	98	19,64
Total Banking Experience		
Less than 1 year	97	19,44
1-5	186	37,27
6-10	138	27,66
11 years and older	65	13,03
Position		
Manager	41	8,22
Marketing	203	40,68
Operation	215	43,09
Other	40	8,02
Distribution of Bankers by Socio-Demographical Characteristics		
Less than 1 year	113	22,65
1-5	213	42,69
6-10	135	27,05
11 years and older	38	7,62

Table 1 shows the distribution of bankers included in the research according to their socio-demographic characteristics, 53.31% of the bankers are female and 46.69% are male, 41.88% are single, 44.69% are married and 13.43% were divorced, 23.05% were 30 years and younger, 32.87% were 31-35 years old, 26.25% were 36-40 years old, and 12.22% were 41 years and above, 33.87% of them were high school graduates, 46.49% were university graduates and 19.64% were postgraduates, 19.44% were less than 1 year, 37.27% were 1-5 years, 27.66% of them have 6-10 years and 13.03% of them have 11 years or more banking experience, 40.68% of them worked in marketing and 43.09% of them in operations positions, 22.65% It has been determined that the bank experience is less than 1 year in total, 42.69% have 1-5 years and 27.05% have 6-10 years of experience in the bank they are currently working in.

Table 2. Bankers' Job Insecurity Scale Scores

	n	\bar{x}	s	Min	Max
Quantitative	499	2,73	0,77	1,00	5,00
Qualitative	499	2,90	0,27	1,80	5,00
Job Insecurity Scale	499	2,81	0,49	1,80	4,63

In Table 2, descriptive statistics are given for the scores of the bankers in the study from the Job Insecurity Scale. According to Table 2, bankers got an average of 2.73 ± 0.77 points from the quantitative sub-dimension of the Job Insecurity Scale, and an average of 2.90 ± 0.27 points from the qualitative sub-dimension. It was determined that bankers got an average of 2.81 ± 0.49 points from the Job Insecurity Scale.

Table 3. Comparison of Job Insecurity Scale Scores of Bankers by Gender

	Gender	n	\bar{x}	s	t	p
Quantitative	Female	266	2,78	0,77	1,469	0,143
	Male	233	2,67	0,77		
Qualitative	Female	266	2,91	0,29	1,347	0,178
	Male	233	2,88	0,25		

Job Scale	Insecurity	Female	266	2,84	0,50	1,585	0,114
		Male	233	2,77	0,49		

Table 3 shows the results of the independent sample t-test for comparing the Job Insecurity Scale scores of the bankers included in the study by gender. When Table 3 is examined, there is no statistically significant difference between the scores of the bankers from the Job Insecurity Scale in general and the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale ($p>0.05$). It has been determined that the scores of female and male bankers from the Job Insecurity Scale in general and the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale are similar.

Table 4. Comparison of Job Insecurity Scale Scores by Marital Status of Bankers

		Marital Status	n	\bar{x}	s	Min	Max	F	p
Quantitative		Single	209	2,65	0,74	1	4,75	1,865	0,156
		Married	223	2,78	0,76	1	5		
		Divorced	67	2,79	0,88	1,25	5		
Qualitative		Single	209	2,87	0,26	1,8	3,4	2,724	0,067
		Married	223	2,93	0,28	2	5		
		Divorced	67	2,87	0,28	2	3,4		
Job Scale	Insecurity	Single	209	2,75	0,48	1,8	4,075	2,273	0,104
		Married	223	2,85	0,48	1,8	4,625		
		Divorced	67	2,82	0,56	1,8	4,2		

In Table 4, the findings obtained from the ANOVA used to compare the Job Insecurity Scale scores according to the marital status of the bankers in the research are given. It was determined that there was no statistically significant difference between the scores of the bankers from the Job Insecurity Scale in general and the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale according to their marital status ($p>0.05$). The scores of single, married and divorced bankers from the overall Job Insecurity Scale and the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale were found to be similar.

Table 5. Comparison of Job Insecurity Scale Scores of Bankers by Age Group

		Age Group	n	\bar{x}	s	Min	Max	F	p	Difference
Quantitative		30 and under	143	2,88	0,74	1,25	5	4,915	0,002*	1-4
		31-35	164	2,76	0,74	1	5			
		36-40	131	2,64	0,78	1,25	4,75			
		41 and above	61	2,47	0,83	1	4,5			
Qualitative		30 and under	143	2,94	0,24	2	4	5,244	0,001*	1-4
		31-35	164	2,92	0,22	2	3,6			
		36-40	131	2,87	0,26	2	3,6			
		41 and above	61	2,79	0,43	1,8	5			
Job Scale	Insecurity	30 and under	143	2,91	0,45	1,925	4,2	6,841	0,000*	1-4
		31-35	164	2,84	0,46	1,8	4,2			
		36-40	131	2,75	0,50	1,8	4,075			
		41 and above	61	2,60	0,59	1,8	4,625			

* $p<0,05$

Table 5 shows the ANOVA results used to compare the Job Insecurity Scale scores according to the age of the bankers. When Table 5 is examined, it has been determined that there is no statistically significant difference between the scores of the bankers included in the study from the Job Insecurity Scale in general and the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale ($p>0.05$). The scores of bankers aged 30 and below, 31-35 years old, 36-40 years old, and 41 and over from the Job Insecurity Scale and its quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions in the scale are similar.

Table 6. Comparison of Job Insecurity Scale Scores According to Total Banking Experience of Bankers

	Experience	n	\bar{x}	s	Min	Max	F	p	Difference
Quantitative	Less than 1 year	97	2,81	0,81	1	5	7,639	0,000*	1-4
	1-5	183	2,84	0,73	1,25	4,75			2-4
	6-10	130	2,74	0,71	1,5	5			3-4
	11-15	89	2,39	0,82	1	4,5			
Qualitative	Less than 1 year	97	2,91	0,24	2,2	4	10,071	0,000*	1-4
	1-5	183	2,95	0,22	2	4			2-4
	6-10	130	2,89	0,23	2	3,4			3-4
	11-15	89	2,77	0,40	1,8	5			
Job Insecurity Scale	Less than 1 year	97	2,86	0,49	1,8	4,2	11,508	0,000*	1-4
	1-5	183	2,90	0,45	1,85	4,075			2-4
	6-10	130	2,82	0,44	2,05	4,2			3-4
	11-15	89	2,54	0,57	1,8	4,625			

* $p < 0,05$

Table 6 shows the ANOVA results used to compare the Job Insecurity Scale scores according to the total banking experience of the bankers participating in the research. Table 6. When examined, statistically significant differences were found between the scores of the bankers obtained from the overall Job Insecurity Scale and the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale according to their total banking experience ($p < 0.05$). The scores of the bankers with 11-15 years of total banking experience in the Job Insecurity Scale and in the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale were found to be lower than those with a total banking experience of less than 1 year, 1-5 years and 6-10 years.

Table 7. Comparison of Job Insecurity Scale Scores of Bankers by Position

	Position	n	\bar{x}	s	Min	Max	F	p
Quantitative	Manager	41	2,73	0,76	1,50	4,50	1,246	0,292
	Marketing	203	2,66	0,72	1,25	5,00		
	Operation	215	2,80	0,79	1,00	5,00		
	Other	40	2,70	0,90	1,00	4,75		
Qualitative	Manager	41	2,94	0,21	2,60	3,60	0,485	0,693
	Marketing	203	2,90	0,27	2,00	5,00		
	Operation	215	2,89	0,29	1,80	4,00		
	Other	40	2,88	0,26	2,00	3,40		
Job Insecurity Scale	Manager	41	2,81	0,49	1,80	3,85	0,668	0,572
	Marketing	203	2,78	0,46	1,93	4,63		
	Operation	215	2,84	0,51	1,80	4,20		
	Other	40	2,76	0,59	1,80	4,08		

Table 7 shows the findings obtained from the ANOVA used to compare the Job Insecurity Scale scores of the bankers included in the study according to their positions. When Table 7 is examined, it has been determined that there is no statistically significant difference between the scores of the bankers included in the study from the Job Insecurity Scale in general and the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale ($p > 0.05$). The scores of bankers working in managerial, marketing, operations and other positions in the Job Insecurity Scale in general and in the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale were found to be similar.

Table 8. Comparison of Job Insecurity Scale Scores According to Total Experience of Bankers in the Currently Working Bank

	Duration	n	\bar{x}	s	Min	Max	F	p	Difference
Quantitative	Less than 1 year	113	2,81	0,78	1	5	24,975	0,000*	1-4

Qualitative		1-5	213	2,85	0,73	1,25	4,75			2-4
		6-10	135	2,73	0,73	1,5	5			3-4
		11-15	38	1,77	0,37	1	2,5			
		Less than 1 year	113	2,93	0,30	2,2	5	37,631	0,000*	1-4
		1-5	213	2,94	0,22	2	4			2-4
Job Insecurity Scale		6-10	135	2,91	0,23	2	3,4			3-4
		11-15	38	2,49	0,29	1,8	2,8			
		Less than 1 year	113	2,87	0,49	1,8	4,625	40,627	0,000*	1-4
		1-5	213	2,90	0,45	1,85	4,075			2-4
		6-10	135	2,82	0,44	2,05	4,2			3-4
		11-15	38	2,05	0,14	1,8	2,275			

* $p < 0,05$

Table 8 shows the ANOVA results used in the comparison of Job Insecurity Scale scores according to the total experience of the bankers included in the research at the current working bank. According to Table 8, there were statistically significant differences between the scores of the bankers in the research according to their total experience in the currently working bank, from the Job Insecurity Scale in general and the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale ($p < 0.05$). Bankers with a total experience of 11-15 years in the bank they are currently working with have lower scores on the Job Insecurity Scale and the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale compared to those with a total banking experience of less than 1 year, 1-5 years and 6-10 years.

Table 9. Bankers' Leader-Member Interaction Scale and Power Distance Perception Scale Scores

	n	\bar{x}	s	Min	Max
Loyalties	499	2,83	0,96	1,00	5,00
Effect	499	2,82	0,95	1,00	5,00
Contribution	499	2,80	0,97	1,00	5,00
Respect	499	2,89	0,92	1,00	5,00
Leader-Member Interaction Scale	499	2,84	0,94	1,00	5,00
Power Distance Perception Scale	499	3,04	0,62	1,50	5,00

Table 9 includes descriptive statistics for the scores of the bankers in the research on Leader-Member Interaction Scale and Power Distance Perception Scale. In the Leader-Member Interaction Scale of the bankers in the study, he/she got $2,83 \pm 0,96$ points from the loyalty sub-dimension, average $2,82 \pm 0,95$ -score from the influence sub-dimension, an average of 2.80 ± 0.92 points from the contributor and an average of 2.89 ± 0.92 points from the respect sub-dimension. It was determined that the participants got an average of 2.84 ± 0.94 points from the Leader-Member Interaction Scale in general.

It was determined that the bankers included in the study got an average of 3.04 ± 0.62 points from the Power Distance Perception Scale.

Table 10. Correlations Between Bankers' Leader-Member Interaction Scale, Power Distance Perception Scale, and Job Insecurity Scale Scores

	Loyalties	Effect	Contribution	Respect	Leader-Member Interaction Scale	Power Distance Perception Scale	Quantitative	Qualitative	Job Insecurity Scale
r	1								
p									
N	499								

Effect	r	0,999	1							
	p	0,000*								
	N	499	499							
Contribution	r	0,976	0,975	1						
	p	0,000*	0,000*							
	N	499	499	499						
Respect	r	0,989	0,989	0,965	1					
	p	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*						
	N	499	499	499	499					
Leader-Member Interaction Scale	r	0,998	0,997	0,986	0,992	1				
	p	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*					
	N	499	499	499	499	499				
Power Distance Perception Scale	r	-0,466	-0,464	-0,446	-0,483	-0,468	1			
	p	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*				
	N	499	499	499	499	499	499			
Quantitative	r	-0,596	-0,598	-0,587	-0,604	-0,600	0,609	1		
	p	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*			
	N	499	499	499	499	499	499	499		
Qualitative	r	-0,351	-0,353	-0,354	-0,359	-0,357	0,275	0,648	1	
	p	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*		
	N	499	499	499	499	499	499	499	499	
Job Insecurity Scale	r	-0,573	-0,575	-0,566	-0,581	-0,577	0,559	0,971	0,796	1
	p	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	0,000*	
	N	499	499	499	499	499	499	499	499	499

* $p < 0,05$

In Table 10, the Pearson test results regarding the correlations between the Leader-Member Interaction Scale, Power Distance Perception Scale and Job Insecurity Scale scores of the bankers participating in the research are given. According to Table 10, statistically significant and negative correlations were found between the scores of the participants from the Leader-Member Interaction Scale in general and the sub-dimensions of loyalty, influence, contribution and respect in the scale and Job Insecurity Scale scores ($p < 0.05$). It was determined that as the scores obtained by the bankers from the Leader-Member Interaction Scale in general and the sub-dimensions of loyalty, influence, contribution and respect in the scale increased, the scores of the Job Assurance Scale decreased. A statistically significant and positive correlation was found between the scores of the bankers included in the study from the Power Distance Perception Scale and their Job Insecurity Scale scores ($p < 0.05$). It was determined that as the scores of the bankers participating in the study on the Power Distance Perception Scale increased, their Job Security Scale scores also increased.

Table 11. Prediction of Job Insecurity Scale Scores of Bankers' Leader-Member Interaction Scale and Power Distance Perception Scale Scores

	Non-Std.		Std.	t	p	F	R ²
	B	S.H.	Beta				
(Fixed)	2,512	0,129		19,429	0,000*		
Leader-Member Interaction Scale	-0,211	0,020	-0,404	-10,637	0,000*	195,246	0,440
Power Distance Perception Scale	0,294	0,030	0,370	9,744	0,000*	0,000*	0,438

* $p < 0,05$

Table 11 shows the results of the multivariate regression analysis for the predictive status of the Leader-Member Interaction Scale and Power Distance Perception Scale scores of the bankers included in the research on their Job Security Scale scores. According to Table 11, it was determined that the scores of the bankers in the study from the Leader-Member Interaction Scale predicted the Job Insecurity Scale scores in a statistically significant and

negative way ($\beta=-0.404$; $p<0.05$). As the scores of the bankers on the Member Interaction Scale increase, the scores on the Job Assurance Scale decrease. It was determined that the Power Distance Perception Scale scores of the bankers included in the study predicted the Job Insecurity Scale scores statistically significantly and positively. ($\beta=0.370$; $p<0.05$). If the Bankers' Power Distance Perception Scale scores increase, their Job Insecurity Scale scores also increase.

5. DISCUSSION

In this study, it was determined that the job insecurity perceptions of bank employees did not differ significantly according to gender. When the studies on the subject are examined, it is seen that there are studies that are similar to the findings of this study, but there are studies that have different results. Dursun and Bayram (2013), in their study examining the effect of job insecurity perception on anxiety, reported that, similar to the findings of this study, individuals' perceptions of job insecurity do not differ according to gender. In his study on bank employees, Öztürk (2022) revealed that the perception of job insecurity does not differ between male and female bank employees. In a similar study conducted on 387 individuals, it was revealed that the perception of job insecurity was similar in women and men, in line with these findings (Atalay, 2021). Tüzün (2020) examined the perceptions of job insecurity of bank employees and determined that there was no difference between men and women in the perception of job insecurity. The finding obtained in the studies conducted by Dumlupınar (2016) and Valibayova (2018) revealed that the perception of job insecurity does not differ according to gender, and that the perceptions of job insecurity of women and men are similar. The study by Erdem (2014) is similar to the findings of this study. Unlike these findings, there are also studies reporting that the perception of job insecurity differs according to gender. In a comprehensive study conducted by Çelebi (2017), it was concluded that men's perceptions of job insecurity are higher than women's. Similar to these findings, Dede (2017) reported that men's perceptions of job insecurity were higher than women's. Adır (2021) also determined that women's perceptions of job insecurity are lower than men's. Aslan (2011) states that male individuals have higher perceptions of job insecurity. Lawton, Taye, and Ivanov (2014) found in their study that women's perceptions of job insecurity are higher than men's. When this finding is evaluated within the scope of gender roles, it is thought that male employees see themselves as the first person responsible for the care of the family and the stress and psychological pressure created by this perception may be the cause. Contrary to these results, there are also studies that found that women's perceptions of job insecurity are higher compared to men (Naswall and De Witte, 2003; Sümer, Solak and Harma, 2013). It is thought that the reason for reaching different results regarding job insecurity and gender variable may be related to geographical variation.

Another variable considered in the study is marital status. Accordingly, bank employees' perceptions of job precariousness do not differ according to marital status. Different results are found in the literature on marital status and perception of work insecurity. In the study conducted by Tüzün (2020) on bank employees, in line with the findings of this study, it was found that the perceptions of job insecurity of bank employees did not differ according to marital status; reported that the scores of married and single bank employees were similar. Northouse (2019) similarly states that the perception of work insecurity is not affected by marital status. In a study examining the demographic variables affecting the perception of job insecurity, it was concluded that marital status did not make a significant difference on the perception of job insecurity (Probst, Jiang, and Graso, 2016). Akpolat (2019) obtained results consistent with the findings of this study in his study. In another study on the subject, it is stated that marital status does not have a predictive effect on job insecurity (Gezegen, 2010). Unlike these results, Sümer et al. (2013) stated that marital status is a determinant demographic variable in the perception of job insecurity; states that being married reduces job insecurity. In their study, Qian et al. (2019) found that the perception of job insecurity is not related to marital status; reported that the variable of having children rather than being single or married has an effect on the perception of job insecurity. It is thought that the reason for the different results regarding the variable of job insecurity and marital status is due to the differences in the sample groups.

In this study, it is seen that the job insecurity perceptions of bank employees do not differ according to the age variable. In the related literature, there are different results regarding the perception of job insecurity and the age variable. Dede (2017) reported that, similar to the results of this study, the perception of job insecurity did not differ according to age groups. When other related studies are examined, it is seen that they are compatible with the findings of this study (Azaklı, 2011; Sandıkçı, 2010; Planet, 2010). Unlike this finding, Tüzün (2020) found that the job insecurity perceptions of bank employees between the ages of 26-30 were higher than other age groups in his study, which examined the job insecurity perceptions of bank employees and many variables. However, in the study, it was concluded that this age group has higher perceptions of quantitative job insecurity, which represents the dimension of losing their jobs completely compared to other age groups. On the other hand, Kinnunen, Mauno and Sitaloppi (2014) stated that there is a negative and significant relationship between age and the perception of job insecurity; reported that the perception of job insecurity increases as age decreases. It

can be said that the reason for this situation is that the experience, professional knowledge and skills of young individuals in business life are lower than other individuals who have been in business life for many years. Karkoulian et al. (2013) state that the perception of job insecurity decreases as age increases. It is foreseen that this result may be related to knowledge, experience and experience acquired depending on age. Cheng and Chan (2008) also reported similar results regarding the variable of job insecurity and age. Bustillo and Pedraza (2010), on the other hand, found that, unlike these findings, the perception of job insecurity decreases as age decreases. In the study carried out, it was determined that young individuals aged 16-24 have lower job insecurity perceptions than individuals aged 45 and over. It is stated that this finding may be related to the fact that young individuals generally have less family-related responsibilities.

In the study, according to the total banking experience of the bankers, the differences between the scores they got from the Job Insecurity Scale in general and the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale were statistically significant; it has been found that the scores of the bankers with a total banking experience of 11-15 years in the Job Insecurity Scale and in the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale are lower than those with a total banking experience of less than 1 year, 1-5 years and 6-10 years. It is supported in the literature that professional seniority is an important variable in the perception of job insecurity. Studies on the subject differ. Adır (2021), in his study with 399 employees, found that similar to the result of this study, professional seniority did not make a significant difference in the perception of job insecurity. Unlike these findings, it has been reported that individuals with high professional seniority have lower job insecurity perceptions than individuals with low professional seniority (Johnson, Bobko, and Hartenian, 1992). Atalay (2021) similarly examined the demographic factors affecting the perception of job insecurity and found that professional seniority created a significant difference in the perception of job insecurity. According to this result, the perception of job insecurity of individuals who have been in business for more than 7 years is lower than those who have been in business for 4 years. Tilakdharee et al., (2010) found that employees with a professional seniority of 1-5 years have higher job security perceptions than individuals with higher professional seniority. It is stated that in the institutions where the hierarchical order is determinant, the perceived job insecurity perceptions of the employees with high professional seniority are lower than those with low professional seniority. The fact that the job descriptions and roles of individuals with low professional seniority or especially those who have just started to work are more ambiguous may cause them to feel insecure about the job (Öz, 2008). On the other hand, there are studies in the literature stating that the perception of job insecurity increases as professional seniority increases (Çolak, 2014; Valibayova, 2018; Akpolat, 2019). Similarly, it is stated that individuals with high professional seniority have some skills specific to the institutions they are involved in, and therefore it may be more difficult for them to take part in another institution compared to individuals in other age groups (Kline, 2016).

Another variable studied in the study is the position variable studied. Accordingly, the position in which the bank employees work does not make a significant difference in their perceptions of job insecurity. When the studies on the subject are examined, it is seen that the position variable studied is an important predictor of job insecurity. Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (2010) reported that the job insecurity of individuals working in managerial positions is lower than individuals working in other positions. Tüzün (2020) states in his study on bank employees that the job insecurity of individuals working in marketing positions is higher than those working in other positions. In another study, it was found that the perception of job insecurity decreases as the position and status increase (Berglund, Furaker, and Vulkan, 2014). It is stated that the work experience and the positions of the employees are related to the perceived job insecurity, and the job insecurity of the individuals in the senior positions is lower (Byrne, 2010). Despite these results, there are studies reporting that the perception of job insecurity increases as the position increases. Arnold, A., and Staffebach (2012). He states that individuals in senior positions are exposed to intense stress due to their duties and responsibilities in the organization, and this situation is considered as an obstacle to doing their jobs, and this perception increases job insecurity. Similarly, in a study in which managers and employees were examined comparatively, it was concluded that individuals in managerial positions had higher perceptions of job insecurity.

According to the total experience of the bankers in the current working bank, it is another result that the differences between the scores they get from the overall Job Insecurity Scale and the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale are statistically significant differences. According to this result, the scores of the bankers with a total experience of 11-15 years in the bank they are currently working for in the overall Job Insecurity Scale and the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale are lower than those with a total banking experience of less than 1 year, 1-5 years and 6-10 years. When the related studies are examined, it is seen that although there are similar studies with the findings of this study, different findings have also been reached. Srikanth and Jomon (2013) state that as the total working time in the institution increases, the organizational harmony and organizational commitment of the person increases, and the trust relationship

developed with both other employees and managers will reduce job insecurity. Similarly, the high total time worked in the organization is considered as a representation of the harmony developed with the organization and its managers; It is stated that this adaptation reduces job insecurity. In the study conducted by Dereli (2010), it was revealed that the perception of job insecurity decreases as the working year in the institution increases. In the studies carried out by Seçer (2007) and Şeker (2011), it is seen that findings in this direction have been reached. Ellonen and Natti (2015) reported that as the number of years worked in the current organization increases, job insecurity also increases. As the number of years of existence in the current organization increases, the level of work commitment of the employees will increase and a perception of job insecurity will be experienced in any problem encountered. The fact that individuals who work in the current organization for a shorter period of time are new within the organization causes their organizational commitment levels to be lower or not to develop at all, which can reduce their job insecurity. Tüzün (2020), on the other hand, reported that, unlike these findings, the total working time in the current institution does not have an effect on the perception of job insecurity.

In the study, the relationship between the perception of job insecurity and the perception of leader-member interaction and power distance was examined, and it was found that there were statistically significant and negative correlations between the scores of the participants in the Leader-Member Interaction Scale and the sub-dimensions of loyalty, influence, contribution and respect in the scale and Job Insecurity Scale scores. Accordingly, as leader-member interaction increases, the perception of job insecurity of bank employees decreases. In the study, however, it was determined that there was a statistically significant and positive correlation between the perception of power distance and job insecurity. According to this finding, as the perception of power distance increases, the perception of job insecurity of bank employees also increases. The result obtained regarding the perception of job insecurity and leader member interaction is consistent with the literature. In the study by Tüzün (2020), in which the perceptions of job insecurity of bank employees were examined, the leader member interaction variable was discussed. In the study, it was revealed that leader member interaction has a significant effect on the perception of job insecurity. According to this result, as leader member interaction increases, the perception of job insecurity of bank employees decreases. In the study conducted by Castanon (2006), it was reported that transformational leadership characteristics have a predictive effect on the perception of job insecurity, and job insecurity increases as transformational leadership characteristics decrease. In the study of Jing and Niyomsilp (2021), in which the effects of leadership styles on the level of job insecurity and job commitment were examined, the perception of job insecurity is lower among the employees who perceive their managers' transformational leadership characteristics as high. This result can be interpreted as an indication that leader-member interaction is revealed at a higher level in the transformational leadership style compared to other leadership styles. Probst, Jiang, and Graso (2016) state that the communication and interaction between the leader and the group member is directly related to job insecurity, and leader-member interaction is an important factor that reduces job insecurity. In the study conducted by Rose, Merchannt, and Horstmann (2016), it was concluded that paternalistic leadership style is associated with job security. In another leadership study conducted by Ng et al., (2019), it was revealed that perceived leadership styles were effective on organizational dynamics. Accordingly, it has been determined that the transformational leadership style is effective on job insecurity, and as the perceived transformational leadership style scores increase, job insecurity decreases. Achua and Lussier (2010) state that in organizations where there is leader-member interaction, organizational cohesion and commitment increase, and this perception is effective on many organizational variables such as job insecurity, organizational commitment, job dedication, and burnout. Accordingly, while organizational commitment and job engagement will increase in organizations with leader-member interaction, job insecurity and burnout will decrease. Day and Miscenko (2015) report that the way an employee evaluates his manager's leadership style has the power to positively or negatively affect perceived job insecurity. Accordingly, the perceptions of job insecurity of those who have high interaction with group members are reduced, while those who have limited communication and interaction with their leaders have higher perceptions of job insecurity. Anand et al. (2018) report that positive leader-member interaction affects many dynamics within the organization. Accordingly, the quality of the relationship between managers and subordinates has a predictive effect on the perception of job insecurity. When the studies in the literature on the relationship between job insecurity and the perception of power distance are examined, it is seen that there are studies that have similar findings with this study, but there are also different results. Considering that employees are not sufficiently supported in organizations with high power distance perception, it is expected that their perception of job insecurity is high (Antonakis & Day, 2018). In the study conducted by Northouse (2016), in line with the results of this study, there was a positive and significant relationship between job insecurity and power distance; It was determined that as the power distance increased, the perception of job insecurity also increased. Unlike these results, it is reported in the literature that the high perception of power distance causes the formation of an organizational culture based on trust. It is stated that the perception of job insecurity is less and organizational commitment is higher in institutions where there is an environment of trust (Salas, Reyes, and

Woods, 2017; Yousef, 2016). It is stated that the perception of job insecurity is relatively lower in institutions with high power distance perception than in institutions with low power distance perception. Employees in institutions with high power distance perception have higher productivity, quality, performance and commitment; it is also stated that this situation reduces job insecurity (Fard, Rajabzadeh and Hasiri, 2010). It is said that in organizations where the perception of power distance is low, the commitment of the employees to their managers is low, the employee considers his manager only as a counseling authority and exhibits attitudes towards this. In organizations where power distance perception is high, employees are significantly dependent on their managers. It is also stated that they prefer either the leader to be orthocratic or paternal in the case of dependency (Swift and Virick, 2013). The more unequal distribution of power in institutions accepts, the more organizational trust of employees can be expected to increase. Employees who accept power distance, develop the idea that there is an inequality that this distribution and distance should be, and accept power distance more will have higher organizational trust levels, while job insecurity due to organizational trust will be lower (Indyra et al., 2021).

In the study, it was determined that the scores of the bankers from the Leader-Member Interaction Scale predicted the Job Insecurity Scale scores statistically significantly and negatively. Finally, it was determined that the Power Distance Perception Scale scores of the bankers included in the study predicted the Job Insecurity Scale scores statistically significantly and positively. It is an important predictor of the perception of job insecurity that leaders develop new styles as a result of taking on some roles rather than conventional styles in the relationship they develop with group members and interacting with each employee of the institution. Kassing, Piemonte, Gomon, and Mitchell (2012) reported in their study on bank employees that leader-member interaction representing these characteristics negatively predicted the perception of job insecurity. Pak and Jo (2018), on the other hand, emphasize the importance of the positive climate within the organization for increasing the efficiency of the organizations, and also mention the importance of the synergy created by the leader-member interaction in a positive organizational climate. It is also stated that the organizational trust of individuals increases in institutions where leader-member interaction is intense, and thus their perception of job insecurity decreases. Considering that employees can easily express their thoughts and participate in managerial processes in institutions where there is a leader member interaction, it is an expected result that the fear of losing their jobs will decrease (Okafo, Yakubova, and Westerman, 2020). In this context, in this study, it is possible to say that the result of the leader member interaction negatively predicting the perception of job insecurity is consistent with the literature. In this study, the result that if the power distance perception scale scores of the bankers increase, the Job Insecurity Scale scores also increase, which is not in line with the literature. In the literature, it is emphasized that power distance has negative effects on healthy communication (Konja et al., 2015; Mousa et al., 2020). According to these findings, as the perception of power distance increases, an unhealthy relationship develops between the manager and the group member and increases the anxiety experienced by individuals about losing their jobs. In another similar study, it was determined that the job insecurity of individuals working in organizations with low power distance perception is lower than those working in organizations with high power distance (Zeng and Chen, 2020).

6. CONCLUSION RECOMMENDATIONS

It is known that the banking sector is a sector with intense competition and a tendency to reduce labor force frequently. The banking sector is one of the sectors most affected by economic crises in our country and frequently reduces employees. For this reason, bank employees may encounter the perception of job insecurity more intensely than in other sectors. In this study, the relationship between bank employees' perceptions of job insecurity and leader-member interaction and power distance perception was examined. The results obtained in the study are given below;

In the study, it was determined that the job insecurity perceptions of bank employees did not differ according to gender, marital status, age, education level and position. However, it was determined that the total banking experience created a significant difference in the perception of job insecurity. According to this result, the scores of the bankers with a total banking experience of 11-15 years in the overall Job Insecurity Scale and in the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale are lower than those with a total banking experience of less than 1 year, 1-5 years and 6-10 years. The study also found that there was a significant difference between the total working time in the current bank and the perception of job insecurity; the scores of the bankers with 11-15 years of total experience in the current bank from the Job Insecurity Scale and from the quantitative and qualitative sub-dimensions of the scale are lower than those with a total banking experience of less than 1 year, 1-5 years and 6-10 years. In this study, it was determined that there were statistically significant and negative correlations between the scores of the participants in the Leader-Member Interaction Scale in general and in the loyalty, influence, contribution and respect sub-dimensions of the scale and the Job Insecurity Scale scores. In addition, a statistically significant and positive correlation was found between the scores of the bankers from the

Power Distance Perception Scale and the scores of the Job Insecurity Scale. In the study, it was determined that the scores of the bankers from the Leader-Member Interaction Scale predicted the Job Insecurity Scale scores statistically significantly and negatively. According to this result, as the scores obtained by the bankers from the -Member Interaction Scale increase, their Job Assurance Scale scores decrease. Finally, it was concluded in the study that the Power Distance Perception Scale scores of the bankers predicted the Job Insecurity Scale scores statistically significantly and positively. Accordingly, if the Bankers' Power Distance Perception Scale scores increase, their Job Insecurity Scale scores also increase.

Dealing with the perception of job insecurity is challenging for bank employees in our country as well as in the rest of the world. In this context, besides the vocational training of bank employees, it is important to organize the necessary organizations to provide psychological support. These trainings can be organized by the bank management or by authorized general institutions. Considering the predictive effect of leader member interaction on the perception of job insecurity, training programs involving only managers will increase the efficiency of institutions so that bank managers can interact and communicate more positively with group members. Considering that the perception of job insecurity will lead to a negative organizational climate, the emphasis on the job insecurity perceptions of the employees and the development of solution proposals by the managers will contribute positively to the organizational climate. Managers' approach to all their employees with more equal, consistent and understanding leadership styles will reduce both job insecurity and job insecurity perceptions of employees, and thus the success and productivity of the institution will increase. The more equitable distribution of the resources of the organization among the employees by the leaders, the inclusion of not only some of the employees but also all the employees in the managerial decision-making processes, and allowing all the employees to share their thoughts and feelings are important practices in increasing the performance of the institutions.

REFERENCES

- Achua, C.F., Lussier, R.N. (2010). 'Effective leadership', 4th Edition, Thomson SouthWestern.
- Adır, A. (2021), *The effect of perceived job insecurity and work engagement on employee performance*. (Master's Thesis), Selçuk University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Business Administration, Department of Management and Organization, Konya.
- Akpolat, T., 2019:: "The effects of flexible and jobless working on research assistants in school and secondary school teachers: A review in the context of emotional labor and character wear".
- Anand, R., a Udaya Suriyan, G. (2010). Emotional intelligence and its relationship with leadership practices. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(2), 65-76.
- Antonakis, J., Day, D. (2018). 'The nature of leadership', Third Edition, Sage Publications
- Arnold, A., ve Staffebach, B. (2012). "Perceived post-restructuring job insecurity: The impact of employees' trust in one's employer and perceived employability". *German Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26(4), 307-330.
- Ashford, S. J., Lee, C., & Bobko, P. (1989). Content, cause, and consequences of job insecurity: A theory-based measure and substantive test. *Academy of Management journal*, 32(4), 803-829.
- Aslan, K. (2011). *Examining the effects of job insecurity and job loss anxiety in employees on work efficiency and work productivity: A research in the IT sector*. (Master's Thesis), Istanbul: Maltepe University, Institute of Social Sciences, Istanbul.
- Atalay (2021), The moderator and mediator roles of alienation in the effect of job insecurity on emotional exhaustion: *Example of research assistants*. (PhD Thesis). İstanbul University Institute of Social Sciences, Istanbul.
- Azaklı Ö (2011). *An application to examine the relationship between employees' commitment to the organization and their perception of job insecurity and their intention to leave*. (Master's Thesis), Yıldız Technical University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Business Administration, Istanbul.
- Baş, T., Keskin, N., & Mert, İ. S. (2010). The validity and reliability analysis of the leader member interaction model and measurement tool in Turkish. *Ege Akademik Bakış*, 10 (3), 1013-1039.
- Berglund, T., Furaker, B. & Vulkan, P. (2014). Is job insecurity compensated for by employment and income security? *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 35(1), 165-184.
- Bialas, S. (2009). Power distance as a determinant of relations between managers and employees in the enterprises with foreign capital. *Journal of Intercultural Management*, 1(2), 105-115.
- Bustillo, R. ve Pedraza, P. (2010). Determinants of job insecurity in five european countries. *European Journal of Industrial Relations*, 16(1), 5-20.
- Byrne, B.M. (2010). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS*. Mahwah NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Castanon, A. (2006). Managing traumatic change: The role of leadership as a buffer against the negative impact of job insecurity on employee outcomes. *California: Alliant International University California School of Business and Organizational Studies*.

- Cheng, C. ve Cheung S. (2013). Cultural meaning of perceived control: A metaanalysis of locus of control and psychological symptoms across 18 cultural regions. *Psychological Bulletin*, 139(1), 152-188.
- Clugston, M. (2000). Does Cultural Socialization Predict Multiple Bases and Foci of Commitment. *Journal of Management*, 5-30.
- Çağatay, A., & Kızılkaya, S. (2021). Comparison of personal and organizational perceptions of healthcare professionals towards power distance and leadership style. *International Journal of Health Management and Strategies Research*, 7 (3), 536-560.
- Çakır, Ö. (2007). Worry about losing your job: Job Insecurity. *Work and Society*, 1 (12), 117-140.
- Çelebi, İ. (2017). *The effects of job insecurity on burnout and performance in businesses and an application in businesses in the Adıyaman region*. (Master's Thesis). Harran University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Business Administration, Şanlıurfa.
- Çelik, M. (2007). *Organizational culture and organizational citizenship behavior -an application*. (PhD Thesis), Atatürk University Institute of Social Sciences, Erzurum.
- Çolak, E. (2014). *Job insecurity and the strategies of research assistants to combat uncertainty in the Turkish university system*. (Master's Thesis), Hacettepe University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Sociology, Ankara.
- Daft, R. L. (2001). *Organization theory and design*, Seventh Edition.
- Day, D.V., Miscenko, D. (2015). 'Leader-Member Exchange (LMX): Construct evolution, contributions, and future prospects for advancing leadership theory', in *The Oxford Handbook of Leader-Member Exchange*, (Ed. Bauer, T.N., Erdoğan, B.), 1-40, Oxford University Press.
- De Witte, H. (2005). Job insecurity: Review of the international literature on definitions, prevalence, antecedents and consequences. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 31(4), 1-6.
- Dede, E., 2017 : "The effects of job insecurity perception and organizational trust level on organizational citizenship behavior: A research on public secondary school and private secondary school teachers"
- Demir, G., & Albayrak, A. S. (2019). The moderator role of person-oriented power distance in the relationship between benevolent leadership and employee voice-over behavior. *International Journal of Economics and Innovation*, 5 (1), 67-89.
- Dereli, E. (2012). Determinants of workforce employment in the banking sector. *Istanbul University Journal of Social Sciences*, 11(1), 229-251.
- Dienesch, R. And Liden, R. (1986): "Leader-member exchange model of leadership: A critique and further development", *Academy Of Management Review*, 11(3): 618-634.
- Dorfman, P, W., Howell, J, P., 1988. Dimension of National Culture and Effective Leadership Patterns: Hofstede Revisited, <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/233894930>, 15.08.2017.
- Dumlupınar, M. 2016. *The effect of the relationship between employees' perception of job insecurity, organizational trust levels and attachment models: A research in the private education sector in Isparta*. (Master's Thesis). Süleyman Demirel University Institute of Social Sciences, Isparta.
- Dursun, Y. & Bayram, P. (2013). The effect of the perception of job insecurity on the anxiety levels of the employees: A practice. *ISGUC The Journal of Industrial Relations and Human Resources* , 15 (3) , 20-27 . Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/sguc/issue/25460/268634>
- Ellonen, N. ve Natti, J. (2015). Job insecurity and the unemployment rate: Micro and macro-level predictors of perceived job insecurity among Finnish employees 1984–2008. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 36(1), 51–71
- Erdem, H. (2014). *The effects of perceived organizational support and locus of control on methods of coping with stress: The role of psychological capital in this process and a field survey*. (Unpublished Master's Thesis), Malatya: İnönü University Institute of Social Sciences, Malatya.
- Erdemir, A. C. (2022). *Leadership and power distance relationship in public organizations: An investigation on Pamukkale municipality (Master's Thesis)*. Pamukkale University Institute of Social Sciences, Pamukkale.
- Erlinghagen, M. (2008). Self-perceived job insecurity and social context: A multi-level analysis of 17 European countries. *European Sociological Review*, 24(2), 183-197.
- Ersoy, E., & Levent, F. (2020). Examining the relationship between organizational power distance and organizational synergy level according to teacher perceptions. *Journal of Istanbul Aydin University*, 12 (4), 345-356.
- Ertürk, E. (2014). "The effect of power distance and organizational justice perceptions on organizational citizenship behavior in the context of social exchange theory". (Unpublished PhD Thesis). Selçuk University Institute of Social Sciences, Konya.
- Ertürk, E., & Bedük, A. (2015). The effect of power distance and organizational justice perceptions on organizational citizenship behavior in the context of social exchange theory. *Journal of Business Science*, 3 (1), 1-19.
- Etyemez, S., Aslan, Z. (2018) The mediating role of trait anxiety in the effect of job insecurity on the problem

- of absenteeism: A research in accommodation businesses. *International Journal of Social Research*, 11(37): 1019-1021
- Fard, H. D., Rajabzadeh, A., Hasiri, A. (2010), "Organizational trust in public sector: Explaining the role of managers' managerial competency", *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences*, ISSN 1450-2275 Issue 25, 29-43.
- Fazeli, Z., Farhangdoost, Y., Fazeli, S. A., (2011) The relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership for managers of their anianministry of agriculture. *Journal of American Science*, 7(11), 116-121.
- Gençer Çelik, G. & Öngel, V. (2022). Identifying the positive and negative consequences of leader-member interaction: A review from the point of view of university employees. *Electronic Journal of Social Sciences*, 21(81), 328-346. DOI: 10.17755/esosder.941237
- Gezegen S (2010) The relationship between perception of job insecurity and organizational trust: *Field research in a furniture business*. (Master's Thesis), Kocaeli University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Labor Economics, Kocaeli.
- Gezegen S (2010) The relationship between perception of job insecurity and organizational trust: *Field research in a furniture business*. (Master's Thesis), Kocaeli University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Labor Economics, Kocaeli.
- Gong, J. (2006). Power. F. W. English (Ed.) *Encyclopedia of educational leadership and administration*. New Delhi, India: Sage Publication
- Graen, G. And Schiemann, W. (1978): "Leader-member agreement: A vertical dyad linkage approach", *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 63: 206-212.
- Greenhalgh, L. & Rosenblatt, Z. (2010). Evolution of research on job insecurity. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 40(1), 6-19.
- Gül, Ö. (2019). Power distance perception scale validity and reliability study. *Kocaeli University Journal of Education*, 2 (2), 120-133.
- Gül, Ö. (2019). Power distance perception scale validity and reliability study. *Kocaeli University Journal of Education*, 2 (2), 120-133. DOI: 10.33400/kuje.638591
- Hellgren, J. Sverke ve M. Isaksson, K. (1999). A Two-dimensional Approach to Job Insecurity: Consequences for Employee Attitudes and Well-being. *European Journal of Work & Organizational Psychology*. Cilt 8. Sayı 2. s. 179- 195.
- Hofstede, G., & Minkov, M. (2010). Long-versus short-term orientation: new perspectives. *Asia Pacific business review*, 16(4), 493-504.
- Holm, S., & Hovland, J. (1999). Waiting for the other shoe to drop: Help for the job-insecure employee. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 36(4), 156-166.
- Indyra, A. J., Noor, N., Irwandy, Rivai, F., & Syamsuddin. (2021). The effect of workplace spirituality and leader member exchange (LMX) on oganizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) nurses in haji hospitals, south sulawesi province and stella maris hospital. *Journal of Cardiovascular Disease Research*, 12(1).
- İlhan, Ü. D., & Yemişçi, D. A. (2020). The relationship between national culture, organizational culture and occupational safety culture: An evaluation specific to Turkey in terms of Hofstede's power distance and uncertainty avoidance dimensions. *Journal of Management and Economics*, 27 (3), 703-724.
- Jahangirov, N. (2012). *An empirical research on the relationships between power distance as a cultural variable and the glass ceiling barrier*. (Unpublished Master's Thesis), Gazi University Institute of Educational Sciences, Ankara.
- Jing, J., & Niyomsilp, E. (2021). Impact of leader-member exchange and team-member exchange on nurses'. *Western University Research Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 7(2)
- Johnson, N. B., Bobko, P., ve Hartenian, L. S. (1992). "Union influence on local union leaders' perceptions of job insecurity: An empirical test". *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 30(1), 45-60.
- Karkoulian, S., Mukaddam, W., McCarthy, R. & Messara, L. (2013). Job insecurity: a whirlpool of chronic powerlessness. *Education, Business and Society: Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues*, 6(1), 55-70
- Kassing, J., Piemonte, N., Gomon, C., & Mitchell, C. (2012). Dissent expression as an indicator of work engagement and intention to leave. *Journal of Business Communication*, 49(3), 237-253. doi:10.1177/0021943612446751
- Khatri, N. (2009). Consequences of power distance orientation in organisations. *Vision*, 13(1), 1-9.
- Kinnunen, U., Mauno, S., & Siltaloppi, M. (2010). Job Insecurity, recovery and wellbeing at work: Recovery experiences as moderators. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 31 (2), 179-194.
- Klein Hesselink, D. J., & Van Vuuren, T. (1999). Job flexibility and job insecurity: The Dutch case. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8(2), 273-293.
- Kline, R. (2016). Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling. NY: The Guilford Press
- Konja, V., Grubić-Nešić, L., & Matic, D. (2015). The Influence of leader-member communication on organizational commitment in a central european hospital. *Acta Polytechnica Hungarica*, 12(3), 109-128.

- Koşar, S. ve Çalık, T. (2011). The relationship between school administrators' styles of using power in management and organizational culture. *Journal of Educational Sciences in Theory and Practice*, 17 (4), 581-603.
- Lawton, E.D., Taye, F., & Ivanov, S. (2014). Job insecurity and other leadership issues in organizations. *The International Journal of Organizational Innovation*, 7(2), 79-86.
- Liden, R.C. & Maslyn, J.M. (1998). Multidimensionality of leader-member exchange: An empirical assessment through scale development. *Journal of Management*, 24 (1), 43- 72.
- Matveev, A. V., & Del Villar, C. P. (2014). Assessing intercultural communication competence of the Filipino and American managers. *GSTF Journal on Business Review (GBR)*, 3(3).
- Mumford, M. D., Zaccaro, S. J., Harding, F. D., Jacobs, T. O., & Fleishman, E. A. (2000). Leadership skills for a changing world: Solving complex social problems. *The leadership quarterly*, 11(1), 11-35.
- Naswall, K. ve De Witte, H. (2003). Who feels insecure in Europe? Predicting job insecurity from background variables. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 24 (2), 189-215.
- Neath, J. and Schriner, K. (1998). "Power to People with Disabilities: Empowerment Issues in Employment Programming" *Disability & Society*, 13 (2): 217-228.
- Ng, W. L., Teo, B. C., Yeo, J. B., Ho, W. K., ve Teo, K. M. (2019). Use of technology in mathematics education. *In Mathematics education in Singapore Singapore:Springer*,
- Northouse, P. G. (2019). Leadership: Theory and Practice. *Thousand Oaks, California: Sage publications*.
- Okafor, B. E., Yakubova, M., & Westerman, C. (2020). Manager-employee communication: The influence of temperament and leader-member exchange quality on employees' use of upward dissent strategies. *Western Journal of Communication*. doi:10.1080/10570314.2020.1850850
- Önder, Ç., & Wasti, S. A. (2002). Job security index and job security satisfaction scale: reliability and validity analysis. *Journal of Management Studies*, 2 (1), 23-47
- Öz, İ.G. (2008). *Psychological perspectives on work and private life. The Relationship of Job Insecurity with Self-Efficacy and Job Performance in Private Sector Employees*, Solmuş, T. (Edt.), İstanbul: Epsilon Publishing, pp. 149-176.
- Öztürk (2022), *The effect of job insecurity on turnover intention and moral disengagement*. (Master's Thesis). Ardahan University Department of Business Administration, Ardahan.
- Pak, S., & Jo, S. (2018). The impact of proactivity, leader-member exchange, and climate for innovation on innovative behavior in the Korean government sector. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 39(1), 130-149
- Pfeffer, J. (1992). *Managing with Power*. Boston, Mass.: Harvard Business School Press.
- Plummer, S. (2007). *Victims' Perspectives on the Process of Seeking a Protective Order: Predictors of Perceived Empowerment*. A Dissertation of Doctor of Philosophy at Virginia Commonwealth University.
- Probst, T., Jiang, L., & Graso, M. (2016). Leader-member exchange: Moderating the health and safety outcomes of job insecurity. *Journal of Safety Research* (56), 47-56.
- Qian, S., Yuan, Q., Niu, W., & Liu, Z. (2019). Is job insecurity always bad? The moderating role of job embeddedness in the relationship between job insecurity and job performance. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 1-17.
- Robbins, S. P., Chatterjee, P., and Canda, E. R. (2006). *Contemporary Human Behavior Theory: A Critical Perspective for Social Work*. 2nd edition. Boston: Pearson Education Inc.
- Rose, G. M., Merchann, A., Orth, U. R. ve Horstmann, F. (2016). Emphasizing brand heritage: Does it work? And how? *Journal Business Research*, 69, 936-943. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2015.06.021
- Salas, E., Reyes, D.L., Woods, A.L. (2017). 'The Assessment of Team Performance: Observations and Needs', In Davier et al. (eds.), *Innovative Assessment of Collaboration, Methodology of Educational Measurement and Assessment*, Springer International Publishing.
- Sandıkçı, E. (2009). *Collective reactions of workers to job insecurity*. (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Kocaeli University Institute of Social Sciences. Kocaeli.
- Saylı, H. and Baytok, A. (2014). *Leadership theory application and new perspectives in organizations*. Ankara: Nobel Publications.
- Schermerhorn J.R, Hunt J.G, Osborn R.N, 2000. *Organizational behavior*; John Wiley and Sons. Inc. Printed in The United States of America; Elenkov, D.S. (2002). Effects of leadership on organizational performance in russian companies. *Journal of Business Research*, 55(6).
- Seçer, B. (2007). *The effect of career capital and employability on job insecurity*. (Unpublished PhD Thesis). Dokuz Eylül University, Institute of Social Sciences, İzmir.
- Srikanth, P. B., M. G. Jomon, 2013 : "Role ambiguity and role performance effectiveness: moderating the effect of feedback seeking behaviour", *Asian Academy Of Management Journal*, 182, 105-127.
- Sümer, N., N. Solak, M. Harma, (2013) : *Unemployed life: The effects of unemployment and job insecurity on individuals and families*. İstanbul, Koç University Publications
- Swift, M. L., Virick, M. (2013). 'Perceived support, knowledge tacitness, and provider knowledge sharing',

- Group & Organization Management*, 38(6): 717-742
- Şeker, S., 2011 : “The relationship between job insecurity and burnout in employees: *A field study for medical promotion officers*” (Unpublished Master's Thesis), DEU, Institute of Social Sciences, Izmir.
- Temiz, H. E. (2004). Improper employment: Restructuring of insecurity and instability in the labor market. *Work and Society*, 2 (2), 55-80.
- Tilakdharee, N., Ramidial, S. and Parumasur, S. B. (2010). The relationship between job insecurity and burnout. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*. 13 (3): 254–271.
- Tunçer, P. (2011). Organizational change and leadership. *Sayıştay Journal*, 80 (1), 57-83
- Tüzün, P., (2020), The effect of managers' leadership style and power distance on their employees' perception of job insecurity: *A research on the mediating role of locus of control*. (PhD Thesis). Süleyman Demirel University Institute of Social Sciences Department of Labor Economics And Industrial Relations, Isparta.
- Ulus, A. B. (2018). *A research on the relationship between employees' power distance and organizational justice perceptions and political behaviors* (Master's Thesis). Kastamonu University, Institute of Social Sciences, Kastamonu.
- Valibayova, G., 2018 : “The effect of job insecurity perception on job stress and job performance: A study on *research assistants*”, *Ondokuz Mayıs University*, Institute of Social Sciences, Samsun.
- Waldron, V. R. (1991). Achieving communication goals in superior-subordinate relationships: The multi-functionality of upward maintenance tactics. *Communication Monographs*, 58, 288-305.
- Wichert, I. (2001). Job insecurity and work intensification: The effects on health and well-being. In *Job insecurity and work intensification* (pp. 104-123). Routledge.
- Yıldırım Becerikli, S., & Kılıç, N. P. (2012). Practices of public relations in the Central and Eastern Europe: Sample of Romania. *Ankara University Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(2).
- Yıldırım, H., & Yavan, Ö. (2008). Organizational downsizing and the threat that awaits organizations: The syndrome of lagging behind. *ISGUC The Journal of Industrial Relations and Human Resources*, 10(1), 180-209
- Yousef, D. A. (2016). ‘Organizational commitment, job satisfaction and attitudes toward organizational change: A study in the local government’, *International Journal of Public Administration*, 40 (1): 77-88
- Zeng, C., & Chen, H. (2020). Investigation of the relationships between organizational opposition, employee burnout and work-family balance: A cross-cultural comparison between China and Finland. *Communication Studies*, 71 (4), 633-648

THE EFFECT OF MOBBING ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE IN WORK LIFE

Hakan AŞIK

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
ashikhakan416@gmail.com

Yard. Doç. Dr. Azmiye YINAL

Akdeniz Karpaz University
azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

This study, which examines the effect of mobbing on employee performance in working life, was conducted using the relational screening model, one of the quantitative research methods. The universe of the study consists of personnel working in banks in TRNC. 120 employees were included in the study. The scale method was used to collect data in the study. The scale form used in data collection consists of 3 parts. In the first part, there are questions to determine demographic characteristics (gender, age, marital status and professional seniority). In the second part, questions about mobbing behaviors and in the third part, questions about employee performance are included. When the results of the analysis conducted in this study, which examines the effect of mobbing on employee performance in working life, are examined by gender, "restriction of self-disclosure and communication opportunities" and "attack on quality of life and professional status". It was observed that there was a relationship between the dimensions of". Accordingly, it was seen that male participants scored higher than female participants in terms of both self-disclosure and restriction of communication opportunities, as well as in terms of quality of life and assault on professional status. It is seen that there is a relationship between marital status and attacks on social relations and attacks on health. According to this, it was seen that the scores of the married participants in the dimensions of attack on social relations and health were higher than the single participants. It was observed that there was a relationship between professional seniority and social relations, social reputation and attack dimensions. There was also a relationship between professional seniority and employee performance. According to this, it was seen that the performance of those with a professional seniority of 1-5 years, 6-10 years and 15 years or more was higher than those with less than 1 year of professional seniority.

Keywords: Mobbing, Performance, Employee Performance.

1. Introduction

1.1. Problem status

Mobbing is a continuous and repetitive aggressive behavior that is systematically applied to people in a working environment (Çavuş, 2009). Such behavior can damage a person's reputation, create psychological stress, and adversely affect work performance. Mobbing creates intense stress in people who are exposed to it. Being constantly exposed to aggressive behavior can cause psychological problems such as anxiety, depression, and sleep problems. In this case, the concentration and motivation of the person decreases, he has difficulty in performing work-related tasks and his productivity decreases (Yıldız et al., 2018).

Mobbing damages one's self-confidence. The person exposed to aggressive behavior may lose faith in their own abilities. Loss of self-confidence negatively impacts job performance and can lead to a person being less entrepreneurial, risk-averse, and acting out of fear of failure. Mobbing can lead the person to move away from the working environment (Mercanlioğlu, 2010). The person may exhibit behaviors such as changing jobs, not requesting a promotion, not fulfilling their duties in order to avoid aggressive behaviors. This can reduce work performance and create job dissatisfaction (Göymen, 2020).

In a work environment where mobbing is common, communication and cooperation between people can become difficult. Mobbing victims may avoid interacting with other employees or may have trust problems. This situation can negatively affect teamwork, reduce information sharing and lead to failure in projects that require cooperation (Cevher & Öztürk, 2015). As a result, mobbing can negatively affect work performance. Effects such as psychological stress, loss of self-confidence, thoughts of being away from work, and communication problems can reduce a person's productivity and cause a decrease in work performance. For this reason, it is important to prevent mobbing and provide support to victims in work environments (Karcioğlu & Çelik, 2012).

1.2. Purpose of the research

The aim of this study is to investigate the effect of mobbing on poor performance in working life. The sub-objectives of the research are as follows:

- Is there a relationship between gender, exposure to mobbing and employee performance?
- Is there a relationship between age, exposure to mobbing and employee performance?

- marital status, exposure to mobbing and employee performance?
- Is there a relationship between professional seniority and exposure to mobbing and employee performance?
- Is there a relationship between exposure to mobbing and employee performance?

1.3. Importance of research

This study, which investigates the negative effects of mobbing on work performance, will raise awareness on this issue. Employers, managers and other employees learn about the effects of mobbing. This information helps them understand the existence and severity of mobbing so they are more sensitive to developing prevention and intervention strategies. In addition, it is thought that this study will encourage the development of policies and rules against mobbing in workplaces. Policies that emphasize that mobbing is unacceptable and should be prevented make employees feel safe and help keep the work environment healthy and productive.

1.4. Limitations

Research;

- Resources used
- scale questions
- The scale was limited to the number of participants to which it was applied.

1.5. Definitions

Mobbing: It is the continuous and repetitive aggressive behaviors applied systematically towards people in a working environment (Çavuş, 2009) .

Performance: It refers to how effectively a person or a system performs or successfully completes a particular task or job. (Tuncer, 2013).

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Definition and Scope of Mobbing

Mobbing refers to repetitive aggressive behaviors that are constantly and systematically applied to a person in the work environment. These aggressive behaviors aim to damage the reputation of the person, create psychological stress and create a negative atmosphere in the working environment (Tınaz, 2006) .

Mobbing usually takes place within a power imbalance or hierarchy relationship. The victim of mobbing can often be a person of a lower position or status and is exposed to aggressive behavior. Mobbing can take place in more indirect and covert ways rather than overt attacks such as direct verbal or physical assault on a person. For example, behaviors such as constant criticism, belittling, humiliation, spreading gossip, isolation, excessive control, arbitrary changes in duties, and mocking are examples of mobbing (Barón et al., 2003) .

Mobbing can have many detrimental effects at both the individual and organizational level. Mobbing victims may encounter problems such as psychological stress, anxiety, depression, sleep problems, loss of self-confidence and lack of motivation. In addition, work performance may decrease, job satisfaction may decrease, the thought of being away from work may occur, and physical health problems may occur (Carlson et al., 2018) .

The scope of mobbing can be seen in many different industries and business settings. Mobbing cases are widely reported in areas such as education, health, public and private sectors. Mobbing can occur among employees at any level and in any position (Branch et al., 2013) . In addition, there may be situations where mobbing is applied not only by colleagues but also by managers or superiors (Carvajal & Dávila, 2013) .

The severity and effects of mobbing can vary in each case and can be extremely harmful to victims. Therefore, prevention of mobbing, raising awareness and providing support to victims are important issues (Yeşilada, 2023) .

2.1.1. Mobbing Behaviors Typology

Mobbing behaviors can include different types and examples. Below are some of the typical behaviors of mobbing (Oflaz and Polat, 2023; Bönceoğlu et al., 2023) :

- Verbal Harassment: Verbal attacks such as constant criticism, humiliation, insult, exposure to curses can be a part of mobbing.
- Social Isolation: Social isolation can be achieved through behaviors such as excluding the employee, keeping them out, depriving them of interaction with other employees, and not being allowed to meetings.
- Gossip and Slander: Spreading unfounded rumors about the employee, deliberately spreading false information, gossip and slander behaviors aimed at damaging the reputation of the person can be given as examples of mobbing.

- **Arbitrary Changes in Tasks:** The performance of the employee may be adversely affected by constantly changing the duties of the employee, assigning meaningless and inappropriate tasks, and deliberately changing responsibilities.
- **Systematic Criticism:** Focusing on the mistakes of the employee, emphasizing and ignoring his successes, being constantly exposed to negative criticism rather than constructive criticism can be given as examples of mobbing behaviors.
- **Threats and Blackmail:** It can be a part of mobbing when the employee's job security is damaged, threats such as promotion or wage increase, and blackmailing by using personal or sensitive information.
- **Physical Harassment:** Behaviors such as physical attacks, pushing, punching, which are rare but considered as a type of mobbing, may also take place.

These behaviors are just some of the common types of mobbing. Mobbing behaviors may vary depending on corporate culture, workplace relations, management style and other factors. What is important is that such behavior occurs systematically and repetitively among employees. In order to have a broader understanding of the definition and scope of mobbing, mobbing scales and assessment tools developed by experts and researchers are also available (Dikmen & Dikmen, 2023) .

2.1.2. Causes of Mobbing

The causes of mobbing can be complex and depend on a wide variety of factors. Mobbing usually occurs as a result of some negative dynamics present in the work environment. Below are some of the common causes of mobbing (Rüzgar, 2023; Karcioğlu and Çelik, 2012; Ertürk, 2013) :

Power Imbalance: Mobbing usually takes place within a power imbalance or hierarchy relationship. The victim of mobbing can often be a person of a lower position or status and is exposed to aggressive behavior. The strong party may exhibit mobbing behaviors by abusing their power.

Competition: Intense competition in the work environment can contribute to the emergence of mobbing. Feelings of jealousy and hostility can arise among employees competing for job positions, promotion opportunities, or other resources . This competitive environment may pave the way for the emergence of mobbing behaviors.

Communication Problems: Lack of effective communication and disagreements can be among the causes of mobbing. Inadequate communication can lead to misunderstandings, conflicts and tensions. In this case, hostility and aggression may increase among employees and may lead to mobbing behaviors.

Inadequate Leadership: Poor or bad leadership can be effective in the emergence of mobbing. Leaders' lack of fairness, lack of support, lack of supervision of employees, or abuse of power may contribute to the spread and perpetuation of mobbing.

Organizational Culture: Mobbing can occur as a result of organizational culture. The prevalence of negative values such as aggression, competitiveness or intolerance in organizations may lead to the spread of mobbing. In addition, a culture that encourages or tolerates mobbing may contribute to the perpetuation of mobbing behaviors.

Personal Factors: Some of the causes of mobbing may also depend on individual characteristics and behaviors. For example, some employees may have controlling or aggressive personality traits. These personality traits can cause mobbing behaviors to emerge and target other employees.

2.2. Performance

Performance refers to how effectively a person or a system performs or successfully completes a particular task or job. Job performance is generally associated with factors such as reaching set goals, completing tasks at work, working efficiently, achieving quality results, using talents, and meeting expected standards (Öztekin, 2005) .

Performance in the business environment refers to the extent to which employees perform their duties effectively and efficiently. Performance can be evaluated quantitatively and qualitatively (Minister & Kelleroğlu, 2003) . While quantitative performance expresses how much work the employee has done or achieved certain goals in a certain period of time, qualitative performance indicates how well the employee does the job and how well he meets the expected standards (Yelboğa, 2006) .

Performance can also refer to the extent to which a system, an organization, or a machine performs its function. For example, it is based on factors such as the performance, speed, processing capacity, and data processing capabilities of a computer (Çelik & Çıra, 2013) . In general, performance refers to the extent to which a person or a system performs a particular task successfully and how effectively it is.

2.2.1. Factors Affecting Performance

Performance is an employee's ability and level of success to perform job duties. Many factors can affect employee performance. Some important factors affecting performance (Işığışık, 2008; Bayram, 2006; Özer, 2009) :

Talent and Skill: The talents, knowledge and skills of the employee directly affect the performance. Having the abilities and skills required by the job is essential to performing tasks effectively.

Motivation: Motivation refers to the employee's level of interest, energy, and commitment to the job. High motivation can positively affect the employee's performance. Motivated employees put more effort, focus on goals, and achieve better results.

Working Environment: A good working environment is an important factor affecting the performance of employees. A supportive work environment allows for the development of cooperation, communication, teamwork and positive relationships. Conversely, a negative work environment can lead to problems such as stress, tension and lack of motivation.

Management and Leadership: Good management and leadership greatly affects the performance of employees. A good leader guides and supports employees, provides feedback and increases motivation. Good management practices enable employees to develop their skills and optimize their performance.

Job Relevance: Job relevance relates to the compatibility of the employee's abilities and interests with the job duties. Employees with high job relevance can perform their jobs more effectively and perform better.

Feedback and Improvement: Regular and constructive feedback helps employees improve their performance. Feedback can increase employee motivation by highlighting their strengths and help them improve performance by identifying areas for improvement.

2.2.2. Performance Evaluation

Performance appraisal is the process of evaluating an employee's job performance and providing feedback. Performance appraisal helps employers measure employee performance, identify their strengths and identify areas for improvement. In addition, it provides support for employees to achieve goals and promotes performance (Ferecov, 2015) . Performance appraisal generally includes the following steps (Minister & Kelleroğlu, 2003; Eraslan & Algün, 2005) :

Goal Setting: In the performance evaluation process, the employee's business goals are determined. These goals form the basis for measuring the employee's performance.

Determination of Performance Measures: Performance measures are the scales, standards or criteria used to evaluate the performance of the employee. These criteria are used to evaluate how effectively the employee is performing his duties.

Data Collection: In the performance appraisal process, data about the employee's performance is collected. This data can be obtained from different sources such as observation, feedback, performance metrics or performance evaluation tools.

Performance Evaluation: Using the collected data, the performance of the employee is evaluated. Evaluation involves identifying the employee's strengths and areas of improvement by comparing them with performance measures.

Providing Feedback: The performance appraisal process includes providing feedback to the employee. Feedback highlights strengths and areas for improvement regarding the employee's performance. This feedback increases employee motivation and provides guidance to improve performance.

Performance Development Plan: As a result of the performance evaluation, a performance improvement plan is created for the development areas of the employee. This plan includes goals for employee development, training or support activities, and follow-up processes.

The performance appraisal process is an important tool for managing the performance of employees, providing feedback and supporting their development. However, objectivity, honesty, consistency and effective communication are essential for a successful performance appraisal process.

2.3. The Relationship Between Mobbing and Performance

There is a negative relationship between mobbing and performance (Karaca, 2023) . Mobbing can negatively affect the psychological and physical health of the employee and cause poor performance (Careless, 2023) . The effects of mobbing on performance can be as follows (Moç and Erçetin, 2023; Solmaz, 2023) :

Psychological Stress: People exposed to mobbing are under constant stress. Exposure to aggressive behavior can lead to psychological problems such as anxiety, depression, and sleep disorders. In this case, the concentration of the employee decreases, his motivation decreases, and his ability to perform work-related tasks decreases. Psychological stress is a factor that negatively affects performance.

Loss of Self-Confidence: Mobbing damages one's self-confidence. The employee who is constantly criticized, belittled or humiliated may lose faith in their own abilities. Loss of self-confidence may cause the employee to avoid taking risks, refrain from putting forward new ideas, and avoid taking an entrepreneurial attitude. This negatively affects work performance.

Decreased Motivation: Mobbing can negatively affect the motivation of the employee. An employee who is exposed to aggressive behavior may lose interest and energy in the job. Lack of motivation makes it difficult to carry out work efficiently and reduces performance.

Communication and Cooperation Problems: Mobbing can negatively affect communication between employees. Employees who are victims of mobbing may avoid interacting with other employees or asking for help. This undermines important elements such as teamwork, collaboration and knowledge sharing and affects performance.

Idea of Disengagement from Work: Employees who are exposed to mobbing may have the thought of withdrawing from work. Being exposed to constant attacks can increase job dissatisfaction and cause employee reactions such as changing jobs or quitting the job. The thought of leaving work can negatively affect performance and commitment.

3. METHOD

3.1. Research Model

This study was conducted using the relational survey model, one of the quantitative research methods. Quantitative research is a research method that is carried out through the collection, analysis and interpretation of numerical data. Quantitative research aims to obtain objective results by analyzing data with statistical methods (Büyüköztürk et al., 2008) . The relational screening model is a model used as a research method. This model is used to identify and analyze relationships between variables. The relational screening model is a frequently used method for quantitative research (Creswell, 2017) .

3.2. Universe and Sample

The universe of the study consists of personnel working in banks in TRNC. The sample was created with the convenience sampling method. Convenience sampling method is an easy and accessible method for selecting participants in a study. In this method, researchers use the easiest and most practical method to select participants and generally do not make random selections (Büyüköztürk et al., 2008) . Based on this situation, 120 employees were included in the study.

3.2. Data Collection Tools

The scale method was used to collect data in the study. The scale form used in data collection consists of 3 parts. In the first part, there are questions to determine demographic characteristics (gender, age, marital status and professional seniority). In the second part, questions about mobbing behaviors and in the third part, questions about employee performance are included.

In the study, the mobbing and performance scale applied in the study conducted by Chorbacioglu (2018) was used. As the mobbing scale, Leymann's "Psychological Violence Inventory (LIPT)", which consists of 45 types of mobbing behaviors, was used. In this scale, mobbing is examined in five dimensions. These dimensions are; "Restriction of self-disclosure and communication opportunities" (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10,11), "Attack on social relations" (12, 13, 14, 15, 16), " Attack on social reputation"(17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31), "Attack on quality of life and professional status" (32, 33, 34) , 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40), "Direct attack on health"(41 , 42, 43, 44, 45). The original source of LIPT is in German. The Turkish translation of the questionnaire was used in the book "Mobbing Emotional Harassment in the Workplace" by Önertoy (Davenport et al., 2003). There are 7 questions to measure their performance. A 5-point Likert scale was used for the statements in the questionnaire and the participants were asked to indicate their level of participation in the judgments. On a Likert-type scale; 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Undecided, 4=Agree, 5= Strongly Agree. In previous studies,

the Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient of the mobbing scale was found to be 0.93. For the performance scale; A value of 0.80 was found and both scales were found to be reliable (Öneği, 2014; Çetin, 2015)

3.3. Analysis of Data

SPSS 26.0 for package program was used in the analysis of the data obtained as a result of the research. Descriptive analyzes for survey questions consisting of two categories are shown with numbers and percentages. For comparison analysis between categorical variables, Chi-Square Test when Chi-Square condition is appropriate; In cases where it is not appropriate, ANOVA Test was used. Statistical significance level was accepted as $p < 0.05$.

4. Findings

4.1. Demographic Information of Participants

Table 1. Percentage and Frequency Values of Demographic Information of Participants

		F	%
Gender	Woman	44	36.7
	Male	76	63.3
Age	20-30 years	50	41.7
	31-42 years	45	37.5
	age 43 and over	25	20.8
marital status	Married	85	70.8
	Single	35	29.2
professional seniority	less than 1 year	10	8.3
	1-5 Years	40	33.3
	6-10 Years	30	25.0
	11-15 Years	20	16.7
	more than 15 years	20	16.7
	total	120	100.0

When Table 1 is examined, it is seen that 63.3% of the participants are male and 36.7% are female. Considering the age distribution of the participants, it is seen that 41.7% are in the 20-30 age range, 37.5% are in the 31-42 age range, and 20.8% are 43 and over.

4.2. Mobbing Exposure and Employee Performance Values of Participants

Table 2 , the mean and standard deviation values of the participants' mobbing exposure and performance levels are given.

Table 2. Distribution of Mobbing Exposure and Performance Levels of Participants

	Minimum	Maximum	\bar{X}	ss .
Restriction of Self-Expression and Communication Opportunities	40.00	54.00	48,5500	3,74132
Attack on Social Relationships	10.00	21.00	16,4417	2,59863
Attack on Social Reputation	45.00	66.00	53,5167	5,22596
Attack on Quality of Life and Occupational Status	32.00	43.00	38,1750	3,16404
Direct Attack on Health	10.00	20.00	16,1667	2,21277
Employee Performance	19.00	28.00	23,5417	2,45599

the most Social Reputation Attack with an average value of $\bar{X} = 53.5167$. The employee performance value was determined as $\bar{X} = 23.5417$.

4.3. The Relationship Between Demographic Variables, Mobbing Exposure, and Employee Performance

The results of the analysis conducted to determine the relationship between gender, exposure to mobbing and employee performance are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Comparison of Mobbing Exposure and Employee Performance by Gender

Scale Dimensions	Gender	n	Median (IQR)	Group Comparison
Restriction of Self-Expression and Communication Opportunities	Woman	44	46.45 (4.33)	Z= 20,107; p=0.000
	Male	76	49.76 (2.71)	
Attack on Social Relationships	Woman	44	14.34 (2.15)	Z= 0.000; p=0.987
	Male	76	17.65 (1,990)	
Attack on Social Reputation	Woman	44	51.09 (5.04)	Z= 2.363; p=0.127
	Male	76	54.92 (4.82)	
Attack on Quality of Life and Occupational Status	Woman	44	35.86 (3.44)	Z= 21.29; p=0.000
	Male	76	39.51 (2.03)	
Direct Attack on Health	Woman	44	14.70 (2.01)	Z= 0.018; p=0.892
	Male	76	17.01 (1.85)	
Employee Performance	Woman	44	22.45 (2.50)	Z= 3.132; p=0.079
	Male	76	24.17 (2.21)	

p<0.005

When the results of the analysis were examined, it was seen that there was a relationship between gender and the dimensions of "restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities" and "attack on quality of life and professional status" (p<0.005). Accordingly, it was seen that male participants scored higher than female participants in terms of both self-disclosure and restriction of communication opportunities, as well as in terms of quality of life and assault on professional status.

Table 4 shows the results of the analysis to determine the relationship between age, exposure to mobbing and employee performance.

Table 4. Comparison of Mobbing Exposure and Employee Performance by Age

Scale Dimensions	Age	n	Median (IQR)	Group Comparison
Restriction of Self-Expression and Communication Opportunities	20-30 years	50	49.12 (3.40)	$\chi^2 = 2.61$; p=0.077
	31-42 years	45	47.55 (3.99)	
	age 43 and over	25	49.2 (3.67)	
Attack on Social Relationships	20-30 years	50	15.36 (2.89)	$\chi^2 = 8.89$; p=0.000
	31-42 years	45	17.00 (2.18)	
	age 43 and over	25	17.60 (1.77)	
Attack on Social Reputation	20-30 years	50	51.24 (4.26)	$\chi^2 = 22.71$; p=0.000
	31-42 years	45	53.22 (4.38)	
	age 43 and over	25	58.60 (5.00)	
Attack on Quality of Life and Occupational Status	20-30 years	50	38.40 (3.08)	$\chi^2 = 2.30$; p=0.104
	31-42 years	45	37.44 (2.98)	
	age 43 and over	25	39.04 (3.46)	
Direct Attack on Health	20-30 years	50	15.18 (2.47)	$\chi^2 = 10.50$, p=0.000
	31-42 years	45	16.66 (1.78)	
	age 43 and over	25	17.24 (1.50)	
Employee Performance	20-30 years	50	23.30 (2.02)	$\chi^2 = 0.674$; p=0.501
	31-42 years	45	23.55 (2.61)	
	age 43 and over	25	24.00 (2.94)	

p<0.005

As a result of the analysis, it was observed that there was a relationship between age and attacks on social relations, social reputation and health ($p < 0.005$). Accordingly, it was seen that the scores of the participants in the 43 and over age group in the dimensions of attack on social relations, social reputation and health were higher than those in the other age groups. In this case, it can be said that as age increases, attacks on social relations, social reputation and health also increase.

Table 5 shows the results of the analysis to determine the relationship between marital status, exposure to mobbing and employee performance.

Table 5. Comparison of Mobbing Exposure and Employee Performance by Marital Status

Scale Dimensions	marital status	n	Median (IQR)	Group Comparison
Restriction of Self-Expression and Communication Opportunities	Married	85	47.82 (3.94)	$\chi^2 = 5.66$; $p=0.019$
	Single	35	50.31 (2.43)	
Attack on Social Relationships	Married	85	17,047 (2.01)	$\chi^2 = 11.41$; $p=0.001$
	Single	35	14.97 (3.23)	
Attack on Social Reputation	Married	85	53.67 (5.13)	$\chi^2 = 0.755$; $p=0.386$
	Single	35	53.14 (5.51)	
Attack on Quality of Life and Occupational Status	Married	85	37.91 (3.25)	$\chi^2 = 0.187$; $p=0.665$
	Single	35	38.80 (2.86)	
Direct Attack on Health	Married	85	16.72 (1.64)	$\chi^2 = 16.87$; $p=0.000$
	Single	35	14.80 (2.78)	
Employee Performance	Married	85	23.49 (2.45)	$\chi^2 = 0.019$; $p=0.889$
	Single	35	23.65 (2.48)	

$p < 0.005$

When Table 5 is examined, it is seen that there is a relationship between marital status and attacks on social relations and attacks on health ($p < 0.05$). According to this, it was seen that the scores of the married participants in the dimensions of attack on social relations and health were higher than the single participants.

Table 6 contains the results of the analysis to determine the relationship between professional seniority, exposure to mobbing and employee performance.

Table 6. Comparison of Mobbing Exposure and Employee Performance by Professional Seniority

Scale Dimensions	Age	n	Median (IQR)	Group Comparison
Restriction of Self-Expression and Communication Opportunities	less than 1 year	10	48.00 (0.000)	$\chi^2 = 2.24$; $p= 0.069$
	1-5 Years	40	49.40 (3.76)	
	6-10 Years	30	48.66(3.55)	
	11-15 Years	20	46.50 (4.00)	
	more than 15 years	20	49.00 (4.10)	
Attack on Social Relationships	less than 1 year	10	12.00 (2.10)	$\chi^2 = 16.29$; $p=0.000$
	1-5 Years	40	16.20 (2.43)	
	6-10 Years	30	16.50 (2.25)	
	11-15 Years	20	18.50 (1.70)	
	more than 15 years	20	17.00 (1.45)	
Attack on Social Reputation	less than 1 year	10	45.00 (0.00)	
	1-5 Years	40	52.80(3.22)	

	6-10 Years	30	54.16 (3.68)	$\chi^2 = 20.99; p=0.000$
	11-15 Years	20	52.75 (5.09)	
	more than 15 years	20	59.00 (5.54)	
Attack on Quality of Life and Occupational Status	less than 1 year	10	36.00 (1.05)	$\chi^2 = 2.92; p= 0.024$
	1-5 Years	40	39.00(3.13)	
	6-10 Years	30	38.16 (2.78)	
	11-15 Years	20	37.00 (3.07)	
	more than 15 years	20	38.80 (3.86)	
Direct Attack on Health	less than 1 year	10	11.50(1.58)	$\chi^2 = 29.12; p=0.000$
	1-5 Years	40	16.10 (1.66)	
	6-10 Years	30	16,166 (1.80)	
	11-15 Years	20	18.00 (1.25)	
	more than 15 years	20	16.80 (1.36)	
Employee Performance	less than 1 year	10	20.50 (1.58)	$\chi^2 = 5.61; p=0.000$
	1-5 Years	40	24.00 (1.43)	
	6-10 Years	30	24.00 (2.03)	
	11-15 Years	20	23.00 (2.99)	
	more than 15 years	20	24.00 (3.30)	

$p<0.005$

When Table 6 was examined, it was seen that there was a relationship between professional seniority and social relations, social reputation and aggression ($p<0.005$). According to this, the scores of direct attacks on social relations and health of those with professional seniority between 11-15 years are; Those with a professional seniority of 6-10 years also scored higher than the others in the dimension of attacking social reputation. There was also a relationship between professional seniority and employee performance ($p<0.005$). According to this, it was seen that the performance of those with a professional seniority of 1-5 years, 6-10 years and 15 years or more was higher than those with less than 1 year of professional seniority.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Examining the results of the analysis conducted in this study, in which the effect of mobbing on employee performance in working life was examined, it was seen that there was a relationship between gender and the dimensions of "restriction of self-disclosure and communication opportunities" and "attack on quality of life and professional status". Accordingly, it was seen that male participants scored higher than female participants in terms of both self-disclosure and restriction of communication opportunities, as well as in terms of quality of life and assault on professional status.

As a result of the analysis, it was seen that there was a relationship between age and the dimensions of attack on social relations, social reputation and health. Accordingly, it was seen that the scores of the participants in the 43 and over age group in the dimensions of attack on social relations, social reputation and health were higher than those in the other age groups. In this case, it can be said that as age increases, attacks on social relations, social reputation and health also increase. It is seen that there is a relationship between marital status and attacks on social relations and attacks on health. According to this, it was seen that the scores of the married participants in the dimensions of attack on social relations and health were higher than the single participants. It was observed that there was a relationship between professional seniority and social relations, social reputation and attack dimensions. According to this, the scores of direct attacks on social relations and health of those with professional seniority between 11-15 years are; Those with a professional seniority of 6-10 years also scored higher than the others in the dimension of attacking social reputation. There was also a relationship between professional seniority and employee performance. According to this, it was seen that the performance of those with a professional seniority of 1-5 years, 6-10 years and 15 years or more was higher than those with less than 1 year of professional seniority.

Mobbing occurs as a result of continuous and repetitive psychological, emotional or physical harassment to which employees are exposed. This type of mobbing can have negative effects on the health, motivation and performance

of employees. Here are some suggestions to reduce the effect of mobbing on employee performance in working life:

Awareness should be created: Understanding the symptoms and effects of mobbing helps employees to gain awareness on this issue. Companies can increase this awareness by organizing trainings and awareness programs on mobbing for their employees.

Open communication should be encouraged: It is important to provide an open and healthy communication environment in the workplace. Employees should be encouraged to report mobbing situations to their superiors or human resources department. In addition, by encouraging teamwork and solidarity among employees, mobbing can be prevented.

Mobbing policies should be developed: Companies should adopt a clear policy stating that mobbing is unacceptable and will have serious consequences. A zero-tolerance policy against mobbing should include measures and processes to protect employees. It is also important to provide support to victims of mobbing and to investigate cases effectively.

Workload must be balanced: Excessive workload can increase stress and mobbing that employees may be exposed to. Companies must effectively manage resources and provide support as needed to balance the workload of employees. It is also important to encourage employees to balance work and private life.

Training and development opportunities should be provided: Developing the skills and competencies of the employees makes them feel stronger in the work environment. By providing training and development opportunities to employees, companies can reduce the effects of mobbing and increase employee performance.

References

- Minister, İ., & Kelleroğlu, Ö. GH (2003). Performance appraisal: A field study on the expectations of employees from performance appraisal practices. *Journal of the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences of Süleyman Demirel University* , 8 (1).
- Barón Duque, M., Munduate Jaca, L., & Blanco Barea, MJ (2003). La espiral del mobbing. *pap. psicol* , 71-82.
- Bayram, L. (2006). A new alternative to traditional performance evaluation methods: 360 degree performance evaluation. *Journal of the Court of Accounts* , (62), 47-65.
- Bönçeoğlu , Ö., Çerçi, F., Kömürçü, H., Kurtulan, M., Niyazi, SERT, & Bulut, N. (2023). Examination of Teachers' Perceptions of Mobbing. *Socrates Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Studies* , 9 (25), 148-160.
- Branch, S., Ramsay, S., & Barker, M. (2013). Workplace bullying, mobbing and general harassment: A review. *International Journal of Management Reviews* , 15 (3), 280-299.
- Büyükoztürk, Ş., Kılıç-Çakmak, E., Akgün, Ö., Karadeniz, Ş., & Demirel, F. (2008). Scientific research methods. Carlson, NV, Healy, SD, & Templeton, CN (2018). mobbing. *Current Biology* , 28 (18), R1081-R1082.
- Carvajal Oroz, JG, & Dávila Londoño, CA (2013). Mobbing o acoso laboral. Revision del theme en Colombia. *Cuadernos de Administración (Universidad del Valle)* , 29 (49), 95-106.
- Cevher, E., & Öztürk, UC (2015). A Study on the Mobbing of Women in Business Life. *Itobiad: Journal of the Human & Social Science Researches* , 4 (4).
- Creswell, JW (2017). *Educational research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* . Edam.
- Sergeant, Y. (2009). A Study on the Personal and Organizational Effects of Mobbing. *Niğde University Journal of the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences* , 2 (1), 13-23.
- Çelik, M., & Çıra, A. (2013). The mediating role of excessive workload in the effect of organizational citizenship behavior on job performance and intention to leave. *Aegean Academic Perspective* , 13 (1), 11-20.
- Chorbacioglu, FF (2018). *A research on the effect of mobbing in the workplace on employee performance* , Master's thesis, Ufuk University Institute of Social Sciences.
- Davenport, N. Schwartz, RD, Elliot, GP (2003). *Mobbing Emotional Harassment in the Workplace*, Trans: Cem Önertoy, Istanbul: Sistem Publishing.
- Dikmen, H., & Dikmen, Ü. EC (2023). how violence in music AND video clips fit into the world of new media. *Turan: Center for Strategic Studies* , 15 (57), 269-279.
- Eraslan, E., & Algun, O. (2005). Analytical hierarchy method approach in ideal performance evaluation form design. *Journal of Gazi University Faculty of Engineering and Architecture* , 20 (1), 95-106.
- Erturk, A. (2013). Mobbing behaviors, causes and consequences. *Bartın University Journal of Faculty of Education* , 2 (1), 146-169.
- Ferecov, R. (2015). Performance appraisal methods in human resource management. *Dumlupınar University Journal of Social Sciences* , (8).

- Göymen, Y. (2020). Mobbing and ways to deal with mobbing in business life. *Toros University Journal of Social Sciences* , 7 (13), 31-60.
- Işıkcok, E. (2008). Performance measurement, management and statistical analysis. *Istanbul University Econometrics and Statistics e-Journal* , (7), 1-23.
- Karaca, G. (2023). *The effect of mobbing perception on contextual performance: A study on public institution employees* (Master's thesis, Bilecik Şeyh Edebali University, Graduate Education Institute).
- Karcioglu, F., & Celik, U. (2012). Mobbing (Mobbing) and Its Effect on Organizational Commitment. *Ataturk University Journal of Economics and Administrative Sciences* , 26 (1), 59-75.
- Carefree, EG (2023). Mobbing in social media: Analyze YouTube and Twitter users' comments. *Business & Management Studies: An International Journal* , 11 (1), 226.
- Mercanlıoglu, C. (2010). Causes and consequences of mobbing in working life and its legal development in Turkey. *Journal of Organization and Management Sciences* , 2 (2), 37-46.
- Moç, T., & Erçetin , Y. (2023, March). The Effect of Mobbing on Work Engagement. In *International Conference on Scientific and Academic Research* (Vol. 1, pp. 64-76).
- Oflaz, M., & Polat , E. (2023). The Effect of Workplace Bullying and Job Satisfaction on Job Stress: A Study in Hotel Businesses. *Journal of Current Tourism Studies* , 7 (1), 258-280.
- Ozer, MA (2009). Measurement and Evaluation of Performance in Performance Management Applications. *Journal of the Court of Accounts* , (73), 3-29.
- Oztek, MY (2005). Criteria Based on Performance Measurement. *Suggestion Magazine* , 6 (23), 19-22.
- Wind , N. (2023). Mobbing Perceptions of Academic Staff. *OPUS Journal of Society Research* , 20 (51), 95-109.
- Solmaz, U. (2023). Investigation of the Relationship between Individuals' Perceived Stress and Organizational Support and Organizational Commitment in the Covid-19 Period. *Pamukkale University Journal of Social Sciences Institute* , (55), 329-345.
- Tinaz, P. (2006). Mobbing Psychological Harassment at Work. *Work and society* , 4 (11), 13-28.
- Tuncer, P. (2013). Performance evaluation and motivation in organizations. *Court of Accounts* , (88), 87-108.
- Yelboğa, A. (2006). Examining the relationship between personality traits and job performance. *ISGUC The Journal of Industrial Relations and Human Resources* , 8 (2), 196-217.
- Yeşilada, T. (2023). mobbing. In *Dark Sides of Organizational Life* (pp. 20-35). Routledge.
- Yıldız , SM, Yıldız, BS, & Kepoğlu, A. (2018). The effect of mobbing behaviors on the burnout of amateur football players. *CBU Journal of Physical Education and Sport Sciences* , 13 (2), 231-246.

THE EFFECT OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ON STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

Murat ASLAN

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
220609464@std.akun.edu.tr

Assist. Prof. Dr. Azmiye YINAL
Akdeniz Karpaz University
azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

This study aims to examine the effect of transformational leadership on strategic management. Transformational leadership and strategic management are very important issues. It is seen that successful companies attach great importance to these concepts. Even normal companies may face bad results if they do not take these factors into consideration. In this study, these factors are reviewed in detail. In this study, a total of 403 people were surveyed in Zirve Map Construction Engineering Company in Istanbul and Lokman Pharmaceutical Warehouse in Antalya. SPSS28 package programs were used for analysis. Frequency and frequency percentage values, confirmatory factor analysis, cronbach alpha coefficients were used. The normal distribution of variables was checked with skewness and kurtosis values. The relationships between variables were examined by Pearson correlation and hierarchical regression analyzes.

Keywords: Transformational Leadership, Strategic Management, Leadership, Strategy, Management.

1. Introduction

1.1. Problem status

Transformational leadership is very important today. Transformational leadership begins with people believing different opinions about themselves and others. The first of these is that leadership is not a duty but a way of being. Secondly, while leadership in the past meant power and control over other people, it started with the aim of making other people realize their power and leadership potential in our age. Third, while leadership in the past was based on getting people to do things, today it is a mutual relationship in which each participant will have a valuable formula of purpose and can act morally, bravely, honestly and confidently (Owen et al., 2010). Also, they know how to reward themselves, but they are also their own cruelest judges. In the pursuit of leadership, organizations can uncover such people by asking candidates what they did in their formative years. Self-directed people will always be people who have faced great challenges, whether in education, outside of school, or in their profession (Vries, 2007).

According to W. Bennis, the rapid changes that occur must constantly re-examine themselves, not only by the general managers, but also by leaders at all levels within the organization. These changes lead the leaders of our century to constantly re-create their companies. The only way to run companies in this chaotic world is for future leaders to learn to create an environment that will perceive change as good rather than bad (Bennis, 1997).

Strategy all in all a necessary view to generate a high return on investment Define a firm's long-term position in the market, strike a difficult balance about what the firm will or will not do to provide value to customers, simulate a hard-to-replicate fit between parts of the firm's operating system to value customers (Lesinger, Yinal ve İşman, 2021). includes doing. As for the strategic management issue; We can compare it to a game of chess. The player develops strategies related to the game and applies them by bearing the pros and cons. As a result, it wins, loses or ends in a draw. It is similar in strategic management in businesses. According to the strategy he follows, he either wins or loses or stays in place. We can attribute this to the fact that there are chessboards and pieces on the covers of many strategic management books. Strategic management is a very comprehensive subject. There are many thick books written on this subject. Strategies to be implemented in these books are explained in detail. Businesses that implement them are often successful. Based on this information, in the study, the effect of transformational leadership on strategic management are there?" The answer to the question has been sought.

1.2. Purpose of the research

The aim of this study is to investigate the effect of transformational leadership on strategic management. The research will also try to prove the following hypotheses:

H₁ : Transformational leadership's "Inspirational Motivation" sub-dimension has a positive effect on the "Mission" sub-dimension of strategic management.

H₂ : The "Idealized Impact" sub-dimension of transformational leadership has a positive effect on the "Mission" sub-dimension of strategic management.

H3 : The "Individual Interest" sub-dimension of transformational leadership has a positive effect on the "Mission" sub-dimension of strategic management .

H 4 : The "Intellectual Stimulation" sub-dimension of transformational leadership has a positive effect on the "Mission" sub-dimension of strategic management.

H 5 : The "High Expectation of Success" sub-dimension of transformational leadership has a positive effect on the "Mission" sub-dimension of strategic management.

H 6 : Age of business has a moderator role in the relationship between the "Idealized Impact" sub-dimension of transformational leadership and the "Mission" sub-dimension of strategic management.

H 7 : Age of business has a moderator role in the relationship between the "Inspirational Motivation" sub-dimension of transformational leadership and the "Mission" sub-dimension of strategic management.

H 8 : Age of business has a moderator role in the relationship between the "High Expectation of Success" sub-dimension of transformational leadership and the "Mission" sub-dimension of strategic management.

H 9 : Age of business has a moderator role in the relationship between the "Intellectual Stimulation" sub-dimension of transformational leadership and the "Mission" sub-dimension of strategic management.

H 10 : Age of business has a moderator role in the relationship between the "High Expectation of Success" sub-dimension of transformational leadership and the "Mission" sub-dimension of strategic management.

1.3. Importance of research

Leadership and strategic management are indispensable in business management, country management, and sports activities. There are many variations of contemporary leadership theorems. In this study, Transformational Leadership and Strategic Management, which are very important today, will be emphasized. The main purpose of the research is; Transformational Leadership and Strategic Management are examined and tested on an integrated model. For this reason, it is thought that the research will contribute to the literature.

1.4. Limitations

This work,

- It is limited to the sources used in the research.
- In the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, it is limited to 403 employees, each in a separate sector.
- It is limited to the scales used in the research.

1.5. Definitions

Transformational leadership: It is a leadership approach that the leader can use to move and develop team members forward (Hacitahiroğlu, 2012).

Strategic management : It is the process of planning, directing and controlling the resources of an organization in order to achieve its long-term goals (Coşkun, 2011).

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Transformational Leadership

The highly successful leader is that managers think differently from the vast majority of their peers. The integrative way of thinking they practice is not a science of space that no one can understand. It is a sensible and practical way of thinking. But this way of thinking requires ingenuity and originality that can only come with experience. Not accepting the obvious in the first place is something that gives experience the value it deserves (Martin, 2008).

When you look at information and the speed of transformation, leaders' moods, energies, relationships and their contribution to the climate come to the fore in a much more decisive way (Private, 2018). It is difficult for someone who is not prone to change to be an effective leader. Contemporary society does not give us the luxury of choosing between the status quo and change. Whether we admit it or not, change is permanent and the pace of change is accelerating every day. For example, if we consider the differences between the lifestyles of our grandparents and our grandparents; In just two generations, we moved from a horse-drawn carriage to a space shuttle. Or consider this: any daily newspaper contains as much information today as the medieval louse was exposed to in his entire life. In the 1980s and 1990s, the corporate world witnessed a major paradigm shift that affected the way many organizations operate. This change came to the fore as a result of the changes in many characteristics in societies and these changes continue in the new millennium. We can summarize them as follows (Vries, 2007):

- Significant demographic changes are taking place. Urbanization is accelerating and segments called minority groups are growing.
- Information and communication technologies are in an explosive growth.
- The new economy, which is reflected in e-commerce, differentiates our view of traditional business models. • Euro's influence is increasing.
- Since the fall of the Iron Curtain, Eastern Europe and Russia continue to experience dramatic changes.

- Africa, the Pacific coast and the Far East are dealing with problems in health, finance, education, ecology and management under the conditions of rapid growth.
- Management is increasingly globalizing. Large-scale reorganization and downsizing efforts are integral to this trend. In addition, the consolidation of companies is increasing with mergers, acquisitions and strategic alliances on a global scale.

Leaders who are smart enough to realize that they cannot ignore the above changes are looking for answers. They want to know what consequences all these changes will bring for their organizations, and they have to. They want to know what changes in the market will demand for approaches to selecting and developing future leaders (Vries, 2007).

2.2. Vision Connection of Transformational Leadership

The transformational leader has a vision that is drastically different from the current situation. In the direction of this vision, the followers take the leader as an example, benefit from his thoughts and experiences, and get the reassuring power from the leader to implement their own thoughts (Arslantaş & Pakdemir, 2007). As Katherine Catlin puts it, 'It's common for a leader to think his vision is too clear in everyone's eyes. Because he has thought of every little detail and everything is very clear to him. But often, the thinking action done in the background of the vision was not shared with the others. So people have only a kind of one-dimensional view of this vision. It does not allow for methodologies, systems, and plans that work in this limited vision (Campbell & Samiec, 2010).

Vision is the cornerstone of strategic thinking. Maybe strategic thinking itself. Vision is about being able to foresee or dream about the future. Strategic thinking is just that. Essentially, all people have a vision. Over time, over the years, certain beliefs begin to emerge, both in people, in institutions, and in nations. These beliefs affect and limit our thoughts. We are now inclined to think only in the perspective of these belief boundaries. A firm's top executives and board of directors also develop certain beliefs over the years about what the firm can do, the characteristics of the markets, the character of the employees, and the nature of competition. These beliefs largely determine how creative one can be when creating the vision or strategy. All of these beliefs can often have harmful consequences. If the board of directors believes that the company cannot do certain issues, it may miss the very important information that has reached them regarding this issue. These beliefs may hinder the evaluation of information that could pose a significant opportunity or threat to a company. However, in a world where change is so fast, it is imperative to abandon traditional beliefs and be sensitive to all important information that will concern the future of the company (Kirim, 1998).

2.3. Strategic Management

In the five hundred years BC, each high-ranking commander and general in the Athenian army was called 'straegos', the leader of the army. Generally, this concept means 'related jobs or persons'. Strategic management can be defined as the science and art of shaping, executing and evaluating cross-functional decisions to enable an organization to achieve its objectives. This definition focuses on strategic management's integrated view of marketing, finance, accounting, manufacturing, operations, information systems, research and development to ensure corporate success. Creating and using different and new opportunities for tomorrow is the aim of strategic management. Strategies mean goals to be achieved in the long run. Business strategies can include geographic expansion, product differentiation, market concentration, partnership, acquisition or sale of the company (Taşkın, 2010).

The factor that is essentially effective in the strategy is to make the difference from the competitors. Otherwise, successful marketing may create an artificial differentiation, which will not be permanent. After all, all the money spent is wasted. Therefore, it would be more beneficial for companies to consider what they can do to make a difference. Not only in the textile field, but also in almost all sectors, even in the service sector, the solution to this lies in creating a design culture (Kirim, 1998). Today, the whole world is aware of the limitless use of the wonders that the computer can create. The revolution is now in motion, it is impossible to stop it now. With this revolution came a very high learning rate. This can be called the learning revolution. In other words, the period we are in is an incredibly active age where we have to learn new things every day. The most important fuel of this mobility is computer and telecommunication. In terms of both corporate and personal careers, the prerequisite for sustaining life in such a period is high-speed learning and continuous change. The most important characteristic of the period we live in is speed, and technological change has made speed possible. In such a world, differentiation is not about creating the best, but by creating the right time in the best way. In a world like this, five-year plans won't do much, because everything is constantly changing. While thinking about the medium term, it is necessary to take instant action and to be able to make the necessary moves in the current situation (Kirim, 1998).

3. Method of Research

There are many studies in the literature about transformational leadership and strategic management studies. The purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between transformational leadership and strategic management and the moderating effect of business size and business age on the relationship between these two variables. For this purpose, predictive correlational quantitative analysis method was used in the study.

3.1. Universe and Sample

The population of the research consists of employees of private sector companies in TRNC. This was chosen because it is more easily accessible by the researcher and is time and cost constraints. Since it was not possible to reach the entire universe, the survey form link was sent online to a total of 403 employees, who could be reached by the researcher, using simple random sampling method, and the survey form was applied online.

3.2. Data Collection Tools

The questionnaire form consists of three parts. In the first part, there are expressions of “Transformational Leadership” scale. The aforementioned scale was published by Podsakoff et al. It was developed by in 1990. The scale has five sub-dimensions and there are a total of 23 items in the scale. 8 of these items belong to "Inspirational motivation", 5 of them "Idealized effect", 3 of them "Individual interest", 4 of them "Intellectual stimulation" and 3 of them "High expectation of success" sub-dimensions. A 5-point Likert response system was used in the scale: 1=I totally disagree, 2=I do not agree, 3=I am undecided, 4=I agree, 5=I totally agree.

In the second part, there are 11 questions in total, 8 about the demographic characteristics of the employees and 3 about the companies they work for.

In the third part, there are expressions of “Strategic Management” scale. The scale statements in question were adapted from Alpkın (2000) thesis study and Barringer and Bluedorn's (1999) article. The scale has three sub-dimensions and there are a total of 15 items in the scale. 4 of these items belong to "Vision", 7 of them "Mission" and 4 of them belong to "Strategy" sub-dimensions. A 5-point Likert response system was used in the scale: 1=I strongly disagree, 2=I do not agree, 3=I am undecided, 4=I agree, 5=I totally agree.

The value calculated in Chronbach's Alpha test should be greater than 0.70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). In this research, Chronbach's Alpha coefficients are; 0.856 for “inspirational motivation” sub-dimension, 0.819 for “idealized influence” sub-dimension, 0.771 for “Individual interest” sub-dimension, 0.748 for “Intellectual stimulation” sub-dimension, 0.724 for “High expectation of success” sub-dimension, overall, 0.736 for the “Mission” sub-dimension, 0.849 for the “Vision” sub-dimension, 0.853 for the “Strategy” sub-dimension, and 0.833 for the overall strategic management scale. Therefore, the reliability of the scales is ensured.

3.3. Data analysis

AMOS 24 and SPSS 22 programs were used for the analysis of quantitative data. First of all, the demographic characteristics of the employees and the frequency and frequency percentage values for the characteristics of the employees' companies were connected to the analyzes, and then confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out for the scales used in the research. Afterwards, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated to determine the internal consistency of the scales used. The normal distribution of the variables was checked with skewness and kurtosis values . Finally, the relationships between the variables were examined by Pearson correlation and hierarchical regression analyses.

4. Findings

4.1. Demographic Information

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Gender	f	%
Male	242	60.1%
Woman	161	39.9%
Total	403	%one hundred
Age		
Z belt (20 age And six)	41	10.2%
Y belt (21 years old with 40 years between)	271	67.2%
x belt (41 years old with 57 years between)	80	19.9%

babyBoomers (58 age And above)	11th	2.7%
Total	403	%one hundred
Education Status		
High school And six	188	46.7%
associate degree	15	3.7%
Licence	179	44.4%
High licence And above	21	5.2%
Total	403	%one hundred
English don't know Status		
He knows	132	32.8%
He does not know	271	67.2%
Total	403	%one hundred
Available At the workplace Study Time		
5 years And more little	153	37.9%
6-10 year	115	28.5%
11-15 years	57	14.1%
16 years And more more	78	19.5%
Total	403	%one hundred
in business Position		
Lower level	142	35.2%
Middle level	222	55.1%
Top level	39	9.7%
Total	403	%one hundred
in business Worker Number		
249 And more little	151	37.5%
250 And more more	252	62.5%
Total	403	%one hundred
Business Age		
20 year And six	151	37.5%
21 year And above	252	62.5%
Total	403	%one hundred

Employees who participated in the research; 60.1% male, 39.9% female, 67.2% Y generation, 19.9% X generation, 10.2% Z generation, 2.7% 'BabyBoomers' generation, 46.7% high school graduates and below , 44.4% have a bachelor's degree, 5.2% have a master's degree or higher, 3.7% have an associate degree, 67.2% do not speak English, 32.8% speak English, 37.9% have 5 years or less , 28.5% have been working for 6-10 years, 19.5% have been working for 16 years or more, 14.1% have been working at their current workplace for 11-15 years, 55.1% have been working at middle level, 35.2% have been working at lower level , 9.7% of them are high-level employees, 62.5% of the company they work in Istanbul Zirve Map Construction Engineering has more than 250 employees, 37.5% of them has less than 249 employees, 62.5% of them work in the company for more than 21 years has been operating for less than 20 years in the company 37.5% of which works.

4.2. Correlation Analysis

Before starting the hierarchical regression analysis, the relationships between the variables were tested using Pearson correlation analyses. In the age variable of the enterprise; 20 years and below are coded as “1 (Newer)” and 21 years and above are coded as “2 (Older)”. Companies with less than 249 employees are coded as “1 (Smaller)” and companies with more than 250 employees are coded as “2 (Larger)” in the size of the business variable.

Table 2. Results of Correlation Analyzes

Variables	one	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
one.	one									
Inspiration Transmitter Motivation										
2. idealized Effect	0.419**	one								
3. Individual Interest	0.482**	0.427**	one							
4. Intellectual Stimulation	0.466**	0.362**	0.368**	one						
5. High Success expectation	0.375**	0.282**	0.227**	0.401**	one					
6. Business Age	-0.027	-0.120*	-0.078	-0.035	0.015	one				
7. Business size	0.275**	0.201**	0.168**	0.233**	0.265**	0.218**	one			
8. Vision	0.519**	0.615**	0.579**	0.509**	0.219**	0.290**	0.246**	one		
9. Mission	0.449**	0.609**	0.528**	0.482**	0.206**	0.219**	0.174**	0.851**	one	
10. Strategy	0.526**	0.644**	0.573**	0.533**	0.176**	0.197**	0.215**	0.803**	0.862**	one

p< .01, * p<.05

With the dependent variables “Vision”; “Inspirational Motivation” (+r=0.519, p<0.01), “Idealized Impact” (+r=0.615, p<0.01), “Individual Interest” (+r=0.579, p<0.01), “Intellectual Stimulation” (+r=0.509, p<0.01), “High Expectation of Success” (+r=0.219, p<0.01), “Age of Business” (+r=0.290, p<0.01) and “Business Size” (+r= 0.246, p<0.01);

With “Mission”; “Inspirational Motivation” (+r=0.449, p<0.01), “Idealized Impact” (+r=0.609, p<0.01), “Individual Interest” (+r=0.528, p<0.01), “Intellectual Stimulation” (+r=0.482, p<0.01), “High Expectation of Success” (+r=0.206, p<0.01), “Age of Business” (+r=0.219, p<0.01) and “Business Size” (+r= 0.174, p<0.01);

With “Strategy”; “Inspirational Motivation” (+r=0.526, p<0.01), “Idealized Impact” (+r=0.644, p<0.01), “Individual Interest” (+r=0.573, p<0.01), “Intellectual Stimulation” (+r=0.533, p<0.01), “High Expectation of Success” (+r=0.176, p<0.01), “Age of Business” (+r=0.197, p<0.01) and “Business Size” (+r= 0.215, p<0.01).

4.3. Testing Research Hypotheses with Hierarchical Regression Analysis

In the hierarchical regression analyzes conducted to test the research hypotheses, the sub-dimensions of transformational leadership: Inspirational Motivation, "Idealized Impact", "Individual Interest", "Intellectual Stimulation" and "High Achievement Expectation" as independent variables; “Business Age” and “Business Size” moderator variables; “Mission”, “Vision” and “Strategy”, which are the sub-dimensions of strategic management, were added to the equations as dependent variables.

In the equations, in the first step, there is the moderator variable related to the independent variables, and in the second step, the interactions between the independent variables and the moderator variable. In order not to encounter multicollinearity problems, independent variables and moderator variables were “mean-centered” (Edwards and Lambert, 2007).

Controls were made for some assumptions of the hierarchical regression analyzes performed . The results are as presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Hierarchical Regression Analysis Assumptions

Equation	Multiple Correlation Problem		autocorrelation	Normal Distribution of Residual Values		
	VIF	Tolerance		DW Is.	Residual Values	Residual ValueOr
1. Moderator: Age of Business, Dependent: Mission	1.001-1.486	0.858-0.998	1,903	-0.786	0.592	0
2. Moderator: Age of Business, Dependent: Vision	1.003-1.341	0.746-0.997	2.123	-0.423	0.847	0
3. Moderator: Age of Business Dependent: Strategy	1.002-1.251	0.799-0.998	1979	-0.316	0.917	0
4. Moderator: Business Size, Dependent: Mission	1.001-1.320	0.758-0.999	2.138	-0.525	0.737	0
5. Moderator: Business Size, Dependent: Vision	1.005-1.211	0.826-0.995	1.909	-0.705	0.281	0
6. Moderator: Business Size, Dependent: Strategy	1.002-1.202	0.832-0.998	2.052	-0.285	0.807	0

Since VIF values are between 1 and 5, there is no multicollinearity problem (Sipahi et al., 2010), Since Durbin Watson coefficients are between 1.5 and 2.5, there is no autocorrelation problem (Kalaycı, 2010), Since skewness and kurtosis values of residual values are between -2 and +2 residual values have a normal distribution (George & Mallery, 2019), mean of residual values is zero (Kalaycı, 2010). Thus, it is observed that all assumptions are met. The results of the hierarchical regression analysis for the first equation, in which “Business Age” was taken as the moderator variable and “Mission” as the dependent variable, are as presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis of the First Equation

	$\beta 1$	$\beta 2$	ΔR^2	R^2
Step-1			0.450**	
Inspiration Transmitter Motivation	0.165*	0.163*		
idealized EffectIndividual Interest	0.181*	0.176*		
Intellectual Stimulation	0.173*	0.170*		
	0.179*	0.175*		
High Success expectation Business Age	0.033	0.031		
	0.153*	0.151*		0.487**
Step-2			0.037**	
Inspiration Transmitter Motivation * Business Age		-0.008		
idealized Impact * Business AgeIndividual Interest * Business Age		-0.154*		
Intellectual Stimulation * Business Age		0.202*		
		-0.013		
High Success Expectation * Business Age		-0.029		

Note: ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As can be seen in Table 4, in the first step ($\Delta R^2 = 0.450$; $p < 0.01$); inspirational motivation ($\beta = 0.165$; $p < 0.05$; H1 hypothesis accepted), idealized influence ($\beta = 0.181$; $p < 0.05$; H2 hypothesis accepted), individual interest ($\beta = 0.173$; $p < 0.05$; H3 hypothesis accepted) and intellectual While stimulation ($\beta = 0.179$; $p < 0.05$; H4 hypothesis accepted) has positive effects on the mission, high success expectation ($\beta = 0.033$; $p > 0.05$; H5 hypothesis rejected) has no significant effect on the mission.

In the second step ($\Delta R^2 = 0.037$; $p < 0.01$), idealized effect*business age ($\beta = -0.154$; $p < 0.05$; H7 hypothesis accepted) versus individual attention* business age ($\beta = 0.202$; $p < 0.05$; H8 hypothesis accepted) their interactions are significant; inspirational motivation *business age ($\beta = -0.008$; $p > 0.05$; hypothesis H6 rejected), intellectual stimulation*operational age ($\beta = -0.013$; $p > 0.05$; hypothesis H9 rejected) and high expectation of success*operational age ($\beta = -0.029$; $p > 0.05$; H10 hypothesis rejection) interactions are seen to be meaningless.

In the light of these results, inspiring motivation, idealized influence, individual attention and intellectual stimulation positively affect the mission; not affected by high achievement expectation; It is deduced that the positive relationship between idealized impact-mission is stronger in younger businesses and that the positive relationship between individual attention*mission is stronger in older businesses.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In our rapidly changing world, there are transformations in strategic management as well as in every field. These transformations are also of great interest to businesses. With the globalization of the world, the conditions of competition have changed, and this differentiation has increased the existing risks for companies. Transformational leaders who want to sense the risks and run the company in a robust way in the long run have had to make their strategic management more rational. How strategic management, which is the management system that businesses actively use, is aligned with the practices of transformational leaders who manage businesses is of great importance in terms of understanding the issue. The fact that the actions of transformational leaders are aligned with strategic management is a significant gain for the company. There is no doubt that developments in this field will continue in the coming years as the characteristics of strategic management become more evident. Transformational leaders will demonstrate their importance by advancing themselves as much as possible and by making significant improvements in making companies better. Transformational leaders need to optimize their existing strategies by taking steps appropriate to strategic management. The main objective should be to improve the situation of the company by bringing the strategic management of the transformational leaders to a qualified state with the right decisions and practices.

As a result of the analyzes made; Inspirational motivation, idealized influence, individual attention, and intellectual stimulation positively influence the mission; not affected by high expectation of success; The positive relationship between idealized impact-mission is stronger in younger businesses, the positive relationship between individual attention*mission is stronger in older businesses, and the positive relationships between individual attention-mission and intellectual stimulation*mission are stronger in younger businesses; Inspirational motivation, idealized influence, individual attention, and intellectual stimulation positively influence vision; It was found that high achievement expectation did not affect it.

The following suggestions can be considered for new studies to be done:

- This study can be done with other companies and the results can be compared with this study.
- This study can be done in different sectors.
- The effect of different leadership approaches on the strategic management process can be investigated. For example, 'The Effect of Servant Leadership on Strategic Management'.
- Apart from the scales used in this research, a similar research can be done with different scales.
- The importance of transformational leadership and strategic management should be emphasized in order to design the future effectively.

REFERENCES

- Alpkan, L. (2000). Stratejik Yönetimin Kapsamlılığı, Stratejik Tercihler ve Yönetici Özellikleri Arasındaki İlişkiler. Doktora Tezi, Gebze Teknik Üniversitesi Sosyal BilimlerEnstitüsü.
- Arslantaş, C. ve Pekdemir, I. (2007). Dönüşümcü Liderlik, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ve örgütsel adalet arasındaki ilişkileri belirlemeye yönelik görgül bir araştırma. Anadolu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi 7 (1) 261-286
- Barringer, B. R., & Bluedorn, A. C. (1999). The relationship between corporate entrepreneurship and strategic management. Strategic management journal, 20(5), 421-444.
- Bennis, W. (1997). Bir Lider Olabilmek (Çev: Utku Teksöz). İstanbul: Sistem Yayıncılık.

- Campbell, S. ve Samiec, E. (2005). 5-D Leadership. 5 Boyutlu Liderlik. Çeviren: Kafalı, E. Pegasus Yayıncılık, İstanbul.
- Coşkun, S. (2011). Stratejik yönetim ve toplam kalite yönetimi: Benzerlikler, farklılıklar ve kamu yönetimi için çıkarımlar. *Amme İdaresi Dergisi*, 44 (2).
- Edwards, J. R. ve Lambert, L. S. (2007). Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: a general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological methods*, 12(1), 1.
- George, D. ve Mallery, P. (2019). *IBM SPSS Statistics 25 Step By Step: A Simple Guide and Reference*. Routledge, New York.
- Hacıtahiroğlu, K. (2012). Verimlilikte liderin rolü. *Uluslararası İnsan Bilimleri Dergisi*. 9(1).
- Kalaycı, Ş. (2010). *SPSS Uygulamalı Çok Değişkenli İstatistik Teknikleri* (6. Baskı). Asil Yayın Dağıtım, Ankara
- Kırım, A. (1998). *Yeni Dünyada Strateji ve Yönetim*. Sistem Yayıncılık ve Mat. San, İstanbul.
- Lesinger, F. Y., Yınal, A., & İşman, A. (2021). Determination of the Leisure Time Satisfaction Status of Active Athletes Using the Sports Center. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 19.
- Martin, R. (2007). *The Opposable Mind. Ters Açılı Başarılı Liderlerin İlkesi*. (1. Baskı). Çeviren: Özer, A. Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Nunnally J. C. ve Bernstein I. H. (1994). *Psychometric Theory* (3rd ed.). McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Owen, H., Hodgson, V., ve Gazzard, N. (2004). *The Leadership Manual. Liderlik El Kitabı*. (2. Baskı). Çeviren: Çelik, M. Optimist Yayın Dağıtım, İstanbul.
- Özel, M. (2018). *Liderliğin 1001 Hali*. (1. Baskı). Hümanist Kitap Yayıncılık, İstanbul.
- Taşkın, E. (2010). *Satış Arkadaşımız*. Türkmen Kitapevi, İstanbul.
- Vries, M. (2007). *The Leadership Mystique. Liderliğin Gizemi*. Çeviren: Dicleli, Z, bzd Yayın ve İletişim Hizmetleri, İstanbul.

THE EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE ON ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

Niyazi Sertel

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
niyazisertel83@gmail.com

Münüre Gökbörü

Assist. Prof. Dr. Azmiye Yinal
Akdeniz Karpaz University
azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this research is to determine whether perceived organizational justice has an effect on positive organizational behavior. The research is a quantitative research and was conducted with the relational survey model, one of the quantitative research techniques. The universe of the study consists of 700 people working in the private sector in the TRNC. The sample of the study consisted of 470 people who could be reached in the study and answered the scale questions. In the study, "Perceived Organizational Justice Scale" developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1991) and Luthans et al. (2007) "Positive Organizational Behavior Scale" was used. Analyzes were analyzed using the SPSS 28.0 program. At the end of the research, it is understood that the perceived organizational justice and positive organizational behavior levels of the participants are high. In addition, perceptions of interactional justice and procedural justice, which are sub-dimensions of perceived organizational justice, are high; It is understood that the distribution justice perceptions are at a moderate level. Self-efficacy, hope, resilience and optimism perceptions, which are the sub-dimensions of positive organizational behavior, were found to be high.

Keywords: Organization, Organizational justice, Organizational behavior.

1. Introduction

1.1. Problem Status

People spend most of their lives in or associated with organizations. Organizations with different tasks help people and society achieve their general and specific goals. It is very difficult for an individual or a group to achieve the determined goals alone. In this respect, the development, effective functioning and survival of organizations play an important role in the healthy progress of the life cycle and the achievement of goals (Alaghe, 2004).

Justice is the determination and enforcement of rights and laws. The work environment, where people spend most of their time, is perhaps one of the environments in which they think the most about justice (Yinal ve Banje, 2023). Employees evaluate the fairness of the processes, systems, reward and punishment practices and responsibility structure in their organizations, and the behaviors and attitudes applied to them. As an outcome of the said evaluation, they review their work-related behaviors (Erer, 2014).

Organizational scientists have argued that organizational justice is a fundamental element for the effective functioning of organizations. Organizational justice is the employee's perception of justice in the workplace (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Perceived justice in the organization significantly affects the attitudes and behaviors of employees towards the workplace. Organizational justice refers to the justice perceptions of employees in organizations. Fairness in the organization includes not only the distribution of benefits, fair procedures and policies, but also interactions. Establishing justice within the organization positively affects business results within the organization (Elanain, 2009). Although there are various classifications for the concept of organizational justice, in general; can be divided into three as distribution, process and interaction justice (Kim and Jeong, 2021).

Employees with a positive perception of organizational justice are more committed to the organization. The relationship between the employer and the employees, the fair distribution of organizational material inputs and outputs among the employees will strengthen the employees' sense of commitment and belief in the organization and will play an important role in eliminating possible problems. In addition, giving importance to the ideas of the employees within the scope of the decisions taken by the organization, the participation of the employees of the organization and the protection of their rights will also have positive results (Efeoğlu et al., 2021).

In the light of all this information, the aim of this study is to analyze whether the perceived organizational justice of individuals working in the private sector has an effect on positive organizational behavior. In addition, by contributing to the literature, some inferences were made to identify the problems of the employees and managers in the private sector and to offer a solution.

1.2. Purpose of the research

The main purpose of this research is to determine whether perceived organizational justice has an effect on positive organizational behavior. In addition, answers were sought for the following sub-objectives:

- Does perceived organizational justice according to gender variable have an effect on organizational behavior?
- Does perceived organizational justice according to age variable have an effect on organizational behavior?
- according to marital status variable have an effect on organizational behavior?
- Does the perceived organizational justice according to the educational status variable have an effect on organizational behavior?

1.3. Importance of Research

Perceived organizational justice has a significant impact on organizational behavior. Increasing organizational justice can increase employees' commitment to the business, increase job satisfaction and motivation, reduce turnover rates, and improve the image of the business. Perceived organizational injustice, on the other hand, can have the opposite results and reduce employees' commitment to the business, decrease job satisfaction and motivation, and increase turnover rates. The effects on perceived organizational justice, distributive justice, procedural justice and communication justice are also different. Distributive justice is based on employees' perceptions of the fairness of their decisions about reward and punishment. Procedural justice is the perception of whether the firm's decisions, practices and transactions are made fairly. Communication justice, on the other hand, is the perception of whether the communication of the enterprise is made in an open, honest and correct manner. In terms of its effects on organizational behavior, the most important dimension of perceived organizational justice is procedural justice. Employees expect the business's transactions to be done fairly, and meeting this expectation positively affects their attitudes and behaviors towards the business. For example, employees who believe that business managers' decisions are fair can increase their commitment to the business. Communication justice is also an important factor for the success and effectiveness of the business by increasing the trust of the employees in the business. As a result, perceived organizational justice has a significant impact on organizational behavior. Developing policies and processes to increase employees' perceived organizational justice can help businesses increase their commitment and performance, especially in the dimensions of procedural justice and communication justice.

1.4. Limitations

Research;

- Private sector employees in the TRNC;
- The scale questions used in the study;
- with the sources used in the study.

has been limited.

1.5. Definitions

Organizational justice : It is the perception of the employees in a business that they are treated fairly about the decisions, practices and behaviors of the business (Kaçan et al., 2023).

Perceived organizational justice : It can affect the trust and commitment of employees to the business and therefore is an important factor for the success of the business (Çakı and Aslan, 2022).

Organizational behavior: It is a discipline that examines the individual and collective behaviors, interactions and relationships of people in a business (Yiğit, 2022).

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Organizational Justice

Organizational justice is the degree to which the employees in a business perceive the transactions, decisions and practices to be done fairly (Yıldızbaş et al., 2023) . Issues such as treating the employees fairly, acting in accordance with the ethical rules of the enterprise and ensuring that everyone is faced with equal opportunities are the basic elements of organizational justice (Ugurlu and Kaplan, 2023) . Perceived organizational justice is a concept based on employees' perceptions of whether decisions, procedures and practices in the workplace are fair. This perception can have a significant impact on employees' commitment to the organization, satisfaction and performance. Perceived organizational justice is examined in three different dimensions (Çamur, 2023; Türkeli, 2023) :

- Distributive justice: Perception of whether resources (e.g. salary, promotion, rewards) in the workplace are distributed fairly.
- Procedural justice: Perception of whether decisions and transactions are made fairly. Procedural justice encompasses elements such as clarity, accuracy, objectivity and impartiality of decisions.

- **Communication justice:** It is the perception that the communications in the workplace are made in an open, honest and correct manner. Communication justice encompasses elements such as the explanation and justification of decisions and practices, and the openness of communication channels.

Perceived organizational justice increases employees' trust in the organization, increases job satisfaction and motivation, and reduces stress in the workplace. Therefore, it is important for businesses to develop policies to increase employee perceived justice.

2.2. Organizational Behavior

Organizational behavior is a discipline that studies how people in a business influence operations, decisions and practices. Organizational behavior plays an important role in business management, leadership, business culture and human resource management. Organizational behavior includes elements such as how people perceive their role in the business, how they perform in their jobs, leadership and communication styles, motivations, work satisfaction, strategies for coping with stress, group dynamics and culture of the business (Vapur et al., 2023).

Organizational behavior is important for the success and effectiveness of the business. Good organizational behavior provides benefits such as managing the company's human resources, optimizing business processes, increasing cooperation among employees, increasing customer satisfaction, improving risk management and increasing the financial performance of the business. Good management of organizational behavior can improve the performance of employees in the business and increase the competitive advantage of the business. It is important for businesses to implement strategies such as training, leadership development, improvement of the working environment, motivation-enhancing policies and improving the culture of the business in order to improve the organizational behavior of the employees (Başalp, 2023).

How people in the business, especially employees, do their jobs, how they contribute to decision-making processes, how they interact with other people in the workplace and how they contribute to the goals of the business are among the main elements of organizational behavior. Organizational behavior emerges as a result of the interaction of many factors. These factors include the culture of the business, leadership style, human resources policies, the structure of the business and the external environment of the business. Organizational behavior also has a significant impact on the individual characteristics, values, beliefs, motivations, attitudes and behaviors of employees.

The purpose of organizational behavior is to help people in the business do their jobs more efficiently and effectively. Therefore, by examining organizational behavior, businesses can develop policies and processes that will improve employee performance and help the business achieve its goals in a better way. These policies include the development of business culture, leadership training, performance management, teamwork, communication and motivation techniques.

3. Method of Research

The research is a quantitative research and was conducted with the relational survey model, one of the quantitative research techniques. The relational screening model is to determine the existence and degree of difference between two or more . Accordingly, relational analysis can be used in two ways. These types are determined by the type of relationship and the comparison of the type of correlation (Creswell, 2017)

3.1. Universe and Sample

The universe of the study consists of 700 people working in the private sector in the TRNC. The sample of the study consisted of 470 people who could be reached in the study and answered the scale questions.

3.2. Data Collection Tools

The scale used in the study consists of three parts. In the first part of the questionnaire, demographic information about the participants' gender, age, marital status, education level, title, working time in the sector, working time (questions 1-11). The second part of the questionnaire consists of statements about perceived organizational justice. In order to measure perceived organizational justice, 20 statements were directed to the participants. Perceived organizational justice scale; It consisted of three dimensions as interactional justice (9 statements), distributive justice 5 statements and procedural justice (6 statements) and a total of 20 statements. The Perceived Organizational Justice Scale, which was developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1991) and preferred by many scientists, was used to determine the organizational justice perception levels of the participants. It has been observed that the scale, which was adapted from this scale, was also used in similar studies in the literature (Ertürk, 2014). In the third and last part of the questionnaire, a total of 24 statements were used to determine the levels of positive organizational behavior. Luthans et al. (2007).

3.3. Data analysis

Analyses were analyzed using the SPSS 28.0 program. As analysis tests; T-Test, ANOVA Test and ANOVA Tukey Test were used.

4. Findings

4.1. Demographic Variables

Under this heading, frequency analyzes of the demographic information of private sector employees participating in the research were made (Table 1).

Table 1. Information About the Participants

	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Woman	268	57
Male	202	43
Age		
under 25	33	7
25-34	194	41.3
35-49	226	48.1
50 and above	17	3.6
Marital status		
Married	345	73.4
Single	125	26.6
Educational Status		
High school	6	1.3
Associate Degree	40	8.5
Licence	330	70.2
graduate	94	20
Total	470	one hundred
	470	one hundred

When the distribution of the participants by gender is examined; It is seen that 43% of the 470 private sector employees participating in the research are men and 57% are women. In other words, it is understood that the majority of the employees participating in the research are women. Considering the low number of sectors in which the number of female employees is higher than that of men, it can be said that this finding is remarkable. When the age ranges of the employees participating in the research are examined; It is seen that 7.0% under 25 years old, 41.3% between 25 and 34 years old, 48.1% between 35 and 49 years old, and 3.6% between 50 and over. According to the relevant data, the majority of the respondents are employees between the ages of 35 and 49. Secondly, there are employees between the ages of 35 and 49. Thirdly, employees aged 25 and under constitute, and lastly, employees aged 50 and over are in the fourth place. In addition, the majority of the participants (89.4%) are employees between the ages of 25 and 49; It is noteworthy that only 7% of employees under the age of 25 are. When the distribution of the employees participating in the research according to their marital status is examined; It is seen that 73.4% of the employees participating in the research are married and 26.6% are single. In line with this data, it is understood that approximately three quarters of the employees are married. When the educational status of the employees participating in the research is examined; It is seen that 1.3% of them are high school graduates, 8.5% have associate degree, 70.2% undergraduate and finally 20.0% graduate. As it can be understood from here, the majority of the employees participating in the research consist of undergraduates. In line with the relevant data, the fact that 90.2% of the employees have at least undergraduate education and 20% prefer postgraduate education, indicates that the education level of the employees is high.

4.2. Descriptive Statistics

In Table 2, descriptive statistics covering the perceptions of the employees participating in the research on organizational justice and positive organizational behavior are given.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics on Variables

Variables	\bar{X}	SS	Minimum	Maximum
Perceived organizational justice	3.73	0.73	1.6	5
Interaction Justice	3.95	0.74	1.44	5
Distribution Justice	3.41	1.05	one	5
Procedural Justice	3.68	0.8	1.33	5
Positive Organizational Behavior	4.16	0.47	3.1	5
Self-sufficiency	4.35	0.56	1.83	5
Hope	4.14	0.61	1.83	5
Psychological Resilience	4.11	0.56	2	5
Optimism	3.95	0.64	2,5	5

When the descriptive statistics regarding the variables are examined, it is seen that the average of perceived organizational justice is 3.73 ($\bar{X}=3.73\pm0.73$) and the average of positive organizational behavior perception ($\bar{X}=4.16\pm0.47$). It is understood that the perceived organizational justice and positive organizational behavior levels of the employees participating in the research are high. In addition, interaction justice ($\bar{X}=3.95\pm0.74$) and procedural justice ($\bar{X}=3.68\pm0.80$), which are sub-dimensions of perceived organizational justice, were found to be high; distribution justice ($\bar{X}=3.41\pm1.05$) perceptions are at a moderate level. In addition, the sub-dimensions of positive organizational behavior such as self-efficacy ($\bar{X}=4.35\pm0.56$), hope ($\bar{X}=4.14\pm0.61$), resilience ($\bar{X}=4.11\pm0.56$) and optimism ($\bar{X}=3.95\pm0.64$) perceptions are also seen to be at a high level.

4.2. Difference Analysis According to Demographic Variables

Table 3 shows the data related to the t-test, which was conducted to determine whether there is a difference in the mean of perceived organizational justice (PAP) and positive organizational behavior (POS) variables and sub-dimensions according to the gender of the participants.

Table 3. Tests for Difference by Gender

VARIABLE	Gender	\bar{X}	SS	t	p
AEA	Male	3.84	0.67	3.94	0
	Woman	3,58	0.781		
Interaction Justice	Male	4.03	0.696	2.8	0.005
	Woman	3.84	0.78		
Distributive Justice	Male	3.59	0.899	4.18	0
	Woman	3.17	1,175		
Procedural Justice	Male	3.78	0.768	3.39	0.001
	Woman	3,53	0.809		
PPD	Male	4.19	0.469	2.01	0.046
	Woman	4.11	0.477		
Self-sufficiency	Male	4.38	0.535	1.22	0.224
	Woman	4.32	0.58		
Hope	Male	4.2	0.575	2.57	0.011
	Woman	4.05	0.643		

Psychological Day .	Male	4.14	0.515	1.32	0.187
	Woman	4.07	0.62		
Optimism	Male	3.98	0.645	1.07	0.289
	Woman	3.91	0.633		

As seen in Table 3, organizational justice ($t=3.94$; $p<0.05$), interactional justice ($t=2.80$; $p<0.05$), distributive justice ($t= 4.18$; $p<0.05$) and procedural justice ($t=3.39$; $p<0.05$) and positive organizational behavior ($t=2.01$; $p<0.05$) and hope ($t=2$, $p<0.05$) 57; $p<0.05$), it is understood that the mean values of the variables show a statistically significant difference.

Table 4. Tests for Difference by Age

VARIABLE	Age	\bar{X}	sd	F	p	Difference Between Groups (Scheffe and Bonferroni)
AEA	under 25 (1)	3.65	3/466	0.644	0.587	-
	25-34 (2)	3.78				
	35-49 (3)	3.7				
	50 and over (4)	3.82				
Interaction Justice	under 25 (1)	3.9	3/466	0.315	0.814	-
	25-34 (2)	3.98				
	35-49 (3)	3.92				
	50 and over (4)	4.03				
Distributive Justice	under 25 (1)	3.13	3/466	1,659	0.175	-
	25-34 (2)	3.46				
	35-49 (3)	3.38				
	50 and over (4)	3.78				
Procedural Justice	under 25 (1)	3.7	3/466	0.862	0.461	-
	25-34 (2)	3.74				
	35-49 (3)	3.63				
	50 and over (4)	3,56				
PPD	under 25 (1)	4.05	3/466	0.966	0.394	-
	25-34 (2)	4.14				
	35-49 (3)	4.17				
	50 and over (4)	4.26				
Self-sufficiency	under 25 (1)	4.29	3/466	0.96	0.411	-
	25-34 (2)	4.38				
	35-49 (3)	4.33				
	50 and over (4)	4.51				
Hope	under 25 (1)	4.1	3/466	0.936	0.423	-
	25-34 (2)	4.1				
	35-49 (3)	4.16				

	50 and over (4)	4.31				
Psychological Day .	under 25 (1)	3.71				
	25-34 (2)	4.08	3/466	7,291	0	1-2, 1-3, 1-4
	35-49 (3)	4.18				
	50 and over (4)	4.15				
Optimism	under 25 (1)	4.02				
	25-34 (2)	3.93				
	35-49 (3)	3.95	3/466	0.19	0.903	-
	50 and over (4)	3.93				

According to Table 4, it is understood that the mean values of the psychological resilience level of the employees according to the age ranges show a statistically significant difference ($F=7.291$; $p<0.05$). It was determined that the mean values of the other variables did not differ statistically significantly ($p>0.05$). In the light of these findings, Scheffe and Bonferroni tests were performed to determine the significant differences between the groups according to the ANOVA test, since the variances were equal (psychological resilience: Levene=1.077; $p=0.358>0.05$). According to this; Compared to employees aged under 25 ($\bar{X}=3.71$), employees aged 25 to 34 ($\bar{X}=4.08$), employees aged 35 to 49 ($\bar{X}=4.18$), and employees aged 50 and over ($\bar{X}=4.15$) It is understood that psychological resilience levels are lower. On the other hand, it is seen that the psychological resilience levels of employees aged 35 and over are higher than those of employees under the age of 35, in other words, middle-aged and over employees.

Table 5. Tests for Difference by Marital Status

VARIABLE	Civil Status	n	\bar{X}	SS	t	p
AEA	Married	345	3.77	0.745	1.89	0.059
	Single	125	3.62	0.682		
Interaction Justice	Married	345	3.97	0.746	1.22	0.223
	Single	125	3.88	0.714		
Distributive Justice	Married	345	3.47	1,023	2	0.046
	Single	125	3.25	1,094		
Procedural Justice	Married	345	3.72	0.812	1.9	0.058
	Single	125	3,56	0.736		

As seen in Table 5, perceived distributive justice ($t=2.00$; $p<0.05$) and positive organizational behavior ($t=3.18$; $p<0.05$), hope (t) according to the marital status of the employees participating in the research. It is understood that the mean values of the variables =2.87; $p<0.05$) and psychological resilience ($t=3.75$; $p<0.05$) differ statistically significantly. When the mean values were examined in order to determine the significant differences between the groups; It is seen that the distribution justice perceptions of married employees ($\bar{X}=3.47\pm 1.023$) are higher than the organizational justice perceptions of single employees ($\bar{X}=3.25\pm 1.094$). On the other hand, it was determined that the positive organizational behavior levels of married employees ($\bar{X}=4.19\pm 0.490$) were higher than the positive organizational behavior levels of single employees ($\bar{X}=4.05\pm 0.412$). On the other hand, hope and psychological resilience levels, which are sub-dimensions of positive organizational behavior, were determined by married employees ($\bar{X}=4.18\pm 0.626$; $\bar{X}=4.16\pm 0.542$), singles ($\bar{X}=4.01\pm 0.540$; $\bar{X}=3.95\pm 0.590$).) was found to be higher than

Table 6. Difference Tests by Educational Status

VARIABLE	Educational Status	n	\bar{X}	sd	F	p	Difference Between Groups (Scheffe & Bonferroni & Tamhane's T2)
AEA	High School (1)	6	4.22				
	Associate Degree (2)	40	3.69	3/466	8,375	0	3rd April
	Bachelor (3)	330	3.64				
	Graduate (4)	94	4.03				
Interaction Justice	High School (1)	6	4.37				
	Associate Degree (2)	40	3.94	3/466	6,612	0	1-2, 1-3, 3-4
	Bachelor (3)	330	3.86				
	Graduate (4)	94	4.22				
Distributive Justice	High School (1)	6	4.07				
	Associate Degree (2)	40	3.11	3/466	6,596	0	2-4, 3-4
	Bachelor (3)	330	3.33				
	Graduate (4)	94	3.77				
Procedural Justice	High School (1)	6	4.11				
	Associate Degree (2)	40	3.78	3/466	7,412	0	3rd April
	Bachelor (3)	330	3,57				
	Graduate (4)	94	3.97				
PPD	High School (1)	6	4.27				
	Associate Degree (2)	40	4.17	3/466	2,187	0.089	-
	Bachelor (3)	330	4.12				
	Graduate (4)	94	4.26				
Self-sufficiency	High School (1)	6	4.78				
	Associate Degree (2)	40	4.38	3/466	1,244	0.293	-
	Bachelor (3)	330	4.34				
	Graduate (4)	94	4.34				
Hope	High School (1)	6	4.17				
	Associate Degree (2)	40	4.2	3/466	3,092	0.027	3rd April
	Bachelor (3)	330	4.08				
	Graduate (4)	94	4.29				
Psychological Day .	High School (1)	6	4				
	Associate Degree (2)	40	4.02	3/466	2,942	0.033	3rd April

	Bachelor (3)	330	4.08				
	Graduate (4)	94	4.26				
Optimism	High School (1)	6	4				
	Associate Degree (2)	40	4.02	3/466	2,211	0.086	-
	Bachelor (3)	330	3.9				
	Graduate (4)	94	4.09				

According to the data in Table 6, as a result of the one-way ANOVA test, organizational justice ($F=8.375$; $p=0.000<0.05$) and interactional justice ($F=6.612$; $p=0.000<0.05$) with sub-dimensions were found.), distributive justice ($F=6.596$; $p=0.000<0.05$), procedural justice ($F=7.412$; $p=0.000<0.05$), and the sub-dimensions of positive organizational behavior hope ($F=3.092$; $p=0.027<0.05$) and psychological resilience ($F=2.942$; $p=0.033<0.05$) variables showed a statistically significant difference. On the other hand, it was determined that the mean values of positive organizational behavior, self-efficacy and optimism variables according to the educational status of the employees did not show a statistically significant difference ($p>0.05$). According to the findings obtained from the tests; Perceptions of organizational justice, interactional justice, distributive justice, and procedural justice ($\bar{X}=4.03$; $\bar{X}=4.22$; $\bar{X}=3.77$; $\bar{X}=3.97$) of graduate employees ($\bar{X}=3.64$); $\bar{X}=3.86$; $\bar{X}=3.33$; $\bar{X}=3.57$). In addition, the perceptions of interactional justice ($\bar{X}=4.37$) of high school graduates are higher than those of associate degree ($\bar{X}=3.94$) and undergraduate ($\bar{X}=3.86$) graduates; It was determined that distributive justice perceptions of postgraduate graduates ($\bar{X}=3.77$) were higher than those of associate degree graduates ($\bar{X}=3.11$). Similarly, it was determined that the hope and psychological resilience levels of graduate graduates ($\bar{X}=4.29$; $\bar{X}=4.26$) were higher than those of undergraduate graduates ($\bar{X}=4.08$; $\bar{X}=4.08$).

Conclusion and Recommendations

At the end of the research, it is understood that the perceived organizational justice and positive organizational behavior levels of the participants are high. In addition, perceptions of interactional justice and procedural justice, which are sub-dimensions of perceived organizational justice, are high; It is understood that the distribution justice perceptions are at a moderate level. Self -efficacy, hope, resilience and optimism perceptions, which are the sub-dimensions of positive organizational behavior, were found to be high.

It is seen that the organizational justice perceptions of male employees are higher than the organizational justice perceptions of female employees. On the other hand, it has been determined that the positive organizational behavior levels of male employees are higher than the positive organizational behavior levels of female employees. It has been determined that employees under the age of 25 have lower levels of psychological resilience than those aged between 25 and 34, between 35 and 49, and those aged 50 and over. In addition, it has been observed that the psychological resilience levels of employees aged 35 and over are higher than those of employees under the age of 35, in other words, employees of middle age and above are compared to younger employees. It has been determined that the positive organizational behavior levels of married employees are higher than the positive organizational behavior levels of single employees. However, it was determined that the levels of hope and psychological resilience, which are the sub-dimensions of positive organizational behavior, are higher in married employees than in single employees. It was found that the perceptions of interactional justice of high school graduates were higher than those of associate and undergraduate degrees; It has been understood that distributive justice perceptions of postgraduate graduates are higher than those of associate degree graduates. Similarly, it was determined that the hope and psychological resilience levels of graduate graduates were higher than those of undergraduate graduates.

At the end of the research, the following recommendations were developed:

- Conducting the research on a larger sample in future studies may make it possible to reach more generalizable results.
- In a study where the sample is more evenly distributed within the scope of demographic characteristics, significant changes can be observed in the results of both difference tests and structural equation modeling.
- In subsequent studies, qualitative methods can be used in addition to quantitative methods.
- In addition, for researchers who will not prefer the qualitative research method, reaching different scales for the variables will lead to different results.

References

- Başalp, A. A. (2023). Örgütsel Bağlamda Duygusal Zekâ. *Örgütsel Davranış Kavramlar ve Araştırmalar-I*, 131.
- Creswell, J. W. (2017). *Araştırma deseni nitel, nicel ve karma yöntem yaklaşımları*. (S. B. Demir Çev.). Ankara: Eğiten Kitap.
- Çakı, N., & Aslan, M. (2022). Psikolojik Sermayenin Performans Üzerindeki Etkisinde Algılanan Örgütsel Adaletin Moderatör Rolü. *İşletme Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 14(3), 2601-2613.
- Çamur, D. Ö. H. (2023). Eğitimde Örgütsel Adalet. *Eğitimde Güncel Yaklaşımlar-2*, 191.
- Efeoğlu, M. S., Abul, A. & Bedük, A. (2021). Örgütsel Adalet ve Örgütsel Bağlılık İlişkisi: Özel Güvenlik Görevlilerine Ait Bir Uygulama. *Çatalhöyük Uluslararası Turizm ve Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, (6), 94-108
- Elanain, H.M.A. (2009), Job characteristics, work attitudes and behaviors in a nonwestern context: Distributive justice as a mediator, *Journal of Management Development*, 28(5), 457 – 477.
- Erer, B. (2014), *Algılanan örgütsel adaletin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerine etkisi: Hemşirelere yönelik bir araştırma*. Yayınlanmış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Konya: Selçuk Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.
- Kaçan, H., Karakulle, İ., & Aydın, E. (2023). Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışın Yordacıları Olarak Duygusal Zeka Ve Kişilik Özellikleri: Hemşireler Üzerinde Kesitsel Bir Çalışma. *Uluslararası İktisadi ve İdari İncelemeler Dergisi*, (39), 170-193.
- Kim, S. K. & Jeong, Y. (2021). Developing the healthy and competitive organization in the sports environment: focused on the relationships between organizational justice, empowerment and job performance. *International Journal Of Environmental Research And Public Health*, 18, 9142, 1-15.
- Luthans, F., Avolio, B. J., Avey, J. B. Ve Norman, S. M. (2007). Positive Psychological Capital: Measurement and Relationship with Performance and Satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 60, 541-572.
- Moorman, R.H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior: do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship?. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 845-855.
- Niehoff, B.P. ve Moorman, R.H. (1993). Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior, *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(3), 527-556.
- Türkeli, R. T. (2023). *Örgütsel Adalet Algısı ile Örgütsel Bağlılık Arasındaki İlişkilerin İncelenmesi: Türkiye’de Bir Tersane Örneği*, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü.
- Uğurlu, C. T., & Kaplan, İ. (2023). Öğretmenlerin örgütsel adalet davranışlarına ilişkin algılarının örgütsel bağlılıklarına etkisi: bir meta-analiz çalışması. *Van Yüzüncü Yıl Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 20(1), 1-16.
- Vapur, M., Yavuz, E., & Demirel, M. A. (2023). İşgörenlerde örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ile tükenmişlik ilişkisinde etkileşimci liderliğin aracı rolü. *Third Sector Social Economic Review*, 58(1), 545-558.
- Yıldızbaş, Y. V., Özkul, R., Doğan, Ü., & Abdurrezzak, S. (2023). Öğretmenlerin örgütsel adalet ile çalıştıkları okulun etkililiğine ilişkin algıları. *Trakya Eğitim Dergisi*, 13(1), 636-651.
- Yiğit, B. (2022). Yeşil örgütsel davranış alanındaki makalelerin kategorik olarak incelenmesi. *Avrasya Sosyal ve Ekonomi Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 9(1), 189-196.
- Yinal, A., & Banje, F. U. (2023). Social media habits of university students and the effects of media on students. *The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education-April*, 13(2).

THE IMPACT OF DIGITAL MARKET ON CONSUMER PURCHASING BEHAVIOR

Evren DEGIRMENCIOGLU
220609019@std.akun.edu.tr

Zeynep BURUK
220609018@std.akun.edu.tr

Halil İbrahim KURT
220609004@std.akun.edu.tr

Yard. Doç. Dr. Azmiye YINAL
azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

The intensely competitive market and the technology developing with the use of the internet have shifted the traditional market to digital marketing strategies. Today, digital marketing has spread to a wide area. Digital marketing helps us to discover the business model that reduces cost and expands business globally by using digital technologies in a highly competitive market. Today, customers find digital marketing much safer than traditional marketing, as they are more satisfied with online shopping than traditional shopping. Digital marketing allows customers to review and compare product information offered by companies. Accordingly, customers enjoy the freedom to choose and order products at any time, 24/7 and wherever they are. Updated technologies and the increase in internet usage increase the interconnectedness of consumers day by day. As a result, consumer behavior is changing. This research study analyzes the impact of digital marketing on consumer buying behavior. As a result, traditional marketing will shift more towards digital marketing in the near future.

Keywords: Digital, Digitalization, Technology, Behavior,

1. INTRODUCTION

Digital Marketing refers to online marketing and internet marketing. Digital Marketing is extremely important as it covers a wide range of marketing areas and provides the opportunity to communicate directly with customers. The intensely competitive market and the developing technology with the use of the internet have shifted marketing strategies to digital marketing strategies. The use of digital marketing is increasing day by day as consumers buy a wide variety of products not only from within certain geographical boundaries but also from all over the world.

Digital marketing markets products and services predominantly through the internet and also through digital platforms such as mobile phones. Marketing in digital environment gives more satisfaction as marketers can ask more questions to customers and also give suggestions regarding any product and service (Charlesworth, 2022). The environment for communication in the digital market is much more favourable than in traditional marketing, because many means of communication are used: website, chat, e-mail, etc., which makes marketing much more effective. The fastest way to grow a business worldwide is to use digital marketing effectively. Thus, more customers can be reached in a shorter time. Where it is very difficult to measure the efficiency of a campaign in traditional marketing, it is much easier to measure the efficiency of a campaign with analytical data. In the digital market, it is very easy to constantly make changes and update information according to their goals and services, and customers can review information that is useful to them wherever and whenever they want with the help of the internet (Chaffey, 2022).

Today, online shopping sites such as Amazon offer various product groups and different brands, thus becoming attractive among users. It allows customers to shop from anywhere at any time by downloading the application over the internet and increases customer satisfaction with the exchange and return guarantee it provides. Today, almost everyone relies on online shopping for ordering all kinds of products, whether it is groceries or clothing, today everyone knows how to visit online shopping websites, how to find and order the product they want to order, how to give feedback on this product. It is the right of every customer to receive complete information about each product and nothing should be hidden from customers because they can complain about any product if they are deceived. Customers can compare multiple products that serve the same purpose at any time and order according to their preferences, because digital marketing serves customers on a 24-hour basis, allowing them to shop wherever and whenever they want. Thus, customers do not need to take time out of their busy schedules for shopping (Samoilenko, 2022).

Today, customers find digital marketing much safer than traditional marketing, as they are more satisfied with online shopping than traditional shopping. People from all income groups shop online, these shopping environments offer different prices, different product types and different payment methods, making it easier for customers to shop online.

Today digital marketing is becoming a very important part of business development for every organisation as it not only increases the profit margin of the organisation but also expands the business globally. As customers gain more confidence after getting all kinds of information about the product, they remain loyal to the product and give feedbacks which builds a good relationship between customers and vendors. Digitalisation plays an important role in today's competitive market as it is a business model that involves discovery, reduces cost and expands business globally. This model not only benefits customers, but also reduces organisational tensions as there is no fixed location of the store, so there is no fear of wear and tear or theft of goods. It also improves the quality of the work and ensures transparency, which reduces fraud.

E-Commerce was largely seen as a tool to drive and accelerate change. Today, business recognises the permanence of e-commerce and is experimenting with new ways to survive in a highly competitive market. With new opportunities, the Internet is creating a global digital economy (Teo and Yeong 2003).

From electronic data exchange to e-commerce, many changes are emerging. The growth of the internet in the highly competitive market has created the potential vision of e-commerce. E-Commerce is nothing but a traditional business done using electronic means. It has seen a comprehensive change from electronic data exchange to e-commerce. The growth of the Internet has created a potential vision for the Internet. Today the traditional market is outdated, now the future is in e-commerce. It involves the entire process of producing and selling products using the Internet. It helps to build closer relationships between both customers and sellers and also allows companies to be more flexible in their operations. For companies in every corner of the world, the internet is a global business platform. E-commerce completely increases speed, globalises the product, increases efficiency and enables new customers to be reached in less time (Corcoran, 2023).

The primary objective of the digital marketplace is to understand the needs of customers and allow them to mix products through digital media. The digital marketplace enables the customer to obtain information about the product provided by the company, which brings transparency about the product. With the help of the Internet, customers can browse the information shared about the products 24 hours a day and order them anytime and anywhere. All kinds of products meet with customers in the digital market. Today, almost every customer is dependent on the digital market because it saves time and most of them are satisfied with online shopping (Alhussein and Atilgan 2021).

Today, online shopping is considered safer for customers than traditional shopping, every customer group is aware of the digital market today. Customers believe that online shopping is easier and cheaper because it includes a wide variety of products from all over the world and eliminates intermediaries. Technology in the digital market is improving every day. Digital Marketing can collect customer feedback very easily and respond quickly to customer problems. This provides transparency not only before but also after the purchase. In the current market, the digital market has a bigger future as it provides more benefits to both sellers and customers (Hanlon, 2022).

A first mover advantage is a large initial advantage that is achieved to a significant extent. If a market participant is the first to enter the market, it has first-mover advantage and gains competitive advantage through control of resources. With this advantage, first movers are rewarded with large profit margins and a monopoly-like situation. Not all first movers are rewarded. If the first mover does not capitalise on its advantage, the "first mover disadvantage" leaves new entrants with a chance to enter the market and the opportunity to compete more effectively and efficiently than first movers; such firms have a "second mover advantage". It allows the company to build strong brand awareness, product and loyalty in the market before other companies enter the market (Özbalcı, 2022).

The main emphasis underlying this belief is to take full advantage of technologies that will be beneficial for society and help to reduce the workload and reduce costs. Digitalisation also enables customers to access products online, in any corner of the world. Digitalisation, which is the key to increasing competition, also creates the image of businesses. It creates a great opportunity for businesses to play a greater role in international markets. Today, technology is used for production, trade, learning, interaction with customers and helps organisations in many other areas (Dikbiyik, 2016).

A consumer is a person who buys products and services in order to meet his/her expectations, wishes and needs. According to another definition, consumer behaviour is the process of evaluating whether the product meets their expectations not only when they buy the product but also after they buy it (Yağcı & İlarıslan, 2010).

1.2. Purpose of the Research

The aim of this study is to examine the impact of digital market on consumer buying behaviour.

1.3. Importance of Research

The research examines the impact of digital marketing on the customer's purchasing decision. This study analyses the behaviour of customers in using digital marketing channels in their purchasing decisions and the reasons why they prefer digital marketing more when making decisions about what kind of products they buy.

1.4. Limitations

This research was limited to 50 participants randomly selected from the Nicosia Region of TRNC.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The Importance of the digital market today

In our globalising world, traditional marketing understanding has been replaced by digital marketing due to the impact of technological developments today. It is seen that the first research of the digital market started with online surveys in the early 1990s. It was observed to be inefficient in the first years. The reason for this is that the technology is new and perceived as inefficient (Comley, 1996).

Digital marketing, which has developed until today, has a very important place for people. In addition, one of the most critical points in the digital market is the human element rather than technology. (Ryan, 2016) With the help of technological tools that are always at hand, it has become very fast and easy to access all kinds of services and products. One of the most important elements of digital marketing is that its cost is lower, which allows it to be preferred both for the company that wants to sell its product and for customers. (Stewart & Zhao, 2000)

The Impact of the digital market on purchasing behaviour

If we look at the effects of the digital market on consumer purchasing behaviour, the place of social media tools, advertisements and digital marketing is undeniably great. Thanks to the tablets, televisions and mobile phones at the consumer's disposal, it is important from different angles that it affects the behaviour of consumers such as accessing products, having information about them, facilitating access, reporting feedback after sales (Mangold-Faulds, 2009).

If we look at other factors affecting consumer purchasing behaviour, social, economic, cultural, psychological and personal factors can be counted. It would be right to emphasise psychological factors as the most determining factor. Psychological factors can be classified as personality, attitude, motivation, intuition, belief, learning, perception and attitudes (Karaman and Akdogan 2021).

3. RESEARCH METHOD

3.1. Population and Sampling

The population of this research consists of 80 people selected from the Nicosia region of TRNC. The sample consists of 50 volunteers who were randomly selected from this population and participated in the research.

3.2 Data Collection Tools

In this study, the questionnaire method was used and the participants were asked to fill in the questionnaire themselves after making explanations. In this questionnaire, both open-ended and closed-ended questions were asked to the participants.

3.3 Data Analyses

The data were analysed in SPSS package programme.

3.4 Findings

Chart 1: Demographic Information

		Number of person	%
Sex	Male	23	46
	Female	27	54
Education	University Graduate	21	42
	Master's Degree	14	28
	PhD	9	18
	Other	6	12
Monthly Income	<12,000	3	6
	12000-20,000	11	22
	20,000-30,000	29	58
	>30000	7	14
TOTAL		50	100

Of the participants, 46% were male and 27% were female, and 42% were university graduates, 28% were master's degree graduates, 18% were doctorate graduates and 12% were other graduates. Regarding the distribution of monthly income, it was found that 6% were <12,000; 22% were between 12,000-20,000; 58% were between 20,000-30,000 and 14% were >30,000.

Hypothesis 1: Relation of educational background with Digital Marketing awareness

	Social Media	N	Website / Blog	N	Multimedia Channels	N	E-mail	N	Other	N	Total	N
University Graduate	1	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
Master's Degree	5	50	12	67	3	50	6	55	3	60	29	58
PhD	3	30	5	28	3	50	4	36	2	40	17	34
Other	1	10	1	6	0	0	1	9	0	0	3	6
Total	10	100	18	100	6	100	11	100	5	100	50	100

In the distribution of digital marketing awareness of the participants, it was revealed that 10% of the participants were university graduates, 50% were master's graduates, 30% were doctoral graduates and 10% were other graduates in the connection of social media channels. In the link of website/blog channels, 67% of them have a master's degree, 28% have a doctorate degree and 6% have graduated as other. In the connection of multimedia channels, 50% of them have master's degree; 50% of them have doctorate degree. In the connection of e-mail channels, 55% had a master's degree, 36% had a doctorate degree and 9% had other degrees. Finally, it was revealed that 60% of the respondents had a master's degree and 40% had a doctorate degree in other channels. Considering the digital marketing awareness in general, it was revealed that 2% were university graduates, 58% were master's degree graduates, 34% were doctoral graduates and 6% were other. When the comparisons are analysed, it is seen that educational status is not related to digital marketing awareness. According to Hypothesis 1, educational status is not related to digital marketing awareness.

Hypothesis 2: Monthly income does not affect the preference of people to purchase certain products through digital sales channels.

	Finished Products	Shopping Products	Special Products	Total	N
<12,000	4	5	0	9	36
12000-20,000	1	3	2	6	24
20,000-30,000	0	1	0	1	4
>30000	1	7	1	9	36
Total	6	16	3	25	100

The purchasing preferences of people with a monthly income <12,000 are 36%; the purchasing preferences of people with an income between 12,000-20,000 are 24%; the purchasing preferences of people with an income between 20,000-30,000 are 4%; and the purchasing preferences of people with an income >30,000 are 36%. According to Hypothesis 2, it is revealed that the monthly income status does not affect the purchasing preferences of people on digital sales channels.

Hypothesis 3: Digital Channels do not change people's buying behaviour.

	Definitely Agree	N	Agree	N	No Idea	N	D.Agr	N	Definitely Disagree	N	Total	N
Social Media	1	8	1	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	7
Web site / Blog	8	67	5	63	1	33	2	67	1	50	17	60
Multimedia Channels	0	0	1	12	0	0	0	0	1	50	2	7
E-mail	2	17	0	0	1	33	0	0	0	0	3	11
Other	1	8	1	13	1	34	1	33	0	0	4	15
Total	12	100	8	100	3	100	3	100	2	100	28	100

According to the results of the 5-point Likert scale on the purchasing behaviour of people on digital channels, 8% strongly agree and 12% agree on social media. Over the website/blog, 67% strongly agree, 63% agree, 33% have no idea, 67% disagree and 50% strongly disagree. Through multimedia channels, 12% strongly agree; 50% strongly disagree. Via e-mail, 17% strongly agree; 33% have no opinion. Through other, 8% strongly agree; 13% agree; 34% have no opinion; 33% disagree. Hypothesis 3, Digital Channels do not change people's buying behaviour.

Hypothesis 4: Customer satisfaction is not associated with products purchased through digital channels.

	Finished Products	N	Shopping Products	N	Special Products	N	Products Not Frequently Searched	N	Total	N
Social Media	1	20	3	18	0	0	0	0	4	13
Web site / Blog	2	40	13	76	2	25	0	0	17	57
Multimedia Channels	0	0	1	6	0	0	0	0	1	4
E-mail	1	20	0	0	3	37,5	0	0	4	13
Other	1	20	0	0	3	37,5	0	0	4	13
Total	5	100	17	100	8	100	0	0	30	100

Of the respondents who prefer ready-made products, 20% via social media, 40% via website/blog, 20% via e-mail and 20% via other digital channels. Of the respondents who prefer shopping products, 18% via social media, 76% via website/blog and 6% via multimedia channels. Among the respondents who prefer speciality products, 25% of them are via website/blog, 37.5% via e-mail and 37.5% via other digital channels. According to the results obtained from the table, the hypothesis is not accepted. As a result, customer satisfaction is associated with products purchased through digital channels. Hypothesis 4 Customer satisfaction is not associated with products purchased through digital channels.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study reveals that people are aware of digital sales / marketing channels regardless of their educational status and that customers prefer digital sales channels to purchase all kinds of products. When the data collected from the participants were analysed, it was observed that the monthly income of the people who use Digital Sales channels is not related to the variety of products they want to buy. This study reveals that Digital Channels do not change people's purchasing behaviour. It is very important to understand the psychology of consumers in a dynamic environment. In order to make the business sustainable, the changing purchasing behaviour of consumers in the digitalised world must be well understood. Many threats and challenges await marketers in this revolutionary economy. People should be made more aware of the advantages of digital marketing. More efforts should be made to make digital marketing secure, which will lead to a significant increase in market size. Digitalisation has brought a positive change to the purchasing behaviour of consumers. It has provided a great advantage in online shopping and bill payment, especially for working individuals who live in big cities and have time and transport problems. Digitalisation has provided various consumer-oriented advantages such as gift vouchers, discount coupons, cashback and cash discounts to encourage consumers to use digital transactions. Promotional campaigns, customer-to-customer workshops and road shows should be organised to raise awareness about digitalisation and increase the use of digitalisation.

REFERENCES

- ALHUSSEIN, Hussein, and Kalender Özcan ATILGAN. "internet sitesi tasarımının müşteri güveni, müşteri memnuniyeti ve satın alma niyetine etkisi." *Çankırı Karatekin Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi* 11.1 (2021): 351-375.
- Chaffey (2022). *Digital Marketing*, Pearson Education Ltd.
- Charlesworth (2022) *Digital Marketing: A Practical Approach* (pp. 86-143), Routledge
- Corcoran (2023) *Integrated Digital Marketing in Practice*, Cambridge University Press
- Dikbiyık, E. (2016). OPCOMITS: Developing an adaptive and intelligent web based educational system based on concept map model. *Computer Applications in Engineering Education*, 24(5), 676-691.
- Hanlon (2022) *Digital Marketing* (pp. 231-271), Sage
- KARAMAN, D., AKDOĞAN, Ç., KURTOĞLU, R., ÖZKAN, T., ÖZTÜRK, B. N., ORTAKÖY, F. B., & BAYIR, T. (2021). *Tüketici Davranışları-I-Güncel Akademik Çalışmalar*. Eğitim Yayınevi.
- Mangold ve Faulds (2009), "Social Media: The New Hybrid Element of the Promotion Mix". *Business Horizons*, 52, 357-365
- Ryan, D. (2016). *Dijital pazarlama*. İstanbul: Türkiye İş Bankası Kültür Yayınları.
- Samoilenko (2022), *Digitalization: Contexts, Roles and Outcomes*, Taylor and Francis Ltd.
- Sheth, Mittal, Newman, B. I. (1999). *Consumer behavior and beyond*. NY: Harcourt Brace.
- Stewart ve Zhao (2000). Internet marketing, business models and public policy. *Journal of Public Policy and Marketing*, 19(2), 287-296.
- Teo, ve Yeong, (2003). Assessing the consumer decision process in the digital marketplace. *Omega*, 31(5), 349-363.
- Özbalcı, B. (2022). *Dijital Pazarlamada Oyunlaştırmanın Tüketici Satın Alma Davranışına Etkisi: Yemeksepeti Rozet Uygulaması* (Doctoral dissertation, Marmara Üniversitesi (Turkey)).
- Yağcı ve İlarıslan (2010), "Reklamların ve Cinsiyet Kimliği Rolünün Tüketicilerin Satın Alma Davranışları Üzerindeki Etkisi", *Doğuş Üniversitesi Dergisi*, 11 (1), 138-155

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS OF SCHOOL HEADS AND TEACHERS' JOB SATISFIED

Bahar Kaplan Yurteri

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
220609007@std.akun.edu.tr

Gülsen Fırat

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
gc9473742@gmail.com

Gülzade Hayta

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Graduate Studies, Master Program
220618005@gmail.com Assistant Professor Doctor. Azmiye YINAL
Akdeniz Karpaz University
azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

The universe of this research was composed of 315 teachers working in private schools in Nicosia districts in the TRNC in the 2022-2023 academic year. The sample consisted of 141 teachers who were randomly selected from this universe and volunteered to participate in the research. In the study, data were collected with the Leadership Behavior Description Scale and the Job Satisfaction Scale. The data were analyzed in the SPSS 28.0 package program. In the study examining the relationship between the leadership behaviors of school principals and the job satisfaction of teachers, gender, marital status and professional experience variables were discussed. As a result of the analysis, no significant relationship was found between the gender variable and the sub-dimensions of leadership behaviors and sub-dimensions of job satisfaction. It was observed that there was no significant relationship between marital status and the sub-dimensions of the leadership behavior scale and job satisfaction. On the other hand, it has been determined that there is a positive and significant relationship between marital status in the total of the leadership scale. In this case, it can be said that the perception of leadership behavior of married participants is higher than that of single participants. As a result of the analysis, no relationship was found between professional seniority, leadership behaviors and job satisfaction. As a result of the analysis, it was seen that leadership behaviors affect job satisfaction statistically. In this case, it can be said that the leadership behaviors exhibited by school principals affect teachers' job satisfaction.

Keywords: School principal, teacher, leadership, job satisfaction.

1. Introduction

1.1. Problem Status

School principals have a very important role in the management of schools and the education of students. School principals manage the factors affecting the success of schools and work to improve the education quality of students (Bursalıoğlu, 2014). School principals lead teachers and manage teachers' work. They support teachers in order to increase their commitment to their work and increase their job satisfaction. In addition, they support the training and development of teachers and provide students with a higher quality education. School principals are also very important in terms of school management. School principals manage school budgets, recruit staff and manage the day-to-day running of the school. In addition, they manage student discipline and are responsible for the safety of the school (Maşalı et al., 2023) .

School principals also interact with the school environment. They work to increase school success by collaborating with parents, local businesses, and other community leaders. They also protect the school's reputation and manage various resources for the school's improvement. As a result, school principals are important leaders who manage many factors that affect the success of schools and work to improve the education quality of students. Leadership skills of school principals play a critical role in increasing teachers' job satisfaction and students' education quality (Atıgan & Özkan, 2023).

There is a direct relationship between the leadership behaviors of school principals and the job satisfaction of teachers. School principals are important leaders who manage and motivate teachers in the school. A good school principal can make teachers feel connected and motivated, which can increase teachers' job satisfaction (Uzlu, 2023). Leadership behaviors of school principals can affect teachers' job satisfaction. A good leader appreciates and supports teachers, provides training and development opportunities, and promotes teachers' autonomy. These behaviors can increase teachers' commitment to their work and job satisfaction (Izgar, 2008).

Teachers' job satisfaction is one of the most important factors affecting success in education. Job satisfaction is related to how satisfied teachers are with their jobs, how committed they are to their jobs, and how much they enjoy their jobs (Yinal & Banje, 2023). Job satisfaction increases teachers' motivation and helps them create a better teaching and learning environment. Teachers with high job satisfaction are less stressed, happier and healthier. This, in turn, can positively affect students' learning experiences (Basaran, 2000).

Job satisfaction also contributes to the professional development of teachers. When teachers have job satisfaction, they perform better in their jobs, prepare higher quality course materials and provide better feedback to students (Aycan & Eskin, 2005). In addition, teachers' job satisfaction can also help teachers stay in their schools longer. Teachers with lower job satisfaction are more likely to drop out of schools. This, in turn, can negatively affect students' learning experiences and reduce the quality of schools. As a result, teachers' job satisfaction affects teachers' motivation, performance and professional development. High job satisfaction creates a better teaching and learning environment and positively affects students' learning experiences (Katıtaş, 2022). In the light of this information, the relationship between school principals' leadership behaviors and teachers' job satisfaction was examined within the scope of teachers' demographic variables.

1.2. Purpose of the research

The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between school principals' leadership behaviors and teachers' job satisfaction. Within the scope of the research, answers were sought for the following sub-objectives:

- Does the gender variable have an effect on the leadership behaviors of school principals and job satisfaction of teachers?
- Professional seniority Does the variable have an effect on the leadership behaviors of the school principals and the job satisfaction of the teachers?
- Does the variable of marital status have an effect on the leadership behaviors of school principals and job satisfaction of teachers?

1.3. Importance of Research

Leadership styles of school principals can affect teachers' working conditions. For example, school principals can provide a suitable working environment for teachers' needs and increase teachers' job satisfaction. In addition, school principals can manage the factors that affect teachers' workload. For example, school principals can manage teachers' student number, class size, and course load. Keeping these factors under control can reduce teachers' workload and increase job satisfaction. There is an important relationship between school principals' leadership behaviors and teachers' job satisfaction. School principals can improve their leadership styles and improve teachers' working conditions in order to increase teachers' job satisfaction. Thus, the job satisfaction of the teachers in the school increases, the education of the students in the school becomes better and the overall performance of the school increases. Therefore, this study is considered to be important.

1.4. Limitations

Research;

- 2022-2023 academic year,
- 141 teachers who volunteered to participate in the study,
- the teachers' gender, professional seniority and marital status information,
- With the scales and resources used in the study

Has been limited.

1.5. Definitions

Leader: A person who directs a group of people and helps them reach their goals (Polat and Ödemiş, 2023) .

Leadership: It is helping a person or a group of people to reach their goals by directing an organization, a community or a project (Hintschich, 2023) .

Job satisfaction : It is the satisfaction and satisfaction that an employee feels about his job (Özek & Büyükgöze, 2023) .

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Leadership and Leadership

A leader is someone who leads a group of people and helps them achieve their goals. A leader may be involved in managing an organization, a community, a team, or a project. It includes a range of qualities such as leadership, charisma, vision, communication, teamwork, management skills, problem solving, decision making, motivation and fairness. By taking the lead, leaders promote creativity, innovation, and compliance with ethical values. In

addition, leaders manage the talents and differences of team members, evaluate their performance, give feedback, and provide training and training opportunities to help team members develop (Saritaş & Myrvang, 2023).

Leaders also set action plans to achieve the organization's strategic goals and manage resources to implement these plans. A good leader increases the motivation of team members and provides the support they need to achieve success. As a result, leaders play a critical role in the success of an organization and play an important role in discovering and developing the potential of a community or team (Özçelik et al., 2023).

Leadership is a person or group of people directing an organization, a community or a project and helping them achieve their goals. It includes various factors such as leadership, charisma, vision, effective communication, teamwork, management skills, problem solving, decision making, motivation and fair behavior. Leaders manage the talents and differences of team members, taking into account many factors when making decisions. By taking the lead, leaders promote creativity, innovation, and compliance with ethical values. Leaders also evaluate the performance of team members, give feedback, and provide training and training opportunities to help team members develop (Demir, 2023).

Leadership is critical to the success of an organization. A good leader motivates team members, sets goals, makes strategic planning, and acts accordingly and manages results. Also, by striving to discover and develop the team's potential, leaders lay a solid foundation for the long-term success of the organization. (Sonmez, 2023).

2.2. Leadership Behaviors of School Principals

School principals are the leaders of a school and assume the administrative, pedagogical and disciplinary responsibilities of the school. Leadership behaviors can have a great impact on the success of school principals, school staff and students. Here are some of the leadership behaviors of school principals (Şentürk & Saġnak, 2012; Bozdoġan & Saġnak, 2011; Tahaoġlu & Gedikoġlu, 2009; Atıgan & Özkan, 2023) :

Having a Vision: School principals should have a clear vision for the future of the school. This vision will set the school's goals and ensure that all stakeholders (teachers, students, parents) work together to achieve these goals.

Communication: A good school principal can communicate clearly and effectively. Teachers frequently meet and exchange ideas with students and parents. This ensures a strong communication culture in the school.

Being Supportive: School principals should support teachers and other employees. They should provide support in many ways, such as easing their workload, providing training materials and responding to teachers' needs.

Evaluating Performance: School principals regularly evaluate the performance of teachers and students. This is important in order to better respond to students' needs and help teachers improve.

A Strong Education Program: School principals should organize the school's education program. Determining the school's curriculum, providing teachers' training materials, and supporting the academic development of students are important.

Discipline Management: School principals play an important role in maintaining discipline in the school. Responding quickly and effectively to disciplinary issues is essential to ensuring the safety and well-being of students.

Motivation: School principals should make an effort to motivate students and teachers. Celebrating, appreciating, and encouraging success builds students' and teachers' self-confidence.

2.3. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the satisfaction and satisfaction an employee feels about his job. Job satisfaction is affected by many factors such as the nature of the job, working conditions, wages, social relations, management relations and personal values. An employee's level of job satisfaction can affect his or her performance, retention, motivation, and overall happiness. A high level of job satisfaction can help employees feel happier and more motivated at work, which can have a positive effect on productivity and success (Çakır & Öztürk, 2023).

Job satisfaction can increase when employees feel satisfied at the point where their own values and goals meet the skills and abilities required by the job. Job satisfaction may also increase as employees feel the feedback and support they receive from management, feel part of the job, and feel fairness in the workplace. As a result, job satisfaction is a factor that significantly affects the attitudes and performances of employees towards their jobs. In

order to keep their employees' job satisfaction levels high, employers should strive to provide a good working environment, provide training and development opportunities, support their employees and understand their values and goals (Özek and Büyükgöze, 2023).

Job satisfaction is an important factor affecting the attitudes, behaviors and performances of employees towards their jobs. Job satisfaction is related to the feeling of satisfaction and satisfaction of employees towards their jobs. A high level of job satisfaction can provide many benefits (Georgellis & Lange, 2012; Bingöl, 2006) :

- Higher motivation and productivity: Employees with high job satisfaction feel more connected and motivated to their jobs and exhibit higher productivity.
- Higher job satisfaction: Employees with higher job satisfaction are more satisfied with their jobs. This, in turn, helps employees feel happier and more engaged in their work.
- Lower turnover rates: Employees with high job satisfaction are less likely to leave their jobs. This reduces the time and cost for employers to locate employees and adapt to the job.
- Higher customer satisfaction: Employees with high job satisfaction communicate better with customers and achieve a higher level of customer satisfaction.
- Higher workplace compliance: Employees with high job satisfaction adapt better to the workplace environment and are more adaptable to workplace policies. This leads to better collaboration and a higher level of teamwork in the workplace.

As a result, job satisfaction helps employees feel happier and more motivated at their jobs, improve workplace performance, and provide a range of benefits to employers. In order to keep their employees' job satisfaction levels high, employers should strive to provide appropriate working conditions and management policies in the workplace, to value and support their employees.

3. Method of Research

3.1. Universe and Sample

The universe of this research was composed of 315 teachers working in private schools in Nicosia districts in the TRNC in the 2022-2023 academic year. The sample of 141 people who were randomly selected from this population and volunteered to participate in the research. created by the teacher. Demographic information of the participants is given in the table below:

Table 1. Demographic Information

		N	%
Gender	Woman	94	66.7
	Male	47	33.3
Professional Seniority	less than 5 years	34	24.1
	5-10 years	42	29.8
	10-15 years	50	35.5
	between 15-20 years	15	10.6
marital status	Married	82	58.2
	Single	59	41.8
	total	141	100.0

When Table 1 is examined, 66.7% of the participants are female, 33.3% are male; 10-15 years of 35.5%; 29.8% of them have 5-10 years, 24.1% of them have less than 5 years and 10.6% of them have 15-20 years of professional seniority. In addition, 58.2% of the participants are married and 41.8% are single.

3.2. Data Collection Tools

In the study, data were collected through two scales:

Leadership Behavior Descriptive Scale

The scale for describing leadership behavior was developed by Hemphill and Coones (1950). It was adapted into Turkish by different researchers. It was Önal (1979) who first brought the leadership behavior description scale, which consists of the sub-dimensions of establishing the structure and showing the relationship, into Turkish. However, the researcher did not look at the validity and reliability of the scale. Ergene (1990) found test-retest reliability as $r=.82$ for constructing dimension and $r=.77$ for relationship dimension. It can be said that the scale is valid and reliable. The Leadership Behavior Descriptive Scale has two sub-dimensions, which are defined as

establishing the structure and showing understanding. It can be stated that the individual with a high score for establishing the structure is more work-oriented, and the individual with a high score for understanding is more person-oriented.

Job Satisfaction Survey

The second part of the questionnaire, which is about teachers' job satisfaction, was taken from the questionnaire named "Educational administrator's job satisfaction", which was conducted by Balcı (1985) and whose validity and reliability were tested. The questionnaire is important because it is the first study product in which job satisfaction is directly addressed in educational organizations in Turkey. Job satisfaction survey; It consists of 27 items measuring the dimensions of Interpersonal Relations, Organizational Environment, Wages, Development and Promotion Opportunities, Job and Quality and Working Conditions.

3.3. Data analysis

The data were analyzed in the SPSS 28.0 package program. In the analysis of data; frequency tables, ANOVA Test, ANOVA Tukey Test and Pearson Correlation Analysis were used.

4. Findings

4.1. Difference Analysis of Demographic Changes

The following table includes the gender variable and the difference analysis of the scales:

Table 1. Difference Analysis of Gender Variable (T-Test)

		N	\bar{X}	ss		
Leadership Behaviors						
Setting up the build	Woman	94	33,8404	5,77779		
	Male	47	32,9362	4,79313		
show understanding	Woman	94	36.0532	6.22062		
	Male	47	35,9149	5,22881		
Job Satisfaction						
interpersonal relations	Woman	94	7.9787	1.60630		
	Male	47	8.3404	1,56423		
organizational environment	Woman	94	17,6915	2,45837		
	Male	47	17.5745	2.40240		
Fee	Woman	94	9.7340	1,75472		
	Male	47	9.7872	1,88744		
Development and promotion	Woman	94	7.5532	2.12318		
	Male	47	7.4468	1,93153		
Job and its nature	Woman	94	12.4894	1,99863		
	Male	47	11.8298	2,00347		
Work conditions	Woman	94	10.3617	4,83235		
	Male	47	10.2553	3,57204		
		N	\bar{X}	ss	f	p.
Leadership total	Woman	94	72,3191	10,90941	2,108	0.149
	Male	47	71,4255	8,35293		
Job satisfaction total	Woman	94	62,1064	9.38022	2,124	0.147
	Male	47	61,4255	7.06105		

p<0.005

As a result of the analysis, no significant relationship was found between the gender variable and the sub-dimensions of leadership behaviors and sub-dimensions of job satisfaction. Looking at the arithmetic means, it was seen that female participants ($\bar{X} = 33.8404$; $\bar{X} = 36.0532$) got higher scores than men ($\bar{X} = 32.9362$; $\bar{X} = 35.9149$) in the dimensions of constructing the structure and showing understanding . In the sub-dimensions of job satisfaction scale, male participants ($\bar{X} = 8.3404$); female participants in the organizational setting ($\bar{X} = 17.6915$);

male participants in the wage dimension ($\bar{X} = 9.7872$); In terms of development and promotion, female participants ($\bar{X} = 7,5532$); It was observed that female participants had high scores in the dimension of work and its quality ($\bar{X} = 12,4894$) and in terms of working conditions ($\bar{X} = 10,3617$). In addition, it was observed that female participants scored higher than male participants in the entire leadership behavior scale ($\bar{X} = 10.90941$) and job satisfaction scale ($\bar{X} = 9.38022$).

The difference analysis of the marital status variable is given in Table 2.

Table 2. Difference Analysis of Marital Status Variable (T-Test)

		N	\bar{X}	ss .		
Leadership Behaviors						
Setting up the build	Married	82	33,7195	5.0437		
	Single	59	33.2881	6,04595		
show understanding	Married	82	35.4756	5,82931		
	Single	59	36.7458	5,94397		
job satisfaction						
interpersonal relations	Married	82	8,0244	1.60228		
	Single	59	8.2034	1,59503		
organizational environment	Married	82	17.2927	2,38559		
	Single	59	18,1525	2,42696		
Fee	Married	82	9,9512	1.60172		
	Single	59	9.4746	2,01166		
Development and promotion	Married	82	7.5854	2,03033		
	Single	59	7.4237	2.10257		
Job and its nature	Married	82	12,1098	1,82578		
	Single	59	12,4915	2,25429		
Work conditions	Married	82	10.3293	4.46123		
	Single	59	10,322	4,44678		
		N	\bar{X}	sS	F	P
Leadership total	Married	82	71.6098	10,18927	0.072	0.01*
	Single	59	72.5932	10,05179		
Job satisfaction total	Married	82	61.4756	8,92801	0.052	0.82
	Single	59	62.4407	8,30719		

p<0.005

As a result of the analysis, it was seen that there was no significant relationship between marital status and the sub-dimensions of the leadership behavior scale and job satisfaction ($p < 0.05$). On the other hand, it was determined that there was a positive and significant relationship between marital status in the sum of the leadership scale ($p = 0.001$). In this case, it can be said that the perception of leadership behavior of married participants ($\bar{X} = 10.18927$) is higher than that of single participants ($\bar{X} = 10.05179$).

In Table 3, the difference analysis of the professional seniority variable is given.

Table 3. Difference Analysis of Professional Seniority Variable (ANOVA Test)

		N	\bar{X}	ss	95% Confidence interval for mean		Minimum	Maximum	f	p
					Lower Bound	upper Bound				
Setting up the build	less than 5 years	34	33.2353	4,94245	31,5108	34.9598	24.00	46.00	0.16	0.92
	5-10 years	42	33.9524	6.52557	31,9189	35,9859	24.00	52.00		
	10-15 years	50	33,3000	5,16760	31.8314	34.7686	21.00	46.00		
	between 15-20 years	15	33.8667	4,71876	31.2535	36.4798	27.00	45.00		
	total	141	33,5390	5,46877	32.6285	34.4495	21.00	52.00		
show understanding	less than 5 years	34	35.6471	6,48954	33.3828	37,9114	28.00	56,00	1.56	0.2
	5-10 years	42	34.7857	5,61590	33,0357	36.5358	27.00	51.00		
	10-15 years	50	36,6000	5.72142	34,9740	38,2260	23.00	54.00		
	between 15-20 years	15	38.2667	5,40458	35.2737	41.2596	30.00	48.00		
	total	141	36,0071	5,89006	35,0264	36,9878	23.00	56,00		
interpersonal relations	less than 5 years	34	7.9412	1,65037	7,3653	8.5170	5.00	12.00	0.77	0.512
	5-10 years	42	8.0238	1.64522	7,5111	8.5365	5.00	13.00		
	10-15 years	50	8,1000	1,65677	7.6292	8.5708	3.00	12.00		
	between 15-20 years	15	8.6667	1,04654	8,0871	9.2462	7.00	11.00		
	total	141	8,0993	1.59600	7.8336	8,3650	3.00	13.00		
organizational environment	less than 5 years	34	17.5294	2,77691	16.5605	18.4983	10.00	24.00	1.7	0.168
	5-10 years	42	17.0476	2,49832	16,2691	17,8261	10.00	22.00		
	10-15 years	50	18,0600	2,24436	17.4222	18.6978	12.00	24.00		
	between 15-20 years	15	18.2667	1,70992	17,3197	19,2136	15.00	21.00		
	total	141	17.6525	2,43189	17,2476	18.0574	10.00	24.00		
Fee	less than 5 years	34	10,0294	1,66033	9,4501	10.6087	7.00	14.00	0.383	0.764
	5-10 years	42	9.6905	1,98148	9,0730	10,3079	4.00	13.00		
	10-15 years	50	9,6800	1,91066	9.1370	10,2230	5.00	13.00		
	between 15-20 years	15	9.5333	1,06010	8.9463	10,1204	8.00	11.00		
	total	141	9.7518	1,79346	9.4532	10,0504	4.00	14.00		
Development and promotion	less than 5 years	34	7.5588	1,72664	6.9564	8.1613	4.00	11.00	0.045	0.98
	5-10 years	42	7.4524	2,46143	6.6853	8.2194	4.00	14.00		
	10-15 years	50	7,5000	2.00255	6.9309	8,0691	4.00	12.00		
	between 15-20 years	15	7.6667	1,83874	6.6484	8.6849	6.00	12.00		
	total	141	7.5177	2,05497	7.1756	7.8599	4.00	14.00		
Job and its nature	less than 5 years	34	11.7647	2,24363	10,9819	12,5475	8.00	17.00	2.03	0.11
	5-10 years	42	12,8571	2,09030	12,2058	13,5085	8.00	18.00		
	10-15 years	50	12,1200	1,72189	11.6306	12.6094	8.00	16.00		

	between 15-20 years total	15	12.2667	1,98086	11.1697	13.3636	9.00	16.00		
	less than 5 years	34	10.2941	4,98196	8.5558	12,0324	5.00	23.00		
	5-10 years	42	10.2143	4,52384	8.8046	11,6240	5.00	24.00		
Work conditions	10-15 years	50	10,1800	4.13393	9,0051	11.3549	5.00	24.00	0.21	0.88
	between 15-20 years total	15	11,2000	4,22915	8.8580	13,5420	5.00	20.00		
	total	141	10.3262	4,43927	9.5871	11.0654	5.00	24.00		

p<0.005

As a result of the analysis, no relationship was found between professional seniority, leadership behaviors and job satisfaction. On the other hand, when the arithmetic averages are considered, those who have 5-10 years of professional experience ($\bar{X} = 33,9524$) in the sub-dimension of constructing the structure ; In the sub-dimension of showing understanding, it was seen that those who had professional experience between 15-20 years ($\bar{X} = 38,2667$) had higher averages than the others. Considering the sub-dimensions of the job satisfaction scale, in the dimension of interpersonal relations; 15-20 years ($\bar{X} = 8.6667$); 15-20 years in organizational environment dimension ($\bar{X} = 18.2667$); less than 5 years in the wage dimension ($\bar{X} = 10.0294$); Development and rise 15-20 years ($\bar{X} = 7.6667$); It has been determined that it is 5-10 years ($\bar{X} = 12,8571$) in the dimension of work and its quality and 15-20 years in the dimension of working conditions ($\bar{X} = 11,2000$).

4.2. The Effect of Leadership Behaviors on Job Satisfaction

Correlation analysis was performed to determine whether leadership behaviors affect job satisfaction (Table 4):

Table 4. Leadership Behaviors and Job Satisfaction Correlation Analysis

		leadership behaviors	job satisfaction
leadership behaviors	Pearson correlation		,983 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000
Job Satisfaction total	Pearson correlation	,983 **	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	

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

p=0.001

As a result of the analysis, it was seen that leadership behaviors affected job satisfaction statistically ($r=.983$; $p=0.01$). In this case, it can be said that the leadership behaviors exhibited by school principals affect teachers' job satisfaction.

Conclusion and Recommendations

In the study examining the relationship between the leadership behaviors of school principals and the job satisfaction of teachers, gender, marital status and professional experience variables were discussed.

As a result of the analysis, no significant relationship was found between the gender variable and the sub-dimensions of leadership behaviors and sub-dimensions of job satisfaction. Looking at the arithmetic averages, it was seen that female participants scored higher than men in the dimensions of establishing the structure and showing understanding. In the sub-dimensions of the job satisfaction scale, male participants; female participants in the organizational setting; male participants in the wage dimension; In terms of development and promotion, female participants; It was observed that the scores of female participants in the dimension of work and quality and working conditions were high. In addition, it was observed that female participants scored higher than male participants in the entire leadership behavior scale and in the job satisfaction scale.

As a result of the analysis, it was seen that there was no significant relationship between marital status and the sub-dimensions of the leadership behavior scale and job satisfaction. On the other hand, it has been determined that there is a positive and significant relationship between marital status in the total of the leadership scale. In this case, it can be said that the perception of leadership behavior of married participants is higher than that of single participants.

As a result of the analysis, no relationship was found between professional seniority, leadership behaviors and job satisfaction. On the other hand, when the arithmetic averages are considered, those who have 5-10 years of professional experience in the sub-dimension of establishing the structure; In the sub-dimension of showing understanding, it has been seen that those who have professional experience between 15-20 years have higher averages than the others. Considering the sub-dimensions of the job satisfaction scale, in the dimension of interpersonal relations; 15-20 years ; 15-20 years in organizational environment dimension ; less than 5 years in the wage dimension ; Development and promotion 15-20 years ; It has been determined that it is 5-10 years in the dimension of work and quality and 15-20 years in the dimension of working conditions .

As a result of the analysis, it was seen that leadership behaviors affect job satisfaction statistically. In this case, it can be said that the leadership behaviors exhibited by school principals affect teachers' job satisfaction.

At the end of the research, the following recommendations were developed:

- School principals should support teachers and provide the resources they need. Principals can increase job satisfaction by supporting teachers' training and development.
- School principals should encourage cooperation among teachers. Principals can increase job satisfaction by helping teachers collaborate with each other and share ideas.
- School principals should regularly evaluate the performance of teachers. In the evaluation process, they can increase job satisfaction by giving feedback to teachers and focusing on areas of improvement.
- This research is a quantitative research, it can be suggested that future studies should be done qualitatively.
- It may be recommended to enlarge the population and sample and to increase the demographic information.

References

- Atıgan, F., & Özkan, P. (2023). Okul Müdürlerinin Vizyoner Liderlik Davranışları İle Öğretmenlerin Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışları Arasındaki İlişki. *Uluslararası Liderlik Çalışmaları Dergisi: Kuram ve Uygulama*, 6(1), 23-45.
- Aycan, Z. ve Eskin, M. (2005). Relative contributions of childcare, spousal support, and organizational support in reducing work-family conflict for men and women: The case of Turkey. *Sex Roles*, 53(7), 453-471.
- Başaran, İ. E. (2000). Eğitim yönetimi: Nitelikli okul (4. Baskı), Feryal Matbaası.
- Bingöl, D. (2006). İnsan kaynakları yönetimi. (6). İstanbul: Arıkan
- Bozdoğan, K., & Sağnak, M. (2011). İlköğretim okulu müdürlerinin liderlik davranışları ile öğrenme iklimi arasındaki ilişki. *Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*.
- Bursalıoğlu, Z. (2014). Eğitim yönetiminde teori ve uygulama (12. Baskı), Pegem Akademi Yayıncılık.
- Çakır, E., & Öztürk, M. (2023). Okul Öncesi Öğretmenlerinde İş Tatmini Algısının İncelenmesine Yönelik Isparta İlinde Yapılan Bir Çalışma. *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 28(2), 199-219.
- Demir, F. (2023). Girişimci Liderlik: Kavram, İlişki Ve Yaklaşımlar. *Adıyaman Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, (43), 444-478.
- Georgellis, Y. ve T. Lange, (2012), "Traditional Versus Secular Values and The Job-Life Satisfaction Relationship Across Europe", *British Journal of Management*, 23; 437-454.
- Hintschich, C. (2023). Lider. In *Katarakt-und Linsen Chirurgie* (pp. 53-55). Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- Izgar, H. (2008). Okul Yöneticilerinde İş Doymu ile Örgütsel Bağlılık. *Selçuk Üniversitesi Ahmet Keleşoğlu Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi Sayı: 25*, 317-334.
- Katıtaş, S., Karadaş, H., & Coşkun, B. (2022). Okul yöneticilerinin etik liderlik davranışlarının öğretmenlerin öznel iyi oluş ve iş doyumları üzerindeki etkisi.
- Maşalı, N., Yeter, Z., Erdem, E., & Bedir, A. (2023). Okul Yöneticilerinin Öğretimsel Liderlik Davranışlarının İncelenmesi: Literatür Taraması. *Avrasya Sosyal ve Ekonomi Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 10(2), 177-199.
- Özçelik, N., Yıldız, H., & Yozcu, İ. (2023). Okul Öncesi Eğitimde Öğretimsel Lider Olarak Okul Yöneticilerinin Velilerle İletişimi. *Düzce Üniversitesi Spor Bilimleri Dergisi*, 3(1), 100-105.
- Özek, B. Y., & Büyükgöze, H. (2023). Dağıtımçı Liderlik ve İş Doymu İlişkisinin İncelenmesi: Öğretmen Özyeterliği ve İşbirliğinin Aracı Roller. *EĞİTİM VE BİLİM*, 48(213).
- Polat, E., & Ödemiş, M. (2023). Kariyer Başarısına Politik Beceri ve Lider-Üye Etkileşiminin Etkisi: Otel İşletmelerine Yönelik Bir Araştırma. *GSI Journals Serie A: Advancements in Tourism Recreation and Sports Sciences*, 6(1), 88-105.
- Sarıtaş, T. T., & Myrvang, N. A. (2023). Sağlık Sektöründe Lider-Üye Etkileşimi Ve İş Performansı Arasındaki İlişkide Pelz Etkisinin Aracı Rolü. *Eurasian Academy of Sciences Social Sciences Journal*, (46), 1-22.

- Sönmez, N. (2023). Orta Öğretim Okulu Yöneticilerinin Kültürel Liderlik Rollerinin, Değişime Olan Direnç Üzerindeki Etkilerinin Araştırma Bulgularının Değerlendirilmesi. *IJSS*, 7(28), 113-130.
- Şentürk, C., & Sağnak, M. (2012). İlköğretim okulu müdürlerinin liderlik davranışları ile okul iklimi arasındaki ilişki. *Türk Eğitim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 10(1), 29-43.
- Tahaoğlu, F., & Gedikoğlu, T. (2009). İlköğretim okulu müdürlerinin liderlik rolleri. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi*, 58(58), 274-298.
- Uzlu, T. (2023). Okul Müdürlerinin İş-Aile Yaşam Çatışması Düzeyleriyle İş Doyum Düzeyleri Arasındaki İlişki. *Edebiyat Dilbilim Eğitim ve Bilimsel Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 2(1), 173-191.
- Yinal, A., & Banje, F. U. (2023). Social Media Habits Of University Students And The Effects Of Media On Students. *The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education-April*, 13(2).