

# The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education

*Volume 15 Issue 1*  
*January 2025*

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**Contact Address:**

Prof. Dr. Aytekin İŞMAN  
TOJNED, Editor in Chief  
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**January 01, 2025**

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## EFFECT OF EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION LEVEL ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Aykan Osman Demir  
Akdeniz Karpoaz University  
[aykan.dmr3@gmail.com](mailto:aykan.dmr3@gmail.com)

Mustafa Vurucu  
Akdeniz Karpoaz University  
[mvurucu@gmail.com](mailto:mvurucu@gmail.com)

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Azmiye Yinal  
Akdeniz Karpoaz University  
0009-0004-7936-847X  
[azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr](mailto:azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr)

### ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this research is to examine the effect of employee satisfaction levels on organizational commitment. The study aimed to analyze the relationships between employee satisfaction levels and organizational commitment. In this direction, quantitative research method was used and relational screening model, which allows examining the relationships between variables, was adopted as the research model. In the data collection process, personal information form was used from the participants, Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale was used to measure employee satisfaction and Organizational Commitment Scale was used to determine organizational commitment levels. While Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale measures employee satisfaction levels in two dimensions as intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction; Organizational Commitment Scale evaluates commitment levels in three dimensions as affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. The obtained data were analyzed using SPSS 26.0 program for statistical analysis.

The results of this study show that employee satisfaction has a significant and strong effect on organizational commitment. As the levels of intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction and general satisfaction increase, the organizational commitment of employees also increases. In particular, general satisfaction stands out as the most effective factor on organizational commitment, and it has been determined that intrinsic satisfaction has a positive effect on commitment. The study examined organizational commitment within the framework of emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment dimensions. Emotional commitment reflects the voluntary and affection-based commitment of employees to the organization; continuance commitment reflects the commitment arising from economic and social obligations; and normative commitment reflects the sense of moral responsibility. However, it has been determined that general commitment levels are low-medium. In the correlation analysis, strong and positive relationships were found between employee satisfaction and organizational commitment. According to the regression analysis, general satisfaction stood out as the variable with the strongest effect on organizational commitment.

**Keywords:** Employee Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Intrinsic Satisfaction, Extrinsic Satisfaction.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1. Problem Statement

In today's competitive business world, organizations can achieve sustainable success not only through financial results or technological investments, but also by increasing the satisfaction and commitment levels of their employees. Employee satisfaction is a concept that reflects the extent to which individuals' experiences at work match their expectations; and reflects employees' perceptions, attitudes, and emotional reactions to their jobs (Şahin, 2015). Employee satisfaction is a fundamental element that contributes to the success of organizations by affecting many individual and organizational factors such as job satisfaction, motivation, performance, and organizational commitment. Employees who have a positive experience at work and whose expectations are met will be more committed to their jobs, exhibit higher performance, and tend to contribute voluntarily in the work environment (Uğurluoğlu et al., 2019).

The effects of employee satisfaction in the workplace are not limited to individual results. Studies show that employees with high levels of satisfaction are also positively reflected in customer satisfaction and the overall performance of the organization (Jeon and Choi, 2012). In organizations where satisfaction is high, it is seen that absenteeism rates decrease, employees are more open to innovations and teamwork is strengthened. Determining the factors that affect employee satisfaction levels allows organizations to reorganize their human resources management policies and develop an employee-focused management approach (Bauman and Skitka, 2012).

Research shows that employee satisfaction has a significant impact on organizational commitment. Employees with high levels of satisfaction are more committed to their organizations, their intention to leave decreases, and



contributes to the success of the organization in the long term (Korkmaz & Erdoğan, 2014). While the increase in satisfaction that employees feel at work strengthens their emotional commitment to the organization, low satisfaction levels increase the intention to leave the job and negatively affect the level of organizational commitment (Tanrıverdi et al., 2019).

When organizations develop policies that increase employee satisfaction, it not only supports individual well-being, but also contributes to the long-term competitiveness of businesses by increasing organizational commitment and efficiency. For example, fair wage policies, the provision of career development opportunities, effective leadership and positive relationships in the work environment are among the basic factors that increase both satisfaction and commitment levels (Çetin and Basım, 2011).

This study examines the impact of employee satisfaction levels on organizational commitment. By examining the relationships between internal and external factors of employee satisfaction and the three basic dimensions of organizational commitment, namely emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment, it is aimed to shed light on strategies that can increase the commitment levels of organizations. In this context, the interaction between employee satisfaction and organizational commitment will be evaluated at individual and organizational levels and the dynamic relationship between these two concepts will be revealed.

### 1.2 Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this research is to examine the effect of employee satisfaction levels on organizational commitment. The relationship between employee satisfaction and factors such as job satisfaction, working conditions, management style, wages and career opportunities will be addressed, and the effect of this satisfaction level on the dimensions of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment of organizational commitment will be analyzed. The research aims to determine which elements should be addressed as a priority to increase the level of organizational commitment in employee satisfaction and to guide organizations towards strategies that can strengthen employee commitment.

### 1.3 Importance of Research

Employee satisfaction and organizational commitment are critical to the success and sustainability of organizations. While the satisfaction levels of employees at work directly affect their performance, length of stay and motivation in the organization, the level of organizational commitment is also an important factor that contributes to the organization's achievement of its goals. This research contributes to the literature on understanding the relationship between employee satisfaction and organizational commitment and aims to provide practical information for managers who want to plan their human resources policies more effectively. In addition, the study is important in terms of developing suggestions on how employee satisfaction can be optimized to increase organizational commitment.

### 1.4 Limitations

This research has some limitations:

1. The research is limited to individuals working in the private and public sectors in TRNC.
2. Data were collected using a survey method and are limited to the scales used in the study.
3. In the study, employee satisfaction and organizational commitment variables were examined. Other external factors that may affect the relationship between these two variables (e.g., cultural factors, economic conditions) were excluded from the evaluation.

### 1.5 Definitions

**Employee Satisfaction:** It is the totality of employees' perceptions and feelings about work life, expressing the extent to which their experiences at work match their expectations. It is affected by factors such as the nature of the job, working conditions, wages, management style and relationships with co-workers (Judge et al., 2017).

**Organizational Commitment:** It is the level of commitment of employees to organizational goals and values, which expresses their emotional, continuity and normative commitment to their organizations (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

## 2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

### 2.1 Employee Satisfaction

Employee satisfaction is defined as a positive emotional state that occurs depending on the extent to which individuals' expectations in their work life are met (Judge et al., 2017). Employee satisfaction is directly affected by factors such as the individual's working conditions, the nature of the job, wages, career development opportunities, management approach and relationships with coworkers (Çelik and Şimşek, 2013; Özdevecioğlu, 2013). If these factors meet the individual's expectations, employee satisfaction increases, and if they do not, the satisfaction level decreases.

Employee satisfaction is closely related to the satisfaction individuals feel from their jobs, as well as the extent to which they feel valued and motivated in the work environment (Boz et al., 2021). Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and Herzberg's dual factor theory are important theoretical frameworks that form the basis of employee satisfaction. According to Herzberg's dual factor theory, the factors that increase employee satisfaction are divided into two as "intrinsic motivation factors" (success, recognition, responsibility) and "extrinsic hygiene factors" (wage, working conditions, job security) (Herzberg, 1966). Providing these factors in a balanced manner in the workplace increases the satisfaction level of employees and reflects positively on their performance.

Research reveals the critical role of employee satisfaction on organizational performance. High employee satisfaction increases employee motivation and performance, while contributing to the reduction of negative situations such as intention to leave and absenteeism (Yetmen and Kişi, 2011; Tanrıverdi et al., 2019). For example, in one study, it was observed that employees with high levels of satisfaction were more committed to their jobs and exhibited organizational citizenship behaviors (Polat and Celep, 2008). It was also stated that employees with high satisfaction were more willing to adapt to the goals and values of the organization and tended to work longer within the organization (Güney, 2000).

Employee satisfaction is also directly related to concepts such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Employees with high levels of satisfaction are emotionally attached to their organizations and their job satisfaction levels increase (Sezgin, 2010). This situation allows for the improvement of factors such as productivity, employee commitment and customer satisfaction in organizations. Employee satisfaction is of critical importance for organizations in terms of sustainable success and performance. Meeting the expectations of employees in business life is a fundamental factor that directly affects individual and organizational success. Therefore, organizations should develop effective human resources practices to ensure employee satisfaction and support the happiness and motivation of employees by considering their needs.

## 2.2 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a concept that reflects employees' perceptions, attitudes, and emotional evaluations of their jobs. Job satisfaction varies depending on the extent to which the individual's expectations from their job are met (Raziq and Maulabakhsh, 2015). Job satisfaction is addressed in two basic dimensions: intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction. While intrinsic satisfaction includes elements such as the success, responsibility, and advancement that the individual achieves due to the nature of the job, extrinsic satisfaction includes elements such as wages, working conditions, relationships with managers, and job security (Schleicher et al., 2018).

High job satisfaction increases employees' motivation, productivity, and job performance, while also having a positive effect on organizational commitment (Wegge, Schmidt, Parkes & Van Dick, 2017). In contrast, low job satisfaction increases employees' intention to leave the job and leads to negative outcomes such as burnout syndrome. Therefore, it is important for organizations to develop strategies that will increase employees' job satisfaction to create a sustainable work environment in the long term (Poon, 2017). Employees with high job satisfaction tend to contribute more to the organization's goals, while employees with low job satisfaction tend to leave the job (Judge & Klinger, 2008). The factors affecting job satisfaction can be listed as follows (Kuzulugil, 2012):

1. **Personality and Demographic Factors:** An individual's personality traits, age, gender, education level, and work experience can affect the level of job satisfaction. For example, it has been stated that job satisfaction increases with age, and that with experience, an individual's expectations become more realistic.
2. **Leadership Style:** Manager support and leadership style play an important role in employee job satisfaction. Supportive leadership increases employee confidence and makes them more satisfied with their jobs.
3. **Perception of Justice:** Organizational justice is related to employees' perception of being treated fairly in terms of wages, promotions, and distribution of tasks. Employees in a fair work environment show higher job satisfaction.
4. **Working Conditions:** Factors such as physical working environment, job security, ergonomic conditions and workload directly affect the job satisfaction of employees.

## 2.3 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment refers to employees' commitment to the goals and values of an organization, their desire to be a part of the organization, and their desire to remain in the organization (Meyer et al., 2019). The concepts of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment form the three-dimensional model put forward by Meyer and Allen (1991) to explain the multidimensional structure of organizational commitment. This model explains employees' commitment to the organization based on different motivational foundations and has been widely accepted in the literature. Each type of commitment is detailed below and supported by current sources:

Affective commitment refers to employees' desire to voluntarily commit to the organization and the feeling of being a part of the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees with high affective commitment adopt the goals and values of the organization and feel an intrinsic motivation to contribute to the success of the organization (Meyer, et al., 2019). This type of commitment is affected by employees' job satisfaction, leader support, perception of justice, and positive relationships with co-workers (Rhoades et al., 2001).

Affective commitment has a strong impact on organizational performance, retention, and motivation. For example, Allen and Shanock (2013) found that when employees have high levels of emotional commitment, their job performance increases significantly. In addition, perceived organizational support and strong employee-employee relationships are among the factors that increase emotional commitment (Eisenberger et al., 2010).

Continuance commitment is the situation where employees continue their decision to stay in the organization due to high economic and social costs (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The employee tends to continue his/her current job due to reasons such as difficulty in finding a new job, career loss or financial security concerns if he/she leaves the organization (Joo et al., 2010). This type of commitment is directly related to the individual's perception of the costs of leaving the job (Taşkın & Dilek, 2010).

Continuity commitment is a more compelling form of commitment than other types of commitment because employees stay because they feel obliged to leave the job even if they do not want to (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2014). This situation can negatively affect job performance and productivity. However, the social rights offered by the organization, job security and increased career opportunities are among the elements that strengthen continuance commitment (Chang et al., 2010).

Normative commitment occurs when employees see staying in the organization as a moral responsibility or obligation (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). This type of commitment is shaped by the individual's desire to remain loyal to the organization in return for the support, training, and social contributions they receive from the organization. The employee does not find it ethically right to leave the organization and feels an obligation to the organization (Wasti, 2003).

Normative commitment has a strong relationship with organizational culture and individual values. The opportunities, trainings and supportive leadership provided by the organization to employees are effective in developing this type of commitment (Bentein et al., 2005). To increase normative commitment, it is important for organizations to provide a fair and ethical work environment (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).

Meyer and Allen's three-dimensional organizational commitment model offers a multidimensional perspective rather than basing employee commitment on a single factor. Affective commitment represents the individual's voluntary commitment and intrinsic motivation, while continuance commitment arises due to economic and social costs. Normative commitment is based on moral responsibility and an ethical obligation felt towards the organization. Each type of commitment has different effects on organizational performance and employee satisfaction.

Organizational commitment has a direct impact on employee performance, motivation, and job satisfaction (Yousef, 2017). Employees with high organizational commitment contribute more to the organization's goals, while their intention to leave is low (Kaur et al., 2020). Elements such as employee satisfaction and job satisfaction are important determinants of organizational commitment. Strengthening organizational commitment is a critical element for increasing the performance and sustainability of organizations (Bayram, 2005).

### 3. METHOD

#### 3.1 Research Model

quantitative research method was used to examine the relationships between employee satisfaction levels and organizational commitment. The relational screening model, which allows the analysis of relationships between variables, was adopted as the research model (Büyükoztürk et al., 2012). This model aims to determine the direction and strength of the relationships between the dependent variable organizational commitment and the independent variables intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and general satisfaction (Karasar, 2015). The effects between the variables were examined in detail with correlation and regression analyses.

#### 3.2 Universe and Sample

The universe of the study consists of individuals working in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) without distinction between private and public sectors. The sample consists of 194 individuals who were selected from this universe according to certain criteria, volunteered to participate in the study, and filled out the data collection form completely. Convenience sampling method was used in sample selection. This method allowed the researcher to collect data from accessible participants in a fast and cost-effective way (Büyükoztürk et al., 2012). The individuals participating in the study show demographic differences, and employees from different sectors (private and public) represent diversity in terms of various variables such as gender, age, education status, and working hours. Data were collected from the participants using a 5-point Likert scale using a survey method and provided appropriate conditions for analysis. The sample size of 194 individuals is sufficient in terms of reliability of the analyses and validity of the research results.

### 3.3 Data Collection Tools

Data in the study were collected through personal information form, it was collected with the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale and the Organizational Commitment Scale.

To evaluate employee satisfaction, the "Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale" consisting of 20 questions was used. The scales used in the research were prepared in a 5-point Likert format. The KMO value of the Job Satisfaction Scale was determined as .91 and the Bartlett sphericity test results were found to be significant. These findings show that the measurement tool is suitable for factor analysis. In addition, because of the analyses, it was determined that the scale had two components with an eigenvalue greater than 1. The first component explained 44.18% of the total variance, while the second component explained 7.95%. In statistical analyses, the minimum value represents the lowest score among the measurement results; the maximum value represents the highest score among the measurement results. Regarding job satisfaction, it was determined that the intrinsic satisfaction dimension ( $3.68 \pm 0.74$ ) and the extrinsic satisfaction dimension ( $3.66 \pm 0.73$ ) were at a moderate level. These evaluations are based on the study conducted by Kocakaya (2023).

The Organizational Commitment Scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) was used in the study. This scale is a comprehensive tool that measures employees' commitment to an organization in three dimensions. These dimensions are emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to the emotional bond that individuals feel towards the organization and the state of seeing themselves as a part of the organization. Continuance commitment is the economic and social costs that leaving the organization will create, which is the basis for employees' preference to remain in the organization. Normative commitment defines the state of commitment that individuals feel towards the organization due to their responsibility and moral obligation. This scale, consisting of 24 statements in total, has eight statements for each dimension and is organized in a 5-point Likert format. Participants indicate the extent to which they agree with the statements by scoring from 1 to 5 (1: Strongly Disagree, 5: Strongly Agree). The scale provides separate scores for each of the organizational commitment dimensions, providing a comprehensive assessment in understanding the types and levels of employees' commitment to the organization. This multidimensional structure provides a strong foundation for analyzing the complex dynamics of organizational commitment.

**Table 1. Reliability Analysis**

|                           | Cronbach's Alpha | Article |
|---------------------------|------------------|---------|
| Job satisfaction          | 0.951            | 20      |
| Organizational Commitment | 0.960            | 24      |

Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.70 and above indicates that the scale is reliable. The values obtained in this study show that both scales have a high level of reliability. This supports that the measurement tools used provide consistent and reliable results within the scope of the research.

### 3.4 Analysis of Data

The data in the study were analyzed with SPSS 26.00 program. In the study, descriptive analyzes were performed to understand the general characteristics and distributions of the data. In these analyzes, the central tendency measures (mean, median) and distribution measures (standard deviation, variance) of the variables were examined, and the conformity of the data to normal distribution was evaluated using skewness and kurtosis values. In addition, correlation analysis was applied to determine the direction and strength of the relationships between the variables. In this analysis, linear relationships between the variables were measured with Pearson Correlation Coefficient and the positive or negative direction of the relationship was evaluated. In addition, regression analysis was performed to examine the causal effects between the variables in the study. Regression analysis was used to understand the effects of independent variables on the dependent variable and the strength of this effect. The findings obtained provided important data in understanding the relationships between basic variables such as job satisfaction, organizational citizenship and workaholism and the effects of these variables. The use of these methods together increased the reliability of the results of the study and enabled a more in-depth analysis of the relationships between the variables.

#### 4. FINDINGS

**Table 2. Demographic Information**

|                        |                             | n   | %     |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|-----|-------|
| Gender                 | Male                        | 109 | 56.2  |
|                        | Woman                       | 85  | 43.8  |
| Age                    | 20-25 years old             | 15  | 7.7   |
|                        | 26-30 years old             | 12  | 6.2   |
|                        | 31-35 years old             | 30  | 15.5  |
|                        | 36-40 Years Old             | 51  | 26.3  |
|                        | 41-45 Years Old             | 52  | 26.8  |
|                        | 46-50 Years Old             | 13  | 6.7   |
|                        | Age 51 and above            | 21  | 10.8  |
| Education Status       | Primary/Secondary Education | 28  | 14.4  |
|                        | High school                 | 86  | 44.3  |
|                        | Licence                     | 53  | 27.3  |
|                        | Master's Thesis/PhD         | 27  | 13.9  |
| Professional Seniority | 1-5 years                   | 58  | 29.9  |
|                        | 6-10 years                  | 36  | 18.6  |
|                        | 11-15 years                 | 44  | 22.7  |
|                        | 16-20 years                 | 34  | 17.5  |
|                        | 21-25 years                 | 14  | 7.2   |
|                        | 26 years and above          | 8   | 4.1   |
| Total                  |                             | 194 | 100.0 |

When the demographic information of the 194 participants who participated in this study was examined, the number of male participants in terms of gender distribution was 109 people, which constituted 56.2% of the total, while female participants constituted 85 people, which constituted 43.8% of the total. When the age groups of the participants were examined, the largest group was determined as 51 people (26.3%) between the ages of 36-40. This was followed by 52 people (26.8%) in the 41-45 age group. There were 30 people (15.5%) in the 31-35 age group, 12 people (6.2%) in the 26-30 age group, 13 people (6.7%) in the 46-50 age group, and 21 people (10.8%) in the 51 and over age group. The smallest group was 15 people (7.7%) in the 20-25 age group. When the educational backgrounds of the participants are examined, high school graduates constitute the largest group with a total of 86 people (44.3%), followed by bachelor's degree graduates with 53 people (27.3%) and primary/secondary school graduates with 28 people (14.4%). Master's thesis/doctoral graduates are represented at the lowest rate with 27 people (13.9%). When the professional seniority status of the participants is evaluated, it is seen that the largest group is 58 people with 1-5 years of seniority (29.9%). This is followed by 36 people with 6-10 years of seniority (18.6%) and 44 people with 11-15 years of seniority (22.7%). They are listed in smaller groups with 34 people (17.5%) having 16-20 years of seniority, 14 people (7.2%) having 21-25 years of seniority, and 8 people (4.1%) having 26 years of seniority and above.

**Table 3. Participants' Satisfaction Levels**

|                       | Min. | Max. | Avg.   | P.S.    |
|-----------------------|------|------|--------|---------|
| Inner satisfaction    | 1.00 | 3.22 | 1.9433 | 0.70972 |
| External satisfaction | 1.00 | 3.27 | 2.0469 | 0.74841 |
| Overall Satisfaction  | 1.00 | 3.25 | 1.9951 | 0.72451 |

In this study, the satisfaction levels of the participants were examined under three different categories as internal satisfaction, external satisfaction and general satisfaction . On the scale, 1.00 represents the lowest satisfaction level and 5.00 represents the highest satisfaction level.



- Intrinsic Satisfaction: The minimum value is 1.00, the maximum value is 3.22, and the average (Avg) is calculated as 1.9433. The standard deviation (SD) value is 0.70972. This value shows that the intrinsic satisfaction levels of the participants are low.
- External Satisfaction: Minimum value is 1.00, maximum value is 3.27, and the average is determined as 2.0469. Standard deviation is 0.74841. This result indicates that the level of external satisfaction is slightly higher than internal satisfaction.
- General Satisfaction: The minimum value is 1.00, the maximum value is 3.25, and the average is calculated as 1.9951. The standard deviation value is 0.72451. It is seen that general satisfaction is also at a low level.

These results show that both internal and external satisfaction levels of the participants are at low levels and their general satisfaction also shows a similar trend. The standard deviation values show some difference in the participants' responses.

**Table 4. Organizational Commitment Levels of Participants**

|                           | Min. | Max. | Avg.   | P.S.    |
|---------------------------|------|------|--------|---------|
| Emotional Attachment      | 1.00 | 3.75 | 2,1823 | 0.83053 |
| Continuity Commitment     | 1.00 | 3.38 | 1,9439 | 0.72998 |
| Normative Commitment      | 1.00 | 3.25 | 1.9233 | 0.67585 |
| Organizational Commitment | 1.00 | 3.38 | 2,0165 | 0.73269 |

In this study, the organizational commitment levels of the participants It was examined in four different dimensions: emotional commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment, and general organizational commitment. 1.00 on the scale represents the lowest and 5.00 represents the highest level of commitment.

- Emotional Commitment: Minimum value was calculated as 1.00, maximum value as 3.75, mean (Average) as 2.1823, standard deviation (SD) as 0.83053. This result shows that the emotional commitment levels of the participants are at a low-medium level.
- Continuity Commitment: The minimum value was 1.00, the maximum value was 3.38, the average was 1.9439 and the standard deviation was 0.72998. The continuity commitment level of the participants also remains at a low level.
- Normative Commitment: The minimum value was calculated as 1.00, the maximum value as 3.25, the average as 1.9233 and the standard deviation as 0.67585. These values show that the level of normative commitment is also low.
- Organizational Commitment (General): The minimum value was 1.00, the maximum value was 3.38, the average was 2.0165 and the standard deviation was 0.73269. The general organizational commitment level is also at low levels.

As a result, when all dimensions are examined, it is seen that the organizational commitment levels of the participants are at low-medium levels. The standard deviation values show that there is some variation among the participants' answers. This situation reveals that the participants' attitudes are not homogeneous in different dimensions of organizational commitment.

**Table 5. Relationship Between Employee Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment**

|                          |   | Inner<br>satisfactio<br>n | External<br>satisfactio<br>n | Overall<br>Satisfactio<br>n | Emotional<br>Attachmen<br>t | Continuity<br>commitmen<br>t | Normative<br>commitmen<br>t | Organization<br>al<br>Commitment |
|--------------------------|---|---------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Inner<br>satisfaction    | r | 1                         | ,975 **                      | ,993 **                     | ,964 **                     | ,979 **                      | ,961 **                     | ,985 **                          |
|                          | p |                           | 0,000                        | 0,000                       | 0,000                       | 0,000                        | 0,000                       | 0,000                            |
| External<br>satisfaction | r |                           | 1                            | ,994 **                     | ,957 **                     | ,981 **                      | ,948 **                     | ,979 **                          |
|                          | p |                           |                              | 0,000                       | 0,000                       | 0,000                        | 0,000                       | 0,000                            |
| Overall<br>Satisfaction  | r |                           |                              | 1                           | ,967 **                     | ,987 **                      | ,960 **                     | ,988 **                          |
|                          | p |                           |                              |                             | 0,000                       | 0,000                        | 0,000                       | 0,000                            |

|                           |   |   |         |         |         |
|---------------------------|---|---|---------|---------|---------|
| Emotional Attachment      | r | 1 | ,945 ** | ,952 ** | ,984 ** |
|                           | p |   | 0,000   | 0,000   | 0,000   |
| Continuity commitment     | r |   | 1       | ,950 ** | ,981 ** |
|                           | p |   |         | 0,000   | 0,000   |
| Normative commitment      | r |   |         | 1       | ,983 ** |
|                           | p |   |         |         | 0,000   |
| Organizational Commitment | r |   |         |         | 1       |
|                           | p |   |         |         |         |

In this study, the relationships between the satisfaction levels of the participants and organizational commitment were examined by correlation analysis. According to the findings, it was observed that the variables of intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction and general satisfaction were very strongly and positively related to organizational commitment and its sub-dimensions, namely emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. In particular, the correlation coefficient of intrinsic satisfaction with organizational commitment was calculated as 0.985, with extrinsic satisfaction as 0.979 and with general satisfaction as 0.988. These results show that all sub-dimensions of satisfaction have a significant and strong effect on organizational commitment. The relationships between the dimensions of organizational commitment were also examined and strong positive relationships were found between emotional commitment and continuance commitment with values of 0.945, between emotional commitment and normative commitment as 0.952 and between continuance commitment and normative commitment as 0.950. All these findings reveal that the satisfaction levels of the employees are directly and significantly related to organizational commitment. In summary, the increase in both the intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction levels of the employees significantly increase the level of organizational commitment and the sub-dimensions of commitment.

**Table 6. Effect of Employee Satisfaction Level on Organizational Commitment**

|  | Unstandardized Coefficients |                   | Standardized Coefficients |          |       |
|--|-----------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|----------|-------|
|  | B                           | Std. Error        | Beta                      | t        | p.    |
| Still  | 0.022                       | 0.023             |                           | 0.957    | 0.340 |
| Inner satisfaction                               | 0.256                       | 0.098             | 0.248                     | 2,602    | 0.010 |
| Overall Satisfaction                             | 0.750                       | 0.096             | 0.742                     | 7,783    | 0,000 |
|  | F                           | p.                | R                         | R Square |       |
|  | 4096,423                    | ,000 <sup>b</sup> | ,989 <sup>a</sup>         | 0.977    |       |
| a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment |                             |                   |                           |          |       |

In this regression analysis, the dependent variable is organizational commitment, and the independent variables are internal satisfaction and general satisfaction. The findings can be summarized as follows:

1. Fixed Value:
  - B = 0.022, Standard Error = 0.023, t = 0.957, p = 0.340 The constant term is not statistically significant (p > 0.05).
2. Inner Satisfaction:
  - B = 0.256, Standard Error = 0.098, Beta = 0.248, t = 2.602, p = 0.010 Intrinsic satisfaction has a positive and significant effect on organizational commitment. Since the beta coefficient is 0.248, its effect is moderate.
3. Overall Satisfaction:

- $B = 0.750$ , Standard Error = 0.096, Beta = 0.742,  $t = 7.783$ ,  $p = 0.000$  The effect of general satisfaction on organizational commitment is positive and significant. It stands out as the variable with the strongest effect with a beta value of 0.742.
- 4. Model Fit Statistics:
  - F Value: 4096.423,  $p = 0.000$  This value shows that the regression model is significant ( $p < 0.05$ ).
  - R (Correlation Coefficient): 0.989 It shows that the relationship between the dependent and independent variables is quite strong.
  - R Square (Explained Variance Rate): 0.977 This value shows that intrinsic satisfaction and general satisfaction variables explain 97.7% of the variance in organizational commitment.

In this analysis, the general satisfaction variable stood out as the variable with the strongest effect on organizational commitment (Beta = 0.742). Intrinsic satisfaction also has a positive and significant effect on organizational commitment, but its effect is at a lower level (Beta = 0.248). It is seen that the model is generally significant, and the variables have a very large explanatory power in organizational commitment ( $R^2 = 0.977$ ).

## 5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The results of this study revealed that employee satisfaction has a significant and strong effect on organizational commitment. As the internal satisfaction, external satisfaction and general satisfaction levels of employees increase, their organizational commitment also increases. General satisfaction stands out as the factor with the strongest effect on organizational commitment, while it was determined that internal satisfaction also positively affects the level of commitment.

In the study, the organizational commitment levels of employees were examined within the framework of the dimensions of emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. The emotional commitment of the employees shows that they exhibit a voluntary and affection-based commitment to the organization; their continuance commitment shows that they base their stay in the organization on economic and social factors; and their normative commitment shows that they feel a moral responsibility. However, it was determined that the commitment levels were generally low-medium.

The correlation analysis findings showed that satisfaction has a positive and strong relationship with organizational commitment and its sub-dimensions. It was determined that the organizational commitment of employees with high satisfaction levels increased significantly. In the regression analysis, general satisfaction stood out as the most effective variable on organizational commitment, and intrinsic satisfaction was also seen to have a significant contribution to commitment.

Increasing employee satisfaction levels is considered a critical strategy for strengthening organizational commitment. When organizations develop policies that support employee satisfaction, this will increase employee performance and long-term contributions to the organization by increasing commitment levels. In this context, considering factors such as the nature of the job, working conditions, fair compensation, and management support will be effective in increasing employee satisfaction and organizational commitment.

In line with the findings of this research, the following suggestions were developed to increase employee satisfaction and strengthen organizational commitment:

First, it is important to consider internal and external factors together in terms of employee satisfaction. To increase internal satisfaction, employees should be given more responsibility within the scope of their duties, the meaning of the job should be increased, and individual achievements should be appreciated. Education and career planning programs should be organized to support the professional development of employees, and continuity of development opportunities should be ensured. To strengthen external satisfaction, compensation and fringe benefits should be ensured to be fair and in line with market conditions; practices that support working conditions, job security and work-life balance should be implemented.

To ensure sustainability of overall satisfaction, employee satisfaction should be measured regularly, and improvement efforts should be made in line with the feedback obtained. Strengthening internal communication will ensure the creation of a participatory management culture that considers employee opinions and suggestions. Social events and teamwork-based activities can be organized to improve employees' social ties and team spirit.

In terms of organizational commitment, the three basic dimensions of commitment, namely emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment, should be targeted. To increase emotional commitment, practices that strengthen employees' sense of belonging to the organization should be implemented, and the organization's vision and values should be adopted by all employees. To strengthen continuance commitment, economic and social support mechanisms (e.g., seniority awards, retirement plans) should be offered to encourage employees to stay in the organization. For normative commitment, corporate social responsibility projects and ethical management practices should be developed to ensure that employees feel responsible and ethically committed to their organizations.

From a managerial perspective, the leadership approach needs to be transformed into an employee-focused and supportive structure. Managers should hold regular one-on-one meetings to understand the needs and expectations



of employees and activate feedback mechanisms. In addition, managers should be provided with training programs to develop employee motivation and leadership skills.

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## FACTORS AFFECTING OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH AND SAFETY AWARENESS

Halil İbrahim Kurt  
Akdeniz Karpaz University  
[halilkurt059555@gmail.com](mailto:halilkurt059555@gmail.com)

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Azmiye Yinal  
Akdeniz Karpaz University  
[azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr](mailto:azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr)

### ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study is to determine the factors affecting occupational health and safety awareness in workplaces in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. The research was conducted on 305 randomly selected participants in an explanatory descriptive survey type. In the study, participants' Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) awareness levels were evaluated on four sub-dimensions: general OHS awareness, occupational health education-communication, occupational health risk perception and total OHS scale. In the general occupational health awareness sub-dimension, the average OHS awareness level of the participants was measured as 51.59 points. It was determined that receiving OHS training had significant effects on general occupational health awareness and occupational health risk perception. When OHS awareness levels were analyzed according to marital status, no significant differences were found between married and single participants in general. However, it was determined that OHS awareness levels of single participants were higher than married participants under occupational health risk perception and total OHS scale. When OHS awareness levels were analyzed according to the sectors of employment, significant differences were found between the sectors in general. It was observed that participants working in the food sector obtained higher scores under general occupational health awareness, occupational health training-communication and total OHS scale than those working in other sectors. When OHS awareness levels were analyzed according to position, no significant differences were found between participants with different positions. Although participants who received OHS training had lower scores under general occupational health awareness, this difference was not significant. However, it was determined that participants who received OHS training obtained higher scores under occupational health risk perception.

**Key Words:** Occupational health, occupational safety, Awareness.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1. Problem Status

In today's business world, occupational health and safety issues are among the top priorities of both employees and employers. Understanding, preventing, and effectively managing potential risks in the workplace forms the basis of a healthy working environment. In this context, occupational health and safety awareness ensures that employees are conscious and sensitive about this issue, contributing to both protecting their individual health and creating a safer atmosphere in the workplace. This thesis aims to understand the effects of these factors on employees' safety behaviors by examining the factors affecting occupational health and safety awareness. These factors, which determine employees' compliance with safety standards in workplaces, are considered from a broad perspective and discuss how occupational safety culture is shaped and can be improved (Dalyan and Pişkin, 2020). Occupational health and safety awareness refers to an important concept for employees to recognize potential risks in the workplace, act consciously against these risks and comply with safety standards. In today's business world, dynamic changes in workplaces, technological advances and challenges in various sectors have made emphasizing occupational health and safety issues even more necessary. Occupational health and safety awareness enables employees to identify potential dangers they may encounter while performing their daily work and take protective measures against these dangers (Tüzer, 2012). By complying with workplace safety procedures, employees assume responsibility for protecting their own health and the safety of other employees in the workplace. This awareness also contributes to the creation of a safety culture in workplaces. Employees who adopt a conscious approach to occupational health and safety in the workplace can create a safer working environment together (Yanık, 2018). This creates an effective strategy to minimize occupational accidents and health problems in workplaces. Occupational health and safety awareness can be increased through various methods such as training programs, seminars, safety meetings and information campaigns. These events inform employees of safety standards, emergency procedures, and potential risks in the workplace. Regular training to create a conscious occupational safety culture constantly increases employees' safety awareness (Dalyan and Pişkin, 2020).

Occupational health and safety awareness is a fundamental element in ensuring that employees work safely, creating a healthier and safer environment in workplaces, and contributing to the sustainability of the business world in total. In the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC), occupational health and safety is becoming more important day by day. Dynamic changes in the business world, technological developments and globalization increase the potential risks that employees are exposed to, and this makes occupational health and safety issues

more critical. This thesis aims to understand the factors affecting occupational health and safety awareness in workplaces in TRNC and to examine the effects of these factors on employees' safety behaviors. Occupational health and safety not only protect the physical health of employees in a workplace, but also increases work efficiency by creating a sustainable working environment in workplaces. Awareness in this field in TRNC aims to prevent work accidents, reduce occupational diseases, and ensure that employees operate in a safe environment. (Yilmaz and Oktay, 2015).

### 1.2. Purpose and Importance of the Research

Occupational health and safety is of critical importance in protecting the lives of employees and providing a sustainable working environment in workplaces. The main purpose of this thesis is to determine the factors affecting occupational health and safety awareness in workplaces in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). This research will systematically analyze various factors affecting occupational health and safety awareness and examine in depth how these factors affect workplaces. The main purpose of the study is to determine these factors and contribute to the development of strategies to increase occupational health and safety awareness. The importance of the research highlights the potential effects of a safety culture in workplaces on not only protecting the health of employees but also improving business continuity and productivity. Increasing awareness of occupational health and safety contributes to preventing work accidents and occupational diseases, allowing the creation of a positive work environment for both employers and employees. It will inform decision makers about the development, updating and improvement of occupational health and safety policies in workplaces in TRNC and shed light on strategic planning in this field. This thesis aims to make a significant contribution to all stakeholders who aim to take steps to create safer and healthier workplaces at the local and global level in the field of occupational health and safety.

### 1.3. Hypotheses

The hypotheses of this research are as follows:

1. H<sub>1</sub>: There is a significant difference between OHS awareness level and marital status.
2. H<sub>1</sub>: There is a significant difference between the OHS awareness level and the sector in which one works.
3. H<sub>1</sub>: There is a significant difference between OHS awareness level and task.
4. H<sub>1</sub>: There is a significant difference between the OHS awareness level and the participants OHS training status.

### 1.4. Assumptions

research participants gave their answers to the scale questions sincerely.

### 1.5. Limitations

Research:

- With research participants,
- With the scale questions used in the research,
- It is limited to people working in TRNC.

### 1.6. Definitions

**Work health And Safety (OHS):** Work health And safety of employees works during they encountered potential dangers determination of risks evaluation And This to risks opposite protector measures receiving process including One It was discipline (Tüzer , 2012).

**Awareness:** Awareness is a person or groups around events , situations or information understanding And clutch status expression does ( Dalyan and Pişkin, 2020).

## 2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

### 2.1. Occupational Health and Safety Concept

Regulations on occupational health and safety create a system in which employers and employees bear joint responsibility. In this context, determining the measures to be implemented in the workplace, providing regular training to employees, creating occupational safety policies and effective implementation of these policies are prioritized (Yavuz and Gür, 2021). Occupational health and safety are to ensure the safety of employees, to prevent work accidents and occupations. It refers to an area that requires a multidisciplinary approach to prevent diseases and is regulated within the framework of Law No. 6331. Systematic and scientific studies in this field aim to ensure that both employers and employees have a healthy and safe working environment (Yanık, 2018).

Work health And Security policy, a OSH objectives of the business And their commitments indicating official One document. This policy is in place trustworthy One study environment to provide employees your health to protect and legal regulations rapport to ensure like general purposes Contains. Work health And Safety (OHS) Policy, a

OSH objectives of the business And their commitments determining, employees health And your security to protect aiming official One document. This policy applies to workplace trustworthy One study of the environment creation, business of accidents and job of diseases prevention, legal regulations rapport providing and general as OHS culture incentive to be like general purposes Contains. OHS Policy is the company's management of your team their commitments and responsibilities determines. These commitments ensure that employees health and your security to protect in the name of will be taken precautions, OHS training, risk management strategies and emergency plans \_ Contains. OHS Policy covers the OHS performance of the business. continually aspect to improve targets (Durdyev, Omarov and Ismail, 2017).

Policy document, employees OHS responsibilities about of consciousness increasing and this your responsibilities all levels understanding for important One is the tool. In addition, OHS targets determination, this to goals to reach for to be watched your strategies definition And This to strategies rapport to ensure in the name of organized out of sight of passing to be done like elements Contains. OHS Policy is the company's work arms, size and activity to the fields specific aspect is customized. This document complies with the company's OHS standards. your harmony provides, legal regulations your harmony recruitment to do and your employees your health and your security -most top level to protect in the name of strategic One document aspect is evaluated. OHS Policy, the company's OHS understanding and commitments and your goals emerge puter important One document. This policy is just legal One necessity being not left same in time of the business to sustainability and your employees to your well-being contribute found comprehensive an OSH strategy the basis creates (Ezer, 2019).

## 2.2. Education And Awareness

To employees work health and security on the subject's education giving, potential to the dangers opposite awareness raising and trustworthy study habits gaining. Work health and security training of employees at work potential dangers understanding, safe study methods to learn And This on the subject awareness to win providing critical One is the element. These trainings help businesses your employees your health and your security to protect in the name of they practiced measures effective One way to be transmitted and adoption targets. Education And awareness programs to employees work in place potential dangers identification, safe study applications adoption and urgent with situations start over emergence on the subject's information provides. Work health And security trainings Generally work at the beginning of a new on duty appointed employees for compulsory and is regular at intervals all to employees giving is important (Üzgeç , 2018).

These trainings during, at work used of equipment TRUE One way How chemicals to be used to substances exposure risks, fire, and emergency procedures \_ like topics hand is taken. Also, ergonomics topics, personal protector of equipment usage, security tags and work in place other security to the protocols aimed at information is also shared. Education And awareness programs, businesses legal regulations rapport to provide helper being well queue, employees work security culture to adopt And This culture work in place to spread supports. This is at work minimizing risks, preventing accidents and job their illnesses to prevent aimed at One strategy strengthens. Awareness, employees daily their duties in its place while bringing around them potential to risks opposite carefully to be provides. This job health and security of culture One Part of it being beyond passes, same in time your employees to each other support being, dangers to notify and trustworthy study habits to create incentive it does. Work health and security education and awareness programs, business in their places trustworthy study culture of creating basis stones. Your employees conscious and trustworthy One way their work to provide only legal regulations rapport by providing does not remain the same in time LONG futures sustainable One work health And security strategy of creating important One is part of (Güllüoğlu, 2019).

## 3. METHOD

### 3.1. Research Method

Research generally moves on to the application phases after establishing its theoretical foundations. Documentary foundations generally form the basis of a research. After this stage, data is collected using empirical methods based on observation, these data are processed, analyzed and a conclusion is tried to be reached with the analysis results. While past studies and documents are used to create the documentary side of the research, methods such as surveys and scales, which are observation-based data collection tools, constitute the empirical side of the research (Can, 2018). While examining past studies and documents forms the documentary basis of a research, observation methods carried out with tools such as surveys and scales constitute the empirical side of the research. Empirical research is generally scanner research, that is, research aimed at understanding the characteristics of the phenomenon under study. The analysis method of data collected in research may include qualitative and quantitative dimensions. Quantitative studies are studies in which data are processed numerically and analyzed using quantitative techniques. In such studies, the characteristics of variables can be revealed in different aspects, and the interactions and relationships between variables can be examined (Karataş, 2015).

This research started by explaining the research variables based on past studies, in accordance with documentary research criteria. Data collected by observational methods from a valid sample created from the population



representing the research variable were analyzed with quantitative methods. In this context, the research can be defined as a descriptive survey type, quantitative research of explanatory nature.

### 3.2. Population and Sample

In research, the population refers to all the elements or individuals within the scope of the study and from whom data is collected through observation or other methods. It often represents a large area that the researcher cannot fully examine. Researchers conduct their studies by creating a more accessible universe and taking enough samples from this universe (Can, 2018). The set of these samples is called the sample that represents the universe. It is important that the research sample is large enough to adequately represent the population and that the results obtained are generalizable. Sample items that will represent the universe can be selected by various methods. The most common is the simple random selection method, where each item has an equal chance and the probability of being included in the sample is left to chance. Samples should represent the universe with a margin of error of at most 5% within a 95% confidence interval (Sönmez and Alacapınar, 2018). The population of this study consists of individuals residing in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus and working in various sectors. 305 people selected by random selection method constitute the research sample. The survey forms distributed to the managers at the workplace were delivered to randomly selected units from each department by the managers. Participation in the research is voluntary and approval and consent were obtained from each participant.

### 3.3. Data Collection Tools

In the research, two separate data collection tools were used to determine the demographic characteristics of the participants and measure Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) awareness. These tools are primarily the survey form used to determine the demographic characteristics of the participants and secondarily the Occupational Health and Safety Culture Scale (Olcay, 2021). The survey form consists of 9 questions to measure the demographic characteristics of the participants such as age, gender, marital status, educational status, profession, and vocational training. These questions were used to better understand the participants' profiles and take them into account in the analysis. The Occupational Health and Safety Culture Scale consists of 19 items and 3 sub-dimensions in total. These sub-dimensions are general occupational safety awareness (12 questions), OHS training-communication (4 questions) and risk perception (3 questions). These sub-dimensions, determined because of the factor analysis of the scale, explain 49.74% of the total variance. To evaluate the reliability of the scale, alpha Cronbach coefficient was used. Alpha is 0.92 for the occupational safety awareness sub-dimension, 0.75 for OHS training-communication, and 0.66 for risk perception. Cronbach values show that the scale is quite reliable. Additionally, the overall reliability of the scale was calculated as 0.89. Calculations were made by taking the adverse items that constitute the risk perception sub-dimension into consideration in statistical analyses. These data emphasize that the research is based on a solid methodology and the scales used are reliable (Olcay, 2021).

The reliability analysis results of the scales used in this study are given in Table 1:

Table 1. Reliability Analysis

| Cronbach's Alpha | Article |
|------------------|---------|
| 0.801            | 19      |

Reliability analysis of the Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) awareness scale was evaluated using Cronbach's Alpha statistic. The obtained Cronbach's Alpha value was found to be 0.801. This value indicates that the internal consistency of the scale is high. In other words, it indicates that the items in the scale are measured in harmony with each other and that the scale is a reliable measurement tool. The 19 items in the OHS awareness scale were measured in harmony with each other and in a way that increased the reliability of the measurement. This shows that the scale is an effective tool in reliably assessing the participants' level of awareness about OHS.

### 3.4. Analysis of Data

In the research, data analysis was carried out using the SPSS 28 package program. Statistical methods such as descriptive statistics, t test and ANOVA test were used to analyze the data. The focus of the research is to consider the skewness and kurtosis values of the scales when choosing parametric tests. The fact that these values were between +2 and -2 supported the assumption that normal distribution conditions were met. Therefore, parametric tests were preferred in the research process and analyzes were built on this basis. These statistical methods were used to examine meaningful relationships and differences between different variables in the data set in accordance with the purpose of the research.

## 4. FINDINGS

### 4.1. Demographic features

Demographic variables of the participants are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Demographic Information

|                         |  | N   | %     |
|-------------------------|--|-----|-------|
| Gender                  | Woman  | 104 | 34.1  |
|                         | Male   | 201 | 65.9  |
| Age                     | 22-30 years old                              | 97  | 31.8  |
|                         | 31-40 years old                              | 107 | 35.1  |
|                         | 41-50 years old                              | 76  | 24.9  |
|                         | 51 and over                                  | 25  | 8.2   |
| marital status          | Married                                      | 164 | 53.8  |
|                         | Single                                       | 141 | 46.2  |
| Education               | Middle/High School                           | 74  | 24.3  |
|                         | Associate Degree (2-Year Faculty or College) | 116 | 38.0  |
|                         | Undergraduate (4-Year Faculty)               | 42  | 13.8  |
|                         | Master's/Ph.D.                               | 73  | 23.9  |
| Working sector          | Automotive                                   | 15  | 4.9   |
|                         | food   | 21  | 6.9   |
|                         | Industry                                     | 21  | 6.9   |
|                         | Service                                      | 160 | 52.5  |
|                         | Others                                       | 88  | 28.9  |
| Duty                    | Employee                                     | 104 | 34.1  |
|                         | Chef/Master                                  | 69  | 22.6  |
|                         | Officer                                      | 25  | 8.2   |
|                         | Manager/Manager                              | 37  | 12.1  |
|                         | Other  | 70  | 23.0  |
| Professional experience | less than 2 years                            | 36  | 11.8  |
|                         | 3-5 years                                    | 46  | 15.1  |
|                         | 6-10 years                                   | 95  | 31.1  |
|                         | 11-15 years                                  | 88  | 28.9  |
|                         | more than 16 years                           | 40  | 13.1  |
| Total                   |  | 305 | 100.0 |

When the gender distribution of the 305 people participating in the study is examined within the framework of their demographic characteristics, 65.9% of the participants are men and 34.1% are women. Distribution by age groups: 31.8% are between the ages of 22-30, 35.1% are between the ages of 31-40, 24.9% are between the ages of 41-50, and 8.2% are between the ages of 51 and 51. It is in the above age group. When examined in terms of marital status, 53.8% of the participants were determined to be married while 46.2% were single. Regarding education levels, 24.3% of the participants are secondary school/high school graduates, 38.0% are associate degree graduates, 13.8% are undergraduate graduates, and 23.9% are graduate/doctoral graduates. Distribution according to the sectors they work in 52.5% of the participants work in the service sector, 28.9% in other sectors, and 6.9% each in the automotive, food and industrial sectors. When examined by duty, 34.1% of the participants are workers, 22.6% are supervisors/masters, 12.1% are managers/managers, 8.2% are civil servants, and 23.0% are other duties. is performing. Finally, in the distribution according to professional experience, 11.8% have less than 2 years, 15.1% have 3-5 years, 31.1% have 6-10 years, 28.9% have 11-15 years, and 13.1% have more than 16 years of professional experience. In total, these demographic data reveal the profiles of the individuals participating in the study from various perspectives.

Table 3. OHS Information of Participants

|  | N | % |
|--|---|---|
|--|---|---|

|                                   |     |     |       |
|-----------------------------------|-----|-----|-------|
| Participants' ISG Training Status | Yes | 136 | 44.6  |
|                                   | No  | 169 | 55.4  |
| Work accident situation           | Yes | 82  | 26.9  |
|                                   | No  | 223 | 73.1  |
| Near Miss Experience              | Yes | 32  | 10.5  |
|                                   | No  | 273 | 89.5  |
| Total                             |     | 305 | 100.0 |

The OHS knowledge of the participants in the study was evaluated based on their OHS education level, work accident and near miss. When the participants are examined according to their OHS training, it is seen that 44.6% have received training and 55.4% have not received training. When the situation of experiencing a work accident is evaluated, 26.9% of the participants have experienced a work accident before, while 73.1% have not had a work accident. Additionally, when the near miss situation was examined, 10.5% of the participants experienced such a situation, while 89.5% did not experience such a near miss situation. In total, the OHS information of the 305 individuals participating in the study varied in terms of educational status, work accidents and near misses. These data show that the level of knowledge and experience on occupational health and safety issues is in a wide range.

#### 4.2. Descriptive Findings Regarding OHS Awareness

Table 4. Scale Descriptive Statistics

|   | Min.  | Max . | Cover.  | ss      |
|---|-------|-------|---------|---------|
| General occupational health awareness sub-dimension       | 41.00 | 58.00 | 51.5934 | 4.64800 |
| Occupational health education-communication sub-dimension | 12.00 | 19.00 | 16.6820 | 1.79010 |
| Occupational health risk perception sub-dimension         | 10.00 | 15.00 | 12.8328 | 1.04578 |
| OHS Scale total   | 70.00 | 92.00 | 81.1082 | 5.71857 |

Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) awareness levels of the individuals participating in the study were evaluated through four sub-dimensions: general OHS awareness, occupational health education-communication, occupational health risk perception and total OHS scale. In the general occupational health awareness sub-dimension, the average awareness level of the participants on OHS was measured as 51.59 points. While an average score of 16.68 was obtained in the occupational health education-communication sub-dimension, an average score of 12.83 points was determined in the occupational health risk perception sub-dimension. Under the total OHS scale, the average OHS awareness of the participants was calculated as 81.11 points. These values represent the quantitative data provided by the study to determine the participants' awareness levels on OHS and indicate a generally high OHS awareness.

#### 4.3. OHS Awareness Levels According to Demographic Information

Table 5. OHS Awareness Levels by Marital Status

|   |         | N   | mean    | Ss .    | f     | p.           |
|---|---------|-----|---------|---------|-------|--------------|
| General occupational health awareness sub-dimension       | Married | 164 | 51.6159 | 4.81867 | 3,320 | 0.069        |
|   | Single  | 141 | 51.5674 | 4.45823 |       |              |
| Occupational health education-communication sub-dimension | Married | 164 | 16.6768 | 1.84003 | 0.257 | 0.613        |
|   | Single  | 141 | 16.6879 | 1.73672 |       |              |
| Occupational health risk perception sub-dimension         | Married | 164 | 12.7683 | 0.98826 | 4,098 | <b>0.044</b> |
|   | Single  | 141 | 12.9078 | 1.10777 |       |              |



|                 |         |     |         |         |       |              |
|-----------------|---------|-----|---------|---------|-------|--------------|
| OHS Scale total | Married | 164 | 81.0610 | 6.01603 | 6,134 | <b>0.014</b> |
|                 | Single  | 141 | 81.1631 | 5.37271 |       |              |

p < 0.05

When Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) awareness levels were examined according to marital status, some significant differences were determined between married and single participants. In the general occupational health awareness sub-dimension, the average score of married participants was 51.62, while the average score of single participants was 51.57. However, this difference is not statistically significant (p=0.069). In the occupational health education-communication sub-dimension, no significant difference was determined between married and single participants. While the average score of married participants was 16.68, the average score of single participants was 16.69 (p = 0.613). A significant difference was determined between married and single participants in the occupational health risk perception sub-dimension. While the average score of married participants is 12.77, the average score of single participants is 12.91 (p = 0.044). In this case, it can be said that the occupational health risk perception levels of single participants are higher than married participants. Under the total OHS scale, a significant difference was determined between married and single participants. While the average score of married participants was 81.06, the average score of single participants was 81.16 (p=0.014). In this case, it can be said that single participants' OHS awareness levels are higher than married ones.

Table 6. OHS Awareness Levels by Sector of Work

|   |            | N   | Cover.  | Ss .    | f     | p.                                    |
|---|------------|-----|---------|---------|-------|---------------------------------------|
| General occupational health awareness sub-dimension       | Automotive | 15  | 52.6667 | 4.48277 | 2,928 | <b>0.021</b><br>Others > Food         |
|   | food       | 21  | 49.3333 | 4.38558 |       |                                       |
|   | Industry   | 21  | 52.4286 | 4.83292 |       |                                       |
|   | Service    | 160 | 51.1625 | 4.66337 |       |                                       |
|   | Others     | 88  | 52.5341 | 4.45913 |       |                                       |
| Occupational health education-communication sub-dimension | Automotive | 15  | 16.8000 | 1.93465 | 3,328 | <b>0.010</b><br>Others > Food         |
|   | food       | 21  | 15.7619 | 1.84132 |       |                                       |
|   | Industry   | 21  | 16.9524 | 1.62715 |       |                                       |
|   | Service    | 160 | 16.5125 | 1.84625 |       |                                       |
|   | Others     | 88  | 17.1250 | 1.58159 |       |                                       |
| Occupational health risk perception sub-dimension         | Automotive | 15  | 12.6000 | 1.18322 | 1,139 | 0.338                                 |
|   | food       | 21  | 13.0476 | 1.02353 |       |                                       |
|   | Industry   | 21  | 12.5238 | 0.87287 |       |                                       |
|   | Service    | 160 | 12.8063 | 1.04909 |       |                                       |
|   | Others     | 88  | 12.9432 | 1.05436 |       |                                       |
| OHS Scale total   | Automotive | 15  | 82.0667 | 5.06341 | 3,731 | <b>0.006</b><br>Others > Food-Service |
|   | food       | 21  | 78.1429 | 5.47983 |       |                                       |
|   | Industry   | 21  | 81.9048 | 6.16364 |       |                                       |
|   | Service    | 160 | 80.4813 | 5.65905 |       |                                       |
|   | Others     | 88  | 82.6023 | 5.52848 |       |                                       |

p < 0.05

When Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) awareness levels were examined according to the sectors worked, generally significant differences were determined between the sectors. In the general occupational health awareness sub-dimension, the average score of the participants working in the sector specified as others (52.67%) was found to be significantly higher than those working in the food sector (p = 0.021). In the occupational health education-communication sub-dimension, the average score of the participants working in the sector specified as others (16.80%) was found to be significantly higher than those working in the food sector (p = 0.010). In the occupational health risk perception sub-dimension, no significant difference was determined according to sectors. No significant difference could be detected in the occupational health risk perception sub-dimension between participants working in different sectors (p = 0.338). The average score (82.07%) of the participants working in the sector specified as others under the total OHS scale was found to be significantly higher than those working in the food and service sector (p = 0.006). These results show that the sector studied may be effective in some sub-dimensions in determining OHS awareness levels.

Table 7. OHS Awareness Levels by Task

|   |                 | N   | Cover.  | ss      | f     | p.    |
|---|-----------------|-----|---------|---------|-------|-------|
| General occupational health awareness sub-dimension       | Employee        | 104 | 52.1250 | 4.75759 | 1,090 | 0.362 |
|   | Chef/Master     | 69  | 51.8261 | 4.50476 |       |       |
|   | Officer         | 25  | 50.2400 | 4.23556 |       |       |
|   | Manager/Manager | 37  | 51.0541 | 4.81863 |       |       |
|   | Other           | 70  | 51.3429 | 4.65595 |       |       |
| Occupational health education-communication sub-dimension | Employee        | 104 | 16.7885 | 1.81511 | 1,224 | 0.301 |
|   | Chef/Master     | 69  | 16.8406 | 1.74578 |       |       |
|   | Officer         | 25  | 16.0800 | 1.73013 |       |       |
|   | Manager/Manager | 37  | 16.3784 | 1.86117 |       |       |
|   | Other           | 70  | 16.7429 | 1.76673 |       |       |
| Occupational health risk perception sub-dimension         | Employee        | 104 | 12.9038 | 0.99043 | 0.892 | 0.469 |
|   | Chef/Master     | 69  | 12.8841 | 1.07835 |       |       |
|   | Officer         | 25  | 12.4800 | 0.96264 |       |       |
|   | Manager/Manager | 37  | 12.7838 | 1.15795 |       |       |
|   | Other           | 70  | 12.8286 | 1.06283 |       |       |
| OHS Scale total   | Employee        | 104 | 81.8173 | 6.11502 | 1,785 | 0.132 |
|   | Chef/Master     | 69  | 81.5507 | 5.27351 |       |       |
|   | Officer         | 25  | 78.8000 | 4.73462 |       |       |
|   | Manager/Manager | 37  | 80.2162 | 5.69178 |       |       |
|   | Other           | 70  | 80.9143 | 5.72749 |       |       |

p > 0.05

When Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) awareness levels were examined by task, generally no significant differences were determined between participants with different duties. In the general occupational health awareness sub-dimension, the average scores of participants working as workers (52.13%), supervisors/masters (51.83%), civil servants (50.24%), managers/managers (51.05%) and other positions include: No significant difference was detected (p = 0.362). No significant difference was determined according to the task in the occupational health education-communication sub-dimension. No significant difference was detected between the average scores of workers (16.79%), chief/master (16.84%), officer (16.08%), manager/manager (16.38%) and participants working in other positions (p = 0.301). No significant difference was determined in the occupational health risk perception sub-dimension depending on the task. No significant difference was detected between the average scores of workers (12.90%), chief/master (12.88%), officer (12.48%), manager/manager (12.78%) and participants working in other positions (p = 0.469). Under the total OHS scale, no significant difference was determined depending on the task. No significant difference was detected between the average scores of workers (81.82%), chief/master (81.55%), officer (78.80%), manager/manager (80.22%) and participants working in other positions (p = 0.132). These results show that the task did not have a significant effect on determining OHS awareness levels.

Table 8. Awareness Levels of Participants According to OHS Training Receipt

|   |     | N   | Cover.  | ss      | f     | p.           |
|---|-----|-----|---------|---------|-------|--------------|
| General occupational health awareness sub-dimension | Yes | 136 | 51.1765 | 4.90937 | 4,304 | <b>0.039</b> |
|   | No  | 169 | 51.9290 | 4.41261 |       |              |
| Occupational health education-                      | Yes | 136 | 16.6765 | 1.89691 | 2,425 | 0.120        |

|   |     |     |         |         |       |              |
|---|-----|-----|---------|---------|-------|--------------|
| communication sub-dimension                       | No  | 169 | 16.6864 | 1.70500 |       |              |
| Occupational health risk perception sub-dimension | Yes | 136 | 12.9853 | 0.97362 |       |              |
|   | No  | 169 | 12.7101 | 1.08779 | 6,650 | <b>0.010</b> |
| OHS Scale total                                   | Yes | 136 | 80.8382 | 6.00767 |       |              |
|   | No  | 169 | 81.3254 | 5.48325 | 2,760 | 0.098        |

p < 0.05

When the OHS awareness levels of the participants were examined according to their Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) training status, some significant differences were determined between the participants who received and did not receive OHS training in general. In the general occupational health awareness sub-dimension, the average score of the participants who received OHS training (51.18%) was found to be significantly lower than the average score of the participants who did not receive OHS training (51.93%) ( $p=0.039$ ). In the occupational health education-communication sub-dimension, no significant difference was determined between participants who received OHS training and those who did not ( $p=0.120$ ). In the occupational health risk perception sub-dimension, the average score of the participants who received OHS training (12.99%) was found to be significantly higher than the average score of the participants who did not receive OHS training (12.71%) ( $p = 0.010$ ). Under the total OSH scale, the average score of the participants who received OHS training (80.84%) was found to be significantly lower than the average score of the participants who did not receive OHS training (81.33%) ( $p = 0.098$ ). These results show that the general occupational health awareness, occupational health risk perception and total OHS awareness levels of the participants who received OHS training were lower than those who did not receive training.

#### 4. Conclusion and Recommendations

In the study, participants Work health And Safety (OHS) awareness levels, general OHS awareness, business health education-communication, business health risk perception and total OSH scale to be about four subdimensions \_ over has been evaluated. General work health in the sub- dimension of awareness, participants' awareness of OHS awareness levels average 51.59 points aspect measured. OHS training receiving, general work health awareness and work health risk perception on significant effects is has been determined.

Civil to the situation According to OHS awareness levels When examined, married and single participants between general aspect significant Differences detection has not been done. However, work health risk perception and total OHS scale under single participants OHS awareness levels for married people according to higher is has been determined.

studied to sectors According to OHS awareness levels When examined, overall aspect sectors between significant Differences have been determined. food in the industry worker participants, other in sectors to employees according to general work health awareness, business health education-communication and total OHS scale under more high points get did has been observed.

to the task According to OHS awareness levels When examined, different to tasks owner participants between general aspect significant Differences detection has not been done. OHS training area participants general work health awareness under more low points to take Although, this difference is significant It is not. However, work health risk perception OHS training under area participants more high points get did has been determined.

Conclusion As, the study OHS awareness throughout levels high is however some demographic and process relating to factors These levels may affect has been observed. These findings, OSH training programs effectiveness and sectoral your differences into consideration receiving in terms of important tips offers. Research finally the following Suggestions has been prepared:

- OHS awareness increase for especially general work health awareness and work health risk perception under effective could be education programs should be edited. These programs provide participants with work health on the subjects information And skill to earn should focus.
- Married And single participants between general work health awareness under significant difference detection not done Even though he is married participants work health risk perception lower has come out. In this context, married participants work health risk perception to increase aimed at special programs can be improved.
- Sectoral Differences eyelash before considering, especially other in sectors to employees aimed at wide comprehensive OHS training programs should be edited. These programs provide the sector with specific risks and security precautions emphasizing participants awareness can increase.

- OHS training did not receive participants for special awareness campaigns should be edited And This to the participants aimed at advantages should be emphasized. In this way, OHS training getting benefits wider to the masses can be delivered.
- OSH policies in workplaces and practices, participants awareness to increase aimed at more effective One way should be edited. OHS culture to look like for incentive disturbing policies and daily applications It is important.
- Your employees different to tasks owner being, OHS training needs may affect. Therefore, workers , managers , chef / master \_ like different duty to groups aimed at customized OSH training modules should be created .

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# INTERACTIVE REFLECTION THROUGH UNDERSTANDING: WHY KNOWING YOUR STUDENTS IS KEY TO EXPERTISE IN TEACHING

Asst.Prof.Dr. Bahar Gün

School of Foreign Languages, İzmir University of Economics

[bahar.gun@ieu.edu.tr](mailto:bahar.gun@ieu.edu.tr)

## ABSTRACT

This study explores the concept of teacher expertise, focusing on the interactive reflection in which English language teachers engage in real time in their classrooms. An analysis was made of data collected from reflective conversations between three pairs of teachers, each pair made up of a lesser and a more experienced teacher. The study highlights the importance of a clear understanding of students as individuals as a key factor in effective teaching. The findings suggest that practical teacher deliberation and interactive decision-making play crucial roles in developing expertise in language instruction. Additionally, the study provides implications for both pre-service and in-service teacher education programs, providing support for current trends that emphasizes the need for reflective practices and student-centered approaches.

**Key Words:** teacher expertise, interactive reflection, knowing students, reflective conversations.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background

Evaluating teacher expertise through the traditional emphasis on teaching experience has long been a rather confused and even self-contradictory construct. As noted by Raduan and Na (2020), the definition of expertise encompasses a variety of components and remains somewhat obscure. Teaching expertise is associated with instructional effectiveness, as well as teacher cognition and behavior (Palmer et al., 2005). Additionally, it involves the need for well-integrated knowledge about teaching, flexibility, problem-solving strategies, respect for students, and a passion for teaching (Berliner, 2004; Raduan and Na, 2020). Enow and Goodwyn (2018) argue that the development of expertise includes both observable skills and tacit knowledge, particularly in the area of lesson planning, which is identified as a crucial component of expertise development.

Teacher expertise is closely linked to teachers' reflection-in-action behaviors, specifically the interactive decisions they make while teaching. Observing teachers in action and comparing their classroom delivery with their lesson plans can be rather revealing. Novice teachers (0 to 3 years of experience) and less experienced teachers (3 to 6 years) tend to adhere more strictly to their lesson plans, resulting in minimal differences between their pre-active and interactive decisions. In contrast, experienced teachers are more comfortable and confident in adjusting their lesson plans, having reached a state where they can easily reflect on the rationale for their classroom actions due to their long accumulated knowledge and experience (Gün, 2014).

An interesting aspect of the experience-versus-expertise dichotomy is that while teachers bring valuable knowledge and experience to their practice, much of this is unarticulated and even, unconscious. Thus, teachers engaging in reflective conversations with peers of varying experience levels can facilitate critical assessments of their own methods.

### 1.2 Purpose and Objectives

This research study investigates the concepts of teaching experience and expertise within the context of interactive reflection, emphasizing the role of reflective conversations among peers. The primary aim of the study is to explore how, during the execution of their planned lessons, English Language Teaching (ELT) teachers engage in practical deliberation and make improvised decisions.

Ultimately, the study seeks to provide significant implications for both pre-service and in-service teacher education programs, highlighting the critical importance of reflective practices for effective language instruction.

### 1.3 Research Questions

The study addresses the following two questions:

1. How do English Language Teaching (ELT) teachers with varying levels of experience make interactive decisions?
2. What is the impact of reflective conversations during peer feedback sessions?



## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1 Teacher Expertise and Experience

The relationship between teaching experience and expertise has been a significant focus of educational research. Studies indicate that while novice teachers often possess enthusiasm and innovative ideas, their effectiveness in implementing ideas tends to improve remarkably with experience. This is because, according to Darling-Hammond (2006), experienced teachers develop a deeper understanding of pedagogy, classroom management, and student needs, which enhances their instructional effectiveness.

Tsui (2009) sets expert teachers apart from their novice counterparts, shedding light on what makes them successful in the classroom. Tsui suggests that expert qualities are manifested in three dimensions:

- a) 'integration of knowledge', namely, combining their understanding of subject matter, pedagogy, and student needs to facilitate learning;
- b) 'contextual understanding', in the sense that they are able to relate their knowledge to specific environments, adapting their approaches to meet the unique demands of their classrooms, and
- c) 'reflective practice', which means they continuously assess and refine their methods based on their experiences of their teaching and the desired outcomes; and this leads to increasing effectiveness in their classrooms.

Research by Guarino et al. (2006) confirms that there is a positive correlation between teachers' experience and student achievement, particularly when the former engage in continuous professional development. They emphasize that expertise is not merely a product of time served but is particularly influenced by ongoing learning opportunities and reflective practices. Moreover, a meta-analysis by Hattie (2009) highlights that experienced teachers are more skillful in tailoring instruction to diverse learning styles and strategies, further supporting the link between experience and student learning. However, the growth in expertise is not uniform. Without structured professional development, experienced teachers' practices might stagnate, and this points to the need for sustained support. This indicates that experience, while important, should be complemented by opportunities for reflection and collaboration.

Expertise embodies not only knowledge developed through continuing professional development, including reflection and collaboration, but also skills and attitudes for application in practice (Eaude, 2014 in Lentillon-Kaestner, et al, 2023). Two core domains identified in teacher expertise are related to teacher-student relationships and teaching content, respectively (Lentillon-Kaestner, et al, 2023). The former encompasses pedagogical and interpersonal expertise; namely, supporting students' social, emotional, and moral development, and the latter, mainly subject-matter expertise.

Another key point to note regarding teacher expertise is that the working definition of the concept should depend on the specific context. Anderson (2023) defines teacher expertise as an "enacted amalgam of learnt, context-specific competencies" (p. 44), emphasizing the importance of local interpretations, rather than imposing external standards. This premise aligns with Tsui's (2009) 'contextual understanding' dimension of expert qualities.

In conclusion, the wide variety of definitions of teacher expertise suggests that it may be rather subjective, perhaps akin to 'beauty being in the eye of the beholder'.

### 2.2 Interactive Reflection and Teacher Deliberation

Many teachers, especially experienced ones, possess the ability of reflecting-in-action, referring to thinking about one's actions while performing them in the classroom. Reflection-in-action occurs when there is an emerging issue during teaching, and it requires immediate deliberation and action. This kind of knowing-in-action is usually tacit; and as Schön claims, "professionals 'know' more than they can articulate in language" (in Farrell, 2012, p.12)

Closely related to reflection-in-action behaviors of teachers to develop their expertise is the notion of interactive reflection, which is facilitated by collaborative dialogues among educators, and plays a crucial role in promoting teacher expertise. Research shows that when teachers engage in reflective practices, they can critically assess their teaching methods and make informed adjustments. Vescio et al. (2008) found that professional learning communities foster such interactions, leading to enhanced teaching practices and student learning. Studies by Stoll et al. (2012) demonstrate that interactive reflection has the potential to trigger transformative learning experiences. Teachers who participate in such discussions reported increased confidence and a greater willingness to implement more innovative teaching strategies by taking risks that they may not otherwise take.

Anderson (2023) views interactive reflection as a crucial component of expertise, and highlights that it is linked to the ability of teachers to make instantaneous, well-informed decisions while lessons are in progress, thereby facilitating a balance between maintaining lesson structure and improvised activity in their teaching practices. He describes it as 'reflection while teaching', which allows teachers to maintain their planned aims and intentions while being responsive to the specific and emerging needs of their learners. He emphasizes that expert teachers exhibit this ability to reflect

as lessons are in progress, adapting their practices based on the immediate context and learner responses, particularly unexpected ones.

Overall, the literature supports the assertion that interactive reflection and deliberation are essential components of teacher development.

### **2.3 Lesson Planning, Peer Observation and Reflective Conversations**

Effective lesson planning is essential in ELT, as in all fields of education. Lesson plans offer a structured approach that aligns teaching methods with learning outcomes, ultimately enhancing instructional efficiency. During lesson planning, ELT teachers make pre-active decisions, carefully evaluating and selecting appropriate teaching methods and materials. However, lesson planning changes according to experience, it evolves from being highly visible and structured for novices to a much more tacit and internalized process for those with expertise (Enow & Goodwyn, 2018). It is the lesson plan that provides a framework for the interactive decisions during the lesson (Nunan, 1992). The tacit aspects of teacher lesson planning play an essential role in gaining an understanding the complexities of expert teachers' practice and the underlying internal processes that direct their lesson planning (Enow & Goodwyn, 2018). However, the tacit aspects of the planning are more likely to become invisible as teachers gain experience.

An effective way to explore this often-invisible aspect of lesson planning is through peer observations, followed by feedback sessions. These sessions allow teachers to reflect on their spontaneous, in-the-moment decisions made during the observed lesson. Anderson (2023) emphasizes the value of reflective practice related to such observations for teacher professional development. He believes that reflective conversations enable teachers to assess their practices more critically, recognize areas for improvement, and benefit from peer insights, suggesting that this approach leads to deeper insights and thus allowing overall improvements in teaching. These conversations provide educators with opportunities to discuss not only their challenges, but also successes, fostering a deeper understanding of both the positive and negative factors that exist in their teaching contexts.

The peer feedback sessions conducted after the peer observations create an ideal platform for reflective conversations characterized by intentional dialogues focused on teaching practices. Teachers can enhance their reflective practices by engaging in a more personal style of theorizing (Lee, 2001), involving critically reflecting specifically on their own experiences and related to those, their strongly held beliefs. Those peer-to-peer discussions positively influence teacher efficacy as teachers who participate in reflective dialogues can gain improved problem-solving abilities and a greater openness to adjusting their commonly used teaching methods. This supports Desimone's (2009) views, which points out how this type of ongoing, collaborative professional development enhances teaching practices and, therefore, student performance.

Thus, it is seen that reflective conversations can encourage a growth mindset among educators. A study by Hattie and Timperley (2007) shows that constructive mutual feedback in these dialogues helps each teacher identify areas for their improvement, and thus foster a culture of continuous learning. Through reflective conversations, therefore, teachers not only advance their own practice, but, equally importantly, contribute to the collective growth of their professional community.

In conclusion, the literature illustrates that as teachers engage in reflective conversations, they not only refine their own practices, but also foster an open and collaborative learning environment that benefits all involved.

## **3. METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 Research Design**

This study used a qualitative research design to examine teacher expertise, aiming to gain an in-depth understanding of teachers' experiences and practices. Data collection involved examining peer classroom observations and the following feedback sessions, allowing for an extensive and contextualized exploration of the topic. Audio recordings of the peer feedback sessions were analyzed through thematic analysis, identifying, and categorizing recurring themes to shed light on teachers' real-time decision-making process. This in-depth approach allowed the researcher to capture the complexities and nuances of teachers' thought processes, which may not be fully conveyed through quantitative methods.

### **3.2 Participants**

The study was conducted at a private English-medium university in Türkiye, with participants drawn from the intensive English preparatory program. The participants were six Turkish nationals, one male and five female teachers of English with levels of experience ranging from 2 to 15 years. These teachers voluntarily agreed to participate in the study, motivated by the opportunity for professional development.

The teachers were paired by the researcher, ensuring that each pair contained one more and one less experienced. The three pairs, based on years of experience, were as follows:

1. Pair One: \***Cemre** (2 years of experience) and **Doruk** (14 years of experience)
2. Pair Two: **Oya** (7 years of experience) and **Sinem** (15 years of experience)
3. Pair Three: **Melis** (6 years of experience) and **Ebru** (14 years of experience)

\* *Pseudonyms have been assigned to maintain the anonymity of participant teachers.*

Prior to the study, the researcher held an informational meeting to explain the procedures involved in the peer observation and feedback sessions. All participants expressed enthusiasm seeing it as a valuable opportunity for their professional growth.

### 3.3 Data Collection

Six ELT teachers participated, each conducting two peer observations with their partner during the spring semester of the 2023–2024 academic year, so the data consisted of a total of six observations. After each observation, a peer-feedback session was held within a few days. Before the observations, the researcher provided all participants with a lesson procedure form (see Appendix) and requested that teachers share their lesson plans with their partner and the researcher. During the process, observing teachers were asked to reference the lesson plans, focusing on the planned lesson flow and actual classroom delivery. They were specifically asked to note any deviations, along with general observations about the lesson.

The researcher was present at each feedback discussion to observe and take notes regarding any interactive decisions, as well as teachers' reported gains from observing their peers. The researcher rarely intervened, only asking additional questions to clarify the scope and reasoning behind the interactive decisions. With participants' consent, all six feedback sessions were audio-recorded, forming the raw data set for the study.

### 3.4 Data Analysis

Thematic analysis is a widely used and effective method in qualitative research for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns within data. It is a valuable method because it combines flexibility with a systematic approach, providing a structured framework for data interpretation. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis provides a flexible yet rigorous approach to making sense of complex qualitative data, enabling researchers to organize and interpret data meaningfully.

Thematic analysis was the primary method used in this study. The analysis of the audio-recorded feedback sessions focused on: a) the reasons teachers deviated from their lesson plans, and b) how they benefited from peer feedback to enhance their teaching repertoire.

The analysis revealed common themes for the two focus areas: specifically, the teaching tips picked up from their peers during feedback discussions and the reasons behind teachers' real-time decisions to adjust their lesson plans.

## 4. FINDINGS

The thematic analysis revealed the following results regarding what the teachers learned from each other, and the reasons behind their interactive decisions:

### A. Learning from peers

All six teachers, who conducted two observations each with their designated peers, reported learning a range of useful teaching strategies from their partner, including the effective use of technology (e.g., Google apps, online dictionaries, use of pairing tools, Padlet) and interactive activities, such as quizzes and different ways of forming groups. During their observations, they also emphasized understanding the importance of pair work, effective monitoring, various elicitation techniques and asking instruction-check questions. Their conversations revealed a sense of mutual inspiration. For instance, in one feedback session, Sinem noted from observing Oya that she spent too much time on vocabulary instruction and from her, learned some more efficient strategies. In return, Oya mentioned adopting the 'ring circle' technique after seeing Sinem use it effectively in her classroom.

An additional noteworthy insight was that teachers not only acquired new teaching techniques but also gained a deeper understanding of rapport-building, emphasizing student-centeredness and engagement, managing classroom dynamics in varied ways, and interacting with students in a respectful and friendly manner. They observed the importance of energizing students, even if reluctant, using personalization to foster participation, and sparking curiosity by posing controversial questions to stimulate greater use of the target language. For example, Melis suggested that the small age gap between herself and her students positively contributed to building rapport. She mentioned that her students understood her teaching style and appreciated her sense of humor. The students felt able to make jokes in her classes as long as these were in English. Similarly, Cemre, with only two years of experience, was praised by Doruk for her remarkable rapport.



Overall, all agreed that the observations were highly beneficial for enhancing their teaching effectiveness by expanding their repertoires. Additionally, they expressed a willingness to continue peer observations beyond the scope of this study.

Regarding the relationship between experience and tacit knowledge, it was particularly interesting to observe the comments made by Cemre, who had two years of teaching experience, about Doruk, who had 14 years. During the feedback sessions conducted by these two, Cemre not only discussed her own interactive teaching decisions, but also compared her own teaching practices to those of her more experienced colleague. She expressed self-criticism about her perceived shortcomings, including time management, overuse of humor, excessive flexibility, and difficulty in making real-time decisions, such as whether to omit an activity. Cemre stated that she had learned a great deal from Doruk and anticipated learning much more from him in future observations. She expressed admiration for his expertise, which she attributed to his extensive experience. Notably, this level of self-understanding was greater than that observed in the other two pairs. This incident highlights the unique role that experience and tacit knowledge play in shaping a teacher's self-reflection and professional growth, providing a key example of a less experienced teacher's openness to learning from a more experienced colleague.

### **B. Reasons behind interactive decisions**

Data analysis revealed that all six participant teachers deviated from their lesson plans to some extent, with the most common involving changes in the time allocated for certain lesson stages and activities. During the feedback sessions, observers who noted these time-related deviations asked why certain activities overran, which was a frequent cause of the deviations.

The following reasons were identified as the most frequently occurring in the analyzed data:

#### **i. Prioritizing student production:**

Most teachers in the study made minor adjustments to their lesson plans, driven by a commitment to student engagement and language production. They noted that they aimed to maximize students' use of the target language—both written and spoken—and, to facilitate this, allowed students to incorporate personal interests, such as fandoms and favorite books or movies. Teachers felt this approach greatly improved classroom dynamics. For example, Cemre reflected on the lead-in stage, noting that it took longer than planned because her students were highly engaged. Similarly, both Oya and Sinem observed that some activities in their lessons extended beyond the planned time; however, they were comfortable with this as their students were actively producing both written and spoken target language. They felt this approach enhanced the lesson's effectiveness and enjoyment. They explained that they allowed activities to run because getting students to speak is not always easy, and when they are engaged, allowing them further practice is more valuable than adhering strictly to the schedule. Oya acknowledged feeling slightly guilty about deviating from the plan, as teachers are expected to follow the curriculum timeline, but recognized that flexibility can sometimes be more beneficial.

Overall, during feedback sessions, teachers reflected on the importance of adjusting lessons to allow for increased participation, even if deviating from the original plan.

#### **ii. Valuing student needs and well-being:**

Analysis of the feedback session recordings revealed a key reason for deviating from original lesson plans: the emphasis on fostering a supportive learning environment where students felt comfortable and engaged. The sessions underscored the importance of considering students' emotional well-being and connecting lesson topics to their lives. Teachers noted that they often adjusted their plans during lessons to build rapport, prioritizing a comfortable, stress-free environment. As a result, they were flexible with the time allocated for activities in the original plans. In one of the feedback sessions, Melis explained that she adjusted her timing to gather student feedback on the activities. She prioritized understanding her students' enjoyment of the activities and their feelings about them, believing that without enjoyment, students do not gain much from the lesson. She also mentioned that she often chose lighter-hearted activities for the later periods of the day, considering that her students might be tired. Similarly, Ebru shared her aim to make lessons more enjoyable when she sensed that the course book topics lacked interest. As an example, she designed a Barbie-themed lesson, which her students greatly appreciated. Another striking example is from Melis who stated that when she assigned group tasks in a competition format, she created categories like the "most fun", "most creative", "most interesting", etc. rather than simply choosing the best; thus, making as many as possible feel special and giving a sense of achievement.

These reflections demonstrate that the teachers were clearly attuned to their students' learning needs and adapted their lessons to make students feel comfortable and engaged.

### iii. Creating routines:

Another notable theme that emerged from the analysis of reflective conversations was the strategies teachers used to manage student behavior and expectations by establishing consistent classroom routines. Some teachers were willing to deviate from their lesson plans prioritizing the classroom routines that they believed their students both enjoyed and found beneficial. Among the examples of such routines are the following: starting the lessons with quotes or extracts from the students' favorite novels such as Harry Potter; using online dictionaries to check unknown words during tasks; implementing specific classroom management tools such as using a buzzer to end peer discussions; or allowing the students to use different note-taking strategies after teaching them.

In the teachers' reflective conversations, it was clear that these routines provided structure, promoted engagement, and ultimately, enhanced teaching effectiveness.

### iv. Addressing emerging needs:

Analysis of the reflective conversations during the feedback sessions revealed that teachers made spontaneous decisions based on the flow of the lesson and student responses. As lessons progressed, based on these responses some teachers recognized that students needed additional practice on specific language aspects. They viewed these moments as opportunities to cover content outside of their lesson plans. For instance, Sinem said she spent some extra time getting the students to practice a grammar point, namely, gerunds, which was not the target language the lesson had originally been planned for. Similarly, Oya said she made an instant decision to omit the planned 'using the internet to collect more data for the completion of a given task' part, considering that her students already had sufficient data.

By addressing these emerging language needs, the teachers demonstrated flexibility and responsiveness to classroom dynamics.

## 5. DISCUSSION

### 5.1 Interpretation of Findings

This study focuses on the factors influencing ELT instructors' interactive decisions and the role of peers' reflective dialogues and identifies two key findings:

- a) There exists, irrespective of level of experience, a strong correlation between teachers' reflection-in-action behaviors, which prioritize student-centered classroom instruction, and their depth of knowledge and understanding of their learners.
- b) Through engaging in reflective dialogues with peers, teachers enhance their reflective skills, which are critical for the development of teaching expertise.

Overall, the findings of the study highlight one clear conclusion: the importance of understanding students for improving the effectiveness of teaching. During the six feedback sessions after two rounds of peer observations per pair, it became evident that these teachers had developed a deep and individualized understanding of their students. They were familiar with their students' names, character traits, academic and language levels, personal challenges (mentioning aspects such as ADHD or stage fright), and even specific phobias. It was particularly interesting to note that teachers adapted their teaching methods depending on the group, tailoring their approach based on their knowledge of individuals. As reflected in their conversations, their classroom decisions were consistently informed by their strong relationships with students and their keen insights into each one's needs. Senior (2002) claims that "experienced language teachers are not behaving in a haphazard way; rather, their classroom behavior is governed by an intuitive understanding of certain key principles" (p.402). The teachers in this study, regardless of their experience level, exhibited, to various degrees, intuitive understanding of their students.

The teachers in this study could be effective as they possess, in Carr's (2007) terms, both moral character and practical wisdom. Carr defines moral character as exhibiting virtues such as honesty, courage, self-control and justice, all of which are essential for building strong, positive relationships and fostering a supportive learning environment. Practical wisdom, or *phronesis*, enables sound judgments in complex classroom situations, by interpreting diverse challenges and responding effectively to create optimal learning experiences.

These findings contribute to the ongoing debate surrounding the "experience-expertise" dichotomy, as they suggest that all the teachers in this study—except for Cemre, the novice teacher—could be regarded as expert practitioners to varying degrees, despite their differing years of experience in ELT. The underlying premise of these results seems to be that a clear understanding of one's students as individuals is the most crucial factor in creating effective learning environments and achieving teaching excellence. This insight aligns with the notion that expertise in teaching is not solely dependent on length of experience but is strongly influenced by the ability to create an optimal learning environment for students by gaining insights into their characters and preferences.

## 5.2 Implications for Teacher Education Programs

The findings of the study have several significant implications for both pre-service and in-service teacher education programs:

- 1- Teacher education programs should provide adequate opportunities for reflection and conscious deliberation. As noted by Borg (2003), structured reflection has been used by researchers as a means of investigating teachers' beliefs, cognitive processes, and decision-making practices. Teachers can also benefit from this approach; Tsui (2009) suggests that encouraging them to critically analyze their practices fosters the development of reflection, an essential skill for becoming expert educators. Research by Yost et al. and McMeniman et al. in Mann (2005) further emphasizes that the more reflective the teachers, the better their real-time decisions and adaptation to the changing needs of their students. Therefore, integrating reflective practices into teacher education programs is crucial for helping teachers improve decision-making skills and enhancing adaptability in the classroom.
- 2- Teacher education programs should prioritize assisting teachers in connecting their contextualized understanding of students with their more abstract knowledge of pedagogy and subject matter. This integration is crucial for fostering effective teaching practices.
- 3- Teacher education programs should be firmly grounded in the realities of teachers' classrooms. Context-specific training enables educators to address the unique learning opportunities and challenges in their individual teaching environments, thereby enhancing the program's relevance and effectiveness.

To sum up, this study highlights the significance of pedagogical knowledge, as opposed to mere subject content knowledge, by discussing the participant teachers' ability to adapt their lesson plans to align with learner needs and interest. As Nixon et al. (2013) emphasize, current pre-service teacher training programs, including certification courses, should shift the emphasis further towards developing pedagogical skills.

## 5.3 Recommendations for Future Research

This study simultaneously addresses several key concepts, such as lesson planning, reflective decision-making, peer observations and reflective conversations, all of which are essential for improving both teaching practices, and thus student learning. As highlighted by Enow and Goodwyn (2018), future research could examine the different ways in which English teachers share their lesson planning expertise according to stages of their careers and levels of experience. Additionally, future research should continue to explore the dynamic interplay between the factors of experience, reflection, and teacher learning, leading to potential advances in educational practices and professional growth.

## 6. CONCLUSION

This study aims to explore the concept and development of teacher expertise, with a particular focus on English language teachers' interactive reflection situated within their specific contexts. It also examines teacher learning and how it is impacted by reflective conversations between partner teachers with different experience levels.

By delving into the intricate nature of teaching, the study highlights the essential role of awareness of students as individuals in the development of teaching expertise. Knowing one's students in this way—considering their backgrounds, abilities, interests, and learning styles—empowers educators to tailor instructional strategies to meet diverse learning needs, foster meaningful student-teacher relationships, and create effective learning environments. Such a personalized approach not only enhances student engagement and thus, outcomes, but also promotes a more responsive teaching practice, a hallmark of true professional expertise.

Ultimately, teaching expertise extends beyond content mastery and length of experience, embracing the ability to adapt that content to the unique dynamics of each context. The art of teaching lies in this adaptability, which is nurtured through careful reflection, close collaboration, and a deeper understanding of students. This confirms that the notion of 'teacher expertise' is, in fact, largely subjective and context-dependent, akin to beauty in that it 'lies in the eye of the beholder'.

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**APPENDIX**  
**Lesson procedure form**

Name:

Level/Program:

Time:

Room:

| i. | Stage & Stage Aims | Procedure | Timing | Interaction Patterns |
|----|--------------------|-----------|--------|----------------------|
|    |                    |           |        |                      |

*Lesson Objective/s:*

*Anticipated problems and solutions: (e.g. Students' previous knowledge, setting up activities and organizing the room)*



## INVESTIGATION OF ARTICLE PUBLICATIONS ON LEADERSHIP STYLES BETWEEN 1993-2023 WITH CONTENT ANALYSIS

**Burak Demir Lecturer PhD,**  
University of Mediterranean Karpasia Institute of Social Sciences, Cyprus,  
[burak.demir@akun.edu.tr](mailto:burak.demir@akun.edu.tr)

**Tolga Öz,**  
University of Mediterranean Karpasia Faculty Of Aviation, Cyprus,  
[tolga.oz@akun.edu.tr](mailto:tolga.oz@akun.edu.tr)

**Azmiye Yinal**  
University of Mediterrenian Karpasia Faculty of Business Administration, Department of Business  
Administration  
[azmive.yinal@akun.edu.tr](mailto:azmive.yinal@akun.edu.tr)

**Mert Ömürlü**  
University of Mediterranean Karpasia Institute of Social Sciences, Cyprus,  
[mertomurlu144@gmail.com](mailto:mertomurlu144@gmail.com)

### ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research; The articles published on "Leadership Styles" between 01.01.1993 and 31.12.2023 were evaluated by content analysis of the publications. In this context, the second aim of the research is; The second purpose of the research is to determine the status of research on "Leadership Styles" in the literature, to reveal the deficiencies and to contribute to researchers who want to work in this field. Google Academy and DergiPark databases were used to achieve the goal of the research. In line with the criteria determined in the research, 60 article publications were included in the research. As a result of the analysis conducted in the research, the most articles on leadership styles in the last 30 years were published in 2022 (f = 11; 18.3%), the publications were mostly written in Turkish (f = 52; 86.7%), and although the publications were generally equally distributed in the journals, the most There were slightly more publications in journals such as İnönü University Faculty of Education Journal (f=4; 6. 6%) and Journal of Education in Theory and Practice (f=4; 6.6%), and the study areas of the article publications were mostly in the field of education (f=52; 86.7%). Quantitative (f=58; 96.7%) research method was used in almost all of the publications, survey models (f=43; 71.6%) were used in the majority of publications, and typical case sampling (f=16; 26.6%) was mostly preferred in article publications. , in the publications, mostly teachers (f=38; 63.2%) constitute the sample groups and the sample sizes mostly vary between 201-400 (f=22; 36.7%). In article publications, mostly survey/scale (f=58; It was concluded that data collection tool (96.7%) and SPSS (f=58; 97.7%) data analysis programs were used.

**Keywords:** Leadership, Leadership Styles, Article Publications, Content Analysis

### 1. INTRODUCTION

When we look at the historical context of the concept of leadership, it is seen as a developing and changing phenomenon that has not lost its importance for centuries. Leadership helps an organization adapt to its environment by eliminating ineffective patterns of behavior and replacing them with new ones. Some of these are; Leaders provide direction, support, guidance, and assistance in accomplishing the organization's mission. In short, leaders play a vital role in organizational effectiveness (Taylor et al., 2013; Oznacar et al., 2020), hence, organizations see leadership development as a source of advantage. Leadership styles are of great importance in terms of organizational and managerial effectiveness. Leadership is an important factor that directly affects the success and performance of an organization Different leadership styles can have different effects on employee motivation, collaboration, performance, and satisfaction. Leadership style has a positive impact on the performance, motivation, collaboration, productivity and creativity of employees in the company. In recent years, the concept of leadership style has developed rapidly in the field of organizational science and management. Considering the development of the international literature, it is important to establish general research directions on a specific topic for future research (Bicen, et al., 2022) It is thought that identifying these trends in this study will contribute to increasing research on related issues in the field of organization and management, especially in Turkey. Considering that the number of studies is increasing every year and the issue of leadership style is becoming increasingly important in organizations and boards of directors, it can be concluded that analytical research should be repeated frequently. In this study, there are content analysis studies conducted in the field of education on the subject of "Leadership Style" by examining national (domestic) documents, but this study has a comprehensive content that includes research and research in all areas of leadership styles. Studies on leadership

style in the last 30 years are not included in the literature. Therefore, we believe that this study will contribute to the literature. It is also important to support similar studies in the literature. In this context, the objectives of this study are as follows: Studies on leadership styles in Turkey from January 1, 1993 to December 31, 2023 were comprehensively evaluated using content analysis. In this context, the second purpose of the research is as follows: The second purpose of the research is to determine the current status of the research on leadership style in the literature, to identify the deficiencies and to contribute to the researchers who want to work in this field. In line with the purpose of the research, 11 criteria, including the year of publication of the articles, the language of publication, the journals in which they were published, the fields of study, methods, model/design, sample selection, sample groups, sample sizes, data collection tools and data analysis programs used, were discussed in the articles.

## 2. Conceptual Framework

### 2.1 Leader

The concept of leader is a concept that arises from the need to lead groups in society due to the coexistence of people (İbicioğlu et al., 2009; Ercan and Cattle, 2015). A leader is someone who has the ability to solve a variety of problems within an organization or between people (Mumford et al., 2000; Zaccaro et al., 2000), is the person who creates, manages, and sometimes changes the organizational culture (Schein, 2004). . Uniting people around a purpose. They collect information for themselves, and this information influences them according to their intrinsic motivations and personal characteristics (Dinçer and Bittiim, 2007). Another definition is leadership; It guides, enlightens, teaches, takes into account individual needs and desires (Yilmaz and Karahan, 2010), and thanks to my creative abilities, I can significantly change and influence people's thoughts. As can be understood from the definition, leaders play a very important role in achieving the goals and objectives of the organization. With the development of information and communication technology, the increase in competition and the increase in the human factor in the economy, the concept of leadership becomes more important. Leadership is a very important concept, especially in the 21st century, especially in the field of "management and behavioral science". In addition to the changes and developments that started in the world in the 20th century, it is one of the most studied issues (Telli et al., 2012). Leadership is the process by which the leader acts. When we look at the definitions of leadership, we see that there are basic elements such as determining the goals, objectives and results of the organization, influencing, motivating and directing those responsible. Leaders have a variety of sources of power to guide groups or individuals toward their goals. It can be considered under two headings. First of all, the power of the leader is the position power he receives from the company. "Power comes from position; This includes legal power, reward power, and coercive power. Legal power refers to the manager's ability to run the business and the formal power that comes with that position. The right to reward arises from the awards given by managers to their employees. These rewards also include promotions, recognitions, salary increases, and more. The opposite of reward power is coercive power: the manager can discipline the employee if he wants, and if the employee does not behave as expected, he can discipline or fire him. The strength of a leader is based on these qualities. Second, personal power comes from the personal characteristics of the leader. Personal power includes expertise and charismatic power. Expert strength is the power gained through the knowledge, experience, and skills of the leader. Charismatic power is power that stems from the personal characteristics of the leader and is independent of that person's legal status (Daft, 2010). In organizations where change and development take place rapidly; What is important is the leader's personal and professional attitude, as well as his leadership philosophy, leadership style and authority style (Töremen and Çankaya, 2008). The success of these organizations can be influenced by the behavior of their leaders. Leadership aims to mobilize employees to achieve organizational goals and help them achieve common goals and values (Demircioğlu, 2015). Otherwise, it may be difficult to achieve organizational goals and objectives with members of organizations who have nothing in common. Leadership is an important factor that contributes to business success and influences a company's organizational culture (McLaughlin and Porter, 2006). The organizational effectiveness of a company depends on the effectiveness of managers at different levels within the company (O'Reilly et al., 2010).

### 2.2. Leadership Traits

Leaders have a variety of traits, and these traits are supported by leadership literature and research. For example, Northouse (2016) suggests that it is important for leaders to have a vision. Leaders motivate and guide team members by setting goals for the future. It is also important for leaders to have communication skills. Good communication allows leaders to communicate their message clearly and communicate effectively with team members (Northouse, 2016). Leaders encourage team members and enable them to realize their potential. Motivational leadership enhances the performance of team members and plays an important role in achieving goals (Northouse, 2016). For effective leadership, it is important for leaders to have problem-solving skills. Leaders can analyze the challenges they face, develop alternative solutions, and choose the most appropriate solution. This is an important skill for solving team problems and achieving goals (Northouse, 2016). To achieve effective leadership, it is important for leaders to make effective decisions. . Managers analyze information, evaluate

different perspectives, and make result-oriented decisions. This is a crucial factor for collective success (Northouse, 2016). Finally, leaders who are able to communicate reliably, fairly, and effectively also have a positive impact on leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2013). Leaders gain the trust of their team members, increasing motivation and encouraging collaboration. In addition, they ensure the satisfaction and loyalty of team members with fair behavior (Dumanlı, 2022).

### 2.3. Leadership Styles

Leadership styles The leadership style or management method that a manager chooses has a significant impact on their effectiveness. Choosing the right leadership style and using the right motivational techniques will help you achieve your personal and professional goals. Leadership style can be expressed in three types: Autocratic leadership, democratic leadership, and laissez-faire leadership (Kandemir, 2022; Balchik, 2002; Shafakli, 2005).

#### 2.3.1. Autocratic Leadership

Autocratic leaders play an important role in making decisions and adopting a directive approach. These leaders guide team members and maintain control by clearly communicating expectations. This leadership style can be effective in crises or emergencies (Öncü, 2023). In autocratic leaders, all power is concentrated in the hands of the leader, and all decisions are usually made by the leader. In other words, subordinates do not have a say in setting goals, plans, and policies. Leaders want their orders to be obeyed and trusted unconditionally. In order for this type of leadership to be successful, the leader must have a strong, intelligent, respectful and loyal personality (Kandemir, 2022).

#### 2.3.2. Democratic Leadership

Democratic leaders encourage team members' participation and ideas. Advises team members on decision-making and ensures unity and cooperation within the team. This leadership style can encourage teamwork and innovation. (Yukl, 2010). In the neoclassical period, democratic and participatory leadership styles that emphasized interpersonal relations in management became popular. This type of leader not only uses his own skills, but also consults with his subordinates and trusts their opinions. Since the leader trusts his subordinates in everything, he encourages them to participate in planning, decision-making, and organizational activities. This style assumes that employees support the decisions in which they participate, thus increasing organizational effectiveness. Subordinates are proactive, take risks, and are comfortable communicating with colleagues in the same position. This type of leadership can lead to an environment that encourages collaboration, establishes more positive relationships between managers and employees, and promotes higher morale and inner satisfaction (Öncü, 2023; Kavas, 2022).

#### 2.3.3. Laissez-Faire Leader

Laissez-Faire leaders give great freedom and responsibility to their team members. They do not interfere with team members' ideas or performances, although they make their own decisions. This leadership style can encourage creativity and innovation, but it can hinder the achievement of organizational goals due to a lack of control (Northouse, 2018). Laissez-faire leadership refers to an approach in which there is no leadership or the leader does not interact with his followers. These leaders don't leave their rooms, they don't care about the needs and development of their followers, and they want things to stay that way. The laissez-faire leader takes no responsibility, delays decisions, does not provide feedback, and does not make an effort to meet the needs of his subordinates (Bass, 1990). A sleazy leader is a leader who gives unlimited freedom to employees. The presence or absence of the leader is almost imperceptible. The leader allows his subordinates to manage their own affairs and does not enter into any transactions or agreements with them. This is especially evident in managers who do not have leadership skills (Kavas, 2022). These leaders are particularly careful when making decisions (Kandemir, 2022).

### 2.4. Factors Influencing the Choice of Leadership Style

People in leadership positions must take environmental conditions into account when distributing power and working within organizational structures. Therefore, there are some factors that influence the choice of autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire leadership style.

#### 2.4.1. Factors Influencing Autocratic Leadership Style Choice

Autocratic leaders are considered business-oriented and use the power they have to influence and manipulate their subordinates. This style is often found in organizations dominated by bureaucratic power, such as the military. This style is often consistent with the expectations of group members in autocratic, bureaucratic societies and creates confidence in the independent actions of the leader (HR). These are the main factors influencing the choice of autocratic leadership style. This leadership style can be useful in situations where quick decisions need to be made or untrained and unmotivated employees need to be mobilized at short notice, especially under pressure, power, and fear. In addition, with this type of leadership, the decision-making process is accelerated and the loss



of time is minimized. Therefore, these two factors, such as quick decision-making and the fact that poorly educated or unmotivated employees act under pressure and fear, positively affect the choice of autocratic leadership style. However, this is harmful because autocratic leaders are overly selfish and do not pay enough attention to the beliefs and feelings of their subordinates, leading to feelings of dissatisfaction among employees. Feelings of dissatisfaction will increase hatred towards management within the organization, low morale and conflict within the group, causing over time the leader's influence over the group to decrease. Therefore, two factors, such as the excessive selfishness of the autocratic leader and his disregard for the beliefs and feelings of his subordinates, negatively affect the choice of autocratic leadership style (Şafaklı, 2005; Buluc, 2003).

#### **2.4.2. Factors Influencing the Choice of Democratic Leadership Style**

Democratic leaders are often more group-oriented and give their subordinates more freedom to use power and spread their ideas. It is possible to see this type of leadership style in democratic and people-centered organizations. With the participation of democratic leadership style team members in the decision-making process, decisions are made more effectively and healthily, members whose opinions are valued are satisfied with their jobs and therefore more productive. You can learn what a democratic leadership style can do to keep employee morale high. In addition, this leadership style is thought to be ideal in cases where the manager is indecisive in the decision-making phase and needs to get advice and guidance from the employees (Buluç, 2003; Goleman, 2000). Therefore, these factors are positive factors that influence the choice of democratic leadership style. However, the disadvantages that affect the choice of democratic leadership style are: The decision-making process takes longer and the system slows down because too many people are involved in the decision-making process. This leadership style sometimes fails when it comes to making decisions in emergencies. Sometimes it is impossible to decide. In addition, there is no point in using this method if the employee's productivity is much lower than that of the manager. Therefore, these factors are also negative and affect the choice of democratic leadership style (Şafaklı, 2005).

#### **2.4.3. Factors Influencing the Choice of Laissez-Faire Leadership Style**

In the Laissez-Faire leadership style, the leader does not often use his strength. This leadership style is beneficial because team members set their own goals, plans, and policies, independently make and execute implementation decisions, and mobilize the will and actions of other members. In addition, this type of leadership style can be used in situations that require specialized knowledge, in the work of scientists, in the research and development departments of organizations, and in cases where people are aware of their responsibilities and do not escape their responsibilities (Şafaklı, 2005). Therefore, it can be said that these factors are positive factors that affect the choice of leadership style based on freedom (laissez-faire). However, a leadership style based on freedom eliminates the leader's ability to use force and thus deprives the group of the ability to achieve common goals and direct the group to specific goals. From this point on, chaos can ensue in the group. It is also clear that this type of leadership model emerges in groups with a low level of education, in people who do not have a good sense of division of labor and responsibility. Therefore, it can be said that some factors also reveal the disadvantages that affect the choice of laissez-faire leadership style.

### **2.5. The Impact of Leadership Style on the Organization**

Leadership is an important factor that determines the success and effectiveness of an organization. A manager's leadership style can influence employee motivation, performance, and satisfaction, as well as the culture of the organization. For this reason, it is extremely important to investigate the influence of leadership style on the organization. One of the factors that determine a leader's leadership style is their personality and natural tendencies. Other factors that determine managers' leadership approaches include organizational culture, goals, leadership experience, and leadership roles. Leadership styles are often divided into categories such as autocratic leadership, democratic leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. In the autocratic leadership style, the leader becomes the sole authority in decision-making. This leadership style allows for quick decision-making and maintaining the chain of command in organizations. However, this leadership style can have a negative impact on employee motivation and engagement. Research shows that autocratic leadership style can damage employee morale and affect their performance (Güler, 2012). In a democratic leadership style, managers encourage employee participation and are interested in their ideas. This leadership style can increase employee motivation and foster a collaborative culture. Democratic leaders value diversity within the group and allow for different ideas to be shared and evaluated. This increases the potential for innovation and creativity (Avolio et al., 2009). In the laissez-faire leadership style, the leader delegates responsibility to employees and does not give instructions. This leadership style can give employees freedom and creativity. However, if this leadership style is not followed carefully, organizational effectiveness and coordination can suffer. Research shows that a libertarian leadership style can demotivate employees and hinder decision-making within the organization (Bass, 1990). The impact of leadership style on an organization can determine the success of the organization by affecting the motivation, performance, and satisfaction of employees. Each leadership style has different effects on organizations and the organization. Autocratic leadership is effective in achieving certain goals. These leaders can speed up decision-making and

optimize every resource. However, this can limit group participation and lead to a lack of motivation among members (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Democratic leadership encourages employee participation and can increase motivation because it involves team members in the decision-making process. This style allows team members to share ideas and collaborate. However, this can prolong the decision-making process in leadership style and lead to conflicts (Yukl, 2010). The laissez-faire leadership style encourages creativity by giving team members freedom. However, this leadership style can lead to poor performance due to a lack of control and deterioration of group cohesion (Bass and Riggio, 2006).

The result is that leadership can have different effects on organizations that use different styles. Autocratic leadership can be effective in achieving goals quickly, but it can hinder team participation. Democratic leadership can increase motivation and encourage teamwork, but it can also prolong the decision-making process. Laissez-faire leadership can encourage creativity, but it can lead to a decrease in performance due to a lack of control. Therefore, leaders need to use different leadership styles for different situations.

### 3. METHOD

#### 3.1. Purpose of the Research

The aim of this research; Between 01.01.1993 and 31.12.2023, studies on leadership styles in Turkey were comprehensively evaluated with content analysis. In this context, the second purpose of the research; The second aim of the research is to determine the status of the researches on "Leadership Styles" in the literature, to reveal the deficiencies and to contribute to the researchers who want to work in this field.

#### 3.2. Research Design

In this study, content analysis was preferred because it aims to examine the article research on leadership styles in more depth and to determine current trends. Although content analysis is a widely used technique in the social sciences, it is also widely used in education (Danju et al., 2020; Almighty. Al, 2021). "Content analysis is defined as a systematic and reproducible technique in which specific words in a text are grouped into smaller content categories with coding based on specific principles" (Büyüköztürk et al., 2016). Since the data summarized and interpreted in descriptive data analysis go through a deeper content analysis process, content analysis can reveal concepts, meanings and themes that cannot be detected with a descriptive approach (Selçuk et al., 2014).

#### 3.3. Universe and Sample of the Research

In order to achieve the research objectives, article publications on leadership styles between 01.01.1993 and 31.12.2023 were examined.

In order to determine which research to include in the study, journals that published articles on leadership styles in Google Academy and DergiPark databases were examined. The main criterion when screening is that the studies were carried out between 01.01.1993 and 31.12.2023. In the analyzes; The main criterion taken into account is studies on leadership styles. As a result of the analysis, a total of 64 articles were obtained for research. However, when the studies are examined in detail; 3 articles did not meet the criteria and related articles were excluded from review. As a result of the research, a total of 60 articles were examined.

Purposive sampling, which is one of the non-probability sampling methods, was used to achieve the goals of the research.

Some criteria regarding the selection criteria for the selection of publications suitable for the purpose of the research are given in Table-1.

**Table-1 Publication Selection Criteria**

| Selection Categories | Criteria of choice  |
|----------------------|---|
| Database             | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Google Academy (National Thesis Center)</li> <li>DergiPark Database</li> </ul>   |
| Screening Criteria   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>It includes the subject of "Leadership Styles",</li> <li>Having an article publication,</li> <li>Published between 01.01.1993 and 31.12.2023</li> <li>The publication language is Turkish and English,</li> <li>The article has been published in any journal</li> </ul> |

As a result of the selection criteria determined in Table 1, it consists of a total of 60 publications that are suitable for the purpose of the research.

#### 3.4. Analysis of Research Data

In this study, the article publications prepared on "Leadership Styles" were evaluated by content analysis method. Leadership style articles published in Google Academy and DergiPark between 1993-2023 were analyzed in 11 categories. Content analysis method; The main reason why it is preferred is that content analysis helps to organize and explain similar data in a way that the reader can understand by expressing them with certain concepts (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2006). Although content analysis is a widely used technique in the social sciences, it is also widely used in education. "Content analysis is defined as a systematic and reproducible technique in which specific words in a text are grouped into smaller content categories with coding based on specific principles" (Büyüköztürk et al., 2016). Since the data summarized and interpreted in descriptive data analysis go through a deeper content analysis process, content analysis can reveal concepts, meanings and themes that cannot be detected with a descriptive approach (Selçuk et al., 2014).

Article publications examined within the scope of content analysis; 11 categorical variables were examined: distribution by year, publication language distribution, distribution of publications according to journals, study areas, methods, model/design, sample selection, sample groups, sample sizes, data collection tools and data analysis programs. The data obtained during the research process are summarized in summary tables. In this context, the distribution of each indicator examined in terms of frequency and percentage is given.

### 3.5. Limitations of the Research

- Limitations of the research; It is limited to broadcasts made between 01.01.1993 and 31.12.2023.
- It is limited to article publications made within the borders of Turkey.
- It is limited to the subject of leadership styles.
- It is limited to Google Academy and DergiPark databases.

## 4.FINDINGS

In this part of the research, the data on the distribution of 11 criteria, including the year of publication of the articles, the language of publication, the journals in which they were published, the fields of study, methods, model/design, sample selection, sample groups, sample sizes, data collection tools and data analysis programs used, are included.

### 4.1. Findings Regarding the Distribution of Article Publications Included in the Research by Years

The results of the analysis regarding the distribution of the article publications included in the study between 1993-2023 are shown in Table 2.

**Table-2 Distribution of Article Publications by Years**

| Year of Release | Research Publication Type | Frequency (F) | Percent (%)   |
|-----------------|---------------------------|---------------|---------------|
| 2023            | Research Article          | 5             | % 8.3         |
| <b>2022</b>     | <b>Research Article</b>   | <b>11</b>     | <b>% 18.3</b> |
| 2021            | Research Article          | 3             | % 5.0         |
| 2020            | Research Article          | 1             | % 1.7         |
| <b>2019</b>     | <b>Research Article</b>   | <b>6</b>      | <b>% 10.0</b> |
| 2018            | Research Article          | 4             | % 6.6         |
| <b>2017</b>     | <b>Research Article</b>   | <b>6</b>      | <b>% 10.0</b> |
| <b>2016</b>     | <b>Research Article</b>   | <b>7</b>      | <b>% 11.6</b> |
| 2015            | Research Article          | 3             | %5.0          |
| 2014            | Research Article          | 2             | % 3.3         |
| 2013            | Research Article          | 1             | % 1.7         |
| 2012            | Research Article          | 3             | % 5.0         |

|            |                  |           |              |
|------------|------------------|-----------|--------------|
| 2011       | Research Article | 2         | % 3.3        |
| 2010       | Research Article | 1         | % 1.7        |
| 2009       | Research Article | 1         | %1.7         |
| 2008       | Research Article | 1         | % 1.7        |
| 2007       | Research Article | 1         | % 1.7        |
| 2006       | Research Article | 1         | % 1.7        |
| 2005       | Research Article | 1         | % 1.7        |
| 2004       | Research Article | -         | -            |
| 2003       | Research Article | -         | -            |
| 1993-2002  | Research Article | -         | -            |
| <b>Sum</b> | -                | <b>60</b> | <b>% 100</b> |

As can be seen in Table 2, the articles on "Leadership Styles" between 1993-2023 and examined within the scope of the research were mostly made in 2022 (f=11; 18.3%) and followed by 2016 (f=7; 11.6), 2019 (f=6; 10.0%) and 2017 (f=6; 10.0%), respectively.

When Table 2 is examined, when dividing the years 1993-2023 into three periods, the average percentage of the first decade (1993-2002) is 0.00%, while the average percentage of the second decade (2003-2013) is 2.02% and the average of the last decade (2014-2023) is 7.98%. In the light of the data obtained in Table 2, it is seen that leadership styles are perceived and taken into account as a basic element in the functioning of organizations as the years progress. Between 1993 and 2023, a total of 60 articles were published on "Leadership Styles".

#### 4.2. Findings on the Publication Language Distribution of the Article Publications Included in the Research

The results of the analysis regarding the publication language distribution of the article publications included in the study are shown in Table 3.

**Table-3 Distribution of Article Publications**

| Publication Language | Article       |               |
|----------------------|---------------|---------------|
|                      | Frequency (F) | Percent (%)   |
| <b>Turkish</b>       | <b>52</b>     | <b>% 86.7</b> |
| English              | 8             | % 13.3        |
| <b>Sum</b>           | <b>60</b>     | <b>% 100</b>  |

As can be seen in Table 3, the vast majority of the articles on "Leadership Styles" between 1993-2023 and examined within the scope of the research were written in Turkish (f=52; 86.7%). It was observed that the number of articles published in English (f=8; 13.3%) was less preferred.

#### 4.3. Findings Regarding the Journals in which the Article Publications Included in the Research Were Published

The results of the analysis of the articles included in the study regarding the journals in which they were published are shown in Table 4.

**Table-4 Distribution of Article Publications by Journals**

| Published in Journals   | Article       |                 |
|---|---------------|-----------------|
|   | Frequency (F) | Percent age (%) |
| <b>Journal of Abant İzzet Baysal University</b>                                 | <b>2</b>      | <b>% 3.3</b>    |
| Mediterranean Journal of Economics and Administrative Sciences                  | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Asian Studies: Academic Social Studies  | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Batman University Journal of Life Sciences                                      | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Cumhuriyet University Journal of Economics and Administrative Sciences          | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Cumhuriyet International Journal of Education                                   | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Journal of Contemporary Management Sciences                                     | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Çukurova University, Journal of the Faculty of Engineering and Architecture     | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Cumhuriyet International Journal of Education                                   | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Journal of Dogus University   | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Journal of Educational Theory and Practice Research                             | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Journal of Education and Society Research                                       | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Journal of Education and Humanities = Theory and Practice                       | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Research Journal of Educational Sciences  | 1             | % 1.7           |
| E- Caucasian Journal of Education Research                                      | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Electronic Journal of Social Sciences   | 3             | % 5.0           |
| Eurasian Journal of Educational Research  | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Gazi University Journal of Gazi Faculty of Education                            | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Hasan Ali Yücel Journal of Education Faculty (HAYEF Journal of Education)       | 1             | % 1.7           |
| Hacettepe University Journal of Education Faculty                               | 1             | % 1.7           |
| International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Management Inquiries              | 1             | % 1.7           |
| <b>İnönü University Journal of Education Faculty</b>                            | <b>4</b>      | <b>% 6.6</b>    |
| Journal of Business and Trade   | 1             | % 1.7           |
| <b>Black Sea Journal of Social Sciences</b>                                     | <b>2</b>      | <b>% 3.3</b>    |
| <b>Journal of Educational Administration in Theory and Practice</b>             | <b>4</b>      | <b>% 6.6</b>    |
| Kastomonu Education Journal   | 1             | %1.7            |
| Marmara University Atatürk Faculty of Education Journal of Educational Sciences | 1             | %1.7            |

|  |           |              |
|--|-----------|--------------|
| <b>Journal of National Education</b>                             | <b>2</b>  | <b>% 3.3</b> |
| <b>Mehmet Akif Ersoy University Journal of Education Faculty</b> | <b>2</b>  | <b>% 3.3</b> |
| Mustafa Kemal University Journal of Education Faculty            | 1         | % 1.7        |
| Journal of Mustafa Kemal University Institute of Social Sciences | 1         | % 1.7        |
| Ondokuz Mayıs University Journal of Education Faculty            | 1         | % 1.7        |
| <b>OPUS International Journal of Society Studies</b>             | <b>2</b>  | <b>% 3.3</b> |
| Journal of Selcuk University Institute of Social Sciences        | 1         | % 1.7        |
| SPORMETRE Journal of Physical Education and Sport Sciences       | 1         | % 1.7        |
| Talim: Journal of Education In Muslim Societies and Communities  | 1         | % 1.7        |
| Journal of Basic Education                                       | 1         | % 1.7        |
| <b>Turkish Journal of Educational Studies</b>                    | <b>2</b>  | <b>% 3.3</b> |
| Trakya University Journal of Social Sciences                     | 1         | % 1.7        |
| <b>International Journal of Educational Research</b>             | <b>2</b>  | <b>% 3.3</b> |
| International Turkish Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology   | 1         | % 1.7        |
| International Journal of Health Management and Strategies        | 1         | % 1.7        |
| Journal of International Method Academy                          | 1         | % 1.7        |
| Uşak University Journal of Social Sciences                       | 1         | % 1.7        |
| Van Yüzüncü Yıl University Journal of Education Faculty          | 1         | % 1.7        |
| <b>Sum</b>   | <b>60</b> | <b>% 100</b> |

As can be seen in Table 4, in the article publications on "Leadership Styles" between 1993-2023 and examined within the scope of the research, mostly İnönü University Journal of Education Faculty of Education (f=4; % 6.6), Journal of Education in Theory and Practice (f=4; % 6.6), Journal of Abant İzzet Baysal University (f=2; % 3.3), Journal of National Education (f=2; % 3.3), Mehmet Akif Ersoy Faculty of Education (f=2; % 3.3), OPUS International Journal of Society Studies (f=2; 3.3%), Black Sea Journal of Social Sciences (f=2; 3.3%), Turkish Journal of Educational Studies (f=2; 3.3%) and International Journal of Education Research (f=2; 3.3%). It was determined that the articles on "Leadership Styles" between 1993-2023 and examined within the scope of the research were published in 45 different journals.

#### 4.4. Findings Regarding the Study Area of the Article Publications Included in the Research

The results of the analysis of the article publications included in the study are shown in Table 5.

**Table-5 Distribution of Article Publications by Study Fields**

| Workspace            | Article       |               |
|----------------------|---------------|---------------|
|                      | Frequency (F) | Percent (%)   |
| <b>Training Area</b> | <b>52</b>     | <b>% 86.7</b> |
| Healthcare Area      | 2             | % 3.3         |



|  |           |              |
|--|-----------|--------------|
| Sports Field                                 | 2         | % 3.3        |
| Banking Area                                 | 1         | % 1.7        |
| Public and Private Sector Area/<br>Charities | 2         | % 3.3        |
| Construction and Architecture Area           | 1         | % 1.7        |
| <b>Sum</b>                                   | <b>60</b> | <b>% 100</b> |

As can be seen in Table 5, in the article publications on "Leadership Styles" between 1993-2023 and examined within the scope of the research, the fields of study mostly consist of study areas such as education (f=52; 86.7%), health field (f=2; 3.3%), sports field (f=2; 3.3%), public and private sector field/charity organizations (f=2; 3.3%).

#### 4.5. Findings on the Management of Article Publications Included in the Research

The results of the analysis regarding the method of the article publications included in the study are shown in Table 6.

**Table-6 Distribution of Article Publications According to Methods**

| Method              | Article          |                |
|---------------------|------------------|----------------|
|                     | Frequency<br>(F) | Percent<br>(%) |
| <b>Quantitative</b> | <b>58</b>        | <b>% 96.7</b>  |
| Qualitative         | 2                | % 3.3          |
| Hash                | -                | -              |
| <b>Sum</b>          | <b>60</b>        | <b>% 100</b>   |

As can be seen in Table 6, the majority of the article publications on "Leadership Styles" between 1993-2023 and examined within the scope of the research are quantitative (f=58; 96.7%) research method. Qualitative (f=2; 3.3%) research method was used sparingly. Mixed research methods were not used.

#### 4.6. Findings Regarding the Model/Pattern Selection of the Article Publications Included in the Research

The results of the analysis of the article publications included in the study regarding the model/pattern selection are shown in Table 7.

**Table-7 Model/Pattern Distribution of Article Publications**

| Model/Pattern   | Article          |                |
|---|------------------|----------------|
|   | Frequency<br>(F) | Percent<br>(%) |
| <b>Survey Models (Relational/General/Cross-sectional/Descriptive)</b> | <b>43</b>        | <b>% 71.6</b>  |
| Correlation Research Model  | 1                | % 1.7          |
| Phenomenology Research Model  | 1                | % 1.7          |
| Case Study Model  | 1                | % 1.7          |
| Studies Without Model Specification                                   | 14               | % 23.3         |
| <b>Sum</b>  | <b>60</b>        | <b>% 100</b>   |

As can be seen in Table 7, quantitative (f=58; 96.7%) survey models (f=43; 71.6%) were used in the majority

of the article publications on "Leadership Styles" between 1993-2023 and examined within the scope of the research. Correlation research model ( $f=1$ ; 1.7%), Phenomenology research model ( $f=1$ ; 1.7%) and case study model ( $f=1$ ; 1.7%) were less preferred. The proportion of studies whose models were not specified was ( $f=14$ ; 23.3%). Between 1993 and 2023, it was observed that 4 different research models were used in the articles examined on "Leadership Styles".

#### 4.7. Findings Regarding the Sample Selection of the Article Publications Included in the Research

The results of the analysis of the article publications included in the study regarding the sample selection are shown in Table 8.

**Table-8 Distribution of Article Publications According to Sample Selection**

| Sample  | Article       |              |
|---|---------------|--------------|
|   | Frequency (F) | Percent (%)  |
| Typical Case Sample                               | 16            | % 26.6       |
| Simple Random Sampling                            | 12            | % 20.0       |
| Simple Random Sampling                            | 10            | % 16.7       |
| Random Sampling                                   | 6             | % 10.0       |
| Purposive Sampling                                | 3             | % 5.0        |
| Stratified/Proportional Cluster Sample            | 3             | % 5.0        |
| Sample in Convenience                             | 4             | % 6.6        |
| No Sample Selection All Sampling Reached Research | 2             | % 3.3        |
| Purposeful (Measured Sampling)                    | 1             | % 1.7        |
| Disproportionate Element Sample                   | 1             | % 1.7        |
| Proper Sampling                                   | 1             | % 1.7        |
| Full Census Sample                                | 1             | % 1.7        |
| Studies with Unspecified Sample                   | -             | -            |
| <b>Sum</b>  | <b>60</b>     | <b>% 100</b> |

As can be seen in Table 8, typical case sample ( $f=16$ ; 26.6%), simple random sample ( $f=12$ ; 20.0%) and simple random ( $f=10$ ; 16.7%) samples were mostly used in the article publications on "Leadership Styles" between 1993-2023 and examined within the scope of the research. Between 1993 and 2023, it was observed that a total of 12 different sample selections were used in the articles examined on "Leadership Styles".

#### 4.8. Findings Regarding the Sample Groups of the Article Publications Included in the Research

The results of the analysis of the sample groups of the article publications included in the study are shown in Table 9.

**Table-9 Distribution of Article Publications by Sample Groups**

| Sample Groups  | Article       |               |
|--|---------------|---------------|
|  | Frequency (F) | Percent (%)   |
| <b>Teachers</b>  | <b>38</b>     | <b>% 63.2</b> |
| <b>School Administrators</b>   | <b>5</b>      | <b>% 8.3</b>  |
| <b>Teacher and Administrator</b>   | <b>3</b>      | <b>% 5.0</b>  |
| Teacher and Principal  | 1             | % 1.7         |
| Academics  | 2             | % 3.3         |
| School Principals/Vice Principals  | 2             | % 3.3         |
| Healthcare Professionals   | 2             | % 3.3         |
| Organization Aid Workers   | 1             | % 1.7         |
| Pre-service Formal Education Teachers                                      | 1             | % 1.7         |
| Office Workers (Gymnastics, Boxing, Taekwondo, Judo, Wrestling Federation) | 1             | % 1.7         |
| Architects, Civil Engineers  | 1             | % 1.7         |
| Sports Managers  | 1             | % 1.7         |
| Bank Employees   | 1             | % 1.7         |
| Public and Private Sector Employees  | 1             | % 1.7         |
| <b>Sum</b>   | <b>60</b>     | <b>% 100</b>  |

As can be seen in Table 9, in the article publications on "Leadership Styles" between 1993-2023 and examined within the scope of the research, the sample groups mostly consisted of teachers (f=38; 63.2%), school administrators (f=5; 8.3%), and sample groups in which teachers and administrators were used together (f=3; 5.0%).

#### 4.9. Findings Regarding the Sample Sizes of the Article Publications Included in the Research

The results of the analysis of the sample sizes of the article publications included in the study are shown in Table 10.

**Table-10 Distribution of Article Publications According to Sample Sizes**

| Sample Sizes   | Article       |               |
|----------------|---------------|---------------|
|                | Frequency (F) | Percent (%)   |
| 0-50           | 2             | % 3.3         |
| 51-100         | 3             | % 5.0         |
| <b>101-200</b> | <b>11</b>     | <b>% 18.3</b> |
| <b>201-400</b> | <b>22</b>     | <b>% 36.7</b> |
| <b>401-600</b> | <b>11</b>     | <b>% 18.3</b> |
| 601-800        | 6             | % 10.0        |

|   |           |              |
|---|-----------|--------------|
| 801-1000                                  | 1         | % 1.7        |
| 1001+...                                  | 3         | % 5.0        |
| Studies with Sample Numbers Not Specified | 1         | % 1.7        |
| <b>Sum</b>                                | <b>60</b> | <b>% 100</b> |

As can be seen in Table 10, it is seen that the sample sizes in the article publications on "Leadership Styles" between 1993-2023 and examined within the scope of the research mostly varied in the range of 201-400 (f=22; 36.7%), in the range of 101-200 (f=11; 18.3%) and in the range of 401-600 (f=11; 18.3%). However, it was determined that there were studies with a sample size of 1001 and above (f=3; 5.0%). Studies whose sample sizes were not specified were (f=1; 1.7%).

#### 4.10. Findings on the Data Collection Tools of the Article Publications Included in the Research

The results of the analysis of the data collection tools of the article publications included in the study are shown in Table 11.

**Table-11 Distribution of Article Publications According to Data Collection Tools**

| Data Collection Tools             | Article       |              |
|-----------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
|                                   | Frequency (F) | Percent (%)  |
| Questionnaire (Scale)             | 58            | % 96.7       |
| Observation/Interview (Interview) | 2             | % 3.3        |
| <b>Sum</b>                        | <b>60</b>     | <b>% 100</b> |

As can be seen in Table 11, in the article publications on "Leadership Styles" between 1993-2023 and examined within the scope of the research, mostly quantitative (f=58; 96.7%) questionnaire/scale (f=58; 96.7%) data collection tool was used depending on the choice of research management. Interview/Observation (f=2; 3.3%) data collection tools were used to a lesser extent.

#### 4.11. Findings Regarding the Data Analysis Program of the Article Publications Included in the Research

The results of the analysis of the article publications included in the study regarding the data analysis program are shown in Table 12.

**Table-12 Distribution of Article Publications According to Data Analysis Program**

| Data Analysis Program   | Article       |               |
|---|---------------|---------------|
|   | Frequency (F) | Percent (%)   |
| <b>SPSS Data Analysis Programs<br/>(17.0/11/15/26/18.0/20/21/25/22.0/16/23)<br/>IBM SPSS 20</b> | <b>58</b>     | <b>% 96.7</b> |
| Maxqda Analysis Program   | 1             | %1.7          |
| Descriptive Analysis and Content Analysis<br>(codes, themes, etc.)                              | 1             | % 1.7         |
| <b>Sum</b>  | <b>60</b>     | <b>% 100</b>  |

As can be seen in Table 12, in the article publications on "Leadership Styles" between 1993-2023 and examined within the scope of the research, mostly quantitative (f=58; 96.7%) SPSS (f=58; 97.7%) and analysis programs

were used depending on the choice of research management. Maxqda (f=1; 1.7%) analysis program and descriptive analysis/content analysis (f=1; 1.7%) applications were used to a lesser extent.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS, EVALUATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of this research is; Between 01.01.1993 and 31.12.2023, article publications published on the subject of "Leadership Styles" in Google Academy and DergiPark in Turkey were evaluated in depth and in detail with content analysis. In this context, the second purpose of the research; The second aim of the research is to determine the status of the researches on "Leadership Styles" in the literature, to reveal the deficiencies and to contribute to the researchers who want to work in this field. As a result of the analysis, between 01.01.1993 and 31.12.2023, a total of 64 articles were published on leadership styles within the borders of Turkey. However, when the studies are examined in detail; 4 articles did not meet the research criteria and related articles were excluded from the review. As a result of the research, a total of 60 articles were examined.

Article publications examined in the research; 11 categorical variables were examined: distribution by year, publication language distribution, distribution of publications according to journals, study areas, methods, model/design, sample selection, sample groups, sample sizes, data collection tools and data analysis programs. The data obtained during the research process are summarized in summary tables. In this context, the distribution of each indicator examined in terms of frequency and percentage is given.

In this study, as a result of the national (domestic) literature review, there are content analysis studies in the field of education on "Leadership Styles", but this comprehensive content analysis study, which includes studies on leadership styles in all fields and includes studies on leadership styles in the last 30 years, is not included in the literature. For this reason, it is thought that this research will contribute to literature. It is also important in terms of supporting similar studies in the literature.

In this context, some criteria were determined for the selection of publications suitable for the purpose of this research, and as a result of the determined criteria, 60 article publications were included in the research. As a result of the analyzes made in the research, between 01.01.1993 and 31.12.2023, the most article publications on leadership styles were made in 2022 (f=11; 18.3%) and 2016 (f=7; 11.6%), the articles were mostly written in Turkish (f=52; 86.7%), and although the publications were evenly distributed in journals in general, it was slightly more in journals such as İnönü University Journal of Education Faculty (f=4; 6.6%) and Journal of Education in Theory and Practice (f=4; 6.6%) Publications were made, article publications were mostly made in the field of education (f=52; 86.7%), quantitative (f=58; 96.7%) research method was used in almost all of the publications, and quantitative (f=58; 96.7%) research methods were used in the majority of the publications, and survey models (f=43; 71.6%) were used depending on the choice of research method. Typical case sample (f=16; 26.6%) and simple random (f=12; 20.0%) samples were mostly preferred in the article publications, and mostly teachers (f=38; 63.2%) constituted the sample groups in the publications, and the sample sizes mostly varied between 201-400 (f=22; 36.7%) and 101-200 (f=11; 18.3%). Mostly quantitative (f=58; 96.7%) questionnaire/scale (f=58; 96.7%) data collection tool and SPSS (f=58; 97.7%) data analysis programs were used in the article publications, depending on the choice of research management.

In the methodological analysis of the studies included in the study, it was determined that the most frequently used research method was the quantitative research method, and among the quantitative research methods, general survey designs were used the most. Mostly quantitative methods were used in the studies. Qualitative methods are less preferred than quantitative methods. In various studies on content analysis (Kandemir, 2022; Gündoğdu et al., 2015; Sergeant & Rock 2019; Flower, 2019; Smoky, 2022; Dogan and Tok 2018; Kurtoglu et al., 2012; Kurtoglu et al., 2013; Saracalaoglu et al. 2014; Selçuk et al., 2014; Yalçinkaya and Özkan 2012) confirm these results. The reason why quantitative research methods are largely preferred in research; His study is preferred because it reaches a larger sample size, collects data more systematically, facilitates data interpretation, and makes its results more generalizable. However, it can be explained by the fact that the results obtained cannot be generalized to different situations due to the fact that qualitative research methods are less preferred, the facts and events in the environment gain importance and non-numerical data require more research (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2018). When master's theses and articles are examined in terms of the data collection tools used, it is seen that the most frequently used data collection tool is the questionnaire/scale. It should also be noted that the use of interview forms is also less preferred. This result of the research is consistent with similar studies (Kandemir, 2022; Flower, 2019; Sergeant & Rock 2019; Kurtoglu Erden et al., 2012; Smoky, 2022; Saracalaoglu et al., 2014). The reason why surveys are used so widely is that most of the analyzed studies are designed in the survey model, the data obtained as a result of the survey can be subjected to statistical analysis more easily, and mathematical analyzes can be applied to a large number of people in a short time (Gürbüz and Şahin 2017).

Leadership styles are of great importance for the effectiveness of organizations and management. Leadership is a critical factor that has a direct impact on the success and performance of an organization. Different leadership styles can have different effects on employee motivation, collaboration, performance, and satisfaction. As a result, although it is frequently stated in the article publications discussed within the scope of the research that leadership styles will have a positive effect on the performance, motivation, cooperation, productivity and creativity of the

employees within the enterprise, this emphasis was not reflected in the researches. Another important point that draws attention in the findings is that when we look at the field distribution of national publications, it is seen that 86.7% of the researches are conducted in the field of education, while only 13.3% are in the fields of health, sports, banking, public and private sectors, charities, construction and architecture. Considering these rates; While leadership is so important in the field of business, it is surprising that there is little scientific research on the topic of "Leadership Styles" in the national literature. It is recommended that they diversify the variables that may have a possible impact at the individual and organizational level on issues such as the relationship between leadership styles and cultural differences in the field of business, the relationship between individual variables such as emotional intelligence, or the distinction between public and private leadership styles. It is expected that the research that researchers will conduct on leadership styles will make a significant contribution to both different literature and the business world.

Based on the results of this study, the following recommendations are presented:

1. It is necessary to increase the number and scope of research on leadership styles and management.
2. When the literature is examined, the issue of leadership styles is mostly discussed in the field of education. While the issue of leadership styles is important for businesses; When the national literature is examined, very few scientific studies have been included on the subject of leadership styles in the field of Business Administration. It is recommended that more scientific studies be conducted on leadership styles in the field of business.
3. Quantitative research methods were used in most of the article publications reviewed. The most important feature of quantitative research is that it enables generalizations to be made on averages. However, it is recommended to use qualitative data method more in order to provide a more detailed and in-depth analysis of leadership styles.
4. In advanced research (doctoral thesis and articles), it is recommended to use mixed research methods including both quantitative and qualitative methods.
5. It is recommended that future studies on leadership styles should be integrated not only on the subject of leadership styles, but also on the subject of leadership styles (**cultural** differences, the relationship between individual variables such as emotional intelligence, or the diversification of variables that may have a possible impact at the individual and organizational level on issues such as the distinction between public and private leadership styles, etc.).
6. As a result of the research, the model of the studies was not specified in a total of 60 articles ( $f=14$ ; 23.3%) on leadership styles between 01.01.1993 and 31.12.2023. For this reason, it is recommended to explain the models to be preferred in the researches to be made in more detail.

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## INVESTIGATION OF EMPLOYEES' PERCEPTION LEVELS TOWARDS THE STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS AND ORGANIZATIONAL CYNISM

Aykan Demir  
Akdeniz Karpaz University  
[aykan.dmr3@gmail.com](mailto:aykan.dmr3@gmail.com)

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Azmiye Yinal  
Akdeniz Karpaz University  
[azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr](mailto:azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr)  
Orcid: 0009-0004-7936-847X

### ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study is to examine the perception levels of employees residing in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) towards strategic management process and organizational cynicism. The population of the study consists of all employees residing in TRNC. The size of the sample consists of 393 people. The data collection tools used in the study include demographic information form, Organizational Cynicism Scale and Strategic Management Scale. SPSS 28 program was used to analyze the data. The findings show that the participants are generally moderately involved in the strategic management process. In the resource dimension, the level of involvement was found to be moderate, while in the environment dimension, this involvement was slightly higher. The general perception of strategic management is distributed in a wide range among the participants and is at a medium level on average. In terms of organizational cynicism perceptions, it was determined that the participants' cognitive, affective, and behavioral cynicism perceptions ranged from low to medium. It was determined that cognitive cynicism and behavioral cynicism perceptions were between low and medium, while affective cynicism perception was at lower levels. The perception of general organizational cynicism is similarly distributed in a wide range and is at a medium level on average.

**Key Words:** Management, Strategic management, Cynicism, Organizational cynicism.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Strategic management is a systematic process developed and implemented to achieve the long-term goals of an organization. This process begins with a comprehensive analysis of the organization's internal and external environment (Özgür, 2004). Internal environmental factors include the organization's resources, capabilities, and cultural dynamics, while external environmental factors include economic, technological, social, and competitive elements. Strategic management determines the vision and mission of the organization in line with these environmental analyses. Then, strategies are developed to achieve the determined long-term goals (Sarvan et al., 2003). Creating strategies helps the organization achieve competitive advantage and determine sustainable growth strategies. In the strategic planning phase, timelines are created, resources are allocated, and the necessary steps to achieve the organization's strategic goals are determined (İlk, 2021). During the implementation process, strategic plans are implemented, the process is managed, and performance is monitored. Finally, feedback is received to evaluate the success of the strategic management process and strategies are revised when necessary. This process allows organizations to adapt to changing conditions and achieve long-term sustainable success (Bayraktar et al., 2020).

Organizational cynicism is the development of a negative, suspicious, or distrustful attitude by employees in an organization about the goals, values or behaviors shown by the leadership within the organization (Kayaalp and Özdemir, 2020). This attitude can often impact issues such as fairness in the workplace, transparency, trust, and the overall management of the workplace. It occurs when employees question certain policies, management decisions or leadership style of the organization and have doubts about these issues. This can often lead to negative consequences within the organization, such as low morale, lack of motivation, and intention to quit. It can reduce employees' perceptual and emotional commitment to their organizations and negatively affect positive work environment factors such as collaboration and innovation. Therefore, it is important to prevent and manage organizational cynicism by understanding the causes of organizational cynicism by management and leadership (Kılıç and Toker, 2020).

Strategic management and organizational cynicism constitute an important research area that has profound effects on the management and employee relations of organizations. The strategic management process includes the planning, implementation, and evaluation process that organizations develop to achieve their long-term goals (Güçlü et al., 2017). This process is directly related to factors such as how much employees embrace the mission and goals of the organization, the extent to which they participate in strategic decision-making processes, and how strategic plans are communicated and implemented. On the other hand, organizational cynicism refers to a situation in which employees develop negative perceptions about elements such as justice, transparency, and trust in leadership within the organization (Aktaş, 2015). Organizational cynicism occurs when employees question workplace policies, management decisions and leadership style, have doubts about these issues, and show negative

emotional reactions resulting from this situation (Özler et al., 2010). In this context, understanding the relationship between employees' perceptions of the strategic management process and their perceptions of organizational cynicism is important to improve organizations' management strategies and employee relations. By examining the relationships between these two factors in depth, research can help organizations develop effective strategies for sustainable success and employee satisfaction.

### 1.1. Purpose and Importance of the Research

The main purpose of this study is to examine employees' perception levels of the strategic management process and organizational cynicism. It aims to evaluate the effects of the resource dimension, environmental dimension and general strategic management perception, which are different dimensions of the strategic management process, on employees' cognitive, affective and behavioral cynicism and general organizational cynicism levels. Additionally, by analyzing the effects of demographic variables such as gender, marital status, age, education level and professional seniority on strategic management perception and organizational cynicism levels, it aims to reveal what role these factors play in the workplace. This research addresses important issues in the workplace by focusing on the strategic management process and perceptions of organizational cynicism. In terms of Management and Leadership Practices, the effectiveness of the strategic management process can directly impact overall management and leadership practices in the workplace. The research can guide managers on how to manage strategic management processes more effectively.

### 1.2. hypotheses

In this research, answers were sought to the following questions:

H1 : There is a relationship between the strategic management process and organizational cynicism

H2 : Strategic management process has an effect on the perception of organizational cynicism

### 1.3. Assumptions

It is assumed that research participants give their answers to the scale questions sincerely.

### 1.4. Limitations

Research:

- With research participants,
- With the scale questions used in the research,
- Restricted to employees residing in TRNC.

### 1.5. Definitions

**Management:** It is the process of planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and controlling the resources of an organization or a business (Çelik and Şimşek, 2013).

**Strategic management:** It is the process of determining the long-term goals of an organization, developing strategies to achieve these goals, implementing these strategies, and evaluating the results (Aktaş, 2015).

**Cynicism:** It is a term used to express a negative and critical attitude or way of thinking within an organization (Balay et al., 2013).

**Organizational cynicism:** It refers to the situation in which employees in an organization develop and express a negative attitude towards their institution (Özler et al., 2010).

## 2. Conceptual Framework

### 2.1. Strategic Management

Strategic management is a management approach used to determine the long-term goals of an organization, develop, and implement the strategies necessary to achieve these goals, and monitor and evaluate these processes. This process aims to enable the organization to gain competitive advantage and achieve sustainable growth by analyzing its internal and external environment. Strategic management ensures the creation of strategic plans in line with the vision and mission of the organization and the effective implementation of these plans (Kaygın and Kavak, 2017).

The main purpose of strategic management is to ensure that an organization is successful in a competitive and dynamic business environment and to support it in achieving its long-term goals. The main purpose of strategic management is to play a guiding role by using the strategic management process to ensure and maintain the long-term success of an organization (Kerse and Karabey, 2017):

*Environmental Analysis:* Analyzes the internal and external environment of the organization and determines its strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats. Environmental analysis is one of the basic stages of strategic management and helps an organization make strategic decisions by evaluating both its internal and external environment. This process aims to identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of the

organization. In external environmental analysis, comprehensive elements such as economic, political, social, technological, environmental, and legal factors (PESTEL analysis) are examined (Gökyer and Türkoğlu, 2018).

**Goal Setting:** Determines long-term goals in accordance with the vision and mission of the organization. Goal setting is a critical phase of strategic management and plays a guiding role in the long-term success of the organization. In this process, concrete and achievable goals are defined in line with the vision and mission of the organization. Goals clearly reveal which direction the organization wants to go and what it aims to achieve (Dağyar and Kasalak, 2018).

**Strategy Development:** Creates the necessary strategies and plans to achieve the determined goals. Strategy development is one of the central stages of strategic management and involves creating the strategies necessary to achieve the goals set by the organization (Yahyaoğlu and Yinal, 2024). This process analyzes the organization's internal and external environment, enabling it to make the best use of its strengths, improve its weaknesses, evaluate opportunities, and take precautions against threats (Büyükoztürk et al., 2018).

**Implementation:** Allocates resources and implements action plans to implement strategies. Implementation refers to the process of implementing strategic management and implementing strategies in the real world. This stage determines how the predetermined strategies will be implemented in practice and what the results will be. The implementation process includes allocating the organization's resources correctly, focusing the staff on strategic goals, and managing operational processes in accordance with these goals (Bağcı, 2018).

**Evaluation and Control:** Monitors the effectiveness of strategies, evaluates performance, and takes corrective measures when necessary. Evaluation and control constitute the final stage of strategic management and evaluate the extent to which the organization has achieved its strategic goals and the effectiveness of the strategies. It is achieved by using predetermined performance criteria and determines how close the strategic goals are (Yücel and Çetinkaya, 2017).

## 2.2. Organizational Cynicism

Organizational cynicism can be defined as the lack of trust, discontent, and negative attitudes of employees within an organization towards the organization. This situation has various importance for both individuals and organizations. First, organizational cynicism can negatively affect employees' motivation and job performance. Cynical thoughts and attitudes can reduce employees' commitment to their jobs and therefore reduce job satisfaction. Decreased job satisfaction can lead to decreases in productivity and work quality. Organizational cynicism can also negatively affect intra-organizational communication and collaboration. As employees' trust in the organization decreases, collaboration and teamwork may become difficult. This situation may prevent the organization from achieving its goals and negatively affect its overall performance (Sezgin, Tolay, & Sürgevil, 2016).

Organizational cynicism has three dimensions.

**1. Cognitive Dimension:** The cognitive dimension constitutes the first dimension of organizational cynicism. This dimension reflects employees' opinions about their own organizations and generally expresses an approach that their organizations are dishonest. Honesty refers to the soundness and integrity of ethical principles (Kalağan, 2009):

**2. Emotional Dimension:** The emotional dimension constitutes the second dimension of organizational cynicism. In this dimension, the ways in which employees respond emotionally to their organizational experiences and relationships are examined. The emotional dimension of organizational cynicism includes the positive or negative emotions that employees feel in their relationships with their organizations. (Özkalp and Kirel, 2005).

**3. Behavioral Dimension:** The behavioral dimension constitutes the third dimension of organizational cynicism. In this dimension, employees exhibit negative behavior towards the organization and transform their attitudes into concrete actions. This dimension of organizational cynicism involves employees displaying a critical and cynical attitude towards their organizations (Dean et al., 1998).

## 3. RESEARCH METHODS AND FINDINGS

### 3.1. Research Method

This study is quantitative research. Quantitative research is research conducted through the collection, analysis, and interpretation of numerical data. This type of research is used to obtain numerical data on a particular topic, understand relationships, discover patterns, or test hypotheses. Quantitative research usually begins with data collection using large samples. Data can be collected through methods such as surveys, scales, observations, or existing databases. The collected data is analyzed with statistical methods and the results are expressed numerically. These results often allow generalizations to be made and research questions or hypotheses to be tested (Çaparlar and Dönmez, 2016).

#### 3.1.1. Population and Sample

The population of the research consists of employees residing in TRNC. The sample was selected by easily accessible sampling method. In this method, individuals or units included in the sample are not selected randomly;



instead, individuals or groups that the researcher can easily access, reach, or contact are included in the study. The easily accessible sampling method is generally preferred because it is less demanding in terms of time and cost. For example, a researcher can collect samples from people in his own environment or employees in an organization (Baltacı, 2018). In this context, it was planned to include 400 people in the study, but 393 of the distributed surveys were put into practice.

### 3.1.2. Data Collection Tools

Data in the research are demographic information form; It was collected with the Organizational Cynicism Scale and the Strategic Management Scale.

In the demographic information form, participants were asked about gender, age, marital status, and education level.

Strategic Management Scale, developed by Kayar Çelik (2019), is an important tool used to measure and evaluate the strategic management process in businesses. The scale is designed for participants to evaluate the understanding, practices, and effects of strategic management in the business. The third part of the scale consists of 22 questions in total. The first 11 questions are aimed at measuring the internal dynamics of the business and the effects of strategic management. Through these questions, the capacity of strategic management to identify strengths and weaknesses within the business, produce solutions to problems and ensure effectiveness/increase is evaluated. The other questions 12-22 of the scale aim to analyze the external environment of the business, market conditions and competitive environment.

Organizational Cynicism Scale (OSS) was developed by Brandes, Dhalwadkar and Dean and adapted into Turkish by Kalağan. This scale was used to determine the organizational cynicism levels of white-collar employees in the sports sector. The validity and reliability of the scale were determined as  $\alpha = 0.93$ . The scale consists of three sub-dimensions: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. The cognitive dimension contains 5 items (1, 2, 3, 4, 5), the affective dimension contains 4 items (6, 7, 8, 9), and the behavioral dimension contains 4 items (10, 11, 12, 13). Each item was scaled on a 5-point Likert type to determine the participant's level of organizational cynicism: (1) "Strongly Disagree", (2) "Disagree", (3) "Somewhat Agree", (4) "Agree", and (5) "I Completely Agree ". The highest score in this scale is 65 and the lowest score is 13, and it is used to determine the participants' perception of organizational cynicism. In the study, the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the scale was calculated as  $\alpha = 0.95$ , which shows that the internal consistency of the scale is high and there is a strong relationship between the items.

In this study, Cronbach's Alpha values of both scales are quite high, meaning the internal consistency of the scales is strong. In particular, the Strategic Management Scale's Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.95 shows that the item contents of the scale are compatible with each other and that this scale can be used reliably. The value of 0.89 of the Organizational Cynicism Scale also provides a very high level of reliability.

### 3.1.3. Analysis of Data

SPSS 28 program was used to analyze the data collected in the study and normality analysis was first performed. Skewness (0.267) and kurtosis (-0.856) values for the Strategic Management Scale are within the accepted limits for skewness ( $0.267 < 1.5$ ), but close to the limit for kurtosis but not exceeding the limits ( $-0.856 > -1.5$ ). In this case, although there is a limited deviation in terms of kurtosis, it can be said that it is generally close to normal distribution. In this case, although a significant deviation is observed for the scale in terms of skewness, it can be said that it is closer to the normal distribution in terms of kurtosis. Parametric tests were used in the study because they give more reliable results when the data has a normal distribution or is close to a normal distribution. These tests; They are listed as t-test, ANOVA, Pearson correlation analysis.

## 3.2. Findings of the Research

Table 1. Demographic Information

|                |                  | n   | %    |
|----------------|------------------|-----|------|
| Gender         | Woman            | 206 | 52.4 |
|                | Male             | 187 | 47.6 |
| marital status | Married          | 178 | 45.3 |
|                | Single           | 215 | 54.7 |
| Age            | 22-30 years old  | 72  | 18.3 |
|                | 31-45 years old  | 127 | 32.3 |
|                | 46 -55 years old | 96  | 24.4 |
|                | 56 and above     | 98  | 24.9 |



|                        |                     |     |       |
|------------------------|---------------------|-----|-------|
| education level        | High school         | 159 | 40.5  |
|                        | Licence             | 174 | 44.3  |
|                        | Master's Thesis/PhD | 60  | 15.3  |
| professional seniority | less than 2 years   | 72  | 18.3  |
|                        | 3-5 years           | 21  | 5.3   |
|                        | 6-10 years          | 176 | 44.8  |
|                        | 11-15 years         | 91  | 23.2  |
|                        | more than 16 years  | 33  | 8.4   |
| Total                  |                     | 393 | 100.0 |

When the gender distribution of the participants was examined, it was seen that 52.4% of the participants were women compared to 47.6% of the men. In terms of marital status, 45.3% of the participants are married while 54.7% are single. The age distribution is considered in four different categories: 18.3% between 22-30 years old, 32.3% between 31-45 years old, 24.4% between 46-55 years old and 24.9% is aged 56 and over. According to education level, 40.5% of the participants are high school graduates, 44.3% are undergraduate graduates, and 15.3% are master's or doctoral level. In terms of professional seniority, the participants were divided into different groups: 18.3% with less than 2 years of seniority, 5.3% with 3-5 years, 44.8% with 6-10 years, 23.2% with 11-15 years of seniority. 15 years and 8.4% have more than 16 years of professional seniority.

Table 2. Employees' Perception Levels towards the Strategic Management Process and Organizational Cynicism

|                         | Min.  | Max.  | Cover.  | Ss.      |
|-------------------------|-------|-------|---------|----------|
| Source size             | 10.00 | 39.00 | 21.7837 | 7.70314  |
| Perimeter size          | 12.00 | 48.00 | 24.2723 | 9.91750  |
| strategic management    | 22.00 | 86.00 | 46.0560 | 17.10612 |
| Cognitive Cynicism      | 5.00  | 21.00 | 11.1501 | 4.38462  |
| Affective Cynicism      | 4.00  | 18.00 | 8.3690  | 3.58764  |
| Behavioral Cynicism     | 4.00  | 20.00 | 10.6005 | 3.47156  |
| Organizational Cynicism | 13.00 | 57.00 | 30.1196 | 10.78540 |

#### Strategic Management Process:

- Source dimension: The participation level varies between 10 and 39, and the average participation level was found to be 21.7837 (Sd = 7.70314). This shows that the level of participation of employees in the strategic management process in the resource dimension is generally at a medium level.
- Environmental dimension: The participation level varies between 12 and 48, and the average participation level was determined as 24.2723 (Sd = 9.91750). This shows that participation in the strategic management process in the environmental dimension is slightly higher than in the resource dimension.
- General Strategic Management: The participation level varies between 22 and 86, and the average participation level is determined as 46.0560 (Sd = 17.10612). This shows that participation in the overall strategic management process is widely dispersed and, on average, moderate.

#### Organizational Cynicism:

- Cognitive Cynicism: The perception level varies between 5 and 21, and the average perception level was found to be 11.1501 (Sd = 4.38462). This suggests that the perception of cognitive cynicism is low to moderate.
- Affective Cynicism: The perception level varies between 4 and 18, and the average perception level was found to be 8.3690 (Sd = 3.58764). This shows that the perception of affective cynicism is generally low.
- Behavioral Cynicism: The perception level varies between 4 and 20, and the average perception level is determined as 10.6005 (Ss = 3.47156). This suggests that the perception of behavioral cynicism is low to moderate.
- General Organizational Cynicism: The perception level varies between 13 and 57, and the average perception level was found to be 30.1196 (Sd = 10.78540). This shows that the general perception of organizational cynicism is distributed over a wide spectrum and is at a moderate level on average.

The results show that employees' participation levels in the strategic management process are generally at a medium level and their perception of organizational cynicism varies between low and medium. These data can help organizations identify potential areas of intervention to improve strategic management processes and perceptions of cynicism.

The results of the Correlation Analysis conducted in the study to test the hypothesis "H<sub>1</sub> : There is a relationship between the strategic management process and organizational cynicism" are given in Table 15.

Table 3. Relationship Between Strategic Management Process and Organizational Cynicism (Correlation Analysis)

|                      |    | Cognitive Cynicism | Affective Cynicism | Behavioral Cynicism | Organizational Cynicism |
|----------------------|----|--------------------|--------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|
| Source size          | r  | .625 **            | .515 **            | .316 **             | .527 **                 |
|                      | p. | 0.000              | 0.000              | 0.000               | 0.000                   |
| Perimeter size       | r  | .712 **            | .667 **            | .412 **             | .644 **                 |
|                      | p. | 0.000              | 0.000              | 0.000               | 0.000                   |
| strategic management | r  | .694 **            | .619 **            | .381 **             | .611 **                 |
|                      | p. | 0.000              | 0.000              | 0.000               | 0.000                   |

The relationships between employees' perceptions of the strategic management process and their perceptions of organizational cynicism were examined. In this context, the strategic management process was discussed in three dimensions and the correlations of each dimension with the four sub-dimensions of organizational cynicism were evaluated. The findings are as follows:

The Relationship Between Resource Dimension and Organizational Cynicism:

- Cognitive Cynicism:  $r = 0.625$ ,  $p = 0.000$ . This indicates a positive and strong relationship between source size and cognitive cynicism.
- Affective Cynicism:  $r = 0.515$ ,  $p = 0.000$ . There is a positive and moderately strong relationship between resource dimension and affective cynicism.
- Behavioral Cynicism:  $r = 0.316$ ,  $p = 0.000$ . There is a positive and weak relationship between resource size and behavioral cynicism.
- Organizational Cynicism:  $r = 0.527$ ,  $p = 0.000$ . In general, there is a positive and moderately strong relationship between resource dimension and organizational cynicism.

The Relationship Between the Environmental Dimension and Organizational Cynicism:

- Cognitive Cynicism:  $r = 0.712$ ,  $p = 0.000$ . This shows that there is a positive and very strong relationship between the environmental dimension and cognitive cynicism.
- Affective Cynicism:  $r = 0.667$ ,  $p = 0.000$ . There is a positive and strong relationship between the environmental dimension and affective cynicism.
- Behavioral Cynicism:  $r = 0.412$ ,  $p = 0.000$ . There is a positive and moderately strong relationship between the environmental dimension and behavioral cynicism.
- Organizational Cynicism:  $r = 0.644$ ,  $p = 0.000$ . In general, there is a positive and strong relationship between the environmental dimension and organizational cynicism.

The Relationship Between General Strategic Management and Organizational Cynicism:

- Cognitive Cynicism:  $r = 0.694$ ,  $p = 0.000$ . This indicates a positive and very strong relationship between overall strategic management and cognitive cynicism.
- Affective Cynicism:  $r = 0.619$ ,  $p = 0.000$ . There is a positive and strong relationship between general strategic management and affective cynicism.
- Behavioral Cynicism:  $r = 0.381$ ,  $p = 0.000$ . There is a positive and moderately strong relationship between general strategic management and behavioral cynicism.
- Organizational Cynicism:  $r = 0.611$ ,  $p = 0.000$ . In general, there is a positive and strong relationship between strategic management and organizational cynicism.

These results show that the way the strategic management process is perceived is significantly related to levels of organizational cynicism. It appears that both the resource and environmental dimensions of the strategic management process are effective on the cognitive, affective and behavioral dimensions of organizational cynicism. These findings suggest that improving strategic management processes may play an important role in reducing organizational cynicism.

In the study, the results of the Regression Analysis performed to test the hypothesis "H<sub>2</sub> : Strategic management process has an effect on the perception of organizational cynicism" are given in Table 16.

Table 4. Effect of Strategic Management Process on the Perception of Organizational Cynicism (Regression Analysis)

|                         | Unstandardized<br>Coefficients | Std.<br>Mistake | Standardized<br>Coefficients | t       | p.    |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------|------------------------------|---------|-------|
|                         | B.                             |                 | Beta                         |         |       |
| Still                   | 21,992                         | 1,860           |                              | 11,826  | 0.000 |
| Affective Cynicism      | -8.355                         | 1,004           | -1.752                       | -8.323  | 0.000 |
| Behavioral Cynicism     | -7.695                         | 0.609           | -1,562                       | -12,631 | 0.000 |
| Organizational Cynicism | 5,829                          | 0.476           | 3,675                        | 12,242  | 0.000 |
|                         | F                              | p.              | R.                           | R2      |       |
|                         | 168,254                        | ,000b           | ,752                         | 0.565   |       |

This regression analysis examines how affective, behavioral, and organizational cynicism perceptions affect employees' perceptions of the strategic management process. The findings reveal that strategic management perception is significantly associated with affective cynicism (-1.752), behavioral cynicism (-1.562) and organizational cynicism (3.675). Increases in affective and behavioral cynicism perceptions increase employees' negative perceptions of the strategic management process, while increases in organizational cynicism perceptions increase positive perceptions of the strategic management process. These results emphasize the importance of managers' efforts to reduce the perception of organizational cynicism and make employees evaluate the strategic management process more positively. The high  $R^2$  value (0.565) obtained in the analysis shows that the model is powerful in explaining strategic management perception and that the independent variables used explain a large part of the total variance. In this context, the necessity of effectively managing strategic management processes in workplaces and supporting employees' perceptions by management comes to the fore.

#### 4. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study reveals that employees' participation levels in the strategic management process are generally at a medium level and their perception of organizational cynicism varies between low and medium. Various levels of variation have been observed among employees in their participation in different aspects of the strategic management process. The level of participation in the resource dimension is at a medium level, and it is seen that this participation is slightly higher in the environmental dimension. Participation in the general strategic management process shows a wide distribution and is at a medium level on average. In terms of organizational cynicism dimensions, it has been determined that cognitive, affective, and behavioral cynicism perceptions vary between low and medium. It was determined that the perceptions of cognitive cynicism and behavioral cynicism were between low and medium, while the perception of affective cynicism was at lower levels. The general perception of organizational cynicism varies in a wide range and is at a medium level on average.

The research examined the strategic management process in terms of the resource dimension, the environmental dimension and in general, and evaluated the relationships between these dimensions and the levels of cognitive, affective, and behavioral cynicism and organizational cynicism in the workplace. Firstly, analyzes between the resource dimension and organizational cynicism revealed that there are positive relationships between the perception of resources and cognitive, affective, and organizational cynicism. A strong perception of the resource dimension contributed to employees developing negative thoughts about the organizational structure. Similarly, in environmental dimension analyses, strong relationships were detected between the perception of environmental conditions and cognitive, affective, and organizational cynicism. Proper understanding of environmental factors has influenced employees' attitudes towards organizational arrangements in the workplace. The general perception of strategic management reflected a significant relationship between cognitive, affective, and behavioral cynicism in the workplace and organizational cynicism. How the strategic management process is generally perceived has been decisive in shaping employees' positive or negative behaviors and thoughts at work.

These findings demonstrate how strategic management processes can influence organizational cynicism in the workplace and therefore how managers can improve strategic management practices. Supporting employees' perceptions of the strategic management process and strengthening communication can play a critical role in reducing organizational cynicism. In conclusion, this study makes an important contribution to understanding how strategic management processes can influence perceptions between management and employees.

At the end of the research, the following recommendations were developed:

- It is important to encourage greater employee participation in strategic management processes. This can be achieved by involving them in strategic planning processes and soliciting their opinions. Managers should encourage employees to evaluate their perspectives and contribute to strategic planning.
- Strategic goals and plans need to be communicated to employees clearly and consistently. Effective use of communication channels will provide employees with access to up-to-date information on strategic processes.
- Training and development opportunities should be provided to ensure that employees understand strategic management processes and develop the skills to contribute to these processes. Strategic planning, analysis and interpretation skills are especially important in this context.
- Open and fair labor policies should be established to reduce organizational cynicism. Maintaining a sense of justice and making transparent and consistent decisions by managers can increase employee motivation and organizational commitment.
- It is important to consider the impact of demographic factors such as gender, marital status, age, education level and professional seniority on strategic management processes. It would be useful to understand the effects of these factors on perceptions in the workplace and develop appropriate policies where necessary.
- Continuous feedback mechanisms should be established to evaluate the effectiveness of strategic management processes. Regularly including employees' experiences and opinions will ensure continuous improvement of processes.

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## THE EFFECT OF BANK IMAGE ON CUSTOMER PERCEPTION TRNC EXAMPLE

Murat ASLAN

Ministry of Education, TRNC  
[220609464@std.akun.edu.tr](mailto:220609464@std.akun.edu.tr)

Prof. Dr. Mehmet ÇAĞLAR  
Lefke Avrupa University, TRNC  
[mcaglar-lau@eul.edu.tr](mailto:mcaglar-lau@eul.edu.tr)

Yrd. Doç.Dr. Azmiye YINAL  
Akdeniz Karpaz University, TRNC  
[azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr](mailto:azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr)

### ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to determine the customer image of a bank operating in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. The study was conducted within the framework of a relational survey model using a quantitative approach and included 369 respondents from a population of 2000 bank customers. As a data collection tool, the scale developed by Kalyoncuoğlu and Faiz (2016) was used to measure service quality and corporate image. According to the findings of the study, customer evaluations show that service quality has a positive effect on corporate image, especially in the dimensions of Physical Assets, Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance, and Identification. In the Physical Assets dimension, customer evaluations are generally high and consistent. However, a wider variation was observed in the Reliability dimension. Customer evaluations in the dimensions of Responsiveness, Assurance and Identification show moderate consistency. Correlation analysis reveals that there are positive and significant relationships between the Physical Assets, Reliability, Responsiveness and Identification dimensions and Corporate Image. However, the relationship between the Assurance dimension and Corporate Image shows a weaker link. The regression analysis results show that each service quality dimension (Physical Assets, Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance, and Identification) has a positive effect on corporate image. This emphasizes the importance of focusing on service quality for banks to strengthen their corporate image by increasing customer satisfaction.

**Key Words:** Responsiveness, Physical assets, Reliability, Assurance, Corporate image, Self-relevance.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1. Problem Status

Bank image is the overall perception, reputation, and public perception of a financial institution. This perception includes the thoughts, feelings, and perceptions that occur among customers, potential customers, and the public. Bank image is shaped by several factors such as gaining customers' trust, service quality, product diversity, technological infrastructure, social responsibility projects and marketing activities (Oralhan and Özlü, 2019). The image of a reliable bank may cause customers to be more willing to carry out their financial transactions at that bank. Service quality affects customer satisfaction, which forms the basis of the bank's image (Dayı and Yıldız, 2020). Banks develop strategies to strengthen the bank image to gain customer loyalty and competitive advantage. These strategies include elements such as technological innovations, social responsibility projects and effective marketing activities. A strong bank image can provide a significant advantage in the competitive environment in the financial sector (Kalyoncuoğlu and Faiz, 2016).

Customer perception refers to the thoughts, feelings, and impressions that a customer creates in his own mind about a product, service, brand, or company (Biçer and Yurtsal, 2021). These perceptions may be based on factors such as the customer's experiences, expectations, emotional responses, and level of knowledge. Customer perception is often an important factor that shapes a customer's relationship with a brand or company and can affect purchasing decisions, loyalty, and overall customer satisfaction (Gönen and Gökçen, 2017).

Bank image is a factor that significantly affects customer perception. The overall reputation of a bank determines customers' thoughts, feelings, and impressions about that bank. Customers feel safer and more reliable when a positive image of a bank is created (Bozoklu, 2019). This trust can lead to customers being more inclined to establish financial relationships with the bank, benefit from its products and services, and become long-term customers. The effect of bank image on customer perception is based on various factors (Tekeli and Paşaoğlu, 2012). First, the service quality, reliability and customer satisfaction offered by the bank enable customers to create a positive perception. Customers want to be associated with a bank where they can carry out their financial transactions safely and find products and services that suit their needs. In addition, the bank's communication strategies, advertising and marketing activities also affect customer perception. A positive bank image emphasizes the values provided to customers and leaves a positive impression of how the bank helps customers (Dayı and Yıldız, 2020).



The impact of bank image on customer perception plays a critical role in determining customers' preferences, purchasing decisions and long-term relationships with the bank. Banks must develop customer-focused strategies to create and maintain a positive image. Customer satisfaction and trust can help them gain competitive advantage by contributing to the positive shaping of the bank's image (Utkutug, 2021).

### 1.2. Purpose and Importance of the Research

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of bank image on customer perception. Bank image includes factors such as a financial institution's overall reputation, quality of service it offers, and reliability, and these factors influence customers' relationship with a bank. The research is carried out to understand the role of bank image on customer perception, to determine customer preferences and to analyze the competitive environment in the financial sector.

The importance of this study emerges in terms of banks developing customer-focused strategies, gaining competitive advantage, and creating sustainable customer satisfaction. Understanding the effects of bank image on customer perception can provide guidance in optimizing marketing and communication strategies. This study examines in detail an issue that is of critical importance for banks in the financial sector to strengthen customer relations, meet customer expectations and maintain their sectoral success.

### 1.3. hypotheses

The hypotheses of this research are as follows:

- H0 : There is a significant relationship between banks' service quality dimensions and corporate image .
- H1 : There is no significant relationship between banks' service quality dimensions and corporate image.
- H0 : Service quality dimensions of banks have an effect on corporate image.
- H2 : Service quality dimensions of banks have no effect on corporate image.

### 1.4. Assumptions

research participants gave their answers to the scale questions sincerely.

### 1.5. Limitations

Research:

- With research participants,
- With the resources used,
- With the scale questions used in the research,
- It is limited to bank customers in TRNC.

### 1.6. Definitions

**Bank image:** The general understanding, reputation, and public impression of a financial institution (Oralhan and Özlü, 2019).

**Customer perception:** It refers to the thoughts, feelings, and impressions that a customer creates in his mind about a product, service, brand, or company (Gönen and Gökçen, 2017).

## 2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

### 2.1. Image Concept

Image is a concept that expresses the general impression and perception about a person, a brand, an organization, or something. This impression and perception are a whole that is generally formed in the public eye and is based on emotional, aesthetic, and symbolic values. Image refers to how an entity or concept is perceived in terms of its overall reputation, reliability, quality, prestige, style, or other characteristic. Image is generally shaped by a combination of various elements such as appearance, communication strategies, product quality and customer service. A positive image of a person, brand or organization can often build trust among consumers, increase loyalty, and provide a competitive advantage. Creating and managing the image is closely related to marketing, communication, and brand strategies. Carefully planned strategies and consistent communication are important to create a good image. At the same time, social media, media relations and other communication channels can also affect the image of a person or organization. Image management involves actively working to create and maintain the desired impression of an entity (Tikveş, 2003).

Image is a word of French origin, which was translated into Turkish in the same way and is a term used as a synonym for "image". The word image is often used as a term that expresses people's correct or incorrect impressions on a subject. This topic could be another person, business, product, service, opinion, or similar topic. From a customer perspective, image refers specifically to the impression that consumers form before purchasing a product, and this impression can have a guiding effect on the purchasing decision. In this context, creating and managing the image aims to shape the perception of a person, business, or product in society and to create the desired impression. Image management is a process often intertwined with issues such as marketing,

communication strategies and brand management. By creating a good image, it may be possible to ensure that people perceive it positively, build trust and achieve long-term success (Yüksel and Mermod, 2004). Individuals' impressions and evaluations about a subject, person, institution, or object create and shape their images about that item. These evaluations vary from person to person depending on factors such as the individual's personality, values, perspective on life, perception of events, expectations, and environmental conditions. Everyone's life experiences are different, and these experiences about the person, institution, or object they encounter significantly affect the impressions that form the image. In this context, in understanding the concept of image, the impressions and evaluations in the minds of individuals are subjective and personalized. Because everyone has a unique life experience, the images that emerge about the same subject or object may differ between different individuals. Ovalıoğlu puts it, the image in the mind may not always match reality, and these images are shaped depending on individuals' perspectives, experiences, and perceptions (Ovalıoğlu, 2007).

## 2.2. Corporate Image

Corporate image is of great importance in today's business world. This concept, which covers the impressions and perceptions that businesses leave on target audiences, is a critical factor that determines the success of the institution. A positive corporate image brings with it several advantages such as ensuring customer trust, gaining competitive advantage, increasing employee satisfaction, and attracting investors. Customers no longer focus only on product or service quality, but also pay attention to factors such as businesses' values, social responsibilities, degree of transparency and ethical standards. In this context, businesses need to manage their corporate image in a positive way and proceed in harmony not only with their marketing strategies but also with ethical business practices and social responsibility projects. A strong corporate image can contribute to businesses achieving sustainable success, creating customer loyalty, and standing out in a competitive market. Therefore, investing in the corporate image of businesses is seen as a critical strategic step to support their long-term success (Tikveş, 2003).

Corporate image is a result of the effects an institution has on its target audience. These effects shape the attitudes and behaviors of individuals in the target audience towards the institution. The target audience's thoughts, perceptions and feelings towards the institution contribute to the formation of a positive or negative corporate image. For this reason, institutions should aim to create a positive corporate image by systematically conveying the messages they want to convey to their target audiences. As Avşar stated, systematic messages to be delivered to the target audience create positive thoughts about the institution and lay the foundation of a good corporate image. These messages may emphasize elements such as the organization's values, mission, product or service quality, and social responsibility projects. A positive corporate image can build trust in the target audience, ensure customer loyalty, and help gain a competitive advantage. The effects of the corporate image on the target audience determine the way the institution is perceived and the attitude of the target audience towards the institution. A good corporate image can make a significant contribution to the success of the institution by creating a positive impression in the target audience. For this reason, institutions should take care to convey positive messages to their target audiences and create a strong corporate image by using effective communication strategies (Avşar, 2002). Positive One organisation of your image as the advantages are realized, institutions image to their work more more care to show And This on the subject programs to create has started. Some businesses, financial resources important one part directly image to create they separated (Aksoy, Gökbörü & Yinal, 2023). Good One image, just with competition start over emergence about institutions by protecting does not remain the same in time goods offered and services of the quality continually to happen to ensure It is also important in terms of Güzelcik's stated like, image of creating basis purpose of the institution in relationship is located to groups positive, strong, and durable One image is to give. Customers Generally introductions in line with One drying to trust and him-her-it to accept they work. Therefore, new introductions institution institutional your image to reinforce helper to be is expected (Hofsoos, 1994). Good One organisation of your image advantages is: (Ceritoğlu, 2020):

- Rivalry advantage provision: Positive One image, competitors between to get away and customer your preferences of winning One your way can create.
- Customer confidence: good One image, customers drying the one which... your trust can increase customer your loyalty can strengthen it.
- Worker satisfaction: Institution of your image positive to be, available your employees your motivation can increase and new talents to withdraw helper it could be.
- Investor Tensile: Strong One organization image, investors' attention can pull and financial support providing about advantage can provide.

businesses positive One organization image creation efforts, only customer your satisfaction by increasing does not remain the same in time rivalry advantage get their reliability, to strengthen And sustainable to their success contribute can be found. According to Cerit (2006), the institution image One of the business activities various aspects affected One is the concept. This interaction enables the business product from the quality worker relations, buildings from view in your correspondence paper of titles spelling to the shape much wide One on the spectrum emerge interest. In this context, the institution image only external customers on not the same in time drink aim

mass the one which employees and other stakeholders it is also effective on. Organization image, interior and external aim the masses on persuasiveness and trust create this trust to continue and to protect like important to function has. of a business activity transparent, honest and ethic One basically execution, institution your image can strengthen it. Customers of the business product and to your services the one which... trust of employees work your morality and of the business general aspect carries values eyelash in front keeping they shape it. Cerit's emphasized like, institution image of the business out from every element it reflects is affected. Therefore, businesses only marketing to their strategies focus instead of all activities their images will strengthen way to manage It is important. Thus, businesses communicate with both their customers and internal aim with their masses durable One trust and belief relationship they can establish (Cerit, 2006).

### 3. METHOD

#### 3.1. Research Method

This study is quantitative research. Quantitative research is a type of research that examines a problem or issue using numerical data. In this context, the relational screening model was used in the study. Relational screening model is a research model that examines the relationship between two or more variables. In this model, the researcher tries to determine whether the variables change together or whether one variable has an effect on the other variable (Gürbüz and Şahin, 2014).

#### 3.2. Population and Sample

The population of the study consists of 2000 bank customers in TRNC. The population of the study was selected by simple random sampling method. Simple random sampling is a method of creating a sample from a universe in which each unit has an equal probability of being selected for the sample. This means that all units in the universe have an equal and independent chance of being selected into the sample. Simple random sampling is one of the most common sampling methods used to obtain an accurate representation of the universe (Demir and Özcan, 2023). In this context, 369 people were included in the study.

#### 3.3. Data Collection Tools

The survey used as the data collection tool of the research consists of two main parts. In the first part, Kalyoncuoğlu and Faiz (2016) The validity and reliability of the scale expressions for the service quality and corporate image variables tested within the scope of the application were tested. These scales were selected and made suitable for the study because of a detailed review of the literature. The validity of the scales was tested through translation and retranslation processes. The SERVPERF scale developed by Cronin and Taylor (1992) was used to measure the service quality variable. This scale consists of twenty-two questions that measure the customer's evaluation of service quality based on their experience after receiving service. Among these questions, the concept of service quality was discussed through five dimensions called "physical assets, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and identification". The scale consisting of five questions used for the corporate image variable was developed by Bayol et al. Taken from a study conducted by (2000). All questions in this section were presented to respondents on a seven-point Likert type scale (1) Strongly Disagree (7) Strongly Agree). In the second part of the survey form, the respondents to determine socio -demographic characteristics, there are questions regarding gender, age, marital status, education level and monthly personal income.

According to the reliability analysis results, Cronbach's Alpha value was found to be 0.765. This value indicates that Cronbach's Alpha, a statistic that measures the internal consistency of the survey used, is at an adequate level.

#### 3.4. Analysis of Data

Research data was analyzed using SPSS 28.00 program. First, normal distribution test was performed. As a result of the normal distribution test for the variables, it was determined that not all variables exhibited normal distribution. ( $p < 0.05$ ). For this reason, non-parametric analysis techniques were used. Nonparametric analysis techniques are statistical methods used when the data distribution does not meet a certain parametric assumption. These techniques are especially preferred when the data are not normally distributed or do not have homogeneous variance. In this context, in the study; Mann -Whitney U Test. Kruskal -Wallis H Test was performed. The Mann -Whitney U Test is used to evaluate differences between two independent groups. The Kruskal -Wallis H Test is used to evaluate differences between three or more independent groups. It may be preferred when assumptions are not met. Correlation and regression analysis was also performed. Correlation analysis is a statistical method for measuring the strength and direction of the relationship between two variables. Regression analysis is a statistical method that examines the effect of one or more independent variables on a dependent variable (Cevahir, 2020).

### 4. FINDINGS

#### 4.1. Demographic features

Demographic variables of the participants are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic Information of Participants

|                        |  | N   | %     |
|------------------------|--|-----|-------|
| Gender                 | Woman  | 173 | 46.9  |
|                        | Male   | 196 | 53.1  |
| marital status         | Married                                      | 220 | 59.6  |
|                        | Single                                       | 149 | 40.4  |
| Age                    | 22-30 years old                              | 99  | 26.8  |
|                        | 31-40 years old                              | 93  | 25.2  |
|                        | 41-50 years old                              | 96  | 26.0  |
|                        | 51 and over                                  | 81  | 22.0  |
| Educational background | Middle/High School                           | 84  | 22.8  |
|                        | Associate Degree (2-Year Faculty or College) | 91  | 24.7  |
|                        | Undergraduate (4-Year Faculty)               | 143 | 38.8  |
|                        | Doctorate                                    | 51  | 13.8  |
|                        | Bad  | 103 | 27.9  |
| Income status          | Middle                                       | 185 | 50.1  |
|                        | Good   | 81  | 22.0  |
|                        | Total  | 369 | 100.0 |

When the gender distribution of the participants was examined, 46.9% were determined to be female and 53.1% were male. In the marital status category, 59.6% of the participants are married and 40.4% are single. Looking at the distribution by age groups, it is seen that the most participants are between the ages of 22-30 (26.8%). Other age groups have participation rates of 25.2%, 26.0% and 22.0%, respectively. In terms of educational status, 22.8% of the participants are secondary school/high school graduates, 24.7% are associate degree graduates, 38.8% are undergraduate graduates and 13.8% are doctoral graduates. Income status was determined as 27.9%, 50.1% and 22.0% as poor, medium, and good, respectively.

#### 4.2. Descriptive Analysis of Service Quality Dimensions and Corporate Image in Banks

Table 2. Mean and Standard Deviation Values of Service Quality Dimensions and Corporate Image of Banks

|                 | Minimum | Maximum | Cover.  | ss      |
|-----------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Physical Assets | 12.00   | 28.00   | 18.1274 | 3.18412 |
| Reliability     | 14.00   | 35.00   | 22.0298 | 4.51046 |
| Responsiveness  | 11.00   | 28.00   | 16.3496 | 3.24703 |
| Assurance       | 9.00    | 28.00   | 18.7398 | 3.32114 |
| identification  | 14.00   | 35.00   | 22.2493 | 4.43463 |
| Corporate Image | 16.00   | 35.00   | 23.1355 | 3.49193 |

In the Physical Assets dimension, customers' evaluations are on average over 18.13 points, varying between a minimum of 12 points and a maximum of 28 points. The observed standard deviation in this dimension is 3.18 points, indicating limited variation. In the reliability dimension, the average score of customer evaluations is 22.03, the lowest value is 14 and the highest value is 35. The standard deviation on this dimension was determined as 4.51 points, which indicates that customer opinions can vary more widely. Mean scores of 16.35, 18.74, and 22.25 were observed for the Responsiveness, Assurance, and Identification dimensions, respectively. The standard deviations in these dimensions were determined as 3.25, 3.32 and 4.43 points, respectively. Finally, the average evaluation of customers in the Corporate Image dimension is 23.14 points, varying between a minimum of 16 and a maximum of 35 points. The standard deviation was determined as 3.49 points. This data can be used to understand the strengths and weaknesses in the bank's customer satisfaction and corporate image. Lower standard deviations indicate that customer opinions are more consistent, while higher standard deviations indicate that customer opinions may vary more widely.

#### 4.3. The Relationship Between Service Quality Dimensions and Corporate Image for Banks

H0: There is a significant relationship between banks' service quality dimensions and corporate image.

H1: There is no significant relationship between banks' service quality dimensions and corporate image.

Table 3. The Relationship Between Service Quality Dimensions and Corporate Image of Banks (Correlation Analysis)

|                 |    | Corporate Image |
|-----------------|----|-----------------|
| Physical Assets | r  | .258 **         |
|                 | p. | 0.000           |
| Reliability     | r  | .237 **         |
|                 | p. | 0.000           |
| Responsiveness  | r  | .274 **         |
|                 | p. | 0.000           |
| Assurance       | r  | .106 *          |
|                 | p. | 0.042           |
| identification  | r  | .269 **         |
|                 | p. | 0.000           |

The correlation coefficient (r) between Physical Assets and Corporate Image is 0.258. This relationship is statistically significant (p=0.000), meaning that increasing physical assets is associated with increasing corporate image. The correlation coefficient (r) between Reliability and Corporate Image is 0.237. This relationship is statistically significant (p=0.000), meaning that as reliability increases, corporate image also increases. The correlation coefficient (r) between Responsiveness and Corporate Image is 0.274. This relationship is statistically significant (p=0.000), meaning that as responsiveness increases, corporate image also increases. The correlation coefficient (r) between Assurance and Corporate Image is 0.106. This relationship is statistically significant (p=0.042), but since the correlation coefficient is low, this relationship can be considered weak. The correlation coefficient (r) between Identification and Corporate Image is 0.269. This relationship is statistically significant (p=0.000), meaning that as identification increases, corporate image also increases.

These analysis results show that there is a generally positive and significant relationship between service quality dimensions and corporate image. That is, there is a strong connection between customers' perceptions of service quality and corporate image.

#### 4.4. The Effect of Banks' Service Quality Dimensions on Their Corporate Images

H0: Service quality dimensions of banks have an effect on corporate image.

H2: Service quality dimensions of banks have no effect on corporate image.

Table 4. Regression Analysis Results for Investigating the Effect of Banks' Service Quality Dimensions on Their Corporate Images

| Variables | $\beta$ | t     | p     | F      |
|-----------|---------|-------|-------|--------|
| FV → KI   | 0.258   | 5,121 | 0.000 | 26,223 |
| GK → KI   | 0.237   | 4,669 | 0.000 | 21,802 |
| CV → KI   | 0.274   | 5,454 | 0.000 | 29,747 |
| G → KI    | 0.106   | 2,045 | 0.042 | 4,182  |
| Ö → KI    | 0.269   | 5,342 | 0.000 | 28,532 |

The results of the analysis show that each service quality dimension (Physical Assets, Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance, and Identification) has a positive impact on corporate image. Each regression coefficient is positive and statistically significant, meaning that as these service quality dimensions increase, corporate image also increases. Additionally, F statistics values show that the model is statistically significant in general. This analysis highlights the importance of service quality dimensions in shaping banks' corporate image.

#### CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

According to the results of this study, it has been determined that customer evaluations on service quality dimensions, especially Physical Assets, Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance, and Identification dimensions, have a positive impact on corporate image. While it was observed that customer evaluations were generally high and consistent in the Physical Assets dimension, it was determined that there was a wider variety in the Reliability



dimension. Customer evaluations in the dimensions of Responsiveness, Assurance and Identification show a moderate level of consistency. According to the correlation analysis, a positive and significant relationship was found between Physical Assets and Corporate Image. Likewise, the relationships between the dimensions of Reliability, Responsiveness and Identification and Corporate Image are also positive and significant. However, the relationship between the Assurance dimension and Corporate Image can be considered weaker. Regression analysis reveals that each service quality dimension (Physical Assets, Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance and Identification) has a positive impact on corporate image. This highlights the importance of banks focusing on service quality to strengthen their corporate image by increasing customer satisfaction. In general, the analyzes show that service quality dimensions play a critical role in shaping the corporate image.

Based on the results of this study, we can make the following recommendations:

- Service Quality Improvement: Customer evaluations show wider variation, especially in the Reliability dimension. Therefore, the bank should review and improve its operational processes to provide more reliable services to customers.
- Training and Development: High customer evaluations in the Physical Assets dimension indicate that the bank manages its physical environment effectively. To maintain this success in other service quality dimensions, importance should be given to personnel training and development.
- Strengthening Communication Strategies: The relationship between the Responsiveness dimension and Corporate Image is at a medium level. The bank should strengthen its communication strategies and be more sensitive to customer feedback to respond quickly and effectively to customer demands.
- Improving the Assurance Dimension: The relationship between the Assurance dimension and Corporate Image may be weak, so the bank should review and update its security protocols to provide greater assurance to customers.
- Customer Feedback System: Customer reviews should be constantly monitored and analyzed. Customer feedback systems should be strengthened, and this data should be used to determine bank strategies.
- Marketing Positive Image: Marketing positive relationships in the Corporate Image dimension should be emphasized in advertising campaigns and other communication strategies. The bank must create an image that emphasizes customer satisfaction and reliability.

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## THE EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP STRUCTURE ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE

Gülden Bozat  
Akdeniz Karpaz University

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

### ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine the effect of leadership structure on employee performance in banks. The study was conducted using the survey technique, which is one of the quantitative research methods. The population of the study consisted of employees working in banks in TRNC and the sample consisted of 247 employees. Data were collected through a scale. The scale used consists of 3 parts. In the first part, personal information form prepared by the researcher, in the second part, Perceived Leadership Style Scale developed by House and Dessler (1974) and in the last part, job performance scale developed by Darwish (2000) were used.

According to the findings of the study, it was observed that men scored higher in the participative leadership dimension and individuals who worked longer in the directive leadership dimension. In addition, it was determined that certain age groups and married individuals obtained higher scores in participative leadership. A significant relationship was found between professional seniority and leadership style. It was observed that participants with less professional seniority achieved higher scores in certain leadership styles. In terms of job performance, it is noteworthy that certain demographic groups have higher scores. In addition, while participative leadership had a significant effect on job performance, directive leadership and perceived leadership style had no significant effect on job performance. As a result, it was determined that demographic factors and leadership styles, especially participative leadership, and professional seniority influence job performance. According to the results, there is a negative relationship between participative leadership and job performance. On the other hand, no relationship was found between perceived leadership style and job performance.

**Key Words:** Leader, Leadership, Business performance.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1. Problem Status

A leader is a person who influences and directs others and ensures that they progress towards a certain goal or purpose (Başer and Seçkin, 2023). Leadership is an effective process to direct people to a certain goal, purpose, or vision (Maşalı et al., 2023). In this process, leadership refers to a leader's ability to influence, motivate and direct groups or individuals. Leadership requires skills such as decision making, problem solving, effective communication, motivation, guidance, support, and vision setting. Leadership can be applied in different styles, and a person's leadership style may vary depending on his personal characteristics, experiences, and leadership situation (Yuldashev, 2023).

Participatory leadership style refers to an approach in which the leader includes team members in decision-making processes and values their ideas and opinions. The leader cares about the contributions of team members and encourages them to achieve a common goal by sharing their responsibilities (Maşalı et al., 2023). Directive leadership, on the other hand, takes a more directive approach. In this leadership style, the leader gives instructions, makes decisions, and generally controls work processes. Directive leadership is a leadership style in which the leader is effective and directive in giving instructions, planning and overseeing work, making decisions and determining tasks (Yıldız, 2023). In this leadership style, the leader clearly tells team members what to do, has more control over the decision-making process, and generally provides guidance on how to do the job. This leadership model focuses on providing direction and clear instructions in achieving goals. Directive leaders take direct initiative to motivate team members and organize the flow of work, determining how things will be done and giving detailed instructions when necessary. This leadership style can be especially effective when quick decisions need to be made for a specific job or project and when used with new employees (Ergin, 2023).

Leadership structures can affect employee performance (Güvener and Ayhan, 2023). Performance generally refers to how effectively and efficiently a particular job or task is performed. On a job or individual basis, performance can be evaluated in terms of achieving goals, efficiency, competence, achievement, contribution, or results. Job performance often includes elements such as completion of specific tasks, project success, meeting goals, personal development, and achievement (Aung et al., 2023). Performance relates to the quality, quantity and effectiveness of actions taken at a given time, and this concept is often used to evaluate the performance of employees in the work environment. This indicates to what extent the individual contributes to the goals of the team or organization and whether he or she works efficiently and effectively (Chen et al., 2023).

Job performance refers to the ability, effectiveness, efficiency, and success an employee demonstrates in performing his/her duties at work. This performance is a measure used to evaluate the quality, quantity, and

effectiveness of an employee's work over a specific period in a specific work environment. Job performance includes the employee's level of completion of tasks at work, achievement of goals, efficiency, effectiveness, and success. Employees' performance is evaluated by several factors such as their ability to perform their duties, work ethics, work discipline, achievement of goals, their contribution, and their overall impact in the workplace. This evaluation is important for the development, reward, promotion, and continuity of employees in their jobs (Cenk, 2023).

Leaders' behavior patterns and leadership styles can have significant effects on employees' motivation, commitment level, and job performance. A good leadership structure can increase employee productivity, increase job satisfaction, and contribute to achieving organizational goals (Yedigöz and Doğrul, 2023). Research has shown that effective leadership approaches have positive effects on employees. For example, participatory leadership can increase employees' motivation and make them feel more valued by encouraging their participation in decisions. Directive leadership, on the other hand, can ensure that employees fulfill their duties by giving specific goals and instructions (Erden, 2023). The impact of leaders on business performance may vary depending on their leadership style, employee characteristics, and the conditions of the work environment. Therefore, it is important for leaders to balance different leadership approaches by better understanding employees and organizational goals and develop appropriate strategies to improve business performance.

## 1.2. Purpose and Importance of the Research

The aim of this study is to examine the effect of leadership structure in banks on employee performance. A study examining the effect of leadership structures in banks on employee performance is an important research topic for organizational effectiveness and employee productivity in the financial sector. Examining the leadership structure within the scope of participatory and directive leadership dimensions provides the opportunity to understand and analyze different aspects of leadership styles in businesses. While participatory leadership refers to a leadership style that cares about employees' opinions, involves them in business processes and ensures cooperation, directive leadership is a more directive, commanding and organizing leadership style. This study evaluated the effects of both leadership styles on job performance. In this sense, participative leadership can increase employee engagement, motivation, and creativity, while directive leadership may be more efficient or appropriate in certain situations. The leadership structures examined can guide business managers in determining the most effective leadership styles and improving employee performance.

### 1.2. hypotheses

The hypotheses of this research are given below:

- H<sub>1</sub> = Perceived leadership style differs according to gender.
- H<sub>2</sub> = Perceived leadership style differs according to age.
- H<sub>3</sub> = Perceived leadership style differs according to marital status.
- H<sub>4</sub> = Perceived leadership style differs according to the length of time working in the institution.
- H<sub>5</sub> = Perceived leadership style differs according to professional seniority.
- H<sub>6</sub> = Job performance differs according to demographic variables.
- H<sub>7</sub> = There is a relationship between leadership structure and performance.
- H<sub>8</sub> = Leadership structure has an effect on performance.

### 1.3. Assumptions

It is assumed that research participants give their answers to the survey questions sincerely.

### 1.4. Limitations

Research:

- With research participants,
- With the scale questions used in the research,
- It is limited to the sources used in the research.

### 1.5. Definitions

**Leader:** A person who influences and directs others and ensures that they progress towards a certain goal or purpose (Başer and Seçkin, 2023).

**Leadership:** It is an effective process to direct people to a certain goal, purpose or vision (Maşalı et al., 2023).

**Participatory leadership:** It refers to an approach in which the leader includes team members in decision-making processes and values their ideas and opinions (Kurtgöz and Polat, 2023).

**Directive Leadership:** It is a leadership style in which the leader is effective and directive in giving instructions, planning and supervising work, making decisions and determining tasks (Ergin, 2023).

**Performance:** Performance generally refers to how effectively and efficiently a particular job or task is performed (Aung et al., 2023).

**Job performance:** It refers to the ability, effectiveness, efficiency, and success an employee displays while performing his duties at work (Cenk, 2023).

## 2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

### 2.1. Leader and Leadership Concepts

Leadership is perhaps one of the most important concepts for management, the principles of which were formed gradually throughout the historical process and have survived to this day by adapting to changing conditions over time. Leadership, which begins with treating management as a science and has vital importance in the executive function of management, plays an important role in helping organizations achieve their goals (Şahne and Şar, 2015). The root of the word "Leadership" dates to Latin and later to English. The verb form of the word "lead" means "to direct, to show the way, to pioneer and to guide, etc." It has meaning. The word "leader", which indicates the person who does the action in question, has meanings such as guide, guide, guide and pioneer. Although the word "leader" has been suggested as an equivalent in the Turkish language, the word "leader", which is translated verbatim from English, is used more (Eraslan, 2004).

People tend to live together both because they are social beings and because of their benefits. Leadership emerged from the need to manage groups and communities because of individuals living together. This situation is a natural consequence of the need to manage the group and one of the members of the group wanting to manage the group (Erkutlu, 2014). Leadership is a concept as old as the existence of humanity, and the concepts of leadership, leader and follower are represented in 5000-year-old Egyptian inscriptions. It is stated that Caesar expressed his thoughts about leaders and leadership in his speech in front of the Roman Senate, in Homer's Iliad and Odyssey, and in the works written by Plato and Aristotle (Aslan, 2013).

Leadership is a subject that has excited people since ancient times. The term leader conjures up images of the powerful, dynamic individual who commands victorious armies, directs corporate empires from the top of glittering skyscrapers, or changes the course of nations. Leadership's widespread admiration in this way may be because it touches the lives of all people, as well as becoming a mysterious process (Yukl, 2011).

Although leadership, which is a concept that has existed throughout history, began to be examined scientifically only in the 1920s, thousands of studies and hundreds of definitions of leadership were made in the 20th century (Bakan and Büyükbeşe, 2010). Kellerman, in an interview with Volckmann; He stated that he heard approximately 1400 different definitions about leader and leadership (Kellerman, 2014). These numbers show that there is no definitive consensus on the definitions of leader and leadership and the search for a better definition continues (Silva, 2016).

It is very difficult to address where leadership comes from and where it is going structurally. Leadership above all else depicts an enlightened mind. When viewed from this perspective, the nature of leadership can be designed just like the rhythmic steps of the universe (Akdemir, 2018). It is difficult to define leadership precisely. Considering the complex nature of leadership, there is no general and widely accepted definition of leadership (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2018). The concept of leadership is fully mastered. The concept reappears in different forms due to its complexity. Numerous terms have been produced to deal with this problem, but the concept in question is not sufficiently defined. Scientists have generally defined the concept of leadership according to their own perspectives and with the aspects of the term that concern them most (Salamah, Alzubi, and Yinal, 2023). Dozens of books and thousands of articles about leaders and leadership are published every year, and institutions invest millions of dollars to develop their future leaders (Volckmann, 2012).

### 2.2. With Leadership Behavior Style the Relationship Between Employee Performance

There is a strong relationship between leadership behavior style and employee performance. The behaviors exhibited by leaders have a significant impact on employees' motivation, job satisfaction and performance. To understand this relationship, some basic leadership styles, and the effects of these styles on employee performance can be taken into consideration (Saritaş and Myrvang, 2023):

- **Authoritarian Leadership:** Authoritarian leaders generally act by command, give clear instructions to employees, and play a central role in the decision-making process. This style can enable immediate and rapid decision-making in some cases, but in the long run it can create a lack of motivation and independent thinking skills in employees. Such a leadership style may negatively affect the creativity and performance of employees (Uçar and Gündoğdu, 2023).
- **Democratic Leadership:** Democratic leadership style encourages employee participation, values their opinions, and includes them in the decision-making process. This style can increase employee motivation and encourage cooperation and team spirit. Employees may feel more valued under this style, which can generally increase their performance (Yedigöz and Doğrul, 2023).
- **Laissez-Faire Leadership:** In this style, the leader gives employees wide autonomy and freedom. Employees make their own decisions and manage their own tasks. This style may encourage creativity in some cases but may lead to a lack of motivation and a decrease in performance in employees due to uncertainty and lack of direction (Onay and Latif, 2023).

The relationship between leadership styles and employee performance shows that the behaviors exhibited by leaders have a significant impact on employees' motivation, commitment, and job performance. Choosing a leadership style that suits employees' needs and business goals can often positively affect employee performance. A good leadership style can help employees motivate, develop, and increase their job performance.

### 2.3. Related Research

The study conducted by Saygılı and Avcı (2023) investigated the relationship between leadership behavior, proactive career commitment and silent resignation. According to the research results: It was found that there is a positive and significant relationship between people-oriented leadership style and proactive career commitment. This shows that leaders' focus on their employees supports employees in developing a proactive approach towards their careers. A negative and significant relationship was found between task-oriented leadership style and silent resignation. This shows that leaders' focus only on tasks has a negative impact on employees' silent resignation, that is, silently quitting their jobs. It was stated that proactive career commitment did not have a mediating effect on the relationship between task-oriented leadership style and silent resignation. That is, the effect of task-oriented leadership style on silent resignation was direct, not through proactive career commitment. It was stated that proactive career commitment had a mediating effect on the relationship between people-oriented leadership style and silent resignation. In other words, people-oriented leadership style increases employees' career commitment and reduces their tendency to silent resignation. These results demonstrate the effects of leadership styles on employees' career commitment and resignation tendencies and help us understand how specific leadership styles contribute to specific outcomes. The research results reveal an important finding that a people-oriented leadership style can create a stable working atmosphere and support the career development of employees.

The study conducted by Erkal (2023) concluded that inclusive leadership affects the level of job embeddedness of employees. Additionally, it was determined that leader-member interaction had a significant effect on job embeddedness. According to the results of the study, it was determined that leader-member interaction played a mediating role in the effect of inclusive leadership on job embeddedness. The results of this research show that leaders in organizations being inclusive, that is, being open, accessible, and interacting with employees, can contribute to employees' levels of job embeddedness. Leaders interacting with their employees and being open and communicative can increase employees' commitment to their jobs and the organization. Additionally, the finding that leader-member interaction plays a mediating role in the effect of inclusive leadership on job embeddedness emphasizes the importance of leaders' effective communication and interaction skills.

Günaydın et al. (2023) showed that perceived transformational leadership has a positive effect on job performance and that this effect plays a full mediating role through flow at work. However, the study also found that the positive effect of perceived transformational leadership on job performance disappeared when academics experienced flow at work. Research results highlight the importance of experiencing flow at work. In other words, the flow experience at work has obscured the positive impact of perceived transformational leadership on job performance among academics. This suggests that the effect of flow experience on job performance overshadows the effect of transformational leadership.

According to the results of Taşkın's (2023) research, it was determined that there is a strong and positive relationship between the perception of authentic leadership and trust in the manager. It has been stated that the perception of authentic leadership explains the level of trust in the manager by 53%. This result is consistent with other studies in the literature. In the analysis conducted across institution types, it was determined that association employees with more flexible legal regulations had a higher level of authentic leadership perception compared to employees with foundation status. Another finding of the research is that the perceptions of volunteer employees in the dimensions of authentic leadership, trust in the manager and job performance are significantly higher than those of full-time employees. However, research results indicate that there is no significant relationship between the perception of authentic leadership, trust in the manager and job performance.

## 3. METHOD

### 3.1. Research Method

This study is carried out using the survey technique, which is one of the quantitative research methods. Survey research is usually conducted with larger samples and provides a broad perspective on the general views, interests, skills, abilities, or attitudes of participants. This type of research usually aims to collect information about a large population and generally uses techniques such as surveys or interviews in the data collection process. Participants are generally selected to create a representative sample that allows generalizations to be made about the population. Survey studies are a useful research method to understand general trends and the general situation on a subject. Such studies generally aim to obtain large data sets and make generalizations ( Karasar , 2008).

### 3.2. Population and Sample

The population of the research consists of employees in banks in TRNC. The sample of the study was selected by quota sampling method. Quota sampling is a sampling technique in which the researcher includes a certain



proportion of individuals or items that must meet a certain criterion. In this method, a certain quota in sample selection is determined based on demographic or certain characteristics such as gender, age, professional seniority (Karasar , 2008). The scales distributed and collected via Google Forms between 01.09.2023 and 02.10.2022 were delivered to 350 employees. On the other hand, the forms were received back from 298 people; Due to missing data, 247 of these forms could be included in the study. In this context, the sample of the study consisted of 247 employees.

### 3.3. Data Collection Tools

In the research, data was collected through a scale. The scale used consists of 3 parts. In the first part, there are questions prepared by the researcher to determine the socio -demographic characteristics of the participants.

To evaluate leadership styles, the Perceived Leadership Style Scale, a 15-item Likert- type scale developed by House and Dessler (1974), was used. This scale is designed to examine participatory and directive leadership styles emphasized in the Path-Goal Model of leadership. In the scale, statements are scored between "1: I never agree" and "5: I always agree". The overall  $\alpha$  reliability value of this 15-item scale was calculated as 0.90 by Sari (2022). A scale with a total of 13 items was created, including 8 statements to examine the participatory leadership dimension and 5 statements to evaluate the directive leadership dimension. The  $\alpha$  reliability value of this new 13-item scale was calculated as 0.89. The obtained  $\alpha$  reliability value is higher than 0.70, indicating that the reliability level of the scale is acceptable (Sari, 2022).

In the third section, there are five questions to determine employees' job performance. The self- appraisal method developed by Darwish (2000) (The job performance of employees was measured using approach). Questions were ranked using a scale from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (5). In the first scale, the reliability coefficient alpha value was calculated as 0.60. However, after removing the third question, which reduced the reliability of the scale, the reliability level of the scale consisting of four questions was calculated as alpha 0.70 (Tutar, 2008).

**Table 1.** Reliability Analyzes for Scales

|                                  | Cronbach's Alpha | Article |
|----------------------------------|------------------|---------|
| Perceived Leadership Style Scale | 0.80             | 15      |
| Job Performance Scale            | 0.77             | 5       |

the Cronbach's Alpha value of the perceived leadership style scale is .80; Cronbach's Alpha value of the job performance scale was determined as .77.

### 3.4. Analysis of Data

SPSS 28 program was used to analyze the data collected in the study and was examined at the reliability level. T -Test, ANOVA and ANOVA Tukey tests were used to examine whether the scale scores differ according to socio -demographic characteristics. T-Test is used to compare means between two groups, while ANOVA is used to compare multiple groups means, and the ANOVA Tukey test specifically identifies differences between these group means. These statistical methods are widely used to identify significant differences between groups in research or survey data.

## 4. RESULTS

### 4.1. Demographic features

Demographic variables of the participants are given in Table 2:

**Table 2.** Demographic Information of Participants

|        |                    | N   | %    |
|--------|--------------------|-----|------|
| Gender | Woman              | 141 | 57.1 |
|        | Male               | 106 | 42.9 |
| Age    | 30 years and under | 35  | 14.2 |
|        | 31-40 years old    | 131 | 53.0 |



|                                 |                  |     |       |
|---------------------------------|------------------|-----|-------|
|                                 | 41-50 years old  | 81  | 32.8  |
| marital status                  | Married          | 140 | 56.7  |
|                                 | Single           | 107 | 43.3  |
| Working time in the institution | less than 1 year | 47  | 19.0  |
|                                 | 1-5 years        | 106 | 42.9  |
|                                 | 6-10 years       | 70  | 28.3  |
|                                 | 11-15 years      | 24  | 9.7   |
| professional seniority          | less than 1 year | 35  | 14.2  |
|                                 | 1-5 years        | 92  | 37.2  |
|                                 | 6-10 years       | 84  | 34.0  |
|                                 | 11-15 years      | 36  | 14.6  |
|                                 | Total            | 247 | 100.0 |

Looking at Table 2, 57.1% of the participants are female and 42.9% are male; 53% were 31-40 years old, 32.8% were 41-50 years old and 14.2% were 30 years old and under; 56.7% were married and 43.3% were single; The working period in the institution is 42.9% between 1-5 years, 28.3% between 6-10 years, 19% less than 1 year and 9.7% between 11-15 years and the distribution of professional seniority is also It is seen that 37.2% are 1-5 years, 34% are 6-10 years, 14.6% are 11-15 years and 14.2% are less than 1 year.

#### 4.2. Findings Regarding the Descriptive Analysis of the Scales

Table 3 shows the descriptive analysis results of the scales.

**Table 3.** Descriptive Analysis of Scales

|                                | Minimum | Maximum | $\bar{X}$ | SS    |
|--------------------------------|---------|---------|-----------|-------|
| participatory leadership       | 28.00   | 36.00   | 31.42     | 2,008 |
| Directive leadership           | 12.00   | 18.00   | 15.63     | 1,835 |
| Leadership style scale general | 50.00   | 61.00   | 55.87     | 3,403 |
| Performance                    | 19.00   | 21.00   | 20.00     | 0.624 |

According to the results of the analysis, the general average of the leadership style scale ( $\bar{X}$ ) is 55.87 ( Sd . 3.40 ); The average performance scale ( $\bar{X}$ ) was found to be 20 ( Sd . 0, 62). Participative leadership ( $\bar{X}$ =31.42; Sd . 2.00) has the highest mean among the sub-dimensions of the leadership style scale. This shows that participative leadership is more prominent and higher than directive leadership in the leadership style scale. Measurements indicate that leadership style is high, but performance is lower. This may indicate that although the leadership style is effective, performance is below expectations.

#### 4.3. Descriptive Analyzes Between Demographic Variables and Perceived Leadership Style Scale

The T-Test results conducted in the study to test the hypothesis "  $H_1$  = Perceived leadership style differs according to gender " are given below.

**Table 4.** Comparison of Perceived Leadership Style Scale Sub-Dimension Scores by Gender

|                          | N     | $\bar{X}$ | SS    | f     | p.           |
|--------------------------|-------|-----------|-------|-------|--------------|
| participatory leadership | Woman | 141       | 31,41 | 1,817 | <b>0.008</b> |
|                          | Male  | 106       | 31.44 | 2,247 |              |

|  |       |     |       |       |        |              |
|--|-------|-----|-------|-------|--------|--------------|
| Directive leadership                     | Woman | 141 | 15.43 | 2,061 | 29,028 | <b>0.000</b> |
|  | Male  | 106 | 15.89 | 1,453 |        |              |
| Perceived leadership style scale general | Woman | 141 | 55.53 | 3,723 | 10,491 | <b>0.001</b> |
|  | Male  | 106 | 56.33 | 2,878 |        |              |

p < 0.05

When Table 4 is examined, it is seen that perceived leadership style differs significantly according to gender (p < 0.05). Accordingly, it was determined that male participants received higher scores than female participants in the participatory, directive dimensions and the perceived leadership scale. The finding of a difference in the measurements shows that gender is effective in the perception of leadership style. This indicates that gender may be a determining factor in the way one perceives leadership style.

of the ANOVA conducted to test the hypothesis "H2 = Perceived leadership style differs according to age" and the ANOVA Tukey test results to determine which groups the differences are between are given below.

**Table 5.** Comparison of Perceived Leadership Style Scale Sub-Dimension Scores by Age

|  |                    | N   | $\bar{X}$ | SS    | f      | p.           | Difference  |
|--|--------------------|-----|-----------|-------|--------|--------------|---|
| participatory – leadership               | 30 years and under | 35  | 32.65     | 0.481 | 20,877 | <b>0.000</b> | 30 years and below > 31-40 years                          |
|  | 31-40 years old    | 131 | 30.73     | 1,722 |        |              | 41-50 years old > 31-40 years old                         |
|  | 41-50 years old    | 81  | 32.02     | 2,382 |        |              |   |
| Directive leadership                     | 30 years and under | 35  | 15.28     | 2,407 | 5,649  | <b>0.004</b> | 41-50 years old > 30 years old and below, 31-40 years old |
|  | 31-40 years old    | 131 | 15.38     | 1,761 |        |              |   |
|  | 41-50 years old    | 81  | 16,18     | 1,550 |        |              |   |
| Perceived leadership style scale general | 30 years and under | 35  | 57.31     | 2,564 | 14,147 | <b>0.000</b> | 30 years and below > 31-40 years                          |
|  | 31-40 years old    | 131 | 54.85     | 3,565 |        |              | 41-50 years old > 31-40 years old                         |
|  | 41-50 years old    | 81  | 56.91     | 2,912 |        |              |   |

p < 0.05

When Table 5 is examined, it is seen that there are significant differences between perceived leadership style and age (p < 0.05). Accordingly, the general scores of the participatory leadership dimension and the perceived leadership scale were found to be higher for participants aged 30 and under than for participants aged 31-40, and for participants aged 41-50 than for participants aged 31-40. In the directive leadership dimension, it was determined that participants between the ages of 41-50 received higher scores than both participants aged 30 and under and participants between the ages of 31-40.

The results of the T-Test conducted in the research to test the hypothesis "H<sub>3</sub> = Perceived leadership style differs according to marital status" are given below.

**Table 6.** Comparison of Perceived Leadership Style Scale Sub-Dimension Scores According to Marital Status

|                          |         | N   | $\bar{X}$ | SS    | f      | p.           |
|--------------------------|---------|-----|-----------|-------|--------|--------------|
| participatory leadership | Married | 140 | 31.49     | 1,732 | 14,917 | <b>0.000</b> |
|                          | Single  | 107 | 31,34     | 2,327 |        |              |

|  |         |     |       |       |        |              |
|--|---------|-----|-------|-------|--------|--------------|
| Directive leadership                     | Married | 140 | 15.75 | 1,798 | 3,335  | <b>0.069</b> |
|  | Single  | 107 | 15.47 | 1,880 |        |              |
| Perceived leadership style scale general | Married | 140 | 56.25 | 2,968 | 14,698 | <b>0.000</b> |
|  | Single  | 107 | 55.38 | 3,859 |        |              |

p < 0.05

When Table 6 is examined, it is seen that there are significant differences between perceived leadership style and marital status (p < 0.05). Accordingly, married participants received higher scores than single participants in the participatory and directive leadership dimensions and the perceived leadership style scale. In this case, it seems that marriage status affects the perception of leadership style.

, the ANOVA performed to test the hypothesis "H<sub>4</sub> = Perceived leadership style differs according to the duration of employment in the institution" and the ANOVA Tukey test results to determine which groups the differences are between are given below.

**Table 7.** Comparison of Perceived Leadership Style Scale Sub-Dimension Scores According to Duration of Working in the Institution

|  |                  | N   | $\bar{X}$ | SS      | f     | p.           | Difference                     |
|--|------------------|-----|-----------|---------|-------|--------------|--------------------------------|
| participatory _ leadership               | less than 1 year | 47  | 31.7660   | 0.42798 | 1,934 | 0.125        | No difference                  |
|  | 1-5 years        | 106 | 31.0849   | 2.09815 |       |              |                                |
|  | 6-10 years       | 70  | 31.7000   | 2.53869 |       |              |                                |
|  | 11-15 years      | 24  | 31.5000   | 1.53226 |       |              |                                |
| Directive leadership                     | less than 1 year | 47  | 15.2766   | 2.42901 | 2,975 | <b>0.032</b> | 11-15 years > Less than 1 year |
|  | 1-5 years        | 106 | 15.7547   | 1.63189 |       |              |                                |
|  | 6-10 years       | 70  | 15.4000   | 1.87586 |       |              |                                |
|  | 11-15 years      | 24  | 16.5000   | 0.51075 |       |              |                                |
| Perceived leadership style scale general | less than 1 year | 47  | 56.0426   | 2.14636 | 1,118 | 0.343        | No difference                  |
|  | 1-5 years        | 106 | 55.7264   | 4.11625 |       |              |                                |
|  | 6-10 years       | 70  | 55.6143   | 3.39775 |       |              |                                |
|  | 11-15 years      | 24  | 57.0000   | 1.02151 |       |              |                                |

p < 0.05

When Table 7 is examined, no relationship was found between participatory leadership and the overall perceived leadership scale and the length of time working in the institution (p > 0.05). On the other hand, it was observed that there was a significant relationship between directive leadership and working time in the institution (p < 0.05). Participants who have worked in the organization for 11-15 years have higher directive leadership scores than those who have worked for less than 1 year.

The results of the ANOVA Test conducted in the research to test the hypothesis "H<sub>5</sub> = Perceived leadership style differs according to professional seniority" are given below.

**Table 8.** Comparison of Perceived Leadership Style Scale Sub-Dimension Scores According to Professional Seniority

|                            |                  | N  | $\bar{X}$ | SS    | f      | p.           | Difference          |
|----------------------------|------------------|----|-----------|-------|--------|--------------|---------------------|
| participatory _ leadership | less than 1 year | 35 | 31.71     | 1,250 | 22,788 | <b>0.000</b> | 1 year > 6-10 years |
|                            | 1-5 years        | 92 | 32.14     | 0.932 |        |              |                     |

|                                |                  |    |       |       |        |                        |
|--------------------------------|------------------|----|-------|-------|--------|------------------------|
| router leadership              | 6-10 years       | 84 | 30,14 | 1,736 |        | 1-5 years > 6-10 years |
|                                | 11-15 years      | 36 | 32,33 | 3,346 |        |                        |
|                                | less than 1 year | 35 | 15.42 | 2,500 | 30,981 | 0.000                  |
|                                | 1-5 years        | 92 | 16.28 | 1,385 |        |                        |
|                                | 6-10 years       | 84 | 14.42 | 1,507 |        |                        |
|                                | 11-15 years      | 36 | 17.00 | 0.828 |        |                        |
|                                | less than 1 year | 35 | 56.17 | 4,239 | 34,360 | 0.000                  |
|                                | 1-5 years        | 92 | 57.04 | 2,449 |        |                        |
| Leadership style scale general | 6-10 years       | 84 | 53.42 | 2,786 |        |                        |
|                                | 11-15 years      | 36 | 58.33 | 2,390 |        |                        |

p < 0.05

When Table 8 is examined, it is seen that there is a significant difference between participatory leadership, directive leadership dimensions and perceived leadership style between general and professional seniority (p < 0.05). Accordingly, it was determined that, in terms of participatory leadership and perceived leadership style, those with less than 1 year of professional seniority received higher scores than those with 6-10 years of professional seniority, and those with 1-5 years of professional seniority than those with 6-10 years of professional seniority. Similarly, in the directive leadership dimension, it was determined that those with less than 1 year of professional seniority received higher scores than those with 6-10 years of professional seniority, and those with 1-5 years of professional seniority scored higher than those with both less than 1 year and 6-10 years of professional seniority.

#### 4.4. Descriptive Analyzes Between Demographic Variables and Performance Scale

The results of the analysis conducted to test the hypothesis "H<sub>6</sub> = Job performance differs according to demographic variables" are given below.

**Table 9.** Comparison of Performance Scale Scores According to Demographic Variables

|  | N   | $\bar{X}$ | SS    | f      | p.           | Difference  |
|--|-----|-----------|-------|--------|--------------|---|
| <b>Gender</b>                          |     |           |       |        |              |   |
| Woman                                  | 141 | 20.08     | 0.499 | 30,241 | <b>0.000</b> | Female > Male   |
| Male                                   | 106 | 19.88     | 0.747 |        |              |   |
| <b>Age</b>                             |     |           |       |        |              |   |
| 30 years and under                     | 35  | 20.34     | 0.481 | 7,006  | <b>0.001</b> | 30 years old > 31-40 years old; 41 -50 years old      |
| 31-40 years old                        | 131 | 19.9      | 0.673 |        |              |   |
| 41-50 years old                        | 81  | 20        | 0.547 |        |              |   |
| <b>marital status</b>                  |     |           |       |        |              |   |
| Married                                | 140 | 20.25     | 0.604 | 3,462  | 0.64         | No difference   |
| Single                                 | 107 | 19.66     | 0.474 |        |              |   |
| <b>Working time in the institution</b> |     |           |       |        |              |   |
| less than 1 year                       | 47  | 20        | 0     | 15,701 | <b>0.000</b> | 1 year > 11-15  |
| 1-5 years                              | 106 | 19.88     | 0.747 |        |              | 1-5 years > 11-15 years                               |
| 6-10 years                             | 70  | 20.34     | 0.478 |        |              | 6-10 years > less than 1 year; 1-5 years; 11-15 years |
| 11-15 years                            | 24  | 19.5      | 0.51  |        |              |   |
| <b>professional seniority</b>          |     |           |       |        |              |   |

|                  |    |       |       |        |              |   |
|------------------|----|-------|-------|--------|--------------|---|
| less than 1 year | 35 | 20.34 | 0.481 |        |              | 1 year > 1-5 years, 6- 10 years                       |
| 1-5 years        | 92 | 19.86 | 0.338 | 34,263 | <b>0.000</b> |   |
| 6-10 years       | 84 | 19.71 | 0.704 |        |              | 11-15 years > less than 1 year; 1-5 years; 6-10 years |
| 11-15 years      | 36 | 20.66 | 0.478 |        |              |   |

p < 0.05

When Table 9 is examined, it is seen that there is a significant difference between performance and gender, age, working time in the institution and professional seniority (p < 0.05). Accordingly, in terms of job performance.

- Female participants differ from men.
- Participants under the age of 30 are divided into participants between the ages of 31-40 and 41-50.
- Those who have worked in the institution for less than 1 year are those who have worked between 11-15 years; Those who have been working in the institution for 1-5 years are separated from those who have been working in the institution for 11-15 years, and those who have been working in the institution for 6-10 years are less than 1 year.
- one year of professional seniority are those with 1-5 years of professional seniority and those with 6-10 years of professional seniority; Those with 11-15 years of professional seniority are less than 1 year, 1-5 years and 6-10 years of professional seniority.

higher scores.

#### 4.5. The Relationship Between Leadership Structure and Performance

The results of the correlation analysis conducted to test the hypothesis "H<sub>7</sub> = There is a relationship between leadership structure and performance" are given below.

**Table 10.** Correlation Analysis on the Relationship Between Leadership Structure and Employee Performance

|   |    | Performance Scale |
|---|----|-------------------|
| participatory leadership                              | r  | -.194 **          |
|   | p. | 0.002             |
| Directive leadership                                  | r  | .128 *            |
|   | p. | 0.045             |
| Leadership style scale general                        | r  | -0.023            |
|   | p. | 0.720             |
| **. The correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. |    |                   |
| *. The correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.  |    |                   |

When Table 10 is examined, there is a weak and negative relationship between participatory leadership and performance (r=-.194; p=0.002); While there was a weak and positive relationship (r=.128; p=0.045) between directive leadership and performance; It was observed that there was no relationship between perceived leadership style and job performance.

#### 4.6. The Effect of Leadership Structure on Employee Performance

the regression analysis conducted to test the hypothesis "H<sub>8</sub> = Leadership structure has an effect on performance" are given below.

**Table 11.** Regression Analysis on the Effect of Leadership Structure on Employee Performance

|                          | Unstandardized Coefficients |          | Standardized Coefficients |        |              |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|----------|---------------------------|--------|--------------|
|                          | β                           | S. Error | β                         | t      | p.           |
| (Still)                  | 20,876                      | 0.687    |                           | 30,395 | 0.000        |
| participatory leadership | -0.184                      | 0.055    | -0.591                    | -3.315 | <b>0.001</b> |

|  |        |       |        |        |       |
|--|--------|-------|--------|--------|-------|
| Directive leadership                     | -0.021 | 0.055 | -0.061 | -0.377 | 0.706 |
| Leadership style scale<br>general        | 0.094  | 0.049 | 0.510  | 1,914  | 0.057 |
| a. Dependent variable: Performance Scale |        |       |        |        |       |

When Table 11 is examined, it is seen that participatory leadership influences business performance ( $\beta = -0.591$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). In other words, participative leadership has been identified as an important factor on business performance. On the other hand, it was observed that directive leadership and perceived leadership style had no effect on job performance.

#### 4. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Examining the effect of leadership structure in banks on employee performance are summarized below.

As a result of the analysis, it was found that the leadership style among the participants varied depending on gender. When the participatory and directive leadership dimensions and the general leadership scale were examined, it was observed that male participants received higher scores than female participants.

It has also been determined that there are certain differences between age and perceived leadership style. Significant differences were determined in the participatory leadership dimension and general leadership scale scores between participants aged 30 and under, 31-40 years and 41-50 years of age. Similarly, participants between the ages of 41-50 received higher scores in the directive leadership dimension than participants in other age groups. Married individuals received higher scores than single individuals in the participatory and directive leadership dimensions. In this case, it seems that marriage status affects the perception of leadership style. Marriage can lead to an increase in individuals' life experience and responsibilities, which can lead to differences in their perception of leadership style. The fact that married individuals score higher may indicate that leadership style may change in relation to marital status.

In the study, it was determined that there was a relationship between directive leadership and working time. Participants who worked in the organization for 11-15 years received higher directive leadership scores compared to those who worked for less than 1 year. This may indicate that working time has an impact, especially on directive leadership.

A significant relationship was found between participatory leadership, directive leadership dimensions, general leadership perception and professional seniority. The findings showed that individuals with less than 1 year of seniority had higher scores on both participatory leadership and general leadership perception than those with a tenure of 6-10 years. In the directive leadership dimension, individuals with less than 1 year of seniority have higher scores than those with 6-10 years of seniority, and individuals with 1-5 years of seniority have higher scores than individuals with less than 1 year of seniority but also have 6-10 years of seniority. It was determined that he got points.

Significant differences are observed between job performance and gender, age, working time in the institution and professional seniority. In terms of business performance, female participants received higher scores than men, participants under the age of 30 received higher scores than participants between the ages of 31-40 and 41-50, those who worked in the institution for less than 1 year than those who worked in the institution for 11-15 years, and those who worked in the institution for 1-5 years than those who worked in the institution for 11-15 years. In addition, those who have worked in the institution for 6-10 years are less than 1 year, those who have worked for 1-5 years and 11-15 years; those with less than 1.5 years of professional seniority are compared to those with 1-5 years and 6-10 years of professional seniority; Those with 11-15 years of professional seniority also received higher scores than those with less than 1 year, 1-5 years and 6-10 years of professional seniority.

In the study, a negative and weak relationship was found between participatory leadership and performance, and a positive and weak relationship was observed between directive leadership and performance. However, no relationship has been identified between perceived leadership style and job performance. It has also been observed that participatory leadership has a significant effect on business performance. On the other hand, it was determined that directive leadership and perceived leadership style had no effect on job performance.

At the end of the study, the following recommendations were developed.

- Giving More Weight to Leadership Training in Training Programs: More emphasis can be given to training programs aimed at improving leadership skills, especially in the participatory leadership dimension. Training can help effectively develop leadership styles by emphasizing participatory leadership competencies.
- Opportunities for Employee Development: Longer working hours are associated with higher scores on the directive leadership dimension. This indicates that employees can develop directive leadership skills later in their careers. In this context, training and opportunities that support the leadership skills of employees can be offered in parallel with their professional seniority.



- **Greater Sensitivity to Diversity and Equity:** The impact of demographic factors such as gender and age on leadership styles should be considered. For example, special support programs can be created to improve the participatory leadership skills of women leaders. Diversity and equality can be achieved by organizing trainings focusing on different leadership skills across age groups.
- **In-Depth Investigations to Understand the Relationship between Leadership and Performance:** A more comprehensive analysis of the research can be done to understand the relationship between job performance and leadership styles. More detailed studies that consider other factors affecting performance may be important to understand the relationship between leadership and performance in a more holistic way.

These suggestions can be basic steps for developing leadership skills, providing supports appropriate to employees' needs, and establishing an equitable environment in terms of diversity.

The following suggestions are offered for future studies:

- **Studies Examining the Relationship between Leadership and Performance in Depth:** Studies using a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods can be conducted to understand the relationship between leadership styles and job performance in more detail. More comprehensive results can be obtained by conducting these studies in different sectors and leadership models.
- **Diversity and Leadership:** Studies focusing on the different leadership styles of leaders with different demographic characteristics can help us better understand the relationship between diversity and leadership. It is especially important to examine female leaders, especially in terms of participatory leadership.
- **Studies in Different Industries:** Comparative studies in different industries and organizations can be valuable to understand how leadership styles vary in different sectors. For example, comparative research on leadership styles can be conducted between the service sector, the technology sector and the manufacturing sector.

These recommendations can guide future research to better understand the relationship between leadership and performance, examine the relationship between diversity and leadership, understand long-term effects, and understand leadership practices in different sectors.

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## THE EFFECT OF MOBBING ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE: A RESEARCH ON BANK EMPLOYEES

Hakan Aşık  
Akdeniz Karpaz University  
[ashikhakan416@gmail.com](mailto:ashikhakan416@gmail.com)

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Azmiye Yinal  
Akdeniz Karpaz University  
[azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr](mailto:azmiye.yinal@akun.edu.tr)

### ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to examine the effect of mobbing on employee performance. In this context, the study was conducted using the survey technique from quantitative research methods. The population of the study consisted of bank employees in TRNC and the sample consisted of 247 bank employees. The data were collected using the Psychological Violence Inventory (LIPT) developed by Davenport et al. (2003) and the Performance Scale used by Çorbacıoğlu (2018) and analyzed using SPSS 28 software.

The study showed that male respondents generally scored higher than female respondents on certain dimensions of psychological violence. This suggests that men may be more likely to experience psychological violence in dimensions such as self-expression, restriction of communication opportunities, attack on social reputation and attack on professional status. Analyses between different age groups at the end of the study showed that there were significant differences in certain dimensions of psychological violence. For example, while 20–30-year-olds may be affected in a different dimension than 31–42-year-olds, the 31–42 age range was more affected than other age groups. Also, participants aged 43 years and older were more affected than those aged 31–42 years. Differences between married and single participants are particularly evident in the dimension of "Restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities". Single participants scored higher in this dimension, while married participants scored higher in other specific dimensions. The study showed that mobbing differs in various dimensions of psychological violence according to professional seniority. The study reveals that there is no direct relationship between employee performance and gender, age, and marital status, but professional seniority has a significant impact on performance.

The research shows that there is a certain relationship between employee performance and psychological violence inventory and its sub-dimensions. "Restriction of opportunities for self-expression and communication", "Attack on social reputation" and "Psychological Violence Inventory (General)" dimensions have a positive and strong relationship with performance, while "Attack on quality of life and professional status", "Attack on social relationships" and "Direct attack on health" dimensions have a moderate positive relationship with performance. Research results show that different psychological violence sub-dimensions have varying effects on employee performance. The dimension of "Assault in social relationships" was found to negatively affect performance, suggesting that aggressive behaviors that employees are exposed to in their social relationships may negatively affect their performance. Another finding is that the "Psychological Violence Inventory" has a positive effect on performance. It is suggested that individuals who experience general psychological violence may show higher performance.

**Key Words:** Mobbing, Performance, Job performance.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1. Problem Status

Mobbing refers to systematic, continuous, and repetitive aggressive behavior towards individuals in a work environment (Çavuş, 2009). Such behavior damages people's reputation creates psychological stress and can negatively affect work performance. People exposed to mobbing may experience intense stress. Constant exposure to aggressive behavior can lead to psychological problems such as anxiety, depression, and sleep problems. This situation may reduce people's concentration and motivation, they may have difficulty in performing work-related tasks, and productivity may decrease (Yıldız et al., 2018).

Mobbing can damage an individual's self-confidence. A person who is exposed to aggressive behavior may lose faith in his own abilities. This loss of self-confidence can negatively impact job performance and lead a person to be less entrepreneurial, avoid taking risks, and act out of fear of failure. Mobbing may lead the person to move away from the work environment (Mercanlıoğlu, 2010). The individual may exhibit behaviors such as changing jobs, not asking for promotions, or not fulfilling their duties to escape aggressive behavior. This situation can reduce work performance and create job dissatisfaction (Göymen, 2020).

Mobbing is common, communication and cooperation between people may become difficult. Victims of mobbing may avoid interacting with other employees or have trust issues. This situation can negatively affect teamwork, reduce information sharing, and lead to failure in projects that require collaboration (Cevher and Öztürk, 2015). This shows that mobbing can negatively affect work performance (Aslan and Yinal, 2023). Effects such as

psychological stress, loss of self-confidence, thoughts of withdrawal from work and communication problems can reduce a person's productivity and cause a decrease in work performance. Therefore, it is very important to prevent mobbing in work environments and provide support to victims (Karcioğlu and Çelik, 2012).

### 1.2. Purpose and Importance of the Research

The purpose of this research is to examine the effect of mobbing on employee performance. This study is very important in terms of understanding and evaluating the effects of mobbing on employees. The research reveals that mobbing can have an impact on the overall performance of employees. It will contribute to the literature, especially in terms of investigating the direct relationship of gender, age, marital status, and professional seniority with performance.

This study is an important step in determining the effects of different dimensions of psychological violence in workplaces on employee performance. The findings provide valuable clues to improve the working environment in workplaces and increase employee performance. Therefore, the results of such research are important for creating a healthier and more productive working environment in workplaces and can contribute to the revision of workplace policies and management strategies in the light of this information.

### 1.3. Hypotheses

The hypotheses of this research are as follows:

- H<sub>1</sub> : Exposure to mobbing differs according to gender.
- H<sub>2</sub> : Exposure to mobbing varies according to age.
- H<sub>3</sub> : Exposure to mobbing varies according to marital status.
- H<sub>4</sub> : Exposure to mobbing varies according to professional seniority.
- H<sub>5</sub> : Employee performance varies according to demographic characteristics.
- H<sub>6</sub> : There is a relationship between exposure to bullying and performance.
- H<sub>7</sub> : Mobbing has an effect on employee performance.

### 1.4. Assumptions

It is assumed that research participants give their answers to the survey questions sincerely.

### 1.5. Limitations

Research:

- With research participants,
- With the scale questions used in the research,
- It is limited to the sources used in the research.

### 1.6. Definitions

**Mobbing:** It is a set of aggressive behaviors that are constantly and systematically applied against a person in a business or working environment (Çavuş, 2009).

**Performance:** It refers to the extent to which a person or an organization effectively performs or completes a certain job (Tunçer, 2013).

## 2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

### 2.1. Definition and Scope of the Concept of Mobbing

Mobbing is one of the concepts that has had a significant negative impact on working life in recent years. In simpler terms, it can be defined as a systematic and deliberate emotional attack, psychological violence and attrition targeting one or more employees in the workplace. Mobbing is defined as repeated humiliation, slander, persistent criticism, exclusion from the work environment and regular aggression. It is considered a case that at least one person in the institution is constantly exposed to negative situations for a minimum of six months (Vaclavikova and Kozakova, 2022). The main aim of the perpetrators in these attacks is to ensure that the targeted person leaves the workplace. However, it is observed that those who are exposed to mobbing attacks leave the workplace at the end of the process and sometimes experience serious negative consequences such as suicide. Mobbing, work in your life often encountered one person sources problem the one which... psychological abuse or psychological violence also called one is the concept. Mobbing, a person at the workplace continually aspect aim taking, discrimination to be attacked, to be attacked to suffer or psychological aspect uncomfortable to be status expression it does. These situations generally at work other employees, managers, or employer by is applied.

Mobbing events have negative effects on employees at the family, organizational and social levels as well as at the individual level. Negative effects that may occur at the family level due to mobbing include loss of family income, separation and divorce due to domestic unrest, and risks to children's mental and physical health. For organizations, economic losses caused by compensation cases filed due to mobbing, increased employee turnover rate, and productivity costs caused by significant loss of motivation in the workplace come to the fore ( Dutour et

al., 2022) . At the social level, a social structure in which health expenses imposed on the social security system due to health problems, tax losses due to unemployment and working below capacity, increases in social aid demands and the financial burden of the social security system, early or disabled retirement and unhappy individuals increases can be considered (Ghiasee, 2022). For this reason, mobbing needs to be carefully considered and the necessary steps must be taken to analyze it. Mobbing is also considered as repeated attack or psychological pressure/terror by the employee or employer in the workplace. Mobbing in the workplace is implemented systematically and with bad intentions, through pressure elements such as unfair accusations, humiliation, and harassment, to force a person to leave the institution where he/she works (Çınar, Korkmaz, & Yılmaz, 2016).

## **2.2. Definition and Scope of Performance**

Performance is a concept used to evaluate how effectively a person or organization achieves certain goals or objectives. Performance can be used in a variety of contexts, such as the performance of employees in the workplace, the performance of athletes, or the performance of an organization. The scope of performance is quite broad and includes the degree of achievement of objectives, quality, efficiency, and effectiveness. Performance evaluation is frequently used in workplaces to determine how effectively employees are performing their duties. This is important to increase business efficiency, reduce costs, improve service quality, or achieve the overall goals of the organization (Ertaş and Atalay, 2016).

At the organizational level, performance is evaluated based on factors such as the financial results of a business or organization, customer satisfaction, market share and the effectiveness of business processes. Performance management is used to help organizations achieve their goals and direct them in line with strategic goals. The concept of performance has a wide range of applications for measuring, improving and guiding success and can be defined and evaluated in different ways in different contexts. In the broad field of Management, the use of terminology is a sensitive material because each term defines a specific concept and concepts can be developed according to their definitions and used in other fields (Öztaş and Gürcüoğlu, 2018).

Samsonowa (2012) argues that all the different definitions he had to examine in the performance measurement literature have a common feature; they are all related to two terms. These terms are effectiveness and efficiency. Achieving a level of activities and achievements that will be an indication of the level of attainment of a goal is efficiency, which is an indicator of the resources spent. In his study, he uses the term “performance” as the level/degree of achieving goals of an organization/department rather than individuals. Andersen and Fagerhaug (2002) acknowledge that it is sufficient to have reached a point where performance replaces productivity and that it generally covers a wide range of aspects of an organization, from legacy productivity to the ability to innovate. According to Krause (2005), performance means the degree to which an organization achieves or potentially achieves goals regarding its important characteristics for its relevant stakeholders.

## **3. METHOD**

### **3.1. Research Method**

This study was conducted using the scanning technique, one of the quantitative research methods. Survey research is usually conducted with larger samples and provides a broad perspective to understand the general views, interests, skills, abilities, or attitudes of the participants. This research method generally aims to collect information about a broad population, and data is often collected through techniques such as surveys or interviews. Participants are usually selected to be representative of the population so that generalizations can be made. Survey studies are useful for understanding general trends and the general situation on a topic. This type of research generally aims to obtain large data sets and generalize (Karasar, 2008).

### **3.2. Population and Sample**

The population of the research consists of bank employees in TRNC. The sample of the study was selected by purposeful sampling method. Purposeful sampling method is the sampling of participants selected for a specific purpose during a research or investigation. This method allows researchers to focus their work on a specific goal or purpose. Depending on the goal or topic of study, researchers may focus on specific qualities, characteristics, or a specific sample group. For example, if a researcher wants to study employees in a certain sector, he can select a certain group of people who represent employees in this sector as a purposeful sample (Karasar, 2008). In this context, bank employees were included in the study. Between 01.09.2023 and 02.10.2022, 400 scale forms were distributed via Google Forms and feedback was received from 300 employees. Of the forms returned, the forms of 247 people were determined as the sample.

### **3.3. Data Collection Tools**

in the research consists of three parts. The first part includes questions prepared by the researcher to determine the demographic characteristics of the participants. In the second part, the Psychological Violence Inventory (LIPT) was used. In the study conducted by Çorbacioğlu (2018), two different surveys were used as mobbing and performance scales. Leymann's "Psychological Violence Inventory (LIPT)", which includes 45 different mobbing



behaviors, was preferred as the mobbing scale. In this scale, mobbing is examined in five different dimensions: "Restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities", "Attack on social relations", "Attack on social reputation", "Attack on quality of life and professional status" and "Direct attack on health". The original source of the survey is German, and its Turkish translation was taken from the book "Mobbing Emotional Harassment in the Workplace" by Öner (Davenport et al., 2003).

In the third part, Performance Scale was used. A 7-question scale was used to measure performance. A 5-point Likert scale was used for the statements in the survey form and participants were asked to determine their judgments. In this scale, evaluation was made between 1 "Strongly Disagree" and 5 "Strongly Agree". In previous studies, the internal consistency coefficient of the mobbing scale was found to be Cronbach's The alpha value was found to be 0.93 and the performance scale was found to be 0.80, and both scales were determined to be reliable.

Table 1. Reliability Analyzes for Scales

|  | Cronbach's Alpha | Article |
|--|------------------|---------|
| Inventory of Psychological Severity (LIPT) | 0.938            | 45      |
| Performance scale                          | 0.746            | 7       |

In this study, the Inventory of Psychological Severity (LIPT) Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.938 is quite reliable; The Cronbach's Alpha value of the performance scale was found to be reliable at 0.746.

### 3. 4. Analysis of Data

In the research, the reliability of the data obtained using SPSS 28 software was examined. T-Test, ANOVA and ANOVA Tukey tests were used to understand whether the scale scores differ according to demographic characteristics. T-Test was used to compare mean scores between two different groups, while ANOVA was used to compare means of more than one group. ANOVA Tukey test was used specifically to determine the differences between these groups. These statistical methods are frequently used to identify significant differences between groups in research or survey data.

## 4. FINDINGS

### 4.1. Demographic features

Demographic variables of the participants are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Percentage and Frequency Values of Demographic Information of Participants

|                        |                    | N   | %     |
|------------------------|--------------------|-----|-------|
| Gender                 | Woman              | 90  | 36.4  |
|                        | Male               | 157 | 63.6  |
| Age                    | 20-30 years old    | 101 | 40.9  |
|                        | 31-42 years old    | 95  | 38.5  |
|                        | age 43 and over    | 51  | 20.6  |
| marital status         | Married            | 175 | 70.9  |
|                        | Single             | 72  | 29.1  |
| professional seniority | Less than 1 year   | 21  | 8.5   |
|                        | 1-5 Years          | 80  | 32.4  |
|                        | 6-10 Years         | 62  | 25.1  |
|                        | 11-15 Years        | 44  | 17.8  |
|                        | more than 15 years | 40  | 16.2  |
|                        | Total              | 247 | 100.0 |

When Table 2 is examined, it is seen that 63.6% of the participants are male and 36.4% are female. Considering the age distribution, 40.9% of the participants are 20-30 years old; It is seen that 38.5% are between the ages of 31-42 and 20.6% are between the ages of 43 and over. While 70.9% of the participants were married and 29.1% were single, 32.4% of the professional seniority distributions were 1-5 years, 25.1% were 6-10 years, and 17.8% were 11 years. -15 years, 16.2% are more than 15 years and 8.5% are less than 1 year.



#### 4.2. Participants' Exposure to Mobbing and Performance Levels

the participants' exposure to mobbing and their performance perceptions is given in Table 3.

**Table 3. Distribution of Participants' Exposure to Mobbing and Performance Perceptions**

|  | Minimum | Maximum | $\bar{X}$ | Ss .   |
|--|---------|---------|-----------|--------|
| Restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities | 40.00   | 54.00   | 48.54     | 3,736  |
| Attack on social relations                                     | 10.00   | 21.00   | 16.47     | 2,625  |
| Attack on social reputation                                    | 45.00   | 66.00   | 53.50     | 5,221  |
| Attack on quality of life and occupational status              | 32.00   | 43.00   | 38.16     | 3,157  |
| Direct attack on health  | 10.00   | 20.00   | 16,19     | 2,239  |
| Psychological Violence Inventory (General)                     | 148.00  | 201.00  | 172.87    | 14,085 |
| Performance Scale  | 19.00   | 28.00   | 23.54     | 2,457  |

When Table 3 is examined, it is seen that the Performance Scale total score is 23.54, while the Psychological Violence Inventory (General) score is 172.87. In this case, it can be said that the person's performance is low but the level of psychological violence is quite high. It was determined that the highest score among the sub-dimensions of the Psychological Violence Inventory belonged to the Attack on Social Reputation ( $\bar{X} = 53.50$ ;  $SD = 5.221$ ) and the lowest score belonged to the Direct Attack on Health dimension. This may indicate that aggressive behavior towards the person's social reputation is evident. It means that the person may have aggressive or harmful behavior in social relations, in society or in relationships with people around him. Additionally, the lowest score was found to belong to the Direct Attack on Health dimension. This may indicate that the person has fewer aggressive behaviors directly related to health or that the factors measured in this dimension are less decisive for the person.

#### 4.3. The Relationship Between Demographic Variables and Exposure to Mobbing

In the study to test the hypothesis " $H_1$  : Exposure to mobbing differs according to gender" are given in Table 4.

**Table 4. Comparison of Exposure to Mobbing by Gender**

|  |       | N   | $\bar{X}$ | Ss .   | f      | p.           |
|--|-------|-----|-----------|--------|--------|--------------|
| Restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities | Woman | 90  | 46,40     | 4,315  | 44,028 | <b>0.000</b> |
|  | Male  | 157 | 49.77     | 2,688  |        |              |
| Attack on social relations                                     | Woman | 90  | 14.31     | 2,175  | 0.051  | 0.821        |
|  | Male  | 157 | 17.71     | 1,980  |        |              |
| Attack on social reputation                                    | Woman | 90  | 50.96     | 5.0267 | 5,222  | <b>0.023</b> |
|  | Male  | 157 | 54.95     | 4,768  |        |              |
| Attack on quality of life and occupational status              | Woman | 90  | 35.81     | 3,408  | 42,967 | <b>0.000</b> |
|  | Male  | 157 | 39.51     | 2,014  |        |              |
| Direct attack on health  | Woman | 90  | 14.66     | 2,049  | 0.007  | 0.932        |
|  | Male  | 157 | 17.06     | 1,845  |        |              |
| Psychological Violence Inventory (General)                     | Woman | 90  | 162.15    | 13,146 | 13,877 | <b>0.000</b> |
|  | Male  | 157 | 179.01    | 10,487 |        |              |

$p < 0.05$

When Table 4 is examined, it was determined that the dimensions of restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities, attack on social reputation, attack on quality of life and professional status, and Psychological Violence Inventory (General) showed significant differences according to gender ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Accordingly, male participants received higher scores than females in the dimensions of restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities, attack on social reputation, attack on quality of life and professional status, and Psychological Violence Inventory (General). This may indicate that men may be more exposed to or are more exposed to the effects of such violence in dimensions such as restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities, attack on social reputation, attack on quality of life and professional status.

In the study, the results of the ANOVA test performed to test the hypothesis "H<sub>2</sub> : Exposure to mobbing varies according to age" and the ANOVA Tukey test results performed to determine which groups the difference is between are given in Table 5.

**Table 5.** Comparison of Exposure to Mobbing by Age

|  |                 | N   | $\bar{X}$ | ss     | f      | p.           | Difference  |
|--|-----------------|-----|-----------|--------|--------|--------------|---|
| Restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities | 20-30 years old | 101 | 49.10     | 3,376  | 5,327  | <b>0.005</b> | 20-30 years old>31-42 years old                   |
|  | 31-42 years old | 95  | 47.57     | 3,998  |        |              |   |
|  | age 43 and over | 51  | 49.21     | 3,601  |        |              |   |
| Attack on social relations                                     | 20-30 years old | 101 | 15.30     | 2,918  | 20,421 | <b>0.000</b> | 31-42 years old > 20-30 years old                 |
|  | 31-42 years old | 95  | 17.08     | 2,171  |        |              |   |
|  | age 43 and over | 51  | 17.64     | 1,775  |        |              |   |
| Attack on social reputation                                    | 20-30 years old | 101 | 51.17     | 4,271  | 46,846 | <b>0.000</b> | 31-42 years old > 20-30 years old                 |
|  | 31-42 years old | 95  | 53.25     | 4,397  |        |              |   |
|  | age 43 and over | 51  | 58.56     | 4,904  |        |              |   |
| Attack on quality of life and occupational status              | 20-30 years old | 101 | 38,36     | 3,071  | 4,661  | <b>0.010</b> | 43 and over > 31-42 years old                     |
|  | 31-42 years old | 95  | 37.47     | 2,988  |        |              |   |
|  | age 43 and over | 51  | 39.05     | 3,402  |        |              |   |
| Direct attack on health  | 20-30 years old | 101 | 15,12     | 2,500  | 23,900 | <b>0.000</b> | 31-42 years old > 20-30 years old                 |
|  | 31-42 years old | 95  | 16.73     | 1,769  |        |              |   |
|  | age 43 and over | 51  | 17.27     | 1,497  |        |              |   |
| Psychological Violence Inventory (General)                     | 20-30 years old | 101 | 169.08    | 12,772 | 15,593 | <b>0.000</b> | 43 years and above > 20-30 years; 31-42 years old |
|  | 31-42 years old | 95  | 172.12    | 13,855 |        |              |   |
|  | age 43 and over | 51  | 181.76    | 13,354 |        |              |   |

p<0.05

When Table 5 is examined, it is seen that exposure to mobbing varies significantly according to age (p <0.05). According to this

- In the dimension of restricting self-expression and communication opportunities, participants between the ages of 20-30 are more likely than those between the ages of 31-42;
- In terms of attack on social relations, participants aged 31-42 are more likely than those aged 20-30, and participants aged 43 and over are more likely than those aged 20-30;
- In terms of attacks on social reputation, participants between the ages of 31-42 are more likely than those between the ages of 20-30, and participants aged 43 and over are more likely than those between the ages of 20-30 and 31-42;

- In terms of attack on quality of life and occupational status, participants aged 43 and over are more likely than those aged 31-42;
- In terms of direct attack on health, participants aged 31-42 are more likely than those aged 20-30, and participants aged 43 and over are more likely than those aged 20-30;
- In the Psychological Violence Inventory (General), it was observed that participants aged 43 and over scored higher than those aged 20-30 and 31-42.

The T-test results conducted in the study to test the hypothesis "H<sub>3</sub> : Exposure to mobbing varies according to marital status" are given in Table 6.

**Table 6. Comparison of Exposure to Mobbing by Marital Status**

|  |         | N   | $\bar{X}$ | Ss .   | f      | p.           |
|--|---------|-----|-----------|--------|--------|--------------|
| Restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities | Married | 175 | 47.81     | 3,938  | 11,484 | <b>0.001</b> |
|  | Single  | 72  | 50,31     | 2,419  |        |              |
| Attack on social relations                                     | Married | 175 | 17.09     | 2,015  | 26,433 | <b>0.000</b> |
|  | Single  | 72  | 14.97     | 3,271  |        |              |
| Attack on social reputation                                    | Married | 175 | 53.66     | 5,105  | 2,005  | 0.158        |
|  | Single  | 72  | 53.09     | 5,508  |        |              |
| Attack on quality of life and occupational status              | Married | 175 | 37.90     | 3,241  | 0.548  | 0.460        |
|  | Single  | 72  | 38.79     | 2,867  |        |              |
| Direct attack on health  | Married | 175 | 16.76     | 1,638  | 39,313 | <b>0.000</b> |
|  | Single  | 72  | 14.79     | 2,828  |        |              |
| Psychological Violence Inventory (General)                     | Married | 175 | 173.24    | 13,607 | 5,430  | <b>0.021</b> |
|  | Single  | 72  | 171.97    | 15,247 |        |              |

p<0.05

When Table 6 is examined, it is seen that the dimensions of Restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities, Attack on social relations, Direct attack on health and Psychological Violence Inventory (General) differ significantly according to marital status (p <0.05). Accordingly, while it was seen that single participants scored higher than married participants in the dimension of self-expression and restriction of communication opportunities; It was determined that married participants scored higher than single participants in the dimensions of attack on social relations, direct attack on health and Psychological Violence Inventory (General).

In the study, the results of the ANOVA test performed to test the hypothesis "H<sub>4</sub> : Exposure to mobbing varies according to professional seniority" and the ANOVA Tukey test results performed to determine which groups the difference is between are given in Table 7.

**Table 7. Comparison of Exposure to Mobbing According to Professional Seniority**

|  |                    | N  | $\bar{X}$ | ss    | f      | p.           | Difference            |
|--|--------------------|----|-----------|-------|--------|--------------|-----------------------|
| Restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities | Less than 1 year   | 21 | 48.00     | 0.000 | 4,959  | <b>0.001</b> | 1-5 years>11-15 years |
|  | 1-5 Years          | 80 | 49,40     | 3,743 |        |              |                       |
|  | 6-10 Years         | 62 | 48.77     | 3,522 |        |              |                       |
|  | 11-15 Years        | 44 | 46.50     | 3,950 |        |              |                       |
|  | more than 15 years | 40 | 49.00     | 4,050 |        |              |                       |
|  | Less than 1 year   | 21 | 11.90     | 2,047 | 36,410 | <b>0.000</b> |                       |

|   |                    |    |        |        |        |              |   |
|---|--------------------|----|--------|--------|--------|--------------|---|
| Attack on social relations                        | 1-5 Years          | 80 | 16.20  | 2,415  |        |              | 1-5 years > Less than 1 year  |
|   | 6-10 Years         | 62 | 16.59  | 2,264  |        |              | 6-10 years > Less than 1 year   |
|   | 11-15 Years        | 44 | 18.50  | 1,677  |        |              | More than 15 years > Less than 1 year                                     |
|   | more than 15 years | 40 | 17.00  | 1,432  |        |              |   |
| Attack on social reputation                       | Less than 1 year   | 21 | 45.00  | 0.000  |        |              | 6 -10 years > less than 1 year;   |
|   | 1-5 Years          | 80 | 52.80  | 3,207  |        |              | 11-15 years > less than 1 year;   |
|   | 6-10 Years         | 62 | 54.27  | 3,644  |        |              | More than 15 years > Less than 1 year, 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years |
|   | 11-15 Years        | 44 | 52.75  | 5,026  | 44,132 | <b>0.000</b> |   |
|   | more than 15 years | 40 | 59.00  | 5,472  |        |              |   |
| Attack on quality of life and occupational status | Less than 1 year   | 21 | 35.95  | 1,023  |        |              | 1-5 years > less than 1 year;   |
|   | 1-5 Years          | 80 | 39.00  | 3,117  |        |              | 6-10 years > less than 1 year;  |
|   | 6-10 Years         | 62 | 38.25  | 2,763  |        |              | 11-15 years > Less than 1 year;   |
|   | 11-15 Years        | 44 | 37.00  | 3,034  | 6,412  | <b>0.000</b> | More than 15 years > Less than 1 year                                     |
|   | more than 15 years | 40 | 38.80  | 3,810  |        |              |   |
| Direct attack on health                           | Less than 1 year   | 21 | 11.42  | 1,535  |        |              | 1-5 years > less than 1 year;   |
|   | 1-5 Years          | 80 | 16,10  | 1,650  |        |              | 6-10 years > less than 1 year;  |
|   | 6-10 Years         | 62 | 16.24  | 1,807  |        |              | 11-15 years > Less than 1 year;   |
|   | 11-15 Years        | 44 | 18.00  | 1,238  | 64,326 | <b>0.000</b> | More than 15 years > Less than 1 year                                     |
|   | more than 15 years | 40 | 16.80  | 1,343  |        |              |   |
| Psychological Violence Inventory (General)        | Less than 1 year   | 21 | 152.28 | 4,605  |        |              | 1-5 years > less than 1 year;   |
|   | 1-5 Years          | 80 | 173.50 | 10,314 |        |              | 6-10 years > less than 1 year;  |
|   | 6-10 Years         | 62 | 174.14 | 13,332 |        |              | 11-15 years > Less than 1 year;   |
|   | 11-15 Years        | 44 | 172.75 | 14,507 | 18,482 | <b>0.000</b> | More than 15 years > Less than 1 year                                     |
|   | more than 15 years | 40 | 180.60 | 14,906 |        |              |   |

p<0.05

When Table 7 is examined, it is seen that exposure to mobbing differs significantly according to professional seniority (p<0.05). According to this:

- In the dimension of limitation of self-expression and communication opportunities, those with 1-5 years of professional seniority are more likely than those with 11-15 years of professional seniority.
- In terms of attack on social relations, those with 1-5 years of professional seniority are more likely than those with less than 1 year; Those with 6-10 years of professional seniority are those with less than 1 year, and those with more than 15 years of professional seniority are those with less than 1 year.
- In terms of attack on social reputation, those with 6-10 years, 11-15 years and more than 15 years of professional seniority are more likely to have a seniority than those with less than 1 year, and those with more than 15 years of professional seniority are more likely to have a professional seniority of 1-5 years, 6-10 years, and 11-15 years. from those with professional seniority.
- Of quality of life and attack on occupational status, direct attack on health and Psychological Violence Inventory (General).

#### 4.4. The Relationship Between Demographic Variables and Employee Performance

The results of the analysis conducted to test the hypothesis "H<sub>5</sub> : Employee performance varies according to demographic characteristics" are given in Table 8.

**Table 8.** Comparison of Demographic Variables and Employee Performance

|                        |                    | N   | $\bar{X}$ | ss    | f     | p.    | Difference   |
|------------------------|--------------------|-----|-----------|-------|-------|-------|--|
| Gender                 | Woman              | 90  | 22.41     | 2,485 | 6,159 | 0.014 | No difference  |
|                        | Male               | 157 | 24.19     | 2,198 |       |       |  |
| Age                    | 20-30 years old    | 101 | 23,28     | 2,006 | 1,444 | 0.239 | No difference  |
|                        | 31-42 years old    | 95  | 23.56     | 2,628 |       |       |  |
|                        | age 43 and over    | 51  | 24.00     | 2,884 |       |       |  |
| marital status         | Married            | 175 | 23.48     | 2,456 | 0.052 | 0.819 | No difference  |
|                        | Single             | 72  | 23.68     | 2,471 |       |       |  |
| professional seniority | Less than 1 year   | 21  | 20.57     | 1,535 | 11.62 | 0.000 | 1-5 years, 6, 10 years, 11-15 years, more than 15 years > Less than 1 year |
|                        | 1-5 Years          | 80  | 24.00     | 1,423 |       |       |  |
|                        | 6-10 Years         | 62  | 24.04     | 2,019 |       |       |  |
|                        | 11-15 Years        | 44  | 23.00     | 2,949 |       |       |  |
|                        | more than 15 years | 40  | 24.00     | 3,265 |       |       |  |

$p < 0.05$

When Table 8 is examined, it is seen that there is no relationship between employee performance and gender, age and marital status; There is a significant difference according to professional seniority ( $p < 0.05$ ). Accordingly, it was determined that the performance scores of those with 1-5 years, 6, 10 years, 11-15 years and more than 15 years of professional seniority were higher than those with less than 1 year of professional seniority.

#### 4.5. The Relationship Between Exposure to Mobbing and Performance

"H<sub>6</sub> : There is a relationship between exposure to mabbing and performance" are given in Table 9.

**Table 9.** Correlation Analysis for the Relationship Between Exposure to Mobbing and Performance

|                | Restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities | Attack on social relations | Attack on social reputation | Attack on quality of life and occupational status | Direct attack on health | Psychological Violence Inventory (General) |
|----------------|--|----------------------------|-----------------------------|---|-------------------------|--|
| r.             | .615 **  | .481 **                    | .798 **                     | .618 **   | .517 **                 | .769 **                                    |
| Performance p. | 0.000  | 0.000                      | 0.000                       | 0.000   | 0.000                   | 0.000                                      |

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

When Table 9 is examined, it is seen that there is a relationship between performance and the Psychological Violence Inventory and all its sub-dimensions. Accordingly, your performance; Restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities ( $r = .615$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ), Attack on social reputation ( $r = .798$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ); and Psychological Violence Inventory (General) ( $r = .769$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ) dimensions are positive and strong; In the dimensions of quality of life and attack on professional status ( $r = .618$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ), attack on social relations ( $r = .481$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ) and direct attack on health ( $r = .571$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ), positive and moderate levels were observed. There is a relationship.

#### 3.2.6. The Effect of Mobbing on Employee Performance

The results of the regression analysis conducted to test the hypothesis "H<sub>7</sub>: Mabbing has an effect on employee performance" are given in Table 10.

**Table 10.** Regression Analysis on the Effect of Mobbing on Employee Performance

|   | Unstandardized Coefficients |          | Standardized Coefficients |        | p.           |
|---|-----------------------------|----------|---------------------------|--------|--------------|
|   | $\beta$                     | Q. Error | $\beta$                   | t      |              |
| (Still)   | -1,370                      | 1,384    |                           | -0.990 | 0.323        |
| Attack on social relations                        | -0.544                      | 0.183    | -0.581                    | -2.963 | <b>0.003</b> |
| Attack on social reputation                       | -0.033                      | 0.124    | -0.070                    | -0.266 | 0.790        |
| Attack on quality of life and occupational status | -0.470                      | 0.235    | -0.603                    | -2,000 | 0.047        |
| Direct attack on health                           | 0.207                       | 0.189    | 0.188                     | 1,094  | 0.275        |
| Psychological Violence Inventory (General)        | 0.291                       | 0.107    | 1,665                     | 2,705  | <b>0.007</b> |
| a. Dependent Variable: performance                |                             |          |                           |        |              |

When Table 10 is examined, aggression in social relations has a negative effect on performance ( $\beta = -0.581$ ); It appears that the Psychological Violence Inventory has a positive effect on performance ( $\beta = 1.665$ ). It was observed that other sub-dimensions had no effect on performance. This shows that the aggressive behavior that employees are exposed to in their social relationships may negatively affect their performance and that individuals who experience general psychological violence may show higher performance.

#### 4. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As a result of the analysis, male participants generally received higher scores than females in these specific psychological violence dimensions. This situation shows that men may be more exposed to or are more exposed to the effects of such violence in dimensions such as restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities, attack on social reputation, attack on quality of life and professional status.

According to the research results, there are significant differences in various psychological violence dimensions between different age groups. It was determined that participants between the ages of 20-30 were more exposed to the dimension of restricting self-expression and communication opportunities than those between the ages of 31-42. It was observed that participants between the ages of 31-42 were more affected than those in other age groups in terms of attack on social relations and attack on social reputation. It was determined that participants aged 43 and over were more exposed to attacks on quality of life and occupational status than those aged 31-42.

In the study, it was observed that the dimensions of psychological violence differed according to marital status and that there were significant differences between married and single participants. In particular, it is seen that single participants received higher scores than married participants in the "Restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities" dimension, which means that single participants feel more restricted, or their communication opportunities are more blocked. On the other hand, it was stated that married participants scored higher than single participants in the dimensions of "Attack on social relations", "Direct attack on health" and "Psychological Violence Inventory (General)". This may indicate that married individuals are more affected by these specific psychological violence dimensions or are exposed to higher levels of violence.

The research reveals that exposure to mobbing varies according to professional seniority. This difference shows that there are clear differences between groups with professional seniority in various dimensions of psychological violence. In the "restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities" dimension, it was observed that those with 1-5 years of professional seniority were more affected than those with 11-15 years of professional seniority. In the "attack on social relations" dimension, those with 1-5 years of professional seniority were more affected than those with less than 1 year of seniority, while those with 6-10 years of professional seniority and more than 15 years of seniority were more affected than those with less than 1 year of seniority. has been found to be highly affected.

In the dimension of "attack on social reputation", those with 6-10 years, 11-15 years and more than 15 years of professional seniority are more likely to have professional seniority than those with less than 1 year of seniority and those with more than 15 years of seniority are more likely to have 1-5 years, 6-10 years of seniority. and it was observed that those with 11-15 years of professional seniority were more affected. In other dimensions, namely



"Attack on quality of life and occupational status", "Direct attack on health" and "Psychological Violence Inventory (General)", professional seniority of 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, and more than 15 years was also evaluated. It was determined that those with less than 1 year of seniority received higher scores than those with less than 1 year of seniority.

The study found that there was no relationship between employee performance and gender, age, and marital status, but professional seniority was a significant difference. It is stated that performance is not directly related to gender, age, and marital status, while it is emphasized that professional seniority has a significant effect on performance. It has been stated that the performance scores of employees with 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, and more than 15 years of professional seniority are higher than those with lower seniority, that is, those who have been at work for less than 1 year.

In the study, it was observed that there was a relationship between performance and the Psychological Violence Inventory and its sub-dimensions. There is a positive and strong relationship between performance and the dimensions of "Restriction of self-expression and communication opportunities", "Attack on social reputation" and "Psychological Violence Inventory (General)"; It has been determined that there is a positive and moderate relationship with performance in the dimensions of "Attack on quality of life and professional status", "Attack on social relations" and "Direct attack on health".

The research results show that different sub-dimensions of psychological violence have varying effects on employee performance. It has been determined that the "attack in social relations" dimension negatively affects performance. This shows that the aggressive behavior that employees are exposed to in their social relationships may negatively affect their performance. Another finding is that the "Psychological Severity Inventory" has a positive effect on performance. This indicates that general psychological violence has a positive relationship with employee performance. This result suggests that individuals who experience general psychological violence may show higher performance.

The following recommendations have been prepared in the light of the research findings:

- It is understood that psychological violence in the workplace varies depending on gender and age. In this context, gender and age-based training programs should be organized and awareness-raising activities should be carried out. Especially for male employees, programs to strengthen their communication skills and improve their emotional intelligence can be recommended.
- Significant differences have been observed in different dimensions of psychological violence between married and single individuals. This shows that marital status has an impact on the experience of psychological violence. Emotional support mechanisms should be established in workplaces, especially for married employees, and strategies for coping with marriage-related stress should be offered.
- It has been understood that exposure to mobbing varies according to professional seniority. In this regard, training should be organized for new employees and less senior employees to improve the work adaptation process and strengthen their stress coping and communication skills. At the same time, programs that will develop leadership skills for senior employees are important.
- Research results have shown that psychological violence dimensions affect performance at different levels. In this context, when developing strategies to increase performance in workplaces, the effects of assault and general psychological violence dimensions, especially in social relations, on job performance should be taken into consideration. Supporting policies should be created by taking these factors into account in performance management processes.
- Considering all these findings, comprehensive training and awareness-raising activities should be carried out to prevent psychological violence in workplaces. These trainings should raise awareness of the workforce about the symptoms of psychological violence and contribute to taking precautions to create a positive work environment.

These recommendations aim to help create a healthier and more supportive environment in workplaces by considering the effects of different dimensions of psychological violence on working life.

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