The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education

Volume 15 Issue 2
April 2025

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TOJNED, Editor in Chief   Published in TURKEY
Sakarya-Turkey

EDITORIAL

Dear Colleagues and Esteemed Readers,

It is with great academic satisfaction that we present the April 2025 issue of *The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education (TOJNED)*. This issue comprises a carefully curated selection of empirical and theoretical studies that contribute meaningfully to the expanding discourse in education, organizational sciences, human resource management, and public health—fields that continue to intersect and evolve in response to contemporary global and regional challenges.

The scholarly works featured in this issue reflect a multidimensional engagement with core themes such as organizational commitment, leadership paradigms, educational administration, cognitive flexibility, communication in institutional settings, motivation, and satisfaction across professional contexts. The research methodologies employed—predominantly quantitative—are characterized by methodological rigor and contextual relevance, with several studies drawing on samples from the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). In doing so, they offer both localized insights and broader implications for comparative research and policy development.

A noteworthy strength of this issue lies in its interdisciplinary orientation. The articles not only explore issues pertinent to the educational landscape but also examine organizational dynamics within health services, entrepreneurship ecosystems, and public administration. This intersectionality enhances the practical applicability of the findings and opens new avenues for cross-sectoral dialogue and scholarly inquiry.

We are encouraged by the authors' collective commitment to academic quality, and by their contribution to knowledge production through evidence-based analysis, conceptual clarity, and contextual sensitivity. The diversity of perspectives represented in this issue also reflects TOJNED's mission to foster inclusive, innovative, and critical approaches to research in education and beyond.

We extend our sincere appreciation to all contributing authors for their intellectual efforts, to the peer reviewers for their meticulous and constructive evaluations, and to our readership for their continued engagement. We remain committed to advancing scholarly dialogue and disseminating high-quality research that informs theory, practice, and policy.

We trust that the studies included in this volume will provide valuable insights for academics, practitioners, and policymakers, and will stimulate further research in the fields they engage with.

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

TOJNED and Sakarya University will organize the INTE-2025 (www.int-e.net) in July 2025 in Rabat, Morocco.

Call for Papers

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

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

For any suggestions and comments on the international online journal TOJNED, please do not hesitate to fill out the comments & suggestion form.

Respectfully,
Prof. Dr. Aytekin İŞMAN
Sakarya University
Editor-in-Chief
The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education (TOJNED)
April 2025

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21ST CENTURY COMPETENCIES OF SCIENCE TEACHERS

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ABSTRACT
The aim of this study is to determine the competency levels of science teachers working in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus regarding 21st century learner skills and to examine whether these skills differ according to demographic variables. The population of the study, which was conducted with the relational survey model, one of the quantitative research methods, consisted of Science teachers working in TRNC and the sample consisted of 71 teachers selected through purposive sampling. The "21st Century Learner Skills Scale" developed by Göksun-Orhan (2016) was used as a data collection tool, and the data were analyzed with SPSS software.
According to the research findings, it was determined that teachers generally used 21st century learner skills at the level of "occasionally", the highest mean score was in cognitive skills, and other skills were applied at a relatively lower level. According to the gender variable, female teachers scored higher than male teachers in cognitive, collaborative and innovative skills. No significant difference was found in terms of age and professional seniority variables, and it was seen that teachers used these skills at a similar level. The marital status variable, on the other hand, created a significant difference; it was found that married teachers performed at a higher level than single teachers in all skill areas. The findings revealed that teachers need support especially in areas such as innovation, collaboration and autonomous learning.
Keywords: 21st century skills, learner skills, science teachers, cognitive skills, autonomous skills.

1. INTRODUCTION
1.1. Problem Status
The rapidly changing scientific and technological developments of the 21st century necessitate radical changes in the field of education. Access to information has become easier for today's students, but the need to be able to effectively analyze, interpret and produce creative solutions to this information has become even more prominent (Trilling and Fadel , 2009). It is of great importance that science teachers, one of the fundamental building blocks of the education system, have the necessary competencies to equip their students with the skills required by the age (Lederman and Lederman , 2014). Within the scope of 21st century competencies, science teachers are expected to both develop skills such as critical thinking, problem solving, collaboration, communication, creativity, digital literacy and lifelong learning in themselves and to impart them to their students (OECD, 2018). However, research shows that teachers' awareness and application capacities for these skills may not be at a sufficient level (Voogt and Roblin , 2012). It is necessary to examine the teacher perspective on how a discipline such as science education, where analytical and scientific thinking is fundamental, contributes to students' acquisition of 21st century competencies.

There are various studies in the literature on science teachers' perceptions of 21st century competencies, how they integrate these skills into the curriculum, and to what extent they include them in their classroom practices. For example, Özden et al. (2018) revealed that pre-service teachers' perceptions of competence in 21st century skills were generally positive, but there were various deficiencies in practice. Similarly, Kaplan, Meriç, and Demirci (2024) found in their research that although science teachers' awareness of 21st century skills was high, they could not adequately address these skills in their classes.

In this context, examining science teachers' perceptions of 21st century competencies and how they integrate these skills into their classroom practices becomes an important research topic. This research aims to determine teachers' proficiency levels in 21st century skills, reveal the challenges they face, and discuss how the education system can support these skills more effectively.

1.2 Purpose of the Research
The main purpose of this research is to determine the proficiency levels of science teachers working in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus regarding 21st century learner skills and to examine whether these skills show significant differences in terms of various demographic variables (gender, professional seniority, education level, etc.). It is aimed to evaluate the contribution of teachers to the 21st century education system by revealing the level of relationship between these skills possessed by teachers.

1.3 Importance of Research
The 21st century is defined as an era in which access to information has become easier, but the skills of making sense of, interpreting, using and transforming this information have gained importance. In this process, teachers are in the position of guides who not only convey information to students, but also train them as critically thinking, creative, collaborative and flexible individuals. In this context, determining the 21st century skills that science teachers possess will provide important data to increase the quality of education. The results of the research can contribute to the updating of teacher training programs, the restructuring of in-service training content and the development of contemporary teaching approaches.

1.4 Limitations
- The research is limited only to Science teachers working in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus.
- The sample of the study consists of 71 teachers determined by the purposive sampling method; therefore, the generalizability of the results is limited.
- Data were collected with the "21st Century Learner Skills Scale" developed by Göksun-Orhan (2016).
- The research was conducted using only quantitative data collection methods.
- The sources and theoretical framework used are limited to certain studies in the literature.

1.5 Definitions
21st Century Learner Skills: A set of skills such as critical thinking, problem solving, collaboration , communication, and digital literacy that are necessary for individuals to exist effectively and efficiently in the information age (Tutkun, 2024) .
Cognitive Skills: It includes effective mental processes in understanding, analyzing, interpreting information and solving problems (İpekşen , 2019) .
Autonomous Skills: The ability of an individual to plan and manage his/her own learning process independently (Kennedy & Sundberg, 2020) .
Collaborative and Flexibility Skills: The ability to work in harmony with different individuals and easily adapt to changing situations (İpekşen , 2019).
Innovative Skills: The ability to develop new ideas, produce creative solutions and improve existing situations (Geisinger, 2016) .

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
2.1. 21st Century Skills and Their Importance
21st century skills are the basic competencies that enable individuals to be successful in both personal and professional areas in a rapidly changing and transforming world (Uluyol & Eryılmaz, 2015). These skills support not only academic success but also the capacity of individuals to cope with complex problems, adapt to technological developments and meet the requirements of the information age (Bozat & Yinal, 2023). The uncertainties and complexities faced by today's society further increase the importance of 21st century skills. Especially in the changing business world, technological developments such as automation and artificial intelligence transform traditional business lines and bring the need for new skills to the fore (Çiftçi et al., 2021) . Skills such as critical thinking, problem solving, creativity and collaboration make it easier for individuals to remain competitive and adapt to changing conditions. Global problems such as climate change, global epidemics and economic crises make the importance of these skills even more evident (Çakır, 2024) .
Access to information has become easier in the information age, the ability to distinguish between accurate and reliable information is of great importance. Therefore, competencies such as information literacy and media literacy enable individuals to use information effectively (Komari et al., 2024). 21st century skills contribute to individuals' progress in personal development areas such as self-awareness, self-management and communication, allowing them to live a happier, healthier and more successful life. These skills have a multidimensional structure that manifests itself in the areas of learning and renewal, use of information, media and technology, and life and career. Therefore, 21st century skills are of indispensable importance to meet the needs of today's society and prepare for the future (Roshid and Haider, 2024).

2.1.1. Life and Career Skills
It consists of four core competencies that enable individuals to be successful in both their personal lives and professional careers: flexibility and adaptability, entrepreneurship and self-management, social and intercultural awareness, and leadership and responsibility. Individuals with these skills stand out as individuals with high self-confidence, innovation, a developed sense of responsibility, and strong adaptability in today's increasingly complex social structure. Trilling and Fadel (2009) emphasize that these skills do not only mean preparation for the professional field, but also represent a holistic approach that prioritizes personal development and aims to spread career planning throughout life (Kennedy & Sundberg, 2020). In this context, life and career skills contribute to individuals living more effective and satisfying lives both individually and socially (Geisinger, 2016).

Flexibility and Adaptability Skills: In today's information and technology-driven world, it is of great importance for individuals to be able to reshape their strategies when faced with unforeseen situations and to adapt quickly to changing conditions. The ability to adapt to changes in education, business life and the social environment makes it easier for individuals to cope with the challenges they face and produce effective solutions (Ecevit & Kaptan, 2021).

Entrepreneurship and Self-Management Skills: Individuals are expected to plan their own learning processes, clearly determine their goals, and use their time efficiently. Self-management skills allow individuals to manage the intense demands they face in both their business and private lives in a balanced manner. In this context, individuals strengthen their competencies such as self-development, decision-making, and independent behavior by using self-discipline mechanisms. These skills enable individuals to be more effective and successful in both their personal and professional lives (Tutkun, 2024) .

Social and Intercultural Skills: In order to adapt in social life, individuals need to exhibit behaviors that comply with social norms and adopt a tolerant and respectful approach when interacting with different cultural structures. Individuals with these skills develop a perspective open to diversity; they exhibit an understanding and inclusive attitude towards different ideas and perspectives (Demirezen & Hamzaoğlu, 2023). This contributes to the strengthening of social harmony and cooperation.

Leadership and Responsibility Skills: Leadership is the process of bringing a group together for a common purpose and guiding them to achieve this purpose. Responsibility means that a person fulfills the tasks he/she undertakes and assumes the consequences of these tasks. Individuals with these skills stand out as individuals with a high sense of duty, developed self-awareness and who can make independent decisions. These characteristics are the basic elements that support success in both personal and professional life (Geisinger, 2016).

2.1.2. Learning and Renewal Skills

Learning and renewal skills are among the basic competencies that enable individuals to actively participate in lifelong learning processes and adopt the principle of continuous development. These skills are grouped under four main headings: critical thinking and problem solving, communication, collaboration and creativity (Yinal, Özkök, & Datli, 2024). Trilling and Fadel (2009) define these skills as determining factors in overcoming the difficulties encountered by individuals throughout their learning journey and in generating new ideas. Especially in the information age, individuals are expected not only to access information, but also to be able to analyze, question and use this information in creative ways.

Critical Thinking and Problem Solving Skills : The ability of an individual to evaluate the situations they encounter from a questioning perspective, analyze existing information, and develop solutions by approaching events from different perspectives forms the basis of this skill. Critical thinking includes not only noticing errors or deficiencies, but also the process of making sense of the relationships between events, distinguishing right from wrong, and making conscious decisions. Problem solving refers to the individual's ability to take strategic steps and produce effective solutions in the face of complex or uncertain situations. This competency is a skill that directly affects success in both academic life and the business world (Erten, 2020).

Communication Skills : Being able to convey information and ideas in a clear, understandable and effective manner is the basic aspect of communication skills. Being able to establish healthy relationships with different people and groups using verbal, written and visual communication tools is evaluated within the scope of this skill. Effective communication is not limited to expressing oneself only; it also includes elements such as being able to listen to the other party, receiving feedback and empathizing. With the spread of digital environments, multi-faceted communication skills have become even more important in the social and professional life of the individual (Aygün et al., 2016) .

Collaboration Skills : The importance of collaboration skills increases when different individuals come together to solve complex problems. Being open to teamwork, taking responsibility for common goals, exchanging ideas and respecting different opinions are the basic building blocks of this skill. Collaboration allows individuals to both fulfill their own roles effectively and achieve more creative and productive results by increasing synergy within the group (Cemaloğlu et al., 2019) .

Creativity Skill : Creativity is the ability of an individual to produce original ideas, develop new approaches, and create new syntheses by looking at existing information from different perspectives. This skill is not limited to artistic fields; it enables innovative solutions to be produced in many areas from education to technology, from the business world to daily life. Creative individuals can not only adapt to changing conditions, but also put forward ideas that will direct change. In this respect, creativity allows the individual to create added value at both personal and social levels (İpekşen , 2019) .

2.1.3. Information, Media and Technology Skills

Information, Media and Technology Skills refers to the competencies of individuals to access, evaluate and effectively use information in the digital age. In today's world, thanks to technological developments, access to information sources has accelerated, media diversity has increased and digital tools have become an integral part

of daily life. This transformation requires individuals to have skills such as information literacy, media literacy and technology literacy . Ünlü (2016) emphasizes that individuals' competencies in accessing information, correctly analyzing media content and effectively using technology are among the basic elements of success in modern society.

Information Literacy: The ability to access information, evaluate information, and use the information obtained effectively are the basic components of information literacy. In the digital world, individuals are faced with countless sources of information. However, it is important to be conscious about whether each piece of information is reliable and valid. Information literacy allows individuals to analyze information sources using critical thinking skills, question their accuracy, and select the information they need. This skill is important in a wide range of areas, from academic research to the business world, from daily life to decision-making processes (Ünal and Furat, 2022) .

Media Literacy : Media is a powerful tool that allows individuals to interact with the world, access information, and develop awareness about social events. However, being able to evaluate the accuracy of media content, being conscious of manipulation, and being able to look at it with a critical eye are the basic elements of media literacy. Individuals are expected to not only consume media content, but also analyze, question, and use it consciously. Developing resistance against misleading news, disinformation, and propaganda is possible with media literacy skills (Yalçın, 2018) .

Technology Literacy: Technology has become a determining factor in communication, production, education and every aspect of daily life today. Technological literacy refers to an individual's effective, efficient and ethical use of digital tools. Not only having basic digital skills, but also being able to adapt to new technologies, acting consciously about digital security and effectively using the opportunities offered by technology are among the basic requirements of this skill. Technologically literate individuals can act safely in the digital world as conscious content producers and users in the digital environment (İpekşen , 2019) .

2.2. Related Research

In the study conducted by Özden et al. (2018) in Kütahya, it was determined that the perception of competence of prospective teachers regarding 21st century skills was generally high. In terms of gender, a significant difference was found in favor of female teacher candidates in the life and career skills sub-dimension. In terms of grade level, third-year students have higher perceived competence than second-year students. Prospective teachers with high levels of academic success also have higher perceptions of their competence in 21st century skills. While preschool teacher training program students had higher scores overall, it was determined that teacher candidates with higher family income levels had significantly higher scores in the sub-dimensions of total competence perception, learning and career skills, and information, media, and technology skills.

Üzümcü and Bay (2018) state that computational thinking is considered one of the important skills of the 21st century and has attracted attention worldwide. This skill includes topics such as problem solving, creating algorithms, programming and linear logic. In Türkiye, computational thinking is integrated into the curriculum, especially in information technologies and software courses. However, it is emphasized that this integration is not yet sufficient in other disciplines such as science and mathematics . Therefore, it is suggested that computational thinking should be included more comprehensively in all curricula.

In the study conducted by Afandi, Sajidan, Akhyar, and Suryani (2019), the Delphi method was used to determine 21st century skills standards for pre-service science teachers in Indonesia. In this two-stage process, four basic standards for 21st century skills were determined by obtaining the opinions of 15 panelists consisting of field experts. These were grouped as 4Cs skills, which include critical thinking, creative thinking, collaboration, and communication skills; ICT literacy, which includes individuals' technology, media, and information literacy competencies; spiritual values, which emphasize teachers' religious beliefs and spiritual awareness; teacher attitudes; and character development, which includes a scientific perspective. The panelists reached a high level of consensus that these skills should be integrated into the education of pre-service teachers. The study reveals that equipping science teachers with 21st century skills will both increase the quality of education and play an important role in providing students with the skills required by the age

Asrizal , Yurnetti, and Usman (2022) examined the impact of ICT-themed science teaching materials integrated with the 5E learning cycle model on students' 21st century skills. In the quasi-experimental study, experimental and control groups were used. In the experimental group, ICT themed science teaching materials integrated with the 5E model were applied; in the control group, traditional teaching materials were used. The results revealed that students in the experimental group showed significant improvements in their knowledge levels, attitudes, and 4C skills (critical thinking, creative thinking, and communication). These findings show that ICT-themed science teaching materials supported by the 5E learning cycle model are effective in developing students' 21st century skills.

İpekşen and Zorlu (2022) examined the relationships between the 21st century learner skills of science teacher candidates and their learning styles, learning styles, and multiple intelligence areas. The findings showed that pre-service teachers' learning styles and multiple intelligences were significant predictors of 21st century learner skills.

No statistically significant difference was found between learning styles and 21st century learner skills. The research suggests that combining different teaching methods and techniques according to the interests and learning styles of prospective teachers in multiple intelligence areas can contribute to the acquisition of 21st century skills. In the study by Kaplan , Meriç, and Demirci (2024), science teachers' awareness of 21st century skills and how they integrated these skills into their lessons were examined. The research was conducted in the form of semi-structured interviews with six science teachers working in a district of Istanbul with a relatively low socio-economic and socio-cultural level. The results showed that teachers recognised the importance of 21st century skills and the need to integrate them into their lessons. Teachers expressed information and communication technologies literacy, scientific literacy, critical thinking, creative thinking, active learning and academic skills as 21st century skills. In contrast, other 21st century skills such as language and communication skills, social and emotional skills, self-skills and study skills were not addressed.

3. METHOD
3.1 Research Model
In this study, the relational screening model, which is one of the quantitative research approaches, was used. Relational screening is a method that aims to reveal the relationship between two or more variables and to determine whether this change exists or to what extent it occurs. In such studies, the relationships between variables are usually examined with correlation analysis, comparisons or similar analysis techniques (Karasar , 2016).

3.2 Universe and Sample
The universe of this research consists of science teachers who are actively working in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). In the study, purposeful sampling was used as the sample determination method. technique was preferred. This method allows individuals who meet certain criteria to be selected and provides data appropriate for the purpose of the research (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2018). In this direction, 71 science teachers who met the determined criteria from the universe constituted the research sample.

3.3 Data Collection Tools
In the study, the 21st International Science and Technology Evaluation Framework developed by Göksun-Orhan (2016) for science teacher candidates was used. **21st century learner skills scale was used. The scale** consists of four basic dimensions as "Cognitive Skills", "Autonomous Skills", " Collaboration and Flexibility Skills" and "Innovation Skills" and contains 31 items in total. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha) of this scale, which was arranged with a five-point Likert type, was determined as 0.89 . During the development process, first a literature review was conducted and then an item pool was created through focus group interviews. The data obtained as a result of the interviews were examined using the content analysis method. Content validity was assessed by consulting expert opinions, and then Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted. The lower limit of the factor loading in EFA was accepted as 0.40 and 31 items were grouped under four main dimensions: cognitive, autonomous, innovative and collaborative skills. The overall internal consistency coefficient of the scale was calculated as 0.892. In the last stage, the accuracy of the structure determined by EFA was tested with Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). CFA results showed that the model provided adequate fit ($\chi 2(399) = 422.43$; $p>0.05$).

3.4 Analysis of Data
SPSS software was used to analyze the data. Within the scope of descriptive statistics, arithmetic mean, frequency (number of repetitions) and standard deviation values were examined. Within the scope of descriptive statistical analyses, simple correlation analysis was applied to determine the relationship between variables, simple linear regression analysis was applied to examine the effects between variables and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied to evaluate the differences between groups.

4. FINDINGS
Table 1. Distribution Table Regarding Demographic Information (n=70)

Variable	Category	n	%
Gender	Woman	42	60.0
	Male	28	40.0
Age	20–29	18	25.7
	30–39	30	42.9
	40–49	15	21.4
	50 and above	7	10.0

Variable	Category	n	%
Marital status	Married	44	62.9
	Single	26	37.1
Professional Seniority	1–5 years	14	20.0
	6–10 years	22	31.4
	11–15 years	19	27.1
	16 years and above	15	21.5

When the demographic information given in the table is examined, it is seen that 60% of the 70 science teachers who participated in the research are female and 40% are male. In terms of age distribution, the largest group consists of teachers between the ages of 30-39 with 42.9%. This is followed by teachers between the ages of 20-29 with 25.7%, teachers between the ages of 40-49 with 21.4%, and teachers aged 50 and over with 10%. In terms of marital status, it is seen that 62.9% of the participants are married and 37.1% are single. When evaluated in terms of professional seniority, the highest number of participants are teachers with 6-10 years of professional experience with a rate of 31.4%. This is followed by teachers with 11-15 years of experience with 27.1%, and teachers with 16 years of experience and above with 21.5%. The rate of teachers who are new to the profession and have 1-5 years of seniority is 20%.

Table 2. Distribution of Science Teachers' Scores on 21st Century Learning Skills

21st Century Learner Skills	n	Lowest	Highest	$\bar{X}$	Level
Cognitive Skills	70	45	88	68.5	Generally
Autonomous Skills	70	10	32	21.4	Now and again
Collaborative and Resilience Skills	70	12	28	19.8	Now and again
Innovative Skills	70	3	12	8.3	Now and again
Total	70	80	160	117.2	Now and again

According to the data in the table, the scores received by science teachers on 21st century learner skills vary at different levels. In the Cognitive Skills category, the scores of the teachers ranged between 45 and 88, and the average score was calculated as 68.5. This skill level was generally evaluated as "usually". While the scores received by the teachers for Autonomous Skills ranged between 10 and 32, the average score was determined as 21.4, and the level of use of these skills was evaluated as "occasionally". In the Collaborative and Flexibility Skills category, the lowest score was recorded as 12, and the highest score was 28, and the average score was 19.8. The frequency of use of these skills also remained at the "occasionally" level. In terms of Innovative Skills, it was observed that the lowest score received by the teachers was 3 and the highest was 12. The average score was 8.3, and this skill was also applied at the "occasionally" level. When the overall total is examined, the scores that teachers received from 21st century learning skills range from 80 to 160, and the average was calculated as 117.2. It is concluded that these skills are used "occasionally" as a general level. These data show that teachers use cognitive skills at the highest level, while other skills are applied at lower levels.

Table 3. T-Test Results by Gender

Sub-dimensions	Female Avg. (Ss .)	Male Mean (Ss .)	t	p
Cognitive Skills	70.2 (5.1)	66.8 (4.9)	2,534	**0.013**
Autonomous Skills	22.1 (3.4)	20.5 (3.1)	1,510	0.136
Collaborative and Resilience Skills	20.4 (2.9)	19.1 (3.2)	2,027	**0.048**
Innovative Skills	8.7 (1.8)	7.8 (2.0)	2.365	**0.022**

According to the data in the table, when the t-test results conducted according to the gender variable are examined, significant differences are seen in some sub-dimensions. In the Cognitive Skills dimension, the average score of female teachers was calculated as 70.2 (SD = 5.1), while the average score of male teachers was 66.8 (SD = 4.9). This difference was found to be statistically significant, and t(68) = 2.534, p = 0.013 was reached. This finding shows that the cognitive skill levels of female teachers are higher than male teachers. In the Autonomous Skills dimension, the average score of female teachers was calculated as 22.1 (SD = 3.4), while the average score of male teachers was calculated as 20.5 (SD = 3.1). However, the value of t(68) = 1.510, p = 0.136 shows that this

difference is not statistically significant. In this case, it can be said that there is no significant difference between female and male teachers in terms of autonomous skills.

In terms of Collaborative and Flexibility Skills, the mean of female teachers was calculated as 20.4 (SD = 2.9), while the mean of male teachers was calculated as 19.1 (SD = 3.2). t(68) = 2.027, p = 0.048 shows that this difference is statistically significant. This result shows that female teachers have higher scores in collaborative and flexibility skills compared to male teachers. In the Innovative Skills dimension, the mean score of female teachers was determined as 8.7 (SD = 1.8), while the mean score of male teachers was determined as 7.8 (SD = 2.0). t(68) = 2.365, p = 0.022 shows that this difference is statistically significant. This finding reveals that female teachers have higher scores in innovative skills compared to male teachers.

Table 4. ANOVA-Test Results According to Age

Sub-dimensions	Age group	Avg.	Ss .	F	p
Cognitive Skills	20–29	67.5	5.2	0.50	0.679
	30–39	70.1	4.8		
	40–49	69.0	5.0		
	50 and above	66.3	5.5		
Autonomous Skills	20–29	20.2	3.3	1,206	0.314
	30–39	21.5	3.0		
	40–49	22.0	3.5		
	50 and above	19.8	3.7		
Collaborative and Resilience Skills	20–29	19.5	3.0	0.405	0.749
	30–39	20.0	2.8		
	40–49	21.2	3.1		
	50 and above	18.7	3.4		
Innovative Skills	20–29	8.1	1.9	1,955	0.129
	30–39	8.5	1.7		
	40–49	7.9	2.0		
	50 and above	7.5	2.2		

In terms of Cognitive Skills, the highest mean score was observed in the 30-39 age group with 70.1, while the lowest mean score was observed in the 50 and over age group with 66.3. However, this difference was not found to be statistically significant (F = 0.50, p = 0.679), meaning that there was no significant difference between the age groups in terms of cognitive skills. When Autonomous Skills were examined, the 40-49 age group had the highest mean score with 22.0, while the 50 and over age group had the lowest mean score with 19.8. However, this difference was also not statistically significant (F = 1.206, p = 0.314). In terms of Collaborative and Flexibility Skills, the mean of the 40-49 age group was 21.2 and had the highest value. The lowest mean was seen in the 50 and over age group with 18.7. However, it was found that there was no significant difference between age groups (F = 0.405, p = 0.749). In the Innovative Skills dimension, the highest average score was 8.5 for the 30-39 age group, while the lowest score was 7.5 for the 50 and above age group. As a result of the ANOVA test, it was determined that this difference was not statistically significant (F = 1.955, p = 0.129). There was no significant difference between different age groups in terms of 21st century learner skills. Cognitive, autonomous, collaborative and innovative skills did not change according to age.

Table 5. Marital Status T-Test Results According to

Sub-dimensions	Married Partner (Ss .)	Single Average (Ss .)	t	p
Cognitive Skills	72.0 (4.5)	68.2 (4.8)	3,073	**0.003**
Autonomous Skills	23.5 (3.2)	21.0 (3.0)	3,426	**0.001**
Collaborative and Resilience Skills	22.0 (2.7)	19.5 (3.1)	3.395	**0.001**
Innovative Skills	9.1 (1.7)	7.5 (2.0)	4,599	**0.000**

According to the data in the table, when the t-test results conducted according to marital status are examined, it is seen that there are significant differences between married and single individuals in all sub-dimensions (p < 0.05). In terms of Cognitive Skills, the average score of married individuals was 72.0 (Sd = 4.5), while the average of

single individuals was calculated as 68.2 (Sd = 4.8). The value of $t(68) = 3.073$, $p = 0.003$ shows that married individuals have significantly higher scores in terms of cognitive skills. In the Autonomous Skills dimension, the average of married individuals was determined as 23.5 (Sd = 3.2), while the average of single individuals was determined as 21.0 (Sd = 3.0). The result of $t(68) = 3.426$, $p = 0.001$ shows that married individuals have significantly higher scores in autonomous skills. A similar situation is observed in terms of Collaborative and Flexibility Skills. The average score of married individuals was calculated as 22.0 (SD = 2.7), while the average score of single individuals was calculated as 19.5 (SD = 3.1). $t(68) = 3.395$, $p = 0.001$ value shows that married individuals have significantly higher scores in collaborative and flexibility skills. In the Innovative Skills dimension, the average score of married individuals was determined as 9.1 (SD = 1.7), while the average of single individuals was determined as 7.5 (SD = 2.0). The result of $t(68) = 4.599$, $p < 0.001$ shows that married individuals have significantly higher innovative skills. In summary, it was determined that the skill levels of married individuals were significantly higher than single individuals in all sub-dimensions. This situation suggests that marital status may have an effect on 21st century learner skills .

Table 6. ANOVA-Test Results According to Professional Seniority

Sub-dimensions	Professional Seniority	Avg.	Ss .	F	p
Cognitive Skills	1–5 years	66.5	4.7	1,756	0.164
	6–10 years	70.8	4.5		
	11–15 years	71.2	4.6		
	16 years and above	69.9	4.8		
Autonomous Skills	1–5 years	20.8	3.5	1,630	0.190
	6–10 years	21.9	3.2		
	11–15 years	22.3	3.4		
	16 years and above	21.5	3.1		
Collaborative and Resilience Skills	1–5 years	18.9	3.1	2,022	0.119
	6–10 years	20.5	2.9		
	11–15 years	21.0	3.2		
	16 years and above	19.8	3.0		
Innovative Skills	1–5 years	7.8	1.9	0.396	0.756
	6–10 years	8.4	1.7		
	11–15 years	8.7	1.8		
	16 years and above	8.0	2.0		

According to the data in the table, when the ANOVA test results conducted according to the professional seniority variable are examined, it is seen that different seniority groups do not show a significant difference in terms of cognitive, autonomous, collaborative and flexibility skills and innovative skills ($p > 0.05$). In terms of Cognitive Skills, the highest average score of 71.2 (SD = 4.6) was observed in teachers with 11-15 years of professional seniority, while the lowest average score of 66.5 (SD = 4.7) was observed in teachers with 1-5 years of experience. However, the result of $F(3, 66) = 1.756$, $p = 0.164$ shows that there is no statistically significant difference in terms of cognitive skills between professional seniority groups. In terms of Autonomous Skills, teachers with 11-15 years of seniority had the highest average score with 22.3 (Sd = 3.4), while teachers with 1-5 years of seniority had the lowest average score with 20.8 (Sd = 3.5). However, $F(3, 66) = 1.630$, $p = 0.190$ shows that the difference between the groups is not statistically significant. In terms of Collaborative and Flexibility Skills, the highest average was calculated as 21.0 (Sd = 3.2) in teachers with 11-15 years of seniority, while the lowest average was seen in teachers with 1-5 years of seniority with 18.9 (Sd = 3.1). However, $F(3, 66) = 2.022$, $p = 0.119$ shows that there is no significant difference according to professional seniority. In terms of Innovative Skills, the highest mean score of 8.7 (SD = 1.8) was observed in teachers with 11-15 years of experience, while the lowest mean score of 7.8 (SD = 1.9) was observed in teachers with 1-5 years of experience. However, $F(3, 66) = 0.396$, $p = 0.756$ shows that this difference is not statistically significant.

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
As a result of the research, it was determined that the general level of science teachers regarding 21st century learner skills was at a medium level. It was observed that teachers used these skills at a "sometimes" level, and that the frequency of use was higher only in cognitive skills compared to other skills. It is noteworthy that the

levels of use of autonomous, collaborative-flexible and innovative skills were lower. This situation shows that teachers are more active in information processing and analysis processes; however, they are limited in the classroom applications of skills such as innovation, collaboration and independent learning.

In the analyses conducted in terms of gender variable, it was determined that female teachers performed at higher levels than male teachers in cognitive, collaborative and innovative skills. No significant gender-based difference was found in terms of autonomous skills. These findings indicate that gender-based differences may emerge in some skill areas.

In the evaluations made according to age groups, no significant difference was found between different age groups in terms of 21st century skills. This finding reveals that teachers use these skills at similar levels regardless of their age. Similarly, it was observed that there was no significant difference in the level of teachers' use of these skills in terms of professional seniority variable. This situation suggests that the length of service does not have a direct effect on the use of 21st century skills.

The marital status variable was a notable variable in the research results. It was observed that married teachers exhibited higher levels of skill in all skill areas compared to single teachers. This finding suggests that life experiences and levels of responsibility can contribute to the development of 21st century skills.

revealed that teachers are stronger especially in the cognitive field, however, there is a need for development in innovation, collaboration and autonomous skills. This situation shows that teachers need to be supported more in 21st century skills in professional development programs. Considering that individual variables such as gender and marital status have an effect on some skills, it is recommended to develop special support strategies for different groups.

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CONTENT ANALYSIS OF PUBLISHED ARTICLES ON HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT
The aim of this research; It aims to evaluate the article researches on 'Human Resources Management' and 'Strategic Human Resources Management' by content analysis between 2019 and 2024. In addition, it is aimed to reveal the status of researches on 'Human Resources Management' and 'Strategic Human Resources Management' in the literature and to contribute to researchers who want to work in this field and to the relevant literature. Studies in the field of business administration were searched using Google Academy databases. A total of 27 articles were included in the research. As a result of the analyses, the most articles on 'Human Resources Management' and 'Strategic Human Resources Management' between 2019 and 2024 were published in 2022 (f = 6; 22%) and 2021 and 2019 (f = 5; 19%), and the publications were mostly published in Turkish (f = 16; 59%), 27 articles on 'Human Resources Management' and 'Strategic Human Resources Management' were published in 27 different journals, quantitative research method (f=16; 59%) was mostly used in the publications, questionnaire (f=16; 59%) data collection tool was mostly used in the articles examined, SPSS (f=14; 52%) data analysis programme was mostly used in the articles.
Keywords: Human Resource Management, Strategic Human Resource Management, Article, Content Analysis, Google Scholar.

INTRODUCTION

We use many definitions to describe how important people are to an organisation. The terms human resources, human capital, intellectual assets and skills management imply that it is people who drive the performance of organisations (along with resources such as funds, materials, information, etc.) (Verhulst S, et al., 2021). Successful organisations are experts in bringing together employees with different qualities to achieve a common goal (Valentine, 2024). This is the foundation of human resource management (Dowling, et al., 2023). Human resource management involves many activities, including analysing a company's competitive environment and designing work and team organisation so that a company's strategy can be successfully implemented to win the competition. This requires identifying, recruiting and selecting the right people for jobs and teams; training, motivating and evaluating these people; developing attractive salary policies to retain them; training them to lead the organisation in the future (Mello, 2018).

Human resources management ensures the continuity of the work of the existing personnel connected to the organisation for the success and sustainability of the company and the formation of appropriate and attractive conditions for the employment of new talented personnel to the company (Chesser J., 2016). Human resource management is a strategic approach to managing employees to increase the productivity of employees within an organisation (Chesser, 2017). Human resource management provides strategic management of employees to improve an organisation's performance and contribute to its competitiveness with its competitors (Verhulst S, et al., 2021).

Human resource management includes various processes such as recruitment, performance management, training, motivation and employee development in line with the goals of the organisation (Tang et al., 2018). Human resource management focuses on aligning the goals of the business with the needs and expectations of the employees and providing a productive and committed workforce (Dowling P, et al., 2023).

Why businesses need Human Resources Management; Today, not every business has a Human Resources department. In small businesses, the company owner usually deals with Human Resources issues. Although there are significant differences between large and small businesses, the same Human Resources activities should take place in every business. Every manager in an organisation acts as a Human Resources expert, so there are many people who can help solve Human Resources problems in the organisation. Sales managers, department heads, food and beverage managers, university deans and accounting department managers all manage human resources and their effectiveness in this regard depends on how well they understand and apply the principles of Human Resource management (Arulrajah and Opatha, 2014). It is not realistic to expect line managers to know the ins and outs of equal employment legislation, how to design a complex remuneration system or when to conduct job analyses (Carrel et al., 2022).

Organisations that fail to manage their employees properly face great risks in terms of legal issues and employee relations. In this context, it is of great advantage for organisations to have a Human Resources department and to have responsible managers with a strong knowledge of important Human Resources issues. For this reason, large enterprises usually employ professionals specialised in Human Resources activities or create a department

according to the size of the company (Renwick et al., 2013). In our age, almost every business that wants to be successful in its activities increases the number of Human Resources personnel (Snell et al., 2022).

There are many benefits of having a dedicated Human Resources department in an organisation. Organisations that implement effective Human Resources practices often enjoy higher profits, higher stock prices and greater productivity than those that do not. Human Resources professionals must respond appropriately to current business challenges and opportunities to help the organisation succeed. Key challenges facing organisations today include building the business of the future, delivering a superior employee experience and leveraging diversity and inclusion. Human Resources professionals can make a difference to other organisations by providing solutions to these challenges (Dowling et al., 2023).

Today, new trends include a globalised workforce, age diversity, a focus on sustainability and an emphasis on social media. Human Resources professionals can address these issues by taking an interdisciplinary business approach (working with marketing, operations and finance personnel), engaging with external constituents, identifying critical organisational challenges and facilitating organisational change. HR professionals can also adapt HR processes to fit changes in the workplace, work more closely with IT staff to manage technology, hire more successful people with the right skills, and act as innovation leaders. Human Resources professionals contribute to the effectiveness of line managers when they effectively structure Human Resources practices, involve line managers in the development of these practices, and enlist the support of the Board of Directors (Chesser et al., 2020).

The role of Human Resources management in organisations has changed dramatically in recent years. The days of Human Resources being a 'personnel department', dealing with record keeping, checking in and out, organising files and other office operations are past. In financially successful organisations, Human Resources has come to be seen as a critical strategic partner with wide-ranging and transformative roles and responsibilities. Adopting a strategic approach to Human Resources management requires leaving behind the 'personnel management' mindset and practices and focusing on strategic rather than operational issues. Strategic Human Resources management aims to make the function of managing people the top priority in the business and to align all Human Resources programmes and policies with the strategy of a business. Strategic Human Resource management recognises that employees make or break a business, as all decisions about finance, marketing, operational activities or technology are made by the organisation's employees (Morris et al., 2022).

Strategic Human Resources management involves the development of consistent and compatible practices, programmes and policies to enable the organisation to achieve its strategic objectives. It considers the impact of corporate strategy on all Human Resources systems in an organisation by translating corporate objectives into specific people management systems. The specific approach and process used will vary from organisation to organisation, but the core concept is coherence; essentially, all HR programmes and policies are integrated into a broader framework that facilitates the organisation's mission in general and its goals in particular (Morris et al., 2022).

Probably the most important feature of strategic Human Resource management is that it emphasises the fact that there is no single way of managing people in any business. Even within organisations in the same sector, Human Resources practices can vary greatly from one organisation to another, and critical to success in any organisation are the people management systems that clearly support the organisation's goals and strategy. It is not enough to have a strong Human Resources strategy linked to the organisation's objectives. The HR strategy needs to be communicated, implemented and explained in writing. A recent global study found that organisations with a written Human Resources strategy are more profitable than those without. Having an organisation's Human Resources strategy in writing appears to facilitate buy-in and buy-in from both senior managers and other employees. Research has shown that organisations with a specific written Human Resources strategy have higher revenues per employee than organisations without a written strategy and that organisations with a written strategy have lower employee absenteeism and lower labour turnover (Dowling et al, 2023).

Strategic Human Resource management provides an approach to today's challenges where employees can work on a contractual or permanent basis in more than one organisation at the same time and can work remotely from a different city or even a different country from the location of their employer or even their manager. While this expands the talent market globally, it also makes competition among employees even more challenging. Therefore, organisations do not need world-class talent for every position, but instead they need talent in critical and more strategic positions where they can make a big impact with their performance. Such strategic positions do not necessarily have to be at executive level, but can be in any position within the organisation. High-performing employees should not be found in every position, but in critical, strategic positions that provide the greatest impact on organisational performance (Harnandez, 2009).

2. METHODOLOGY
2.1. Purpose of the Study:
This research analyses the articles on 'Human Resources Management' between 2019 and 2024 by content analysis method.

Content analysis is defined as a research technique for drawing reproducible and valid conclusions. In addition, content analysis should be objective, systematic and qualitative (Krippendorff K., 2013). In addition, it is aimed to reveal the status of research on 'Strategic Human Resources Management' in the literature and to contribute to researchers who want to work in this field and to the relevant literature.

2.2. Research Design:

In this study, qualitative research method was used for the articles on 'Human Resources Management' published in Google Scholar between 2019-2024. In this context, local and international literature searches were made and articles related to the subject were reached. The articles were examined, analysed and interpreted according to 7 (seven) variables according to years, publication languages, number of authors, journals, methods, data collection tools and data analysis. The research data were analysed by content analysis method by adopting qualitative research method.

2.3. Work Group:

The articles on 'Human Resources Management' and 'Strategic Human Resources Management' in Google Scholar databases were analysed. During the review, it was included as a scanning criterion that the articles were published between 2019-20024 and the publication languages were Turkish and English. As a result of the research, 27 articles were found to be suitable for the research criteria.

	Selection Criteria
Database	• Google Scholar Database
Screening Criteria	• "Human Resources Management" and "Strategic Human Resources Management". • To be published between 2019-2024. • To be published in Turkish and English.

2.4. Collection of Data:

The research was carried out using the literature review method with the data obtained from Google Academy databases on 'Human Resources Management' and "Strategic Human Resources Management".

2.5. Data Analysis:

In this study, the publications on human resource management and strategic human resource management on businesses were examined and then the articles were analysed by content analysis method using 7 (seven) variables (years, language of publication, number of authors, published journals, method, data collection tools and data analysis). Microsoft Excel programme was used for data analysis. Graphs, percentage and frequency tables were used to interpret the findings.

2.6. Limitations of the Study:

• This research is limited with Google Scholar databases between 2019-2024,
• Limited to the resources available on this subject

3. FINDINGS

In this part of the study, the findings related to the years, publication language, number of authors, journals, methods, data collection tools of the articles analysed within the scope of content analysis will be presented.

3.1. Findings Regarding the Distribution of Article Publications Analysed within the Scope of the Research According to Years

Table 1. Distribution of Articles according to Year of Publication

Year of Publication	Frequency (F)	Percentage (%)
2024	3	11%
2023	4	15%
2022	**6**	**22%**
2021	**5**	**19%**
2020	4	15%
2019	**5**	**19%**
Total	27	100%

When the distribution of articles on Human Resources Management in Table 1 is analysed in terms of publication years, it is observed that the most frequently published year is 2022 with 6 studies and 22%, followed by 2021 and 2019 with 5 studies and 19%, the third most published year is 2020 and 2023 with 4 studies and 19%, 2020 and 2023 are in the fourth and fifth place with 4 studies and 15%. Looking at the years with the lowest number of publications, 2024 was the year with the lowest number of publications with 3 studies and 11%.
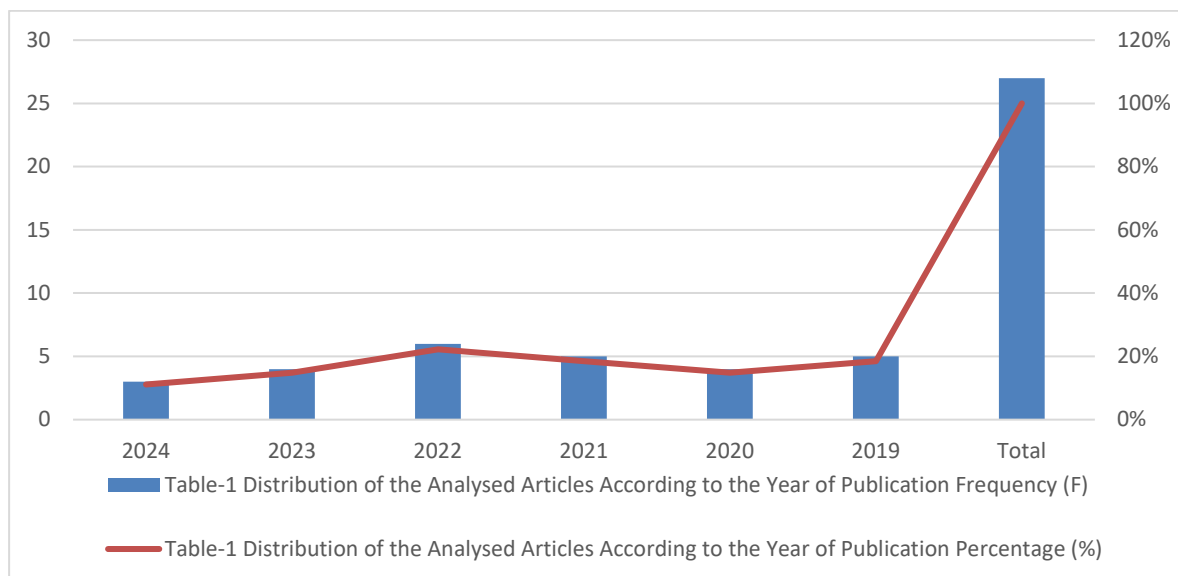
3.2. Findings Regarding the Distribution of the Publication Language of the Article Publications Analysed within the Scope of the Research

Table 2. Distribution of the Analysed Articles according to Language of Publication

Language	Frequency (F)	Percentage (%)
Turkish	**16**	**59%**
English	11	41%
Total	27	100%

When Table 2, which shows the distribution of the articles on "Human Resources Management" between 2019-2024 and examined within the scope of the research, is examined, it is seen that the studies were published in Turkish with 16 studies and a rate of 59%, and the publications in English were 11 publications and a rate of 41%.

Table-2 Distribution of the Analysed Articles According to the Language of Publication Frequency (F)

Table-2 Distribution of the Analysed Articles According to the Language of Publication Percentage (%)
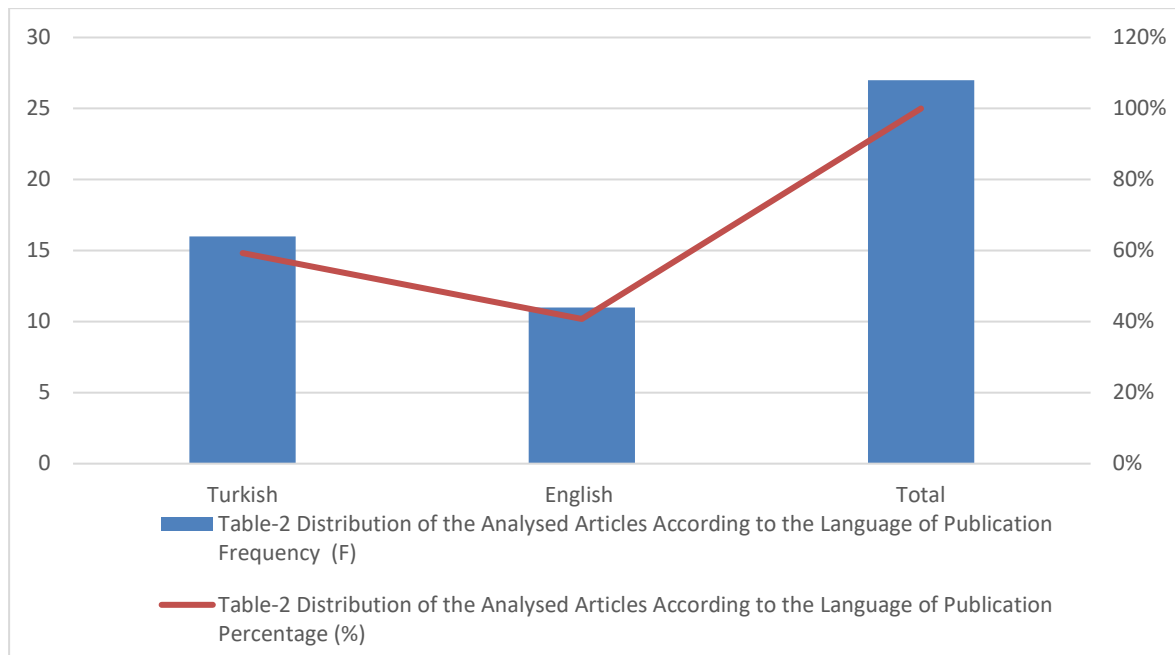
3.3. Findings Regarding the Number of Authors of the Article Publications Analysed in the Study

The results of the analyses of the distribution of the number of authors of the article publications examined within the scope of the research are presented in Table 3

Table 3. Distribution of the Number of Authors of the Analysed Articles

Number of Author	Frequency (F)	Percentage (%)
One Author	5	19%
Two Authors	13	48%
Three Authors	3	11%
Four Authors	2	7%
Five Authors	4	15%
Total	27	100%

According to Table 3, which shows the distribution of the number of authors of the articles on "Human Resources Management" between 2019-2024 and examined within the scope of the research, it was determined that the studies were written by 2 authors and 60%, the number of articles written as two authors in the second place was 13 authors and 48%. In addition, in the analysed studies, the number of articles written by at least five authors was found to be 4 authors and 15%.

Table-3 The Distribution of the Number of Authors of the Analysed Articles Frequency (F)
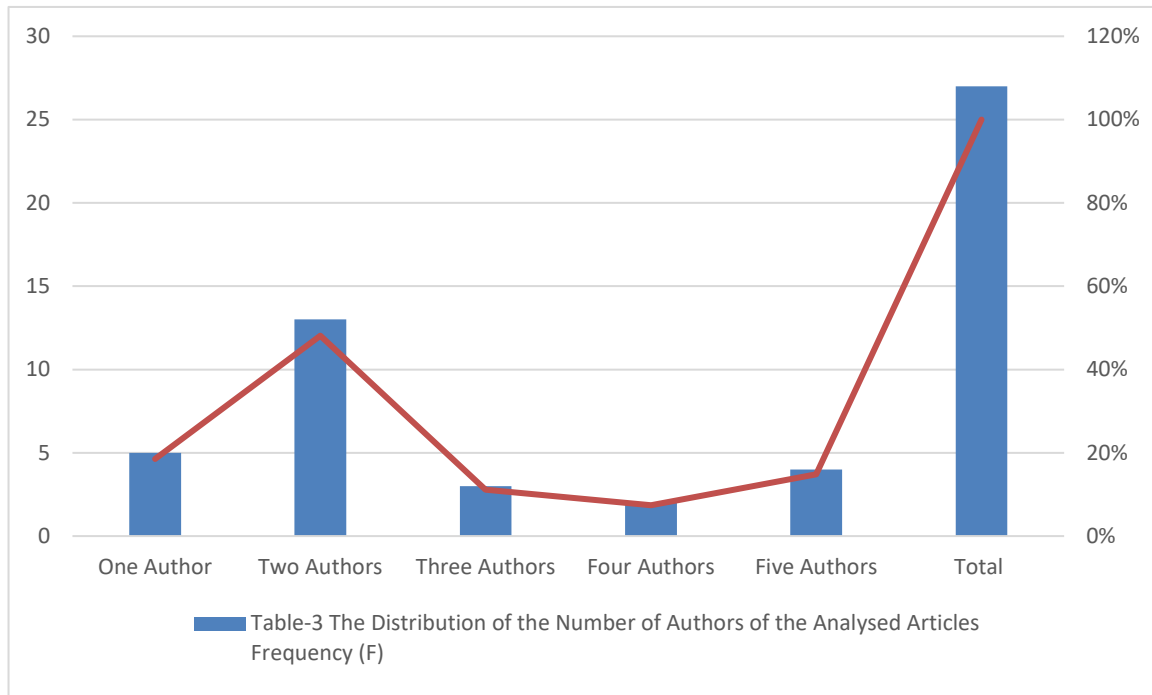
3.4. Findings Regarding the Methods of Article Publications Analysed within the Scope of the Research

Table 4. Distribution of the Analysed Articles According to Methods

Method	Frequency (F)	Percentage (%)
Quantitative	**16**	**59%**
Qualitative	9	**33%**
Mixed	2	**7%**
Total	27	**100%**

Table 4: When Table 5, which shows the distribution of the methods of the articles on "Human Resources Management" examined between 2019-2024 and within the scope of the research, it is seen that the quantitative research method is used in the second place with 59% of 16 articles, followed by the qualitative research method with 9 articles and 33%. It is seen that the least method used in the researches is the mixed research method with 2 articles and a rate of 7%.
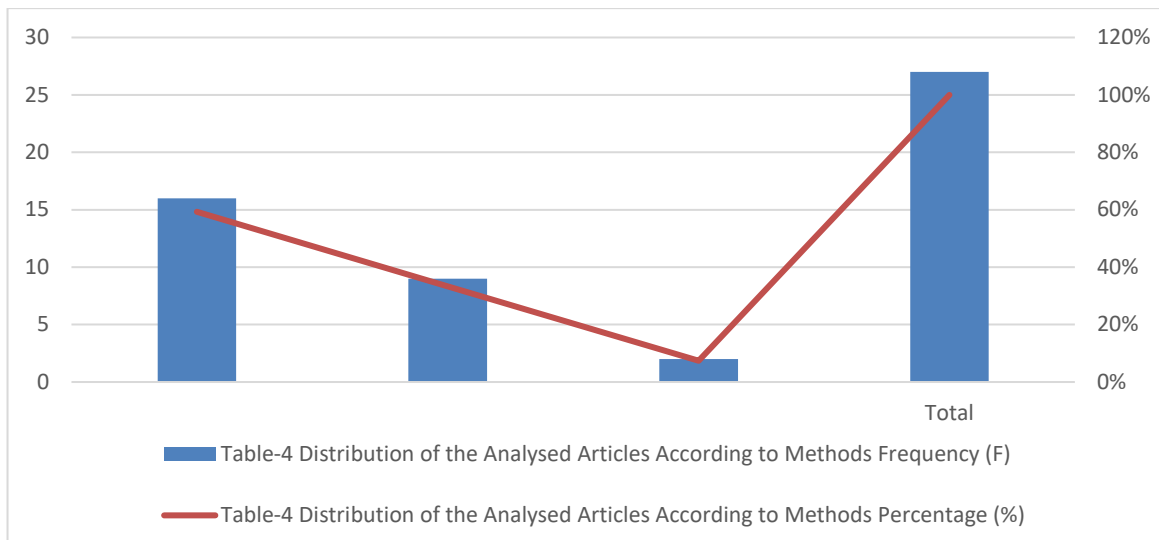
3.5. Findings Regarding the Data Analysis Programmes of the Article Publications Examined within the Scope of the Research

Table 5. Distribution of the Analysed Articles According to Data Analysis Software

Data Analysis Software	Frequency (F)	Percentage (%)
Descriptive Analysis	7	26%
SPSS Data Analysis Software (26.0/18.0/20.0/25.0)	14	52%
Content Analysis	3	11%
AMOS 22.0 and SPSS 22.0 Software	3	11%
Maxops Analytics Pro 2020 Software	3	11%
Microsoft Excel	2	7%
Nvivo 11	1	4%
SPSS 25.0 and AMOS 24 Software	1	4%
Total	27	**100%**

Table 5: In Table 5, which shows the distribution of data analysis software used in the articles on "Human Resources Management" between 2019-2024 and examined within the scope of the research, different data analysis software were used in the articles. In the articles examined, SPSS programme and Descriptive Analysis programme ranked first with 7 articles and 26% rate. 3 studies used Amos 22 and SPSS 26.0 with a rate of 11%, 3 studies used Maxops Analytics Pro 2020 Program with a rate of 11%, 2 studies used Microsoft Excel Program with a rate of 7%, 2 studies used Nvivo 11 program and SPSS 25.0 and AMOS 24 with a rate of 4%.

Table- 5 Distribution of the Analysed Articles According to Data Analysis Software Frequency (F)

Table- 5 Distribution of the Analysed Articles According to Data Analysis Software Percentage (%)
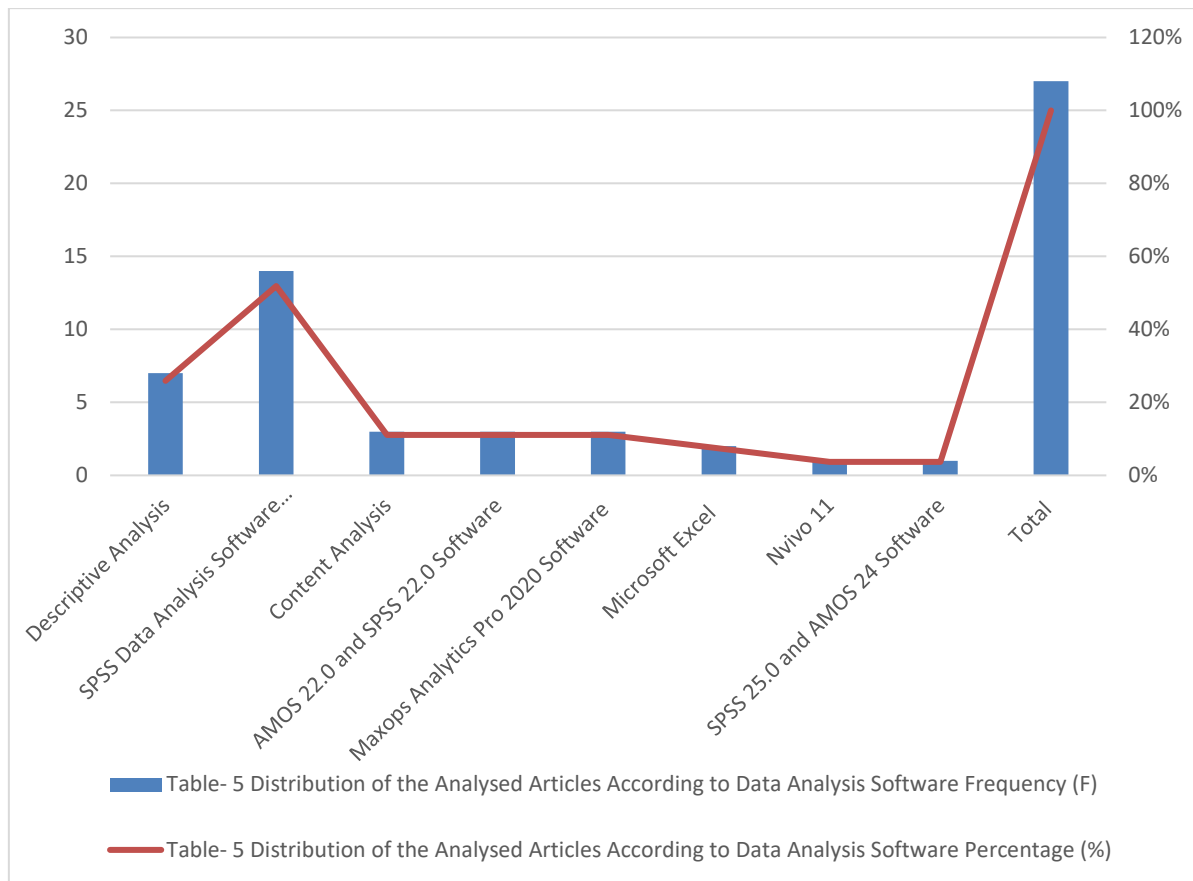
3.6. Findings Regarding the Data Collection Tools of the Article Publications Analysed within the Scope of the Research

Table 6. Distribution of the Analysed Articles According to Data Collection Tools

Data Collection Tool	Frequency (F)	Percentage (%)
Interview	**16**	**59%**
Interview (Semi-structured)	**7**	**26%**
Interview (Focus Group)	1	**4%**
Interview and Document Analysis	1	**4%**
Questionnaire and Interview	1	**4%**
Case study analysis	1	**4%**
Total	27	**100%**

In Table 6, the distribution of the data collection tools of the articles on "Human Resources Management" examined between 2019-2024 and within the scope of the research, 6 data collection tools were used. The majority of the articles examined were questionnaire (f= 16, 59%), interview semi-structured (f= 7, 26%), interview focus group (f= 1, 4%), interview and document analysis (f= 1, 4%), questionnaire and interview (f= 1, 4%), case study analysis (f= 1, 4%).
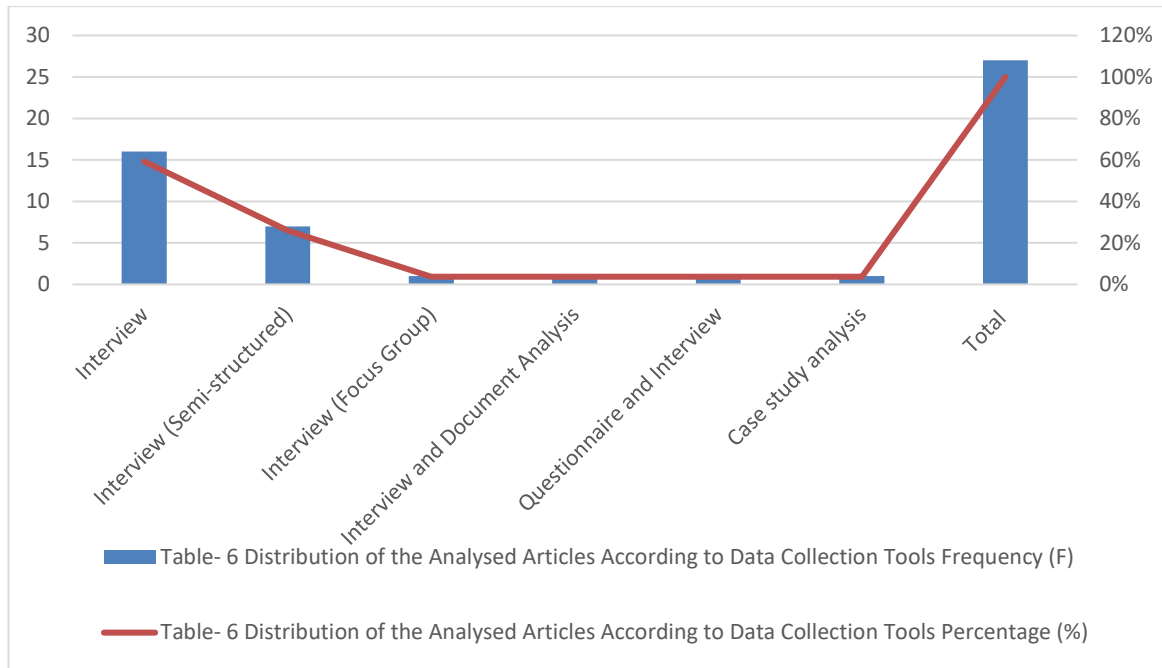
3.7. Findings Related to Article Publication Journals Analysed within the Scope of the Research

Tablo 7. Distribution of the Analysed Articles According to the Journals where they were published

Published Journal	Frequency (F)	Percentage (%)
AHBVÜ Turizm Fakültesi Journal	1	3,70%
Anadolu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Journal	1	3,70%
Avrasya Sosyal ve Ekonomi Araştırmaları Journal	1	3,70%
Balkan ve Yakın Doğu Sosyal Bilimler Journal	1	3,70%
Doğuş Üniversitesi Journal	1	3,70%
Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Journal	1	3,70%
Hacettepe Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Journal	1	3,70%
International Journal of Disciplines Economics & Administrative Sciences	1	3,70%
International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Management Inquiries	1	3,70%
International Journal of Organizational Leadership	1	3,70%
IUP Journal of Organizational Behavior	1	3,70%
Journal of Business Management and Economic Research	1	3,70%
Journal of Interdisciplinary Research	1	3,70%
Journal of Strategic Human Resource Management	1	3,70%
Eduvest-Journal of Universal Studies	1	3,70%
Malatya Turgut Özal Üniversitesi İşletme ve Yönetim Bilimleri Journal	1	3,70%
MANAS Sosyal Araştırmalar Journal	1	3,70%
Mdpi journals	1	3,70%

Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Journal	1	**3,70%**
Süleyman Demirel University İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi Journal	1	**3,70%**
Trends in Business and Economics	1	**3,70%**
Türk Turizm Araştırmaları Journal	1	**3,70%**
Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry	1	**3,70%**
Uluslararası İktisadi ve İdari İncelemeler Journal	1	**3,70%**
OPUS Uluslararası Toplum Araştırmaları Journal	1	**3,70%**
Yönetim ve Ekonomi Araştırmaları Journal	1	**3,70%**
Yönetim, Ekonomi ve Pazarlama Araştırmaları Journal	1	**3,70%**
Total	**27**	**100%**

In Table 7, the distribution of the articles on 'Human Resources Management' between 2019 and 2024 and examined within the scope of the research in relation to the journals in which they were published was analysed and it was determined that the articles were published in different journals. The articles examined; AHBVÜ Journal of Faculty of Tourism (f=1; 3.70%), Anadolu University Journal of Social Sciences (f=1; 3.70%), Eurasian Journal of Social and Economic Research (f=1; 3.70%), Balkan and Near East Journal of Social Sciences (f=1; 3. 70%), Journal of Doğuş University (f=1; % 3.70), Journal of Electronic Social Sciences (f=1; % 3.70), Journal of Hacettepe University Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (f=1; % 3.70), International Journal of Disciplines Economics & Administrative Sciences (f=1; % 3. 70%), International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Management Inquiries (f=1; 3.70%), International Journal of Organisational Leadership (f=1; 3.70%), IUP Journal of Organisational Behavior (f=1; 3.70%), Journal of Business Management and Economic Research (f=1; 3. 70%), Journal of Interdisciplinary Research (f=1; % 3.70), Journal of Strategic Human Resource Management (f=1; % 3.70), Eduvest-Journal of Universal Studies (f=1; % 3.70), Malatya Turgut Özal University Journal of Business and Management Sciences (f=1; % 3.70), MANAS Journal of Social Research (f=1; % 3.70), Mdpi journals (f=1; % 3.70), Süleyman Demirel University Journal of Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (f=1; % 3.70), Süleyman Demirel University Journal of Human Resources Management (f=1; % 3.70), Trends in Business and Economics (f=1; % 3.70), Turkish Journal of Tourism Research (f=1; % 3. 70), Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry (f=1; 3.70%), International Journal of Economic and Administrative Studies (f=1; 3.70%), OPUS International Journal of Community Research (f=1; 3.70%), Journal of Management and Economics Research (f=1; 3.70%), Journal of Management, Economics and Marketing Research (f=1; 3.70%). It was determined that the articles on 'Human Resources Management' between 2019-2024 and examined within the scope of the research were published in a total of 27 different journals.

Tablo- 7 Distribution of the Analysed Articles According to the Journals where they were published Free (F)
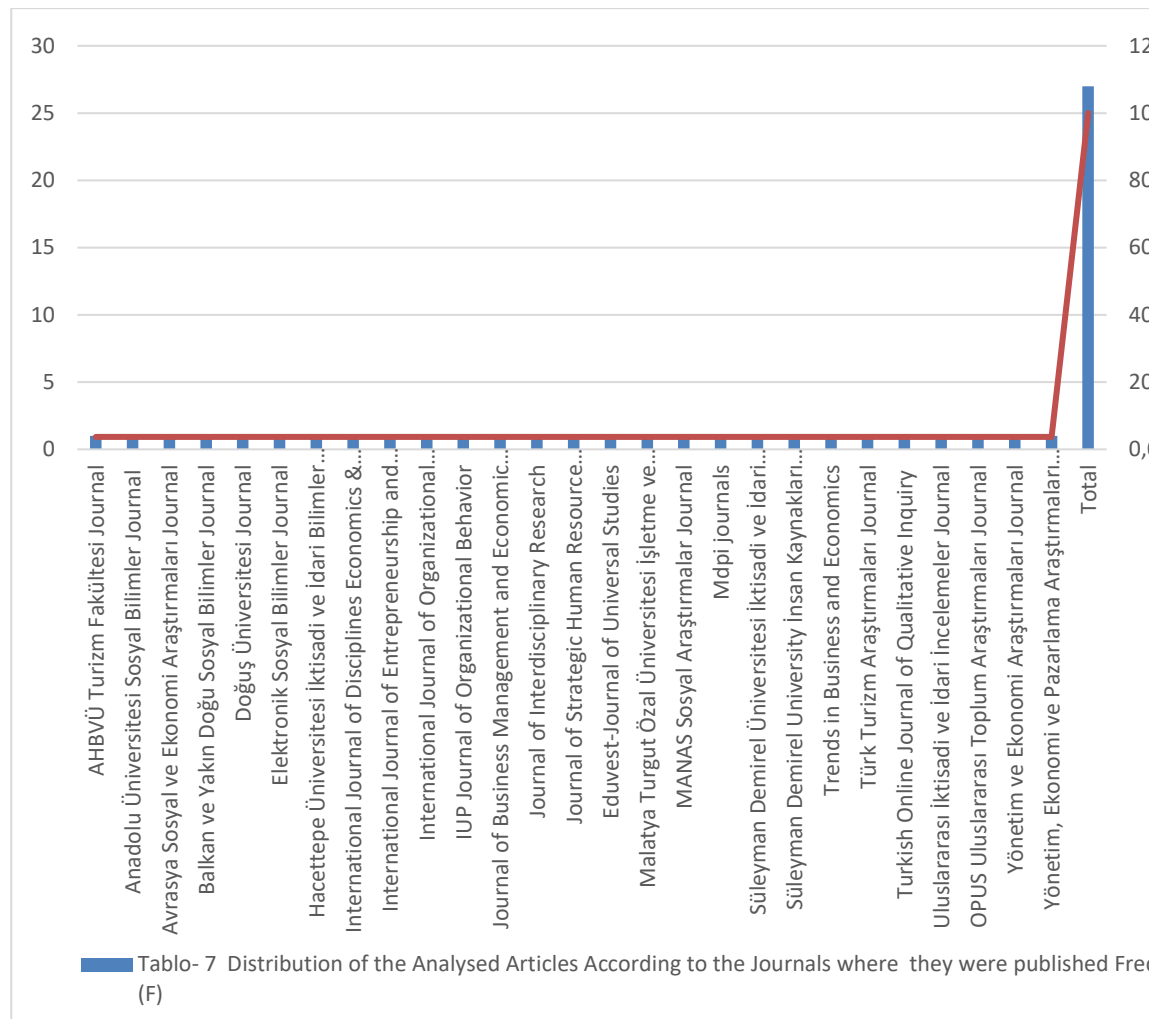
Conclusion, Discussion and Recommendations

In this study, article researches on 'Human Resources Management' were evaluated by content analysis between 2019 and 2024. In addition, it is aimed to determine the status of research on 'Human Resources Management' in the literature and to contribute to researchers who want to work in this field. As a result of the search, a total of 27 articles were found appropriate and evaluated. Related literature searches were carried out in April 2024. Research articles on 'Human Resources Management' were examined through 7 different variables according to years, publication languages, number of authors, journals, methods, data collection tools and analysis programmes by adopting qualitative research design.

In line with the criteria determined within the scope of the research, a total of 27 articles on 'Human Resources Management' and 'Strategic Human Resources Management' were published between 2019-2024, the most studies were published in 2022 (f=6; 2%), and 2022 was followed by 2021 and 2019 (f=5; 19.0%), respectively, the majority of the studies were published in Turkish (f=16; 59%), the articles examined within the scope of the research were published in different journals, AHBVÜ Tourism Faculty Journal (f=1; 3.70%), Anadolu University Journal of Social Sciences (f=1; % 3.70), Eurasian Journal of Social and Economic Research (f=1; % 3.70), Balkan and Near East Journal of Social Sciences (f=1; % 3.70), Journal of Doğuş University (f=1; % 3.70), Electronic Journal of Social Sciences (f=1; % 3.70), Hacettepe University Journal of Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (f=1; % 3.70), International Journal of Disciplines Economics & Administrative Sciences (f=1; % 3.70), International Journal of Economics & Administrative Sciences (f=1; % 3.70). 70%), Hacettepe

University Journal of Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (f=1; % 3.70), International Journal of Disciplines Economics & Administrative Sciences (f=1; % 3.70), International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Management Inquiries (f=1; % 3.70), International Journal of Organisational Leadership (f=1; % 3. 70%), IUP Journal of Organisational Behavior (f=1; % 3.70), Journal of Business Management and Economic Research (f=1; % 3.70), Journal of Interdisciplinary Research (f=1; % 3.70), Journal of Strategic Human Resource Management (f=1; % 3.70), Eduvest-Journal of Universal Studies (f=1; % 3. 70%), Malatya Turgut Özal University Journal of Business and Management Sciences (f=1; % 3.70), MANAS Journal of Social Research (f=1; % 3.70), Mdpi journals (f=1; % 3.70), Süleyman Demirel University Journal of Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (f=1; % 3.70), Süleyman Demirel University Journal of Human Resources Management (f=1; % 3.70), Trends in Business and Economics (f=1; 3.70%), Turkish Journal of Tourism Research (f=1; 3.70%), Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry (f=1; 3.70%), International Journal of Economic and Administrative Studies (f=1; 3.70%), OPUS International Journal of Community Research (f=1; 3.70%), Journal of Management and Economic Research (f=1; 3.70%), Journal of Management, Economics and Marketing Research (f=1; 3. 70%) were published in journals, quantitative research method (f=16; 59%) was mostly used, followed by qualitative research method (f=9; 33%), questionnaire (f=16; 59%) data collection tool was mostly used, SPSS (f=41; 51. 25%) data analysis programme was used in the articles examined, many different data collection tools were used in the articles examined, survey (f=16; 59%) data collection tool was used mostly due to the use of quantitative method (f=54; 67.5%) in the articles, SPSS (f=14; 52%) data analysis programme was used mostly due to the use of quantitative method (f=16; 59%) in the articles, in the study where quantitative research was used, SPSS 25.0 and Amos 24 (f=1; 4%), two data analysis programmes were used together.

The article publications analysed within the scope of the research are mostly published in Turkish and support the results reached in the research in various content analysis studies (Krippendorff K., 2013) conducted as a result of the literature review, and are also supported by the results obtained regarding the number of authors of the articles examined within the scope of the research. (Krippendorff K., 2013)

Recommendations

1. It is recommended to increase the number of studies on "Human Resources Management" and "Strategic Human Resources Management" in the field of business administration.

2. It is suggested that the majority of the articles researched on "Human Resources Management" and "Strategic Human Resources Management" use quantitative methods, and that qualitative or mixed research methods should be used in research.

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EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL SILENCE ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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ABSTRACT
This study aims to examine the relationship between organizational silence and organizational commitment and to evaluate the impact of organizational silence on organizational commitment. In the research, quantitative research method was used and relational survey model was adopted. The population of the study consists of individuals working in different sectors in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). In order to represent the population, a sample group was determined in line with the purpose of the study. In this context, a total of 399 people were included in the study during the data collection process. Two valid and reliable scales were used to collect data in the study. These are the Organizational Silence Scale developed by Çakıcı (2007) and the Organizational Commitment Scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1991) and adapted into Turkish by Seymen and Korkmaz (2017). Data were collected and analyzed through these two scales.

According to the results of the analysis, although marital status was not a determining factor in general organizational silence, it was an effective variable in the dimension of fear of damaging relationships. In terms of professional seniority, it was determined that more senior individuals had higher perceptions of managerial and organizational reasons and general organizational silence. While working time was found to be effective on continuance commitment, professional seniority showed a significant difference in terms of normative commitment. In the correlation analysis, a negative relationship was found between organizational silence and organizational commitment in general; especially the increase in organizational silence decreased affective commitment, while it increased continuance commitment. Regression analysis showed that organizational silence has a significant and positive effect on organizational commitment. These findings reveal that the relationship between organizational silence and commitment has a complex and multidimensional structure.

Key Words: Silence, Organizational silence, Commitment, Organizational commitment.

1. INTRODUCTION
1.1. Problem Status

Organizational silence is a situation in which employees within an organization avoid expressing their ideas, opinions or concerns and prefer to remain silent. This situation usually occurs due to employees' fears that their criticisms will be received negatively, their belief that they will be ignored by management, or their concern about losing job security (Çaçan and Demirtaş, 2023). Employee silence can have serious consequences not only at the individual level but also at the organizational level. This environment of silence within the organization can weaken the competitiveness of businesses, especially by preventing the sharing of innovative ideas.

Organizational silence does not only arise from individual fear or insecurity; it can also occur as a result of organizational culture, leadership style, and internal communication policies. For example, in organizations where an autocratic leadership style is dominant, it may be more difficult for employees to express their ideas openly. Similarly, in an environment where there are no open communication channels and feedback mechanisms are weak, it may be inevitable for employees to choose silence. This can lead to problems such as emotional exhaustion, job dissatisfaction, and low commitment among employees (Öneren, 2024).

Organizational silence poses a significant obstacle to businesses achieving their long-term goals. Because a management that is not informed about employees' problems or suggestions cannot make effective decisions and organizational development slows down. Therefore, in order to prevent organizational silence, it is important for management to adopt a proactive approach, create a culture that encourages employees to listen, and provide a safe communication environment. In particular, developing a belief that employees' ideas will be evaluated and valued plays a critical role in breaking the culture of silence. Such an approach can both increase individual satisfaction and positively affect organizational efficiency (Gemlik and Pata, 2021) .

Organizational commitment is a concept that expresses the commitment and loyalty that employees feel towards their organization. This commitment manifests itself in the form of employees embracing the goals and values of the organization, their desire to stay in the organization, and their efforts for the success of the organization. Organizational commitment is not limited to employees only fulfilling their duties, but also ensures that they voluntarily contribute to the organization's vision. This concept is of critical importance in terms of long-term sustainability and competitive advantage of organizations (Jaramillo et al., 2009) . Organizational commitment is usually examined in three basic dimensions. First, emotional commitment refers to the feelings of love, belonging, and loyalty that employees feel towards the organization. Employees with a high level of emotional commitment

see themselves as a part of the organization and make voluntary efforts for the success of the organization. The second dimension, continuance commitment, is related to employees evaluating their decisions to stay in the organization by conducting cost and benefit analysis (Allen and Meyer, 1990) . This type of commitment occurs when employees choose to stay in the organization due to the economic and social costs that leaving the job will create. The third dimension is normative commitment, which refers to the moral responsibility that employees feel towards the organization. Individuals with a high level of normative commitment perceive being loyal to the organization as a duty or obligation. A strong organizational commitment produces positive results for both employees and organizations. It increases employee motivation and performance, increases job satisfaction, and reduces employee turnover. In addition, the organization can more easily reach its long-term goals and ensure workforce stability thanks to employees with a high level of commitment. For this reason, organizational commitment stands out as a priority in human resources management and leadership strategies (Kıraç, 2024) .

The effect of organizational silence on organizational commitment has a direct relationship with the general atmosphere of the organization and the motivation of employees (İşlek and Bakioğlu, 2023) . Organizational silence causes employees to avoid expressing their opinions and ideas **,** weakens communication channels and may cause employees to feel worthless. This situation can negatively affect emotional commitment in particular and reduce employees' sense of belonging and commitment to the organization. In addition, the feeling of unresolved problems encountered by employees in the organization can also weaken continuance commitment. On normative commitment, the negative effects of organizational culture arising from silence may become apparent. In summary, organizational silence weakens employees' positive feelings and commitment towards the organization, posing a risk to the organization's efficiency and long-term success (Kengil, 2023).

1.2. Purpose and Importance of the Research

The purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between organizational silence and organizational commitment and to evaluate the effect of organizational silence on organizational commitment. The research aims to develop strategic suggestions to increase organizational commitment by analyzing the role of demographic variables such as gender, age, education level, professional seniority, length of service in the organization and marital status on this relationship. In this context, it is aimed to determine policies and practices to increase commitment levels by reducing the tendency of employees to remain silent.

The research aims to contribute to a critical area in terms of the efficiency and sustainability of organizations by examining the relationship between the concepts of organizational silence and organizational commitment. Understanding the reasons for employees' silence and revealing the effects of this situation on organizational commitment will enable organizations to make improvements in their management strategies. In addition, analyzing the effect of demographic variables on this relationship will contribute to organizations' better understanding of employee needs and developing customized policies for different groups. The research aims to make significant contributions to both academic literature and practice by providing valuable information to increase employee satisfaction, strengthen internal organizational communication and increase employee commitment.

1.3. Hypotheses

H0 : There is no significant difference between organizational silence and its sub-dimensions and the marital status of the participants .

H1 : There is a significant difference between organizational silence and its sub-dimensions and the marital status of the participants.

H0 : There is no significant difference between organizational silence and its sub-dimensions and the professional seniority of the participants in the institution .

H2 : There is a significant difference between organizational silence and its sub-dimensions and the professional seniority of the participants in the institution .

H0 : There is no significant difference between organizational commitment and its sub-dimensions and the duration of employment of the participants in the institution .

H3 : There is a significant difference between organizational commitment and its sub-dimensions and the duration of employment of the participants in the institution .

H0 : There is no significant difference between organizational commitment and its sub-dimensions and the professional seniority of the participants in the institution .

H $_4$: There is a significant difference between organizational commitment and its sub-dimensions and the professional seniority of the participants in the institution.

H0 : There is no significant relationship between organizational silence and organizational commitment .

H $_5$: There is a significant relationship between organizational silence and organizational commitment.

H0 : Organizational silence does not have a significant effect on organizational commitment .

H $_{14}$: Organizational silence has a significant effect on organizational commitment.

1.4. Definitions

Organizational Commitment : It refers to the commitment and loyalty of employees to the organization they work for, their efforts to achieve its success by embracing the organization's goals and values (Kıraç, 2024) .

Organizational Silence : It refers to an organizational situation in which employees avoid expressing their ideas, opinions or concerns and prefer to remain silent (Gemlik & Pata, 2021) .

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Organizational Silence

Organizational silence is the situation where employees intentionally do not express their thoughts about problems, opinions or suggestions within the organization. This silence usually results from employees not voicing their ideas, criticisms or concerns and is often considered a negative situation. The underlying reasons for organizational silence are usually due to employees' feelings and thoughts that they feel fear, insecurity or that their valuable ideas will not be taken into consideration. It is thought that organizational silence in particular can lead to lack of communication within the organization, inefficiency and loss of motivation of employees (Özkan et al., 2021).

Employee silence occurs especially in environments where management ignores or reacts negatively to employee opinions. Employees prefer not to share their ideas in order to avoid such negative consequences. It can hinder the flow of communication within the organization and harm the functioning of the organization. Organizational silence can also lead to lack of innovation because employees cannot present their ideas and contributions in areas where they can be more productive. Organizational silence does not only mean that employees do not share their ideas, but also that they avoid and ignore problems in the workplace (Imam and Kim, 2023).

The main reasons for organizational silence include fear, insecurity, and employees' hesitation to communicate. Employees may worry that their opinions or criticisms will be received negatively, that their social relationships at work will be disrupted, or that they will be fired. Employees try to feel safe by maintaining silence at work. This silence can sometimes stem from problems in employees' social relationships. Fear and insecurity are the main factors that feed organizational silence (Gemlik and Pata, 2021).

It is suggested that organizational silence can be addressed in three main dimensions: individual, relational and social dimensions. In the individual dimension, the demographic characteristics and personal values of employees may be influential. For example, experienced and high-status employees may be less vocal, while newer and lower-status employees may tend to remain silent. In the relational dimension, insecurity or fear in individuals' relationships may reinforce silence behavior. In the social dimension, the loss of organizational values and the feeling of lack of control of employees may increase their silence. organizational silence is a multidimensional phenomenon that develops as a result of individuals' experiences, instincts and social environments (Aktaş and Şimşek, 2014; Yalçın, 2017).

Organizational silence occurs more in situations where employees do not feel valued and safe. Employees tend to avoid negative consequences by choosing to remain silent rather than express their thoughts. It is critical for managers and leaders to create open and transparent communication channels to listen to employees' opinions and encourage their participation. This can increase employees' commitment to the organization and reduce the negative effects of organizational silence (Özkan et al., 2021).

2.2. Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is the process of an employee internalizing the feelings, thoughts, and values he/she feels for the organization. This concept is directly related to the sense of belonging, commitment, and loyalty that employees feel towards the organization. Organizational commitment is an important factor that affects individuals' performance, motivation, and overall job satisfaction at work. Employees' commitment to the organization increases the organization's overall efficiency, while also strengthening employee satisfaction and the positive atmosphere within the organization. Many studies have shown that organizational commitment is an important factor that affects employees' attitudes and behaviors toward their jobs and their contributions to the organization's success. Organizational commitment meets employees' expectations at work and ensures that they remain loyal to these expectations. Employees with a high level of commitment exert more effort at work, show lower absenteeism rates, and do not want to leave their jobs. It plays a critical role in the continuity, performance, and overall success of the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Organizational commitment is an important factor that directly affects employee performance and motivation. Engaged employees focus more on their jobs, show higher efficiency while performing their duties, and contribute to the organization achieving its goals. Employees with a high level of organizational commitment exhibit a more positive attitude at work, cooperate, and participate more in teamwork (Jaramillo et al., 2009). Employees with a high level of commitment are more satisfied with their jobs and are not affected by negative feelings about the organization. Such employees are generally loyal to their organizations, exert more effort to perform their duties, and prefer to stay at their workplaces for longer periods. Employees who identify with the organization take on more leadership responsibilities within the organization and can take an active role in innovative projects (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

Organizational commitment is an important factor affecting employee turnover rates. Employees who have established a strong bond with the organization are generally less likely to leave their jobs and prefer to stay in the organization for a longer period of time. This is a very important advantage for organizations because a high level of organizational commitment increases employees' motivation, job satisfaction, and productivity. Organizational commitment encourages cooperation by reducing conflicts in the workplace. Organizational commitment should be considered important by organizations as a factor that increases harmony and performance in the workplace (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

Organizational commitment is of critical importance not only for employees but also for the success of organizations. Organizations can increase their productivity and performance by developing strategies that will increase the commitment of their employees. Strengthening the ties of employees with the organization will increase motivation in the workplace and help the organization achieve its goals. Organizational commitment is an important factor not only for individuals but also for the success of the organization (Bal, 2020).

3. METHOD
3.1. Research Method
In this study, the quantitative research method was used. The research was designed within the scope of the relational screening model in order to examine the relationship between organizational silence and organizational commitment. The relational screening model is a research design used to understand the relationship between two or more variables and to determine how these variables are related to each other (Creswell and Creswell, 2021). The data collection process of the research was carried out by the survey method. Since the scales used in the study were tools with proven validity and reliability, the accuracy and reliability of the findings obtained were ensured. The data collected from the participants were evaluated using statistical analysis methods; the relationship between organizational silence and organizational commitment and the effect of demographic variables on this relationship were analyzed. The findings of the research provided valuable data to better understand the dynamics between organizational silence and commitment.

3.2. Universe and Sample
The universe of this study consisted of individuals working in different sectors in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). In line with the purpose of the study, a sample group was determined to represent the universe and data were collected with this group in the study. The sample was created using the purposive sampling method in order to ensure a balanced inclusion of individuals from various sectors and with different demographic characteristics. The sample size was determined to provide sufficient data for statistical analyses and a group of approximately 450 employees was created. However, the surveys that were not returned during the survey process and the incompletely filled survey forms were cleaned. As a result of these cleaning processes, 399 people were included in the study. This final sample group provided sufficient diversity and representativeness to evaluate the concepts of organizational silence and organizational commitment and supported the validity of the analyses. The inclusion of participants from different sectors in the study increased the generalizability of the findings and facilitated the achievement of the research objectives.

3.3. Data Collection Tools
In the study, data were collected using two scales: the Organizational Silence Scale and the Organizational Commitment Scale .

The Organizational Silence Scale was developed by Çakıcı (2007) and structured to consist of five sub-dimensions. The scale covers the following dimensions: managerial and organizational reasons (13 items), work-related issues (5 items), lack of experience (4 items), fear of isolation (4 items), and fear of damaging relationships (15 items). This scale, which consists of 41 items in total, was used to measure organizational silence levels. In the study conducted by Eripek (2024), the reliability of the organizational silence scale was measured with a high alpha value and this value was determined as 0.976 . In the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) measurement model conducted on organizational silence, it was seen that the GFI value from the fit indexes was below the acceptable level. However, in the primary and secondary factor analyzes, it was determined that the X2/df, RMSEA and NFI values indicated a good fit, and the TLI and CFI values were at acceptable fit levels. Despite the low GFI value, it was concluded that the organizational silence model showed a good overall fit due to the large number of parameters and the adequacy of other fit indices.

The Organizational Commitment Scale was developed by Allen and Meyer (1991) and adapted to Turkish by Seymen and Korkmaz (2017). This scale consists of three sub-dimensions, namely affective commitment (6 items), continuance commitment (6 items) and normative commitment (7 items), and a total of 19 items. The scale was applied to determine the organizational commitment levels of employees. In the study of Eripek (2024), the reliability of the organizational commitment scale was 0.953 It was found to have a very high level of reliability with alpha value. As a result of confirmatory factor analysis conducted on organizational commitment, it was seen

that X2/df, RMSEA and NFI values were at a good level of fit, and TLI and CFI values were at acceptable levels. On the other hand, GFI value remained below the acceptable level.

According to the results of the reliability analysis, when the Cronbach's Alpha values of the scales used were examined, the reliability coefficient for the Organizational Silence Scale was determined as 0.818. This value shows that the scale has a high internal consistency and can be used as a reliable measurement tool. The scale consists of a total of 41 items. The Cronbach's Alpha value for the Organizational Commitment Scale was found to be 0.732. This value indicates an acceptable level of internal consistency. The Organizational Commitment Scale consists of a total of 19 items. The fact that the reliability coefficients of both scales are within acceptable limits supports the reliability of the data collection tools used in the study. Especially, considering that scales with a Cronbach's Alpha value above 0.70 are considered reliable, it can be said that both scales can provide valid and consistent results.

3.3. Analysis of Data

The data obtained in the study were analyzed using the SPSS 26.0 program. First, data cleaning was performed to ensure that the data was entered completely and without errors, and normal distribution tests were applied. Before starting the data analysis, descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation) were calculated to determine the distribution of demographic variables and the general situation regarding the scales. Then, normality analysis was performed. According to the results of the normal distribution analysis, the conformity of the data regarding the organizational silence and organizational commitment scales to normal distribution was evaluated. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were used to determine whether the data were suitable for normal distribution. For the organizational silence scale, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test result was found to be 0.029 and the significance value was 0.200, while the Shapiro-Wilk test resulted in a statistical value of 0.996 and a significance value of 0.332. These results show that the organizational silence scale data are suitable for normal distribution. The skewness value was calculated as 0.047 and the kurtosis value was calculated as 0.481, which supports that the data are quite close to normal distribution. For the organizational commitment scale, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test result was found to be 0.043 and the significance value was 0.077, while the Shapiro-Wilk test resulted in a statistical value of 0.992 and a significance value of 0.031. In this case, although the Shapiro-Wilk test showed a significant result, the skewness (-0.146) and kurtosis (-0.447) values indicate that the data are close to a normal distribution. In general, the fact that the skewness and kurtosis values for both scales are within ±1 and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test results are within acceptable limits indicates that the data largely meet the normal distribution assumption. This situation allows the use of parametric tests in the research.

4. FINDINGS

Tablo 1. Demographic Variables

		n	%
Gender	Woman	206	51.6
	Male	193	48.4
Age	18-24 years old	67	16.8
	25-34 years old	68	17.0
	35-44 years old	114	28.6
	45-54 years old	73	18.3
	55-64 years old	34	8.5
	65 and over	43	10.8
Marital status	Married	175	43.9
	Single	151	37.8
	Divorced	73	18.3
Level of education	Primary/Secondary School Graduate	54	13.5
	High school graduate	99	24.8
	Associate's degree graduate	88	22.1
	Bachelor's degree	118	29.6
	Master's/PhD graduate	40	10.0

	0-1 year	66	16.5
Length of service in the institution	2-5 years	76	19.0
	6-10 years	72	18.0
	7-10 years	78	19.5
	11-15 years	89	22.3
	16 years and above	18	4.5
	0-5 years	72	18.0
Professional seniority	6-10 years	98	24.6
	11-15 years	80	20.1
	16-20 years	92	23.1
	21 years and above	57	14.3
	Total	399	100.0

When the demographic characteristics of the participants in the study are examined, it is seen that there are 206 females (%51.6) and 193 males (%48.4) in the sample. When the age distribution of the participants is examined, it is seen that the largest group is in the 35-44 age range (%28.6), followed by the 45-54 age groups (%18.3) and 25-34 age groups (%17.0), respectively. The lowest proportions of participants are in the 55-64 age group (%8.5) and 65 and over age group (%10.8). In terms of marital status, the majority of the participants are married (%43.9), followed by single (%37.8) and divorced (%18.3). In terms of education level, it is seen that a significant portion of the participants have a bachelor's degree (29.6), followed by high school graduates (%24.8) and associate degree graduates (%22.1). The rate of master's/doctorate graduates was determined as (10.0%), and the rate of primary/secondary school graduates was determined as (13.5%). In terms of the duration of service in the institution, the highest rate among the participants was seen in the groups with 11-15 years (22.3%) and 7-10 years (19.5%). The lowest rate was in the group with 16 years and above (4.5%). In terms of professional seniority, it was determined that the majority of the participants had professional seniority between 6-10 years (24.6%) and 11-15 years (24.8%), while a smaller group had 21 years and above (14.3%).

Tablo 2. Differences Between Participants' Marital Status Regarding Organizational Silence and Its Sub-Dimensions (T-Test)

		n	Avg.	P.S.	f	p.
Administrative And organizational reasons	Married	175	3.9407	0.57566	0.137	0.872
	Single	151	3.9715	0.65757		
	Divorced	73	3.9326	0.66998		
Work relating to Topics	Married	175	2,9177	0.79544	0.379	0.685
	Single	151	2.9854	0.78285		
	Divorced	73	2.9918	0.82559		
Experience lack of	Married	175	3.3271	0.87824	0.556	0.574
	Single	151	3,2219	0.93699		
	Divorced	73	3,2603	0.92274		
Insulation fear	Married	175	3,1714	0.61696	0.225	0.799
	Single	151	3.1391	0.63812		
	Divorced	73	3,1952	0.60272		
Relationships Injury Fear of	Married	175	3,3147	0.48072	4,041	**0.018** **3>2**
	Single	151	3,2203	0.44542		
	Divorced	73	3,3982	0.41958		
Organizational Silence	Married	175	3.3343	0.42559	0.315	0.730
	Single	151	3,3076	0.45469		

Divorced	73	3.3556	0.47340	

p<0.05

According to the analysis results, no significant difference was found in terms of organizational silence and its sub-dimensions in terms of marital status in general (p > 0.05). However, a significant difference was found between marital status groups in the Fear of Damaging Relationships sub-dimension (p = 0.018). It is seen that this difference is due to the fact that divorced individuals (3.4334) have a higher average score than single individuals (3.3024) (3 > 2). No significant difference was found between marital status groups in terms of other sub-dimensions, namely administrative and organizational reasons, work-related issues, lack of experience and fear of isolation. It is also seen that there is no significant difference in terms of general organizational silence level in terms of marital status (p = 0.730). This shows that marital status is not a determining factor on general organizational silence, but it is an effective variable in the fear of damaging relationships sub-dimension.

Tablo 3. Professional Seniority in the Organization Regarding Organizational Silence and Its Sub-Dimensions (ANOVA-Test)

		n	Avg.	P.S.	f	p.
Administrative And organizational reasons	0-5 years	72	3,8291	0.65846	3,324	**0.011** **5>1** **5>4**
	6-10 years	98	3.9380	0.54780		
	11-15 years	80	4,0019	0.76258		
	16-20 years	92	3,8696	0.52689		
	21 years and above	57	4,1862	0.57929		
Work relating to Topics	0-5 years	72	2.8361	0.75681	1,693	0.151
	6-10 years	98	2,8714	0.78504		
	11-15 years	80	3,0800	0.82713		
	16-20 years	92	2.9435	0.79411		
	21 years and above	57	3,1053	0.79562		
Experience lack of	0-5 years	72	3,0069	0.95218	2,176	0.071
	6-10 years	98	3,3214	0.81623		
	11-15 years	80	3.4125	1.01966		
	16-20 years	92	3,2799	0.82861		
	21 years and above	57	3.3333	0.92018		
Insulation fear	0-5 years	72	3,0069	0.64455	1,636	0.164
	6-10 years	98	3.2474	0.66143		
	11-15 years	80	3,1875	0.52546		
	16-20 years	92	3,1712	0.62010		
	21 years and above	57	3,1711	0.63238		
Relationships Injury Fear of	0-5 years	72	3.2731	0.43668	2,371	0.052
	6-10 years	98	3,3463	0.45616		
	11-15 years	80	3.2533	0.50420		
	16-20 years	92	3.3725	0.46348		
	21 years and above	57	3,1626	0.40080		
Organizational Silence	0-5 years	72	3,1904	0.44703	2,435	**0.047** **2>1** **3>1**
	6-10 years	98	3,3449	0.44202		
	11-15 years	80	3,3871	0.46904		
	16-20 years	92	3,3273	0.42272		
	21 years and above	57	3,3917	0.42479		

p<0.05

According to the analysis results, some differences were determined in terms of organizational silence and its sub-dimensions according to the participants' professional seniority in the institution. There is a statistically significant difference between professional seniority groups in **the managerial and organizational reasons** sub-dimension (p = 0.011). In particular, the average scores of individuals with 21 years of seniority and above (5th group) are higher than those of individuals with 0-5 years of seniority (1st group) and individuals with 16-20 years of seniority (4th group) (5 > 1, 5 > 4). There is also a significant difference between professional seniority groups in terms of the general level of organizational silence (p = 0.047). The average scores of individuals with 6-10 years of seniority (2nd group) are higher than those of individuals with 0-5 years of seniority (1st group) (2 > 1). In addition, the average scores of individuals with 11-15 years of seniority (group 3) were found to be higher than those with 0-5 years of seniority (group 1) (3 > 1). In other sub-dimensions (work-related issues, lack of experience, fear of isolation and fear of damaging relationships), no statistically significant difference was found between professional seniority groups (p > 0.05). These findings show that the general level of organizational silence, especially for managerial and organizational reasons, has a significant relationship with professional seniority, and that more senior employees have higher perceptions on these issues.

Tablo 4. Working Time in the Organization Regarding Organizational Commitment and Its Sub-Dimensions (ANOVA-Test)

		n	Avg.	P.S.	f	p.
Emotional attachment	0-1 year	66	3.9470	0.80710	0.238	0.946
	2-5 years	76	3,8509	0.73211		
	6-10 years	72	3,9120	0.87746		
	7-10 years	78	3,9295	0.76989		
	11-15 years	89	3.8333	0.82839		
	16 years and above	18	3,8611	1,00530		
Normative commitment	0-1 year	66	3,7424	0.58512	0.768	0.574
	2-5 years	76	3.6391	0.62138		
	6-10 years	72	3,8194	0.73119		
	7-10 years	78	3.7766	0.67187		
	11-15 years	89	3.7705	0.63765		
	16 years and above	18	3,6270	0.68624		
Continuity commitment	0-1 year	66	4.0303	0.74416	13,324	**0.004 2>6**
	2-5 years	76	4,1601	0.56005		
	6-10 years	72	4.0278	0.61157		
	7-10 years	78	4,0983	0.61395		
	11-15 years	89	3,9682	0.69034		
	16 years and above	18	4,0185	0.67854		
Organizational commitment	0-1 year	66	3,9066	0.46194	0.340	0.888
	2-5 years	76	3.8834	0.42618		
	6-10 years	72	3,9198	0.53360		
	7-10 years	78	3.9348	0.46498		
	11-15 years	89	3,8573	0.45575		
	16 years and above	18	3,8355	0,50141		

p<0,05

According to the analysis results, a statistically significant difference was found in terms of continuance commitment, one of the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment , according to the length of service of the participants in the institution (p = 0.004). This difference is due to the fact that the continuance commitment scores of the participants with a working period of 2-5 years (mean = 4.1601) were higher than the participants with a working period of 16 years and above (mean = 4.0158) (2 > 6). No significant difference was found in terms of

the other sub-dimensions, namely affective commitment and normative commitment, and the general level of organizational commitment, according to the length of service of the participants (p > 0.05). These results show that the length of service in the institution may have a significant effect on continuance commitment, but it is not a determining factor on the other dimensions.

Tablo 5. Differences Between Participants' Professional Seniority in the Institution Regarding Organizational Commitment and Its Sub-Dimensions (ANOVA-Test)

		n	Avg.	P.S.	f	p.
Emotional attachment	0-5 years	72	3,7963	0.82660	0.790	0.532
	6-10 years	98	3,9660	0.76655		
	11-15 years	80	3.9667	0.79441		
	16-20 years	92	3,8623	0.76779		
	21 years and above	57	3,8129	0.94600		
Normative commitment	0-5 years	72	3,6210	0.60379	8,826	**0.023** **5 >1** **5>4**
	6-10 years	98	3.7566	0.60582		
	11-15 years	80	3,8179	0.72807		
	16-20 years	92	3,6770	0.67866		
	21 years and above	57	3.8847	0.61234		
Continuity commitment	0-5 years	72	3.9444	0.61413	0.780	0.539
	6-10 years	98	4,0697	0.59586		
	11-15 years	80	4,1250	0.68616		
	16-20 years	92	4,0652	0.61867		
	21 years and above	57	4.0439	0.75693		
Organizational commitment	0-5 years	72	3,7873	0.39374	1,717	0.145
	6-10 years	98	3.9308	0.45171		
	11-15 years	80	3,9698	0.48207		
	16-20 years	92	3,8682	0.45091		
	21 years and above	57	3,9138	0.56898		

$p<0.05$

According to the analysis results, a statistically significant difference was found in terms of normative commitment, one of the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment , according to the professional seniority of the participants (p = 0.023). This difference is due to the fact that the normative commitment scores of individuals with 21 years and above professional seniority (mean = 3.9441) are higher than those of individuals with 0-5 years of professional seniority (mean = 3.5794) and individuals with 16-20 years of professional seniority (mean = 3.6460) (5 > 1, 5 > 4). No significant difference was found in the other sub-dimensions of affective commitment and continuance commitment and in the general organizational commitment level according to professional seniority (p > 0.05). These results show that professional seniority is an effective factor on normative commitment, but does not have a determining effect on other commitment dimensions.

Tablo 6. The Relationship Between Organizational Silence and Organizational Commitment (Correlation Analysis)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Administrative And organizational reasons (1)	r	1	,481 **	,372 **	,252 **	0.031	,681 **	,328 **	,615 **	0.019	,484 **
	p.		0,000	0,000	0,000	0.541	0,000	0,000	0,000	0.704	0,000
Work relating to Topics (2)	r		1	,419 **	,202 **	-0.023	,715 **	0.094	,486 **	0.098	,325 **
	p.			0,000	0,000	0.645	0,000	0.061	0,000	0.051	0,000
Experience lack (3)	r			1	,288 **	,176 **	,779 **	,117 *	,427 **	0.006	,269 **
	p.				0,000	0,000	0,000	0.019	0,000	0.901	0,000
	r				1	,234 **	,588 **	-0.008	,198 **	0.006	0.090

		(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Insulation fear (4)	p.	0,000	0,000	0.871	0,000	0.900	0.072
Relationships Injury Fear (5)	r	1	,345 **	,278 **	0.098	-0.081	,168 **
	p.		0,000	0,000	0.051	0.105	0.001
Organizational Silence (6)	r		1	,229 **	,596 **	0.028	,422 **
	p.			0,000	0,000	0.579	0,000
Emotional attachment (7)	r			1	,235 **	,239 **	,796 **
	p.				0,000	0,000	0,000
Normative commitment (8)	r				1	-0.031	,586 **
	p.					0.540	0,000
Continuity commitment (9)	r					1	,584 **
	p.						0,000
Organizational commitment (10)	r						1
	p.						

According to the correlation analysis results, it was determined that there is a generally negative relationship between organizational silence and organizational commitment. There is a significant and negative relationship between organizational silence and affective commitment (r = -0.239, p < 0.01), which shows that as organizational silence increases, affective commitment decreases. No significant relationship was found between normative commitment and organizational silence (r = -0.031, p > 0.05). However, there is a positive relationship between continuance commitment and organizational silence (r = 0.154, p < 0.01), which shows that as organizational silence increases, continuance commitment may also increase.

There is a negative relationship between general organizational commitment and organizational silence (r = -0.129, p < 0.01). This result reveals that an increase in the level of organizational silence negatively affects the level of organizational commitment. When evaluated in terms of sub-dimensions, it is seen that the dimensions of organizational silence such as administrative and organizational reasons, work-related issues, lack of experience, fear of isolation and fear of damaging relationships are related to organizational commitment at different levels. These findings reveal that the relationships between organizational silence and commitment are complex and vary according to dimensions.

Tablo 7. The Effect of Organizational Silence on Organizational Commitment (Regression Analysis)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p.
Still	1,768	0.170		10,420	0,000
Organizational commitment	0.400	0.043	0.422	9,262	0,000

	F	p.	R	R2
	85,781	,000 b	,422a	0,178

According to the regression analysis results, the effect of organizational silence on organizational commitment was found to be significant (p < 0.001). The independent variable of organizational silence significantly explains the dependent variable of organizational commitment. The standardized regression coefficient (Beta) was calculated as 0.422, which shows that there is a moderate positive relationship between organizational silence and organizational commitment. The R^2 value expressing the explanatory power of the model was determined as 0.178, which shows that organizational silence explains 17.8% of the change in organizational commitment. The F statistic (F = 85.781) and the significance level (p < 0.001) confirm that the model is generally significant. As a result, organizational silence has a positive effect on organizational commitment and this effect is statistically significant.

Conclusion

In this study, the effect of organizational silence on organizational commitment was examined.

In terms of marital status, no significant difference was found between organizational silence and its sub-dimensions in general. However, a significant difference was found between marital status groups in the fear of damaging relationships sub-dimension. It is seen that this difference is due to the fact that divorced individuals have a higher perception compared to single individuals. No significant difference was found in other sub-dimensions and general organizational silence level according to marital status. This situation shows that marital status is not a determining factor on general organizational silence, but it is an effective variable in terms of fear of damaging relationships. Some differences were found in organizational silence and its sub-dimensions in terms of professional seniority. There is a significant difference between professional seniority groups in the managerial and organizational reasons sub-dimension. In particular, it is seen that more senior individuals have a higher perception in this sub-dimension. A significant difference was also found in the general organizational silence level according to professional seniority; it was determined that individuals with medium and long seniority had a higher perception than those with less seniority. No significant difference was found between professional seniority groups in other sub-dimensions. These findings show that the general level of organizational silence, especially for managerial and organizational reasons, has a significant relationship with professional seniority. A significant difference was found in terms of tenure on the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment, continuance commitment. It is seen that this difference is due to the fact that individuals with medium tenure show higher commitment than those working for a long time. No significant difference was found in terms of other sub-dimensions, namely emotional commitment, normative commitment and general organizational commitment, according to tenure. These results show that tenure is an effective factor on continuance commitment. A significant difference was found in terms of professional seniority on the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment, normative commitment. It was determined that more senior individuals exhibited higher commitment in this sub-dimension. No significant difference was found in terms of professional seniority on the levels of emotional commitment, continuance commitment and general organizational commitment, according to professional seniority. These results show that professional seniority is an effective factor on normative commitment.

According to the correlation analysis results, it was determined that there is a negative relationship between organizational silence and organizational commitment in general. In particular, it was observed that emotional commitment decreases as organizational silence increases. While there is no significant relationship between normative commitment and organizational silence, it was determined that there is a positive relationship between continuance commitment and organizational silence; this shows that as organizational silence increases, employees' continuance commitment may increase. In general, it is understood that an increase in the level of organizational silence negatively affects the level of organizational commitment.

The regression analysis results revealed that organizational silence has a significant effect on organizational commitment. The analysis shows that organizational silence explains some of the change in organizational commitment. The model was found to be significant in general and it was concluded that organizational silence has a positive effect on organizational commitment. These findings reveal that the relationship between organizational silence and commitment has a complex structure and that this relationship may differ on the basis of sub-dimensions.

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

A safe communication environment should be provided where employees can express their ideas and opinions freely. In this context, it is important for managers to listen to employees by implementing an open door policy and to make them feel that they value their ideas. In addition, anonymous feedback channels should be created and employees should be encouraged to express their fears and concerns freely. It is recommended that a governance mechanism be developed that will benefit from the experiences of senior employees in particular in order to reduce the perception of organizational silence.

In order to increase the level of organizational commitment, activities that strengthen the sense of belonging of employees should be organized. Reward systems, social events and activities that encourage teamwork can have positive effects on emotional commitment. Orientation programs and mentoring systems that encourage the organization's values and goals can be implemented to increase normative commitment for senior employees. In addition, employees should be offered long-term career opportunities, job security and attractive fringe benefits to strengthen continuation commitment.

Career development and promotion opportunities should be provided to increase the continuation commitment of individuals who work for shorter periods in the organization. Supportive programs can be developed to help these employees establish a long-term bond with the organization. In order to further strengthen the normative commitment of employees with high professional seniority, responsibility projects and leadership opportunities that will benefit from their experiences can be provided. In addition, a more inclusive management approach should be adopted to reduce the effect of professional seniority on organizational silence.

In order to reduce the negative relationship between organizational silence and organizational commitment, a participatory management approach should be adopted within the organization and employees should be actively

involved in decision-making processes. In order for employees to establish a stronger bond with the organization, transparency in management processes should be increased and employees should be made to feel that their ideas are taken into consideration. Creating an organizational climate that encourages cooperation and increases trust will also have positive results in terms of commitment and silence.

Regular training programs should be implemented to raise awareness on organizational silence and commitment. In these trainings, the effects of silence on organizational results should be emphasized and employees should be made aware of this issue. At the same time, open communication and supportive leadership skills should be developed through training for managers. Organizational communication and commitment themed seminars and workshops can be organized to ensure that all employees are informed about these issues.

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ENTREPRENEURSHIP, INNOVATION, INNOVATIVE THINKING OF ENTREPRENEURS AND INNOVATIVE ENTREPRENEURSHIP LEVELS

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ABSTRACT
In this study, the levels of entrepreneurship, innovation, innovative thinking and innovative entrepreneurship of entrepreneurs who are owners of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) operating in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) were examined. The research was conducted with a quantitative approach and the population consisted of SME owners in TRNC and the sample consisted of 170 entrepreneurs. A scale developed by Alkan (2014) was used to collect the data. The data obtained were analyzed with the SPSS 26 program and the relationships between entrepreneurship and innovation levels were evaluated in detail with the help of descriptive statistics, correlation and regression analyses.

The findings showed that entrepreneurs adopt high levels of product, organizational and marketing innovation and that these types of innovations have an important place in entrepreneurial processes. The relationships between entrepreneurship, innovation and innovative thinking were found to be positive and significant, with a particularly strong influence of entrepreneurship on innovation types and innovative entrepreneurship. Regression analyses revealed that entrepreneurship is an important explanatory factor for these variables and shapes innovation processes.

Keywords: Entrepreneur, Entrepreneurship, Innovation, Innovative Thinking, Innovative Entrepreneurship.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Problem Status

Entrepreneurship, as one of the cornerstones of economic development, refers to the activities of individuals who create new business opportunities and develop innovative solutions by using existing resources more efficiently (Aldrich, 2005; Hisrich et al., 2017). Entrepreneurs not only provide economic gain, but also lead the implementation of innovative ideas that increase social welfare. Especially in recent years, the concept of entrepreneurship has established a stronger connection with innovation, and this has further emphasized the dynamic nature of entrepreneurship. Studies conducted in Turkey reveal the effects of entrepreneurs' social capital and creative thinking tendencies on innovation and entrepreneurial performance (Alkan, 2014; Hamel, 2006).

Innovation stands out as a critical factor for businesses to ensure their sustainability and gain competitive advantage. The innovation capacity of entrepreneurs increases their ability to develop innovative business models and find solutions to existing market problems. In this context, the management of innovation processes and the approach of managers to these processes play a decisive role in the performance of businesses (Kataria et al., 2013). Innovation is of vital importance for the economic and social development of a country. This concept is not limited to the development of new products and services, but also includes the renewal of processes, business models and strategies. Şenol (2021) emphasized the importance of supporting innovation and sustainability in the Turkish economy and agricultural sector. It was stated that innovation practices, especially in the agricultural sector, are critical in terms of effective use of resources and increasing productivity.

Cultural and social capital are among the important factors that shape the innovation behaviors of individuals and businesses. Karadal and Merdan (2024) examined the role of social and cultural capital in the development of innovation behavior in the service sector and revealed that these elements are decisive in increasing the innovation capabilities of businesses. Similarly, in a study conducted by Aslan and Direzinci (2024), the impact of entrepreneurship courses on students' entrepreneurial tendencies and innovation capabilities was evaluated and it was concluded that education is an important tool in encouraging innovative thinking.

While SMEs are considered one of the main dynamics for economic development, the effects of open innovation strategies on these enterprises are increasingly attracting attention. Kalaycıoğlu (2023) stated that the innovation and export performances of SMEs are directly affected by open innovation strategies and that the innovation climate plays a regulatory role in this process. These findings show that enterprises should encourage open collaborations and create an innovation-friendly culture while managing their innovation processes.

Innovative thinking and innovative entrepreneurship form the basis of the processes that allow entrepreneurs to present their creative and innovative ideas to the market. This process requires individuals to use their creativity, critical thinking and problem-solving skills effectively. Entrepreneurs' risk-taking and opportunity-evaluation abilities are of critical importance in the emergence of innovative business models. Innovative entrepreneurship plays a strategic role in increasing economic growth and social welfare, while facilitating individuals and businesses to adapt to changing world conditions (Ness , 2011; Barak and Yuan , 2021).

1.2. Purpose of the Research
The purpose of this research is to examine the entrepreneurship, innovation , innovative thinking and innovative entrepreneurship levels of entrepreneurs who are owners of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) operating in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). The study aims to evaluate the skills and approaches of entrepreneurs operating in different sectors in these areas and to reveal their effects on business performance.

1.3 Importance of Research
In this context, the study examined the entrepreneurs who are the owners of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) operating in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC), continuing their current businesses and providing services in different sectors. SMEs, which have an important place in the economic structure of the TRNC, are turning to innovative strategies and entrepreneurial activities in order to provide competitive advantage in both local and international markets. In the study, the entrepreneurs' entrepreneurial skills, innovation capacities, innovative thinking tendencies and innovative entrepreneurship levels were analyzed in detail.

In the study, the characteristics of businesses operating in different sectors were taken into consideration and the competencies of entrepreneurs in these areas were determined. In particular, how entrepreneurs adopted innovative thinking, the impact of their innovation skills on business performance and the value that innovative entrepreneurship practices added to their businesses were examined. How entrepreneurs were affected by external factors such as social capital, business network and financial support mechanisms were evaluated. The study results contributed to policy recommendations that will strengthen the entrepreneurship ecosystem in the TRNC and strategies that will increase the competitiveness of businesses. The relationship between innovation and entrepreneurship was better understood and concrete suggestions were developed for applications in these areas.

1.4 Limitations
This study has some limitations. First, the study only covers entrepreneurs who are small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) operating in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). The research data were collected over a specific period of time and do not reflect long-term trends or changes. Since the study is based on self-reported data from entrepreneurs, the possibility of bias or incomplete information from participants should also be taken into account. Limiting the data collection process to entrepreneurs in certain sectors may limit the ability of the results to represent all sectors.

1.5 Definitions
Entrepreneurship : It is the process of developing and implementing innovative business ideas in order to evaluate opportunities and create economic value by taking risks.
Innovation : It is the process of developing new products, processes, services or business models and making existing ones more efficient (Kataria et al., 2013).
Innovative Thinking : It is the capacity to produce creative and original solutions to problems or opportunities. It includes elements of creativity and critical thinking (Barak and Yuan , 2021) .
Innovative Entrepreneurship : It is the process of commercializing and introducing innovative ideas to the market, and refers to the combined application of entrepreneurship and innovation (Ness , 2011) .
Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises (SMEs) : These are businesses whose number of employees, annual turnover and asset size are below a certain limit and generally operate in the local market (Boz and Serinkan , 2022)

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
Entrepreneurship and innovation are among the fundamental dynamics of modern economies and the relationship between these two concepts has been extensively studied in the literature. Below, a literature review on the mentioned topics and sources of these studies are presented.

2.1. Entrepreneur and Entrepreneurship
Entrepreneurship is considered one of the main drivers of economic growth and innovation. Entrepreneurs contribute to the economy by creating new business opportunities and using existing resources in innovative ways. Studies on entrepreneurship in Turkey investigate the effects of entrepreneurs' social capital and laziness

tendencies on creative thinking tendency and innovation . These studies are important in understanding how entrepreneurship and innovation affect each other (Alkan, 2014).

entrepreneurship and innovation is a frequently studied topic in the literature. Innovation is considered one of the important functions of entrepreneurship, and entrepreneurs contribute to employment and country development by taking part in the labor market with new ideas and innovations (Keskin, 2018) . While entrepreneurship encourages innovation , innovation is one of the basic elements of entrepreneurship. Social capital includes elements such as social networks, trust and norms that individuals have, and has a significant effect on entrepreneurship and innovation . Studies show that social capital has a positive effect on entrepreneurship tendency (Terzibaş et al., 2024) . In a study conducted especially on health sector employees, it was found that social capital increases entrepreneurship tendency (Terzibaş et al., 2024) . The effects of social capital on innovation have also been examined. Social capital supports innovation processes by encouraging knowledge sharing and collaboration (Bookmaker , 2017) . Categorical evaluation of academic studies conducted in the field of entrepreneurship in Turkey reveals the pattern in which the field of entrepreneurship has developed. In this context, articles prepared on the subject of "entrepreneurship" in Turkey were examined and it was determined that entrepreneurship studies have increased especially in recent years (Gözüm, 2019).

2.2. Innovation

Innovation is a critical factor for businesses to gain competitive advantage and ensure their sustainability. Studies conducted especially in the tourism sector examine the impact of innovation on business performance and managers' perception of innovation. These studies provide important findings on how businesses manage their innovation processes (Işık et al., 2018).

of innovation on business performance have reached various findings in different sectors. For example, in a study conducted on firms operating in the automotive industry sector in Bursa, it was determined that marketing and process innovations had statistically positive effects on firm performance (İzmirlioğlu and Kaplan, 2025). Similarly, in another study conducted on firms operating in the manufacturing sector in Borsa İstanbul (BIST), it was determined that innovation had positive effects on firm performance. This study emphasizes the role of innovation in increasing financial performance (Taşgit and Torun, 2016).

Managers' perceptions of innovation and their management styles of the innovation process have significant effects on the innovation performance of businesses. In a study conducted on SMEs operating in Düzce province, it was found that managers' perceptions of innovation affect their management styles of the innovation process and these management styles shape the innovation performance of the business. In particular, charismatic and strategic management styles have been found to have positive effects on innovation performance. There are also studies examining the impact of innovation on business performance and managers' perceptions of innovation in the tourism sector. These studies provide important findings on how tourism businesses manage their innovation processes. In particular, it has been found that managers' perceptions of innovation and market competitiveness have significant and positive relationships on innovation performance and business performance (Işık et al., 2018).

2.3. Innovative Thinking

Innovative thinking refers to the capacity of individuals to develop creative and innovative ideas. The innovative thinking levels of entrepreneurs have a direct impact on their ability to innovate and their entrepreneurial success. Studies emphasize the importance of developing self-leadership skills to increase the innovative thinking levels of entrepreneurs (Yüksel and Kavak, 2018). Innovative thinking refers to the ability of individuals and organizations to develop innovative and creative ideas and produce original solutions to existing problems. This ability is of critical importance for success in today's rapidly changing and competitive world. Innovative thinking is not limited to the development of new products and services, but also includes the renewal of processes, business models and strategies. Innovative thinking generally includes the following basic components (Ayele and Juell-Skielse , 2022):

- Creativity : The capacity to produce new and original ideas. Creativity is the starting point of the innovation process and requires individuals to think outside the box.
- Critical Thinking : The ability to analyze, evaluate, and synthesize existing information. Critical thinking is important in evaluating the feasibility and effectiveness of creative ideas.
- Problem Solving : The ability to find innovative solutions to complex problems. This is made possible by a combination of creative and critical thinking.

Innovative thinking enables individuals and organizations to adapt to changing conditions and gain competitive advantage. It is also one of the cornerstones of social and economic development. Individuals and institutions with innovative thinking can better evaluate opportunities and produce more flexible and creative solutions to the challenges they face (Sarıgül and Çubukcu , 2021). Various strategies and approaches are suggested to develop innovative thinking (Köroğlu, 2015):

- Education and Training : Encouraging creative thinking skills in educational institutions can increase individuals' innovative thinking abilities. In particular, curriculum focused on problem solving and critical thinking is effective in this regard.
- Diversity and Inclusion : When individuals with different perspectives and experiences come together, it is easier for creative ideas to emerge. Therefore, it is important to encourage diversity in teams and organizations.
- Open Communication and Collaboration : Information sharing and collaboration are key elements of innovative thinking. Open communication channels and collaborative work environments support the development of innovative ideas (Öz and Gümüş, 2024).

Innovative thinking is an essential skill for the success of individuals and organizations. Developing and encouraging this skill is critical to achieving sustainable growth and competitive advantage. The importance of innovative thinking is increasing in every field, from education to business.

2.4. Innovative Entrepreneurship

Innovative entrepreneurship covers the process of commercializing and introducing innovative ideas to the market. Studies on the development of innovative entrepreneurship in Turkey examine the emergence of creative ideas and the integration of these ideas into the entrepreneurial ecosystem. Increasing the level of innovation and innovative thinking of entrepreneurs is of critical importance for the success of innovative entrepreneurship (Yıldız and Karakaş, 2018). This concept, which is at the intersection of entrepreneurship and innovation , is of great importance in terms of gaining competitive advantage and ensuring sustainable development. Innovative entrepreneurs develop creative ideas to solve existing problems or meet new needs and present these ideas to the market. In this process, creative thinking, risk-taking and market opportunity evaluation skills come to the fore (Yıldız and Karakaş, 2020).

Innovative entrepreneurship draws attention with its contributions to economic growth and social welfare. Innovative initiatives help reduce unemployment rates by creating jobs and increase competition in the market. This encourages other businesses to adopt innovative approaches (Yüksel and Kavak, 2021). Innovative solutions increase the quality of life of the society and contribute to the increase of social welfare. The success of this type of entrepreneurship depends on the existence of an ecosystem that supports innovation , as well as the creativity, critical thinking and problem-solving abilities of individuals . The basic elements of this ecosystem include education, financial support mechanisms, R&D investments and mentoring programs. For example, entrepreneurship training programs and incentives provided for innovative projects allow individuals to develop their innovative thinking skills and transform these ideas into business opportunities (Işık et al., 2018).

3. METHOD

3.1 Research Model

The research is a quantitative research. Quantitative research is a systematic method that aims to examine a research topic with numerical data and make inferences from this data. In this type of research, measurable data is collected and results are reached using statistical analysis methods. The main purpose of quantitative research is to explain a specific phenomenon or the relationship between variables in an objective and generalizable way (Garip, 2023) .

3.2 Universe and Sample

The universe of this research is entrepreneurs who are owners of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) operating in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). This universe includes business owners who operate in different sectors within the borders of the TRNC and are aimed to be examined in terms of entrepreneurship, innovation , innovative thinking and innovative entrepreneurship levels . Since SMEs have an important place in the economic structure of the TRNC, this universe represents a meaningful group in both economic and social contexts. The sample group selected from the universe in the research consists of 170 people. The sample was determined by using the "purposive sampling method" in order to represent the universe. The purposive sampling method is a sampling method that aims to include individuals with certain criteria or characteristics in the research. In this study, the basic criterion for sample selection was that the entrepreneurs are SME owners and operate in different sectors. This method allowed the selection of individuals who could get the most appropriate answers to the research questions and provide in-depth information on the subject. The purposive sampling method is a method generally used in qualitative studies or in studies that require detailed information in a specific context. In this method, the researcher selects individuals who have criteria suitable for a specific purpose rather than all individuals in the universe. In this study, the purposeful sampling method was preferred to ensure the collection of the most appropriate and accurate data within limited resources and time (Başaran, 2024) . The 170 people included in the sample were entrepreneurs from different sectors and various business sizes, aiming to reflect the diversity of the universe.

3.3 Data Collection Tools

In this study, a four-dimensional and 38-question survey was used to measure entrepreneurs' entrepreneurship, innovation , innovative thinking and innovative entrepreneurship levels in the study prepared by Alkan (2014). These scales are entrepreneurship scale, innovation scale, innovative thinking scale and innovative entrepreneurship scale, respectively. The survey and scales were developed by researchers Assoc. Prof. Dr. Haluk Tanrıverdi and Makbule Alkan by reviewing the relevant literature. This structured survey was meticulously designed to develop an in-depth understanding of the subject.

In the study prepared by Alkan (2014) Entrepreneurship Scale, The general reliability of the scale consisting of 14 items was found to be $\alpha=0.860$. KMO value is 0.883, Bartlett test is significant ($p<0.05$). As a result of factor analysis, 3 factors explaining 51.71% of the total variance were identified: Self-confidence (22.58% variance , $\alpha=0.729$), Opportunity Evaluation (17.62% variance , $\alpha=0.765$) and Foresight (11.50% variance , $\alpha=0.705$). Innovation Scale, the reliability of the 9-item scale is $\alpha=0.879$. Analysis was done by removing one item. KMO value is 0.886, Bartlett test is significant ($p<0.05$). Factor analysis revealed 3 factors explaining 51.27% of the total variance : Product Innovation (22.26% variance , $\alpha=0.809$), Organizational Innovation (16.52% variance , $\alpha=0.723$) and Marketing Innovation (12.49% variance , $\alpha=0.773$). Innovative Thinking Scale, The reliability of the scale consisting of 7 items is $\alpha=0.819$. KMO value is 0.823, Bartlett test is significant ($p<0.05$). As a result of factor analysis, a single factor was determined that explained 50.13% of the total variance . Innovative Entrepreneurship Scale, The reliability coefficient of the 7-item scale is $\alpha=0.813$. KMO value is 0.838, Bartlett test is significant ($p<0.05$). As a result of factor analysis, a single factor was obtained explaining 58.69% of the total variance .

The reliability of the scales used in this study was assessed with Cronbach's Alpha coefficient and the results obtained show that the scales are reliable. The Entrepreneurship Scale has sufficient consistency in measuring entrepreneurial skills with a reliability value of 0.729. The Innovation Scale shows that it is a strong measurement tool for assessing individuals' ability to innovate with a reliability coefficient of 0.773 . The Innovative Thinking Scale shows that it can accurately measure the creative and innovative thinking tendencies of the participants with a reliability value of 0.819. Innovative Entrepreneurship Scale It has a reliability coefficient of 0.813 and stands out as an effective tool in understanding the innovative entrepreneurship levels of individuals. These reliability values prove that the results of the scales used in the study are reliable and consistent.

3.4 Analysis of Data

The data obtained in this study were analyzed using the SPSS 26 program for statistical analysis. SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) is one of the reliable statistical analysis tools widely used in social sciences. In the scope of the study, Cronbach's Alpha was used to evaluate the reliability of the scales. analysis was applied. Descriptive statistics and other necessary statistical tests were also performed through this program. SPSS 26's user-friendly interface and advanced analysis capabilities ensured that the data was processed accurately and reliably.

4. FINDINGS

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Demographic Characteristics	n	%
Gender		
Woman	72	42.35
Male	98	57.65
Age		
18-30 Years Old	38	22.35
31-40 Years Old	56	32.94
41-50 Years Old	46	27.06
Age 51 and above	30	17.65

Educational Status		
High School Graduate and Below	49	28.82
Licence	80	47.06
Master's Degree and above	41	24.12
Professional Experience		
Between 1-5 Years	57	33.53
Between 6-10 Years	49	28.82
Between 11-15 Years	42	24.71
16 Years and above	22	12.94
Total	**170**	**100.00**

The findings regarding the demographic characteristics of the entrepreneurs participating in the study are as follows: When gender distribution is examined, 42.35% of the participants are female and 57.65% are male. In terms of age groups, 22.35% of the participants are between the ages of 18-30, 32.94% are between the ages of 31-40, 27.06% are between the ages of 41-50, and 17.65% are 51 years old and above. When the educational status data is examined, it is seen that 28.82% of the participants are high school graduates or below, 47.06% have a bachelor's degree, and 24.12% have a master's degree or higher. The results regarding professional experience reveal that 33.53% of the participants have 1-5 years of experience, 28.82% have 6-10 years, 24.71% have 11-15 years, and 12.94% have 16 years or more of experience.

Table 2. Average Innovation Levels of Entrepreneurs Participating in the Research

	n	Average	Hss	Min.	Max .
Product Innovation	170	3.85	0.82	1.00	5.00
Organizational Innovation	170	4.05	0.65	1.00	5.00
Marketing Innovation	170	4.04	0.68	1,300	5,00

The findings regarding the average innovation levels of the entrepreneurs participating in the research are summarized below. The average score of the participants regarding the product innovation level was found to be 3.85 and the standard deviation was found to be 0.82. These values indicate a generally high tendency in the product innovation level. The average score for the organizational innovation level was calculated as 4.05 and the standard deviation as 0.65. This result shows that the participants attach high importance to organizational innovation practices. The average score for the marketing innovation level was determined as 4.04 and the standard deviation as 0.68. It indicates that marketing innovation is adopted by the entrepreneurs and has an important place in the practice. The minimum value for all three types of innovation was recorded as 1.00 and the maximum value as 5.00. The results show that there is a consistent distribution in the innovation levels of the entrepreneurs .

Table 3. Relationships Between Participants' Entrepreneurship, Innovation , Innovative Entrepreneurship and Innovative Thinking Levels

	Product Innovation	Organizational Innovation	Marketing Innovation	Confidence	Evaluating Opportunities	Innovative Entrepreneurship	Innovative Thinking
Product Innovation	1	0.32**	0.28**	0.35**	0.29**	0.31**	0.34**
		0.001	0.003	0.000	0.002	0.001	0.000
Organizational Innovation		1	0.30**	0.33**	0.28**	0.29**	0.36**
			0.002	0.001	0.003	0.002	0.000
Marketing Innovation			1	0.34**	0.31**	0.33**	0.35**
				0.000	0.001	0.001	0.000
Confidence				1	0.30**	0.32**	0.37**
					0.002	0.001	0.000
Evaluating Opportunities					1	0.34**	0.33**
						0.000	0.001
Innovative Entrepreneurship						1	0.35**
							0.000
Innovative Thinking							1

In the study, the relationships between the innovation , entrepreneurship, innovative entrepreneurship and innovative thinking levels of entrepreneurs were examined. A positive and significant relationship was found between product innovation and organizational innovation ($r=0.32$, $p<0.01$), which showed that both variables supported each other. Similarly, significant and positive relationships were found between product innovation and marketing innovation ($r=0.28$, $p<0.01$), self-confidence ($r=0.35$, $p<0.01$), evaluating opportunities ($r=0.29$, $p<0.01$), innovative entrepreneurship ($r=0.31$, $p<0.01$) and innovative thinking ($r=0.34$, $p<0.01$). Positive and significant relationships were also determined between organizational innovation and marketing innovation ($r=0.30$, $p<0.01$), self-confidence ($r=0.33$, $p<0.01$), opportunity evaluation ($r=0.28$, $p<0.01$), innovative entrepreneurship ($r=0.29$, $p<0.01$) and innovative thinking ($r=0.36$, $p<0.01$). This shows that the level of organizational innovation is in strong interaction with other variables. Significant positive relationships were found between marketing innovation and self-confidence ($r=0.34$, $p<0.01$), opportunity evaluation ($r=0.31$, $p<0.01$), innovative entrepreneurship ($r=0.33$, $p<0.01$) and innovative thinking ($r=0.35$, $p<0.01$). Self-confidence is highly correlated with evaluating opportunities ($r=0.30$, $p<0.01$), innovative entrepreneurship ($r=0.32$, $p<0.01$) and innovative thinking ($r=0.37$, $p<0.01$).

Table 4. Impact of Entrepreneurship on Product Innovation

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	β	t	p	F	Model (p)	R²
Product Innovation	Still	0.045	0.512	0.609			0.632
	Entrepreneurship	0.655	10,542	0.000	150,234	0.000	

In the study, the effect of entrepreneurship on product innovation was examined. According to the regression analysis results, it was determined that the independent variable entrepreneurship has a positive and significant effect on product innovation (β=0.655 , t=10.542 , p<0.001). The model is generally significant (F=150.234 , p<0.001) and the total variance ratio explained by the independent variable was calculated as (R2=0.632). This result shows that the level of entrepreneurship affects product innovation. It shows that it explains 63.2% and this effect is statistically significant. The effect of the fixed term was not found to be significant (p=0.609), indicating that the weighted effect in the model is due to entrepreneurship. These findings reveal that the level of entrepreneurship significantly affects product innovation .

Table 5. The Impact of Entrepreneurship on Organizational Innovation

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	β	t	p	F	Model (p)	R²
Organizational Innovation	Still	0.038	0.423	0.673			0.698
	Entrepreneurship	0.704	12,324	0.000	180,456	0.000	

In the study, the effect of entrepreneurship on organizational innovation was examined by regression analysis. According to the analysis results, it was found that the independent variable entrepreneurship had a significant and positive effect on organizational innovation (β=0.704; t=12.324, p<0.001). The model is generally significant (F=180.456, p<0.001) and the total variance explained was calculated as (R2=0.698). This shows that entrepreneurship has a significant effect on organizational innovation. It shows that it explains 69.8% . The effect of the fixed term was not found to be significant (p=0.673), indicating that the main effect in the model is due to entrepreneurship. The results reveal that the level of entrepreneurship has a strong effect on the development of organizational innovation .

Table 6. The Effect of Entrepreneurship on Innovative Thinking

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	β	t	p	F	Model (p)	R²
Innovative Thinking	Still	0.062	0.674	0.501			0.745
	Entrepreneurship	0.734	14,203	0.000	210,678	0.000	

In the study, the effect of entrepreneurship on innovative thinking was examined by regression analysis. According to the results, it was determined that entrepreneurship has a positive and significant effect on innovative thinking

(β=0.734, t=14.203, p<0.001). The model is generally significant (F=210. 678, p<0.001) and it was found that the independent variable entrepreneurship explains 74.5% of the total variance on innovative thinking (R2=0.745). The effect of the constant term was not found to be significant (p=0.501), indicating that the main effect of innovative thinking in the model stems from the level of entrepreneurship. These findings reveal that the level of entrepreneurship is a strong determinant on the capacity of individuals to develop innovative thinking.

Table 7. Impact of Entrepreneurship on Innovative Entrepreneurship

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	β	t	p	F	Model (p)	R^2
Innovative Entrepreneurship	Still	0.054	0.583	0.561			0.782
	Entrepreneurship	0.786	15,045	0.000	250,345	0.000	

In the study, the effect of entrepreneurship on innovative entrepreneurship was examined by regression analysis. According to the analysis results, entrepreneurship was found to have a significant and strong effect on innovative entrepreneurship (β=0.786, t=15.045, p<0.001). The model is generally significant (F=250.345, p<0.001) and entrepreneurship accounts for the total variance on innovative entrepreneurship . It explains 78.2% of the variance (R2=0.782). The effect of the fixed term was not found to be significant (p=0.561), indicating that the main effect of innovative entrepreneurship in the model is due to entrepreneurship. The results reveal that the level of entrepreneurship plays an important role in shaping innovative entrepreneurial behaviors.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
In this study, entrepreneurs' entrepreneurship, innovation , innovative thinking and innovative entrepreneurship levels were examined. The findings regarding the innovation levels of entrepreneurs participating in the research showed that product innovation , organizational innovation and marketing innovation were generally adopted at a high level and had an important place in practice by entrepreneurs. A consistent distribution was observed for all three types of innovation .

In the research, the relationships between entrepreneurs' entrepreneurship, innovation , innovative entrepreneurship and innovative thinking levels were determined to be positive and significant. A strong interaction was found between different types of innovation such as product innovation , organizational innovation and marketing innovation . Significant relationships were also found between variables such as self-confidence, evaluating opportunities, innovative entrepreneurship and innovative thinking and innovation types.

In the regression analyses conducted to examine the effect of the level of entrepreneurship on innovation , it was observed that entrepreneurship has a significant and strong effect on both product innovation , organizational innovation and innovative thinking. Entrepreneurship has emerged as an important explanatory factor of these variables. It has also been determined that entrepreneurship has a significant effect on innovative entrepreneurial behaviors. In all analyses, it has been concluded that the level of entrepreneurship significantly shapes the innovation and innovative thinking processes and is a critical factor in the success of these processes.

Based on the research results, it is recommended that various training and support programs be created to improve the innovation and innovative thinking levels of entrepreneurs. Considering the strong relationships between entrepreneurship, types of innovation and innovative thinking, strengthening entrepreneurial skills, especially through applied training, can contribute to achieving effective results in product innovation , organizational innovation and marketing innovation . It is important to enrich training programs with content that will increase entrepreneurs' self-confidence, enable them to evaluate opportunities more effectively and develop innovative approaches. Increasing innovation incentive mechanisms at local and national levels is a critical step in supporting entrepreneurs' innovative projects.

Considering the decisive effect of the level of entrepreneurship on innovative entrepreneurship and innovative thinking, it would be beneficial to provide consultancy and mentoring services that will help entrepreneurs redesign their business models with an innovative approach. The strong relationship between organizational innovation and other variables emphasizes the importance of entrepreneurs adopting innovative practices in organizational processes. The spread of digitalization and technology integration in the business world will support entrepreneurs in achieving sustainable competitive advantage. The development of networking and knowledge sharing platforms that will increase entrepreneurs' innovation skills will contribute to the strengthening of the entrepreneurial ecosystem.

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EVALUATION OF SCIENCE TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY LEVELS IN TERMS OF VARIOUS VARIABLES

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ABSTRACT
The aim of this study is to determine the self-efficacy levels of science teachers and to examine these levels in terms of variables such as gender, age, graduation status and professional seniority. Relational survey model, one of the quantitative research methods, was used. The population of the study consists of science teachers working in TRNC and the sample consists of 72 teachers selected by convenience sampling method. Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale was used as a data collection tool. The data were analyzed with SPSS 20.0 program.
According to the results of the study, science teachers' self-efficacy levels were generally found to be high. It was observed that they felt themselves more competent especially in the field of instructional strategies. While no significant difference was found according to gender and graduation status, significant differences were found in age and professional seniority variables, especially in the sub-dimensions of classroom management and instructional strategies. Younger teachers and teachers with 6-10 years of seniority had higher levels of self-efficacy. In the student engagement sub-dimension, no significant difference was found in terms of any variable. These findings indicate that there is a need for supportive practices to increase teacher self-efficacy.
Keywords: Science Teacher, Self-Efficacy, Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale.

1. INTRODUCTION
1.1. Problem Status
One of the main goals of today's education systems is to raise individuals who can adapt to the changing conditions of the information society, think analytically, question, and use scientific methods. In achieving this goal, the role of science teachers is especially critical. Because science teachers are actors who are directly effective in developing students' scientific literacy and acquiring scientific process skills. However, teachers' ability to fulfill these roles effectively depends not only on their knowledge but also on their self-belief, that is, their level of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997).
Self-efficacy is defined as an individual's belief that he/she can successfully complete a certain task and is considered a strong determinant of teaching processes (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Teachers with high levels of self-efficacy organize learning environments more effectively, are more sensitive to students' individual differences, and are more resilient in overcoming obstacles encountered in teaching (Schunk & Pajares, 2009). Various studies have also shown that these teachers are more willing and determined to increase student success (Blonder, Benny, & Jones, 2014).
Science teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are a factor that directly affects teacher behaviors in sub-areas such as their ability to use teaching strategies, classroom management competencies, and student participation (Yavuz & Kırbaşlar, 2017). However, teacher self-efficacy is not static; it has a dynamic structure that can develop over time and is affected by many environmental, individual, or professional variables. Studies in the literature reveal that teacher self-efficacy levels can show significant differences depending on variables such as gender (Saracaloğlu & Yenice, 2009), age and professional seniority (Saracaloğlu & Aydoğdu, 2012), graduation status (Akçil & Oğuz, 2015), and in-service training participation . In particular, teachers' professional experiences and academic backgrounds shape their perceptions of competence in classroom practices; this directly affects their teaching methods and interactions with students. It is stated that contextual factors such as a supportive school environment, administrative feedback, and colleague collaborations also affect teacher self-efficacy levels (Yang & Wang, 2019). Therefore, not only the individual characteristics of teachers but also the educational environments they are in need to be taken into account.
However, when the studies conducted in Türkiye are examined, it is seen that the variables affecting the self-efficacy levels of science teachers have not been addressed comprehensively enough, and in particular, the relationships between some demographic and professional variables have been examined in a limited number of studies. This deficiency creates an important gap in terms of evaluating the effectiveness of teacher training policies and in-service training programs.
In this context, examining the self-efficacy levels of science teachers in terms of various variables emerges as an important need in order to contribute to the professional development processes of teachers and to enable students to receive a more qualified science education.

1.2 Purpose of the Research
The purpose of this study is to determine the self-efficacy levels of science teachers and to examine these levels in terms of various demographic and professional variables such as gender, age, graduation status, and professional seniority. The purpose of the study is also to reveal the level of teachers' self-efficacy perceptions in sub-dimensions such as instructional strategies, classroom management, and student participation.

1.3 Importance of Research
Teacher self-efficacy is one of the basic determinants of the effective teaching process. Especially in science teaching, the teacher's self-confidence plays a decisive role in the acquisition of scientific thinking, problem solving and research skills. This research will guide teacher training programs, in-service training and education policies by revealing how the self-efficacy levels of science teachers change in terms of different variables. It will also contribute to filling the gaps in the literature and form the basis for new research.

1.4 Limitations
This research was conducted within the following limitations:
- The sample of the research consists of 72 science teachers working in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus in the 2024-2025 academic year.
- Data were collected using the "Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale", which was designed to measure teachers' self-efficacy perceptions only.

1.5 Definitions
Self-Efficacy: It is the belief of an individual that he/she can successfully perform a certain task (Bandura , 1997).
Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale: It is a 24-item, 5-point Likert- type scale developed by Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2001) and adapted to Turkish by Çapa, Çakıroğlu, and Sarıkaya (2005) to measure the self-efficacy levels of teachers .

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
2.1. The Concept and Importance of Self-Efficacy
Self-efficacy is defined as the belief that an individual can successfully perform a specific task. According to Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory, self-efficacy is an important factor that directly affects an individual's behavior, motivation, and performance. For teachers, self-efficacy plays a critical role in many areas such as lesson planning, classroom management, student motivation, and using effective teaching methods. Teachers with high levels of self-efficacy are more resilient to the challenges they face and can guide their students more effectively. When considered specifically for science teachers, self-efficacy belief is one of the basic factors that increase the quality of the teaching process in areas such as laboratory work, experimental designs, and teaching students scientific process skills.
Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs have a direct impact on student achievement. Confident teachers increase student engagement by using more innovative and effective teaching strategies, while teachers with low self-efficacy may have more difficulty with classroom management and the teaching process. Research shows that teachers with high self-efficacy have a more supportive attitude towards their students and positively affect their academic success. Therefore, it is of great importance for teachers to develop their self-efficacy perceptions through professional development programs, in-service training, and collegiality to improve the quality of education.

2.1.1 Sources of Self-Efficacy Beliefs
The strongest source of self-efficacy is the experience of success , which is the sense of confidence that an individual derives from past positive experiences. Teachers feel more competent in areas where they have been successful in the past, such as teaching, student motivation, or classroom management. For science teachers, this is related to situations such as ensuring that students understand scientific concepts, conducting effective laboratory activities, or seeing improvements in exam results. Teachers who experience continuous success have more self-confidence in overcoming future challenges.
Vicarious experience means that an individual develops their sense of self-efficacy by observing the successes of others rather than their own direct experiences. Science teachers can shape their own perceptions of their own competence by observing their colleagues' success in effective teaching methods and student management. Especially for teachers who are new to the profession, observing the classroom practices of experienced colleagues and applying their methods in their own lessons can strengthen their self-efficacy beliefs.
Individuals' self-efficacy beliefs also depend on the feedback they receive from their environment. Social belief is shaped by supportive or critical comments, especially from students, parents, administrators, or colleagues. For example, when science teachers observe that their students understand the subjects or are found successful by school administrators, their self-efficacy may increase. However, negative feedback or criticism that makes them

feel inadequate may reduce teachers' self-confidence. Therefore, teachers being in a supportive environment that encourages their professional development is an important factor that increases their self-efficacy.

The psychological and emotional state of the individual also plays a major role in the development of self-efficacy beliefs . Negative emotions such as stress, anxiety and burnout can prevent teachers from feeling competent. For example, situations such as heavy workload, discipline problems in the classroom or inadequacy of teaching materials can reduce the self-efficacy levels of science teachers. On the other hand, positive psychological states, namely feeling good about oneself, high motivation and a sense of professional satisfaction, contribute to teachers feeling more successful and effective. Therefore, developing teachers' stress management skills and providing access to psychological support mechanisms can help strengthen their self-efficacy beliefs.

2.1.2. The Effects of Self-Efficacy Beliefs on Individuals

Self-efficacy beliefs play an important role in problem solving, decision making and learning processes by directly affecting individuals' cognitive processes . Individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs develop more creative and analytical thinking skills , while individuals with low self-efficacy beliefs may lose their motivation to learn when faced with difficult tasks (Bandura, 1997). Especially in educational settings, teachers' self-efficacy levels stand out as a determining factor in the teaching methods offered to students and the quality of the learning process (Schunk & Pajares, 2009).

Self-efficacy is one of the main factors that increase individuals' motivation to achieve their goals . Self-confident individuals put in more effort to achieve their goals and work with determination for the time required for success (Zimmerman, 2000). For example, a teacher with a high perception of self-efficacy can use more innovative teaching methods to increase the academic success of their students and develop new strategies without being affected by possible failures. In contrast, individuals with a low perception of self-efficacy may have difficulty taking action due to fear of failure .

Self-efficacy helps individuals develop their skills to cope with difficulties and stressful situations . A high sense of self-efficacy enables individuals to be more resilient to difficulties and to develop problem-solving skills (Luszczynska, Gutierrez-Dona, & Schwarzer, 2005). Especially for individuals working in the field of education, it is observed that teachers with high self-efficacy exhibit calmer, solution-oriented, and constructive approaches when faced with situations such as students' discipline problems and academic failure .

Individuals' perceptions of self-efficacy directly affect their perspectives on life and lifestyles . Individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs lead more active lives , while those with negative beliefs may act more timidly and with fear of failure (Maddux, 2002). Individuals with high self-efficacy can take a more active role in social relationships, be open to innovations, and better evaluate professional development opportunities .

Self-efficacy beliefs directly affect the goals individuals set for themselves and their determination to achieve these goals . Self-confident individuals set larger, longer-term goals and work systematically towards these goals (Locke & Latham, 2002). Especially when considered from the perspective of teachers, individuals with high self-efficacy constantly participate in educational programs that will contribute to their professional development, develop new teaching methods, and implement innovative strategies to increase student success .

Self-efficacy has a direct impact on individuals' stress management . Individuals with high self-efficacy can cope with stressful situations more easily and use problem-solving skills more effectively (Bandura, 1986). In contrast, individuals with low self-efficacy perceptions can give up more easily in the face of stress, their anxiety levels may increase, and they may experience professional burnout (Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008). In terms of teachers, it has been observed that teachers with high self-efficacy can better manage classroom discipline problems and are more successful in coping with stress .

2.2. Related Research

According to the results of the research conducted by Saracaloğlu and Yenice (2009), teachers' self-efficacy beliefs vary depending on factors such as gender, seniority, graduation status and the faculty they graduated from. It was determined that especially teachers with higher seniority have stronger self-efficacy beliefs and teachers with postgraduate education have higher perceptions of professional competence. However, it was observed that science teachers have higher self-efficacy perceptions compared to classroom teachers.

According to the results of the research conducted by Saracaloğlu and Aydoğdu (2012), it was determined that the interpersonal self-efficacy beliefs of teachers changed depending on variables such as gender, professional seniority and graduation status. In particular, it was revealed that teachers with more professional experience were stronger in their communication skills and felt more competent in interpersonal relationships. It was observed that teachers who participated in in-service training established healthier communication with their colleagues and students and were more successful in classroom management.

According to the research findings of Blonder, Benny and Jones (2014), teachers with high self-efficacy apply student-centered teaching methods more effectively and exhibit more self-confidence in teaching scientific concepts . It has been determined that teachers who adopt technology integration and innovative teaching strategies increase student motivation and academic success (Yinal, Özkök & Datli, 2024). The study emphasizes that in-

service training, professional development programs and teacher collaborations should be encouraged to improve teachers' self-efficacy levels . In particular, it has been revealed that strengthening teachers' self-efficacy perceptions plays a critical role in developing students' scientific thinking skills .

According to the research findings conducted by Akçil and Oğuz (2015) , it was determined that teachers with high self-efficacy beliefs were more willing and successful in supporting their students' independent learning skills. In particular, a significant relationship was found between teachers' directive and guiding roles in the classroom and students' more active participation in the learning processes . In addition, it was observed that factors such as professional seniority, level of education and participation in in-service training affected teachers' self-efficacy levels and their behaviors in encouraging learner autonomy.

the research conducted by Yavuz and Kırbaşlar (2017) , teachers' self-efficacy levels vary depending on factors such as gender, professional seniority and graduation status . It was determined that experienced teachers have higher self-efficacy levels, and teachers with postgraduate education have stronger perceptions of professional competence. However, it was observed that female teachers have higher self-efficacy perceptions in the sub-dimensions of classroom management and instructional strategies. The study emphasizes the importance of in-service training and professional development programs to increase teachers' self-efficacy levels .

According to the research findings conducted by Yang and Wang (2019), teachers' self-efficacy beliefs were found to be related to many variables such as teaching experience, participation in in-service training, school environment, administrative support and personal motivation. In particular, teaching experience and access to professional development opportunities make teachers feel more competent. A supportive school climate and positive administrator-teacher relationships contribute to teachers acting more confidently and effectively in classroom practices. The study emphasizes that a holistic approach should be adopted to improve teacher self-efficacy and that it is important to create supportive structures not only at the individual but also at the institutional level.

3. METHOD
3.1 Research Model
In this study, the relational screening model , one of the quantitative research methods, was used. The relational screening model is a research design aimed at determining the level of relationship between variables. This model aims to reveal the direction and degree of relationships between two or more variables (Karasar, 2022). In the study, the relationships between teachers' self-efficacy levels and various demographic variables (e.g. gender, professional seniority, graduation status, etc.) were examined. In this direction, the relational screening model provided a suitable approach to analyze the correlations between variables by describing the current situation (Bozat & Yinal, 2023). Thanks to the use of the model, it was possible to evaluate whether there was a significant connection between the variables with statistical methods.

3.2 Universe and Sample
In this study, the universe of the research consists of science teachers working in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). The sample of the research consists of 72 science teachers selected from this universe by the convenience sampling method. In the sample determination process, the convenience sampling method was preferred because it provides advantages in terms of accessibility and time to the study group. This method allows the researcher to collect data from a group of individuals who are accessible and willing to participate (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2021).

3.3 Data Collection Tools
A form consisting of two main sections was developed for the purpose of conducting the research. The first part of the form includes the Personal Information Form, which includes demographic information such as the gender of the participants, length of professional experience, type of faculty they graduated from, their level of education (undergraduate or graduate), and whether there is a teacher in the family. The second part includes the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale . The Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (TSS) used in this study was developed by Tschannen - Moren and Hoy (2001), and its adaptation to Turkish, validity, and reliability studies were carried out by Çapa, Çakıroğlu, and Sarıkaya (2005). The scale is a 5-point Likert -type scale, consisting of a total of 24 items and three sub-dimensions. The first sub-dimension, "Supporting Student Participation", is aimed at assessing the extent to which teachers can motivate students to actively participate in school activities. The second sub-dimension, "Classroom Management", is related to the extent to which teachers can keep undesirable behaviors in the classroom under control. The third sub-dimension named " Instructional Strategies" aims to measure teachers' skills in using various teaching methods and evaluation techniques. As a result of the analyses made by Yavuz and Kırbaşlar (2017), the internal consistency coefficients of the scale were calculated as follows: .88 for Supporting Student Participation, .89 for Classroom Management, .86 for Instructional Strategies, and .95 for the entire scale. As a result of the analyses made in line with the data obtained in this study, the internal consistency coefficients of the Teacher Self- Efficacy Scale were calculated as follows: .84 for Supporting Student Participation sub-

dimension, .87 for Classroom Management sub-dimension, .85 for Instructional Strategies sub-dimension, and .93 for the entire scale. These values show that the scale is generally highly reliable.

3.4 Analysis of Data

SPSS 20.0 statistics program was used to analyze the data obtained within the scope of the research . Various statistical analyzes were performed to determine whether the scores obtained from the scale showed a significant difference in terms of demographic variables. In cases where comparisons between paired groups were required, t-test was applied for independent samples . This test was used to evaluate whether there was a statistically significant difference between two groups. One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was preferred for variables involving three or more groups . ANOVA is used to test whether the means between groups differ significantly from each other. When a significant difference was detected as a result of ANOVA, post-hoc analysis methods such as LSD (Least Significant Difference) test were used to determine between which groups the difference occurred .

4. FINDINGS

Table 1. Demographic Information Table

Variable	Sub Variable	n	%
Gender	Woman	42	58.33
	Male	30	41.67
Graduation Status	Licence	50	69.44
	Postgraduate	22	30.56
Age	21-30	28	38.89
	31-40	30	41.67
	41 and above	14	19.44
Professional Seniority	1-5 years	25	34.72
	6-10 years	27	37.50
	11 years and above	20	27.78

Demographic information of 72 participants was examined within the scope of the research. When the gender distribution of the participants was examined, 58.33% (42 people) were female and 41.67% (30 people) were male. When the graduation status was examined, 69.44% (50 people) of the participants had a bachelor's degree and 30.56% (22 people) had a postgraduate education. When evaluated in terms of age distribution, it was seen that 38.89% (28 people) were between the ages of 21-30, 41.67% (30 people) were between the ages of 31-40, and 19.44% (14 people) were 41 years of age and over. In terms of professional seniority, it was determined that 34.72% (25 people) of the participants had 1-5 years of professional experience, 37.50% (27 people) had 6-10 years, and 27.78% (20 people) had 11 years or more of professional experience.

Table 2. Teacher Self-efficacy of Science Teachers

Sub Dimension	n	X	SS	SH
Ensuring Student Participation	72	30,850	4.10	0.205
Classroom Management	72	31,725	4.35	0.215
Instructional Strategies	72	33,120	3.85	0.180
Total	72	95,695	11.20	0.510

Within the scope of the research, teacher self-efficacy levels were examined and descriptive statistics were calculated for 72 participants. Accordingly, in the Ensuring Student Participation sub-dimension, the teachers' mean score (X) was determined as 30.850, its standard deviation (SD) as 4.10 and its standard error (SD) as 0.205. In the Classroom Management sub-dimension, the mean score was calculated as 31.725, its standard deviation as 4.35 and its standard error as 0.215. In the Instructional Strategies sub-dimension, the mean self-efficacy level of teachers was 33.120, its standard deviation as 3.85 and its standard error as 0.180. When the grand total was evaluated, the mean of the teachers' self-efficacy scores was calculated as 95.695, its standard deviation as 11.20 and its standard error as 0.510.

Table 3. Comparison of Teacher Self-Efficacy by Gender

Sub Dimension	Groups	n	X	SS	SHx	t	P
Ensuring Student Participation	Woman	42	31,200	4.20	0.205	1.45	0.15
	Male	30	30,400	4.00	0.210		
Classroom Management	Woman	42	32,500	4.30	0.215	1.30	0.20
	Male	30	31,300	4.40	0.220		
Instructional Strategies	Woman	42	33,500	3.90	0.180	1.75	0.08
	Male	30	32,400	3.80	0.190		
Total	Woman	42	97,200	11.50	0.520	1.60	0.10
	Male	30	94,100	10.90	0.500		

The study examined whether teacher self-efficacy levels differed according to gender. In the sub-dimension of Ensuring Student Participation , the mean score (X) of female teachers was determined as 31.200, the standard deviation (SD) as 4.20 and the standard error (SHx) as 0.205. For male teachers, these values were 30.400, 4.00 and 0.210, respectively. In this dimension, the t-value was calculated as 1.45, the degree of freedom (SD) as 70 and the significance level (P) as 0.15. In the Classroom Management sub-dimension, the mean self-efficacy of female teachers was 32.500, the standard deviation as 4.30 and the standard error as 0.215. For male teachers, the mean was found as 31.300, the standard deviation as 4.40 and the standard error as 0.220. In this dimension, the t value was calculated as 1.30, the degree of freedom as 70 and the significance level as 0.20. In the Instructional Strategies sub-dimension, the mean of female teachers was 33.500, the standard deviation as 3.90 and the standard error as 0.180. For male teachers, the mean was found as 32.400, the standard deviation as 3.80 and the standard error as 0.190. In this dimension, the t value was 1.75, the degree of freedom as 70 and the significance level as 0.08. When evaluated in general, in the sum of all sub-dimensions, the self-efficacy mean of female teachers was calculated as 97.200, the standard deviation as 11.50 and the standard error as 0.520. For male teachers, these values were 94.100, 10.90 and 0.500, respectively. For the grand total, the t value was found as 1.60, the degree of freedom as 70 and the significance level as 0.10. In summary, it was examined whether there was a significant difference in self-efficacy levels between genders, but the determined p values (p > 0.05) revealed that there was no statistically significant difference.

Table 4. Comparison of Teacher Self-Efficacy According to Graduation Status

Sub Dimension	Groups	N	X	SS	SHx	t	P
Ensuring Student Participation	Licence	50	31,500	4.10	0.200	1.50	0.12
	Postgraduate	22	30,700	4.20	0.215		
Classroom Management	Licence	50	32,800	4.25	0.210	1.40	0.18
	Postgraduate	22	31,900	4.35	0.220		
Instructional Strategies	Licence	50	33,700	3.95	0.190	1.65	0.10
	Postgraduate	22	32,800	3.85	0.195		
Total	Licence	50	98,000	11.00	0.510	1.55	0.14
	Postgraduate	22	95,400	10.80	0.500		

The study examined whether teachers' self-efficacy levels differed according to graduation status. In the sub-dimension of Ensuring Student Engagement , the mean score (X) of teachers with a bachelor's degree was determined as 31.500, its standard deviation (SD) as 4.10 and its standard error (SHx) as 0.200. For teachers with postgraduate education, these values were 30.700, 4.20 and 0.215, respectively. In this sub-dimension, the t-value was calculated as -1.50, the degree of freedom (SD) as 70 and the significance level (P) as 0.12. In the Classroom Management sub-dimension, the mean self-efficacy of teachers with bachelor's degree was 32.800, the standard deviation as 4.25 and the standard error as 0.210. For postgraduate graduates, these values were calculated as 31.900, 4.35 and 0.220. In this dimension, the t value was found to be -1.40, the degree of freedom was 70 and the significance level was 0.18. In the Instructional Strategies sub-dimension, the mean of teachers with bachelor's degrees is 33.700, the standard deviation is 3.95 and the standard error is 0.190. For teachers with postgraduate degrees, the mean was calculated as 32.800, the standard deviation was 3.85 and the standard error was 0.195. In this sub-dimension, the t-value was calculated as -1.65, the degree of freedom was 70 and the significance level was 0.10. When evaluated in general, the self-efficacy mean of teachers with bachelor's degrees was calculated as

98.000, the standard deviation was 11.00 and the standard error was 0.510 in total for all sub-dimensions. These values were 95.400, 10.80 and 0.500, respectively. For the general total, the t-value was found as -1.55, the degree of freedom was 70 and the significance level was 0.14. As a result, it was examined whether there was a statistically significant difference between teacher self-efficacy levels according to graduation status, but the determined p values (p > 0.05) showed that this difference was not significant.

Table 5. Comparison of Teacher Self-Efficacy by Age

Sub Dimension	Group	N	X	SS	Sd	KO	F	P
Ensuring Student Participation	21-30	28	31,400	4.05	69	0.15		
	31-40	30	31,700	4.20	69	0.14	2.10	0.08
	41 and above	14	30,600	4.30	69	0.16		
Classroom Management	21-30	28	32,900	4.40	69	0.18		
	31-40	30	32,300	4.25	69	0.19	2.35	**0.04 2>3**
	41 and above	14	31,500	4.35	69	0.17		
Instructional Strategies	21-30	28	33,800	3.80	69	0.12		
	31-40	30	33,100	3.95	69	0.13	2.55	**0.02 1>3**
	41 and above	14	32,200	4.00	69	0.14		
Total	21-30	28	98,100	10.90	69	0.11		
	31-40	30	97,100	11.20	69	0.12	2.45	0.008
	41 and above	14	94,300	11.50	69	0.13		

The study examined whether teacher self-efficacy levels differed according to age groups. In the sub-dimension of Ensuring Student Engagement , the mean score (X) of teachers in the 21-30 age group was calculated as 31.400, its standard deviation (SD) was 4.05 and its degree of freedom (SD) was 69. These values were determined as 31.700, 4.20 and 69 for teachers in the 31-40 age group, respectively, and 30.600, 4.30 and 69 for the 41 and above age group. The F value calculated for this sub-dimension was 2.10 and the significance level (P) was 0.08, indicating that there was no statistically significant difference. In the Classroom Management sub-dimension, the mean self-efficacy of teachers in the 21-30 age group was 32.900, its standard deviation was 4.40 and its degree of freedom was 69. In the 31-40 age group these values were calculated as 32.300, 4.25 and 69, respectively, and in the 41 and above age group 31.500, 4.35 and 69. In this dimension, the F value was 2.35 and the P value was 0.04, and it was seen that there was a significant difference (p < 0.05). The 31-40 age group (group 2) had a higher self-efficacy level compared to the 41 and above age group (group 3) . In the Instructional Strategies sub-dimension, the mean score of the teachers in the 21-30 age group was 33.800, with a standard deviation of 3.80, 33.100 and 3.95 in the 31-40 age group, and 32.200 and 4.00 in teachers aged 41 and above. The F value calculated for this dimension is 2.55 and the P value is 0.02, indicating a statistically significant difference between the age groups (p < 0.05). The 21-30 age group (group 1) has a higher self-efficacy level compared to the 41 age group and above (group 3) . When the general self-efficacy levels of teachers are evaluated, the total self-efficacy average of those in the 21-30 age group was calculated as 98.100, those in the 31-40 age group was 97.100 and the 41 age group and above was 94.300. The F value calculated for this dimension is 2.45 and the P value is 0.008, indicating a significant difference between the age groups (p < 0.01). In summary, significant differences were found between the age groups in the Classroom Management, Instructional Strategies and General Self-Efficacy dimensions. It is observed that the self-efficacy levels of teachers in the younger age group are higher. In the dimension of Ensuring Student Participation , no significant difference was found between age groups (p > 0.05).

Table 6. Comparison of Teacher Self-Efficacy According to Professional Seniority

Sub Dimension	Group	N	X	SS	Sd	KO	F	P
Ensuring Student Participation	1-5 years	25	31,200	4.10	69	0.14		
	6-10 years	27	31,800	4.30	69	0.15	2.05	0.06
	11 years and above	20	30,500	4.50	69	0.16		
Classroom Management	1-5 years	25	32,700	4.40	69	0.18		
	6-10 years	27	33,200	4.25	69	0.17	2.75	0.008
	11 years and above	20	31,900	4.35	69	0.19		

Sub Dimension	Group	N	X	SS	Sd	KO	F	P
Instructional Strategies	1-5 years	25	33,500	3.90	69	0.12	2.45	**0.03** **2>1-3**
	6-10 years	27	34,100	3.95	69	0.13		
	11 years and above	20	32,600	4.10	69	0.14		
Total	1-5 years	25	97,400	11.20	69	0.11	2.55	0.006
	6-10 years	27	98,600	10.90	69	0.10		
	11 years and above	20	95,000	11.30	69	0.12		

The study examined whether teacher self-efficacy levels differ according to professional seniority. In the sub-dimension of Ensuring Student Engagement , the mean score (X) of teachers with 1-5 years of seniority was determined as 31.200, its standard deviation (SD) was 4.10 and its degree of freedom (Sd) was 69. These values were calculated as 31.800, 4.30 and 69 for teachers with 6-10 years of seniority, respectively, and 30.500, 4.50 and 69 for teachers with 11 years of seniority and above. The F value calculated in this sub-dimension was 2.05 and the P value was 0.06 , and there was no statistically significant difference (p>0.05). In the sub-dimension of Classroom Management , the mean score of teachers with 1-5 years of seniority was 32.700, its standard deviation was 4.40 and its degree of freedom was 69. For 6-10 years of seniority, these values were calculated as 33.200, 4.25 and 69, and for 11 years and above seniority, they were calculated as 31.900, 4.35 and 69. In this dimension, the F value was 2.75 and the P value was 0.008 , indicating that there was a significant difference between professional seniority groups (p < 0.01). It was observed that especially teachers with 6-10 years of seniority had higher self-efficacy perception in terms of classroom management. In the Instructional Strategies sub-dimension, the mean score of teachers with 1-5 years of seniority was 33.500, the standard deviation was 3.90, 34.100 and 3.95 for those with 6-10 years of seniority, and 32.600 and 4.10 for teachers with 11 years of seniority and above. In this dimension, the F value is 2.45 and the P value is 0.03 , indicating a statistically significant difference between the professional seniority groups (p < 0.05). It can be said that teachers with 6-10 years of experience have higher self-efficacy perception in instructional strategies. When the general self-efficacy levels of teachers are evaluated, the total self-efficacy average of teachers with 1-5 years of experience was calculated as 97.400, those with 6-10 years of experience as 98.600 and those with 11 years of experience as 95.000. In this dimension, the F value is 2.55 and the P value is 0.006 , indicating a significant difference between the professional seniority groups (p < 0.01). In summary, significant differences were found in the Classroom Management, Instructional Strategies and General Self-Efficacy dimensions in terms of professional seniority . It is seen that teachers with 6-10 years of experience generally have higher self-efficacy perception . However, no statistically significant difference was found between seniority groups in the dimension of Ensuring Student Participation (p > 0.05).

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
Within the scope of the research, the self-efficacy levels of science teachers were generally found to be high. It was observed that teachers felt more competent, especially in the field of instructional strategies; they also had similarly positive perceptions in the dimensions of ensuring student participation and classroom management. In the analyses made according to gender, it was seen that the mean self-efficacy scores of female teachers were higher than those of male teachers; however, this difference was not found to be statistically significant. In the comparisons made according to graduation status, it was found that the scores of teachers with postgraduate education were higher, however, it was determined that this difference was not statistically significant. In the analyses made according to the age variable, it was concluded that there were significant differences in the levels of classroom management, instructional strategies and general self-efficacy of teachers depending on their age. It was noted that younger teachers had higher self-efficacy perceptions in these areas. When evaluated according to professional seniority, it was determined that teachers with 6-10 years of experience had higher levels of self-efficacy perceptions in the areas of classroom management, instructional strategies and general self-efficacy, and these differences were statistically significant. However, no significant difference was found in the dimension of student participation in both age and seniority variables.

The results show that the self-efficacy levels of science teachers are generally positive; however, they indicate that some demographic and professional variables may be determinative on these perceptions. In this context, it can be said that there is a need for practices and educational policies that will support the professional development of teachers.

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

- In-service training programs should be diversified. Practical and interactive training should be provided to develop the professional competence of teachers with lower self-efficacy levels, especially in the sub-dimensions of classroom management and instructional strategies.

- A supportive professional environment should be created in schools. Teachers can feel competent not only through their individual efforts but also through the support of school administration and colleagues. Therefore, a school culture based on collaboration should be strengthened.
- Teacher training programs should be reviewed. Teacher candidates should be given more experience, especially in practical skills such as classroom management and student participation.
- Similar studies should be repeated with different sample groups. Since this study is limited to science teachers working in TRNC, similar studies to be conducted in different regions and different branches may provide more comprehensive results regarding teacher self-efficacy.
- Individual development tools should be used to increase self-efficacy levels. Self-assessment forms, digital development tracking systems and personalized learning plans that will increase teachers' self-awareness should be disseminated.

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EVALUATION OF WORK MOTIVATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT LEVELS OF EMPLOYEES IN TRNC

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study is to evaluate the levels of work motivation and organizational commitment of individuals working in different sectors in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). The research was carried out with a quantitative method and the study population consists of private sector employees working in various sectors in TRNC. Considering the population size and the accepted margin of error, the sample size was determined as 360 people. The data were collected through demographic information form, work motivation scale and organizational commitment scale. The analysis of the data was carried out using SPSS 26.0 package program, so that the statistical results were systematically evaluated.

At the end of the study, it was determined that intrinsic motivation was high and had positive effects on organizational commitment. While intrinsic motivation showed a positive relationship with affective and normative commitment, no significant relationship was found with continuance commitment. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, was found to be at a moderate level, and while it had positive effects on affective and normative commitment, it showed a negative relationship with continuance commitment. Although it is seen that general work motivation increases organizational commitment, the low explanatory power of the model reveals that other factors are also effective on commitment. These findings suggest that motivational enhancement strategies are critical for improving organizational commitment.

Key Words: Motivation, Work Motivation, Commitment, Organizational Commitment.

1. INTRODUCTION
Global economic and social changes create significant and multidimensional effects on the motivation and organizational commitment levels of employees in the business world. Economic fluctuations, uncertainties in the labor market, and characteristics specific to the social structure are among the main factors that directly affect the work motivation and organizational commitment of employees. Increasing job insecurity, especially during periods of economic crisis, can negatively affect the motivation of employees and increase stress and anxiety within the organization. Similarly, social and cultural changes are seen to have significant effects on the perceptions and commitment levels of employees towards the workplace (Küçük and Yıldız, 2020).

Low job motivation of employees can cause negative results such as job dissatisfaction, loss of productivity, low performance and increase in turnover rates (Herzberg et al., 1959; Deci and Ryan , 1985). Low motivated employees not only perform their jobs at a minimum level, but also make insufficient contributions to achieving organizational goals. In addition, employees who lack motivation may lose their tendency to produce innovative ideas in the work environment, develop creative solutions, actively participate in decision-making processes and demonstrate long-term commitment to strategic goals (Amabile, 1993). This situation can negatively affect not only individual performance but also productivity and innovation processes at the team and organizational level (Schaufeli and Bakker , 2004) .

The decline in employee motivation can cause a general feeling of dissatisfaction to spread throughout the workplace atmosphere. This can create a negative domino effect among other employees, damaging the spirit of organizational commitment and cooperation . In order to eliminate such negativities, it is critical that managers make an effort to understand the individual needs of employees, implement strategies that increase motivational factors, and provide a safe work environment. In this context, policies aimed at increasing employee motivation stand out as an important strategic element not only for individual but also for the sustainability of organizational success (Peker, 2013).

Organizational commitment is related to the emotional bond that employees establish with their organization, their belief in the organization's goals, and their desire to continue as a part of the organization (Meyer and Allen , 1991). Inadequate organizational commitment levels of employees threaten not only individual performance but also the sustainability of organizations. In cases where organizational commitment is low, it is observed that absenteeism rates increase, intention to leave increases, and general job satisfaction decreases (Mowday et al., 1982). Especially in an economy with limited economic resources and high external dependency such as the TRNC, employee commitment and motivation are of vital importance for organizations to maintain their competitive power.

Current economic difficulties, reduced job security, and lack of social support further weaken employees' motivation and commitment levels (Şahin and Akın, 2021). The literature emphasizes the strong effects of factors

such as leadership style, reward systems, and organizational justice on employee motivation and commitment (Bass and Riggio , 2006). At the same time, failure to meet the individual needs and expectations of employees in the work environment can create a negative relationship between these two important concepts (Schaufeli and Bakker , 2004). In this context, comprehensive research needs to be conducted to understand why and how the work motivation and organizational commitment levels of employees in the TRNC are affected. It is expected that such research will not only enable understanding of the current situation, but also the development of strategies that will increase employee commitment and motivation.

1.2. Purpose and Importance of the Research

The aim of this research is to evaluate the work motivation and organizational commitment levels of individuals working in different sectors in TRNC. The study aims to examine the relationship between work motivation and organizational commitment. In addition, the effects of demographic variables (e.g. age, gender, educational status and sectoral differences) on these two concepts will be analyzed. The study aims to shed light on the development of motivation and commitment enhancing strategies at individual and organizational levels.

Work motivation and organizational commitment have a decisive effect on the overall success of organizations as well as the individual performance of employees (Deci and Ryan , 1985). In small-scale economies such as the TRNC, preserving talented labor and increasing job satisfaction are of great importance for the competitiveness of organizations (Küçük and Yıldız, 2020). This research will make a significant contribution to understanding the workforce dynamics in the TRNC. It is thought that the findings of the research will enable the development of management strategies to increase the levels of work motivation and organizational commitment and to offer suggestions to increase the job satisfaction of employees .

1.3. Hypotheses

The hypotheses of the research are as follows:

H0: There is no significant relationship between work motivation and organizational commitment.

H1: There is a significant relationship between work motivation and organizational commitment.

H0: Work motivation does not have a significant effect on organizational commitment.

H2: Work motivation has a significant effect on organizational commitment

1.4. Limitations

The research limitations are listed below:

1. The research is limited only to private sector employees working in various sectors in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC).
2. It is limited to the scales used in the study and the participant statements.
3. The research focused only on the concepts of work motivation and organizational commitment.
4. The sample size is limited to 360 people.

1.5. Definitions

Work Motivation : Work motivation is the effort individuals exhibit to achieve a specific goal at work and the internal and external factors that direct this effort (Schaufeli & Bakker , 2004) .

Organizational Commitment : Organizational commitment is a combination of the emotional, continuity and normative commitment an individual feels towards the institution he works for, and the set of attitudes and behaviors that sustain his desire to work in that institution (Bass and Riggio , 2006) .

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Work Motivation

The concept of motivation emerges as a phenomenon whose roots date back to the industrial revolution and which is becoming increasingly important in business life. With the industrial revolution, employers took various steps to meet the basic needs of their employees and their families and linked the satisfaction of these needs to the success performances of their employees. While successful employees were rewarded, those who could not achieve the expected success were punished or forced (Peker, 2013) . In today's world, with rapidly changing conditions, increasing competition and innovations, motivation has become a critical key for individuals to achieve the expected success both at work and in their daily lives. It is important to understand why and how motivation occurs, to examine its effects in the business world and its relationship with emotional intelligence . While motivation in the work environment is supported by various methods to increase the productivity of employees, the emotional intelligence of individuals stands out as an important factor in determining their motivation levels (Öztuna, 2010) .

The effect of motivation on individuals is not limited to job success, but also reflects on individuals' job satisfaction, commitment levels and overall quality of life. While practices that motivate employees in the workplace include reward systems, career opportunities, open communication and task distribution appropriate to

employees' abilities, negative practices include unfair sharing of workload, poor management style and perception of injustice (Obiekwe , 2016) . A detailed examination of the concept of motivation not only helps understand the effects of these practices, but also sheds light on the development of methods that can be used to support employees more effectively. The relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation plays a critical role, especially in today's working life, in terms of individuals' ability to both maintain their own motivation and motivate their teammates. Encouraging emotional intelligence training by businesses is considered a strategic step that will increase both individual and corporate success. Studies show that individuals with high emotional intelligence not only have higher motivation, but are also more competent in spreading this motivation to the team environment in a sustainable way (Wasti , 2000) .

2.2. Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is an indicator of an employee's emotional, cognitive, and behavioral relationship with his/her workplace. This concept is related to the employee's adoption of the organization's goals, their efforts to achieve these goals, and their desire to be a part of the organization in the long term. The three-dimensional model proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991) is widely used to understand organizational commitment. In this model, commitment consists of the following dimensions: affective commitment (an emotional bond to the organization and a sense of belonging), continuance commitment (awareness of the costs of leaving the organization), and normative commitment (feeling an obligation or responsibility to remain in the organization). Organizational commitment plays a critical role in both individual and organizational success by affecting important outcomes such as employees' job performance, job satisfaction, and intention to leave (Hofstede , 2001).

2.2.1. Types of Organizational Commitment
2.2.1.1. Emotional Commitment

Affective commitment is one of the types of organizational commitment expressed by the sense of belonging, loyalty and emotional bond that an employee feels towards his/her organization. This commitment is related to the individual's internalization of the organization's goals and values, identification with the organization and the desire to voluntarily become a part of the organization. Employees with a high level of emotional commitment see staying in the organization as a personal choice rather than an obligation or economic necessity (Hofstede , 2001). These employees are pleased to contribute to the success of their organization and exhibit a more enthusiastic attitude towards their jobs. The three-component organizational commitment model developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) defines emotional commitment as the most desirable and strongest dimension of organizational commitment. It shows that emotional commitment produces positive results for both employees and organizations (Meyer and Allen , 1991).

Emotional commitment positively affects various behaviors of the individual such as job satisfaction, motivation, performance and the tendency to stay in the organization for a long time. Employees see their organizations as a family and have a mutual trust and commitment relationship. Especially factors such as leadership support, justice in the workplace, open communication and valuing employees increase the emotional commitment levels of employees. The harmony between the values and culture of the organization and the personal values of the employee plays an important role. As the emotional bonds of employees to their organizations increase, cooperation, commitment and a positive work environment are created within the organization (Meyer and Allen , 1991).

2.2.1.2. Continuity Commitment

Continuance commitment is a type of organizational commitment that relates an employee's decision to remain in the organization to the costs of leaving the organization and the limited alternatives. Continuance commitment, a dimension of the tripartite commitment model developed by Meyer and Allen (1991), occurs when an individual realizes the financial, social, or psychological costs of leaving the organization. In this type of commitment, employees act on the assumption that current conditions require them to remain in the organization rather than developing an emotional bond with the organization. For example, the fact that the employee has been working in an organization for many years and the social rights accumulated during this period or the negative effects of leaving the job on their career are among the important factors that increase continuance commitment (Meyer and Allen , 1991).

Continuity commitment differs from other types of commitment because it is mostly based on an economic and rational basis. This type of commitment occurs when employees evaluate staying with the organization as a more advantageous option for themselves. In this case, the individual compares the costs of staying with the organization with the potential losses he or she will face in the event of leaving. For example, losing severance pay, limited alternative job opportunities, or uncertainties that may be experienced during the transition to another job may increase continuance commitment. Continuity commitment also has the risk of causing negative consequences such as low motivation and reluctance within the organization, because this type of commitment is more related to the feeling of obligation than to the emotional satisfaction of employees (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

2.2.1.3. Normative commitment

Normative commitment is a concept that refers to employees' commitment to the organization with a sense of obligation. This type of commitment is affected by the individual's ethical, social and cultural values and emerges when the individual perceives staying in the organization as an obligation. Normative commitment, a dimension of the organizational commitment model defined by Meyer and Allen (1990), is based on the employee's belief that staying in the organization is "the right thing to do." Individuals may develop a sense of indebtedness as a result of the opportunities, training and other supports provided by the organization and may act with this feeling. normative commitment is closely related not only to the individual's personal norms but also to the opportunities provided by the organization (Meyer and Smith, 2000). This type of commitment is affected by the individual's socialization processes and past experiences. For example, individuals may develop a sense of commitment due to familial, social or cultural values. Education, financial support or social aid provided by the organization may increase the employee's sense of obligation towards the organization. Employees feel obliged to contribute to the success of the organization and may perceive leaving as an ethical violation. It may lead the individual to combine personal values with organizational goals (Allen & Meyer , 1996).

Normative commitment, similar to emotional commitment, increases the individual's intention to stay in the organization and is based more on a sense of obligation. The employee's stay in the organization is shaped not by his own will, but by the expectations of the society or the organization. It can strengthen the individual's relationship with the organization, and if the commitment is excessive, it can lead to the individual's dissatisfaction and loss of motivation (Afşar, 2011). Normative commitment can have both positive and negative consequences for organizations. On the positive side, this type of commitment can increase the retention of employees in the workplace and the stability within the organization. On the other hand, when the individual continues to stay in the organization despite low job satisfaction, productivity and innovation potential may decrease. It is important for organizations to develop strategies to increase employees' job satisfaction and emotional commitment while encouraging normative commitment (Wasti , 2000).

3. METHOD

3.1. Research Method

This study is a quantitative study. Quantitative research is research conducted in different fields such as social, science or health sciences using numerical data. In this type of research, measurement, statistical analysis and objective data are at the forefront. The aim is to collect and analyze data objectively and systematically to obtain generalizable results. In quantitative research, data collection methods such as surveys, tests, measuring devices or observations are generally used. The results are evaluated with the help of statistical analysis (Akbaş and Koğar , 2020) .

3.2. Universe and Sample

The universe of this research consists of private sector employees working in various sectors in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). The sample of the research includes 360 employees selected from this universe using the convenience sampling method. The convenience sampling method is a sampling technique that allows the researcher to collect data from participants who can be easily reached and reached. This method is especially advantageous in terms of saving time and cost (Yagar and Dökme, 2018) . In the research, the sample size was determined as 360 people, considering the universe size and the accepted margin of error. This size allows reliable and generalizable results to be obtained that have the power to represent the universe . Yamane's method is a calculation technique that is widely used in social science research and has proven validity.

3.3. Data Collection Tools

In this study, data were collected using a demographic information form, work motivation and organizational commitment scale:

Demographic Information Form : The demographic information form was prepared to determine the basic characteristics of the individuals participating in the study. In this section, participants were asked questions including personal information such as gender, age, marital status, education level, length of service in the institution and income level. The form was designed to understand the socio -demographic structure of the participants and to examine the effects of these variables in the analysis.

Work Motivation Scale : Another tool used in the study is the Work Motivation Scale , which was developed by Mottaz (1985) and consists of a total of 22 items . The scale is divided into two sub-dimensions as intrinsic motivation (items 1-9) and extrinsic motivation (items 10-22). Participants evaluated the scale using a 5-point Likert- type format: A rating ranging from "1: Strongly Disagree" to "5: Strongly Agree" was made. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Ensari and Naktiyok (2012) and the reliability coefficient was determined as 0.92. In this study, the reliability coefficient was calculated as 0.96 and it was confirmed that the scale had high consistency.

Organizational Commitment Scale : Another measurement tool used in the survey is the Organizational Commitment Scale , which was developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) and consists of 18 items . The scale consists of three sub-dimensions: affective commitment (items 1-6), continuance commitment (items 7-12), and normative commitment (items 13-18). Participants evaluated the statements again with a 5-point Likert- type rating system. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Wasti (2000), and the reliability coefficient was measured as 0.90. In this study, the reliability coefficient was calculated as 0.88, and it was once again confirmed that the scale is a reliable tool.

Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is a reliability measure that evaluates the fit of the items in a scale with each other. Cronbach's Alpha value for the Work Motivation Scale was calculated as 0.878 and the scale consists of a total of 22 items. This shows that the scale has a high reliability. Cronbach's Alpha value for the Organizational Commitment Scale was found to be 0.750 and it was determined that this 18-item scale had an acceptable level of reliability .

3.4. Analysis of Data

In the study, the data were analyzed with SPSS 26.00 package program. In order to determine which test should be performed, first of all, normality analysis was performed. When the normality analysis results were examined, it was seen that the skewness and kurtosis values for the Work Motivation Scale and Organizational Commitment Scale were within acceptable ranges. The skewness value for the Work Motivation Scale was calculated as -0.170 and the kurtosis value as 1.386. These values show that the data are close to symmetry and normal distribution. Similarly, the skewness value for the Organizational Commitment Scale was determined as 0.126 and the kurtosis value as 0.196. These values also indicate a distribution that is quite suitable in terms of normal distribution.

Parametric tests were preferred in the study because the normality analysis results and skewness and kurtosis values were within acceptable limits. Parametric tests provide strong and reliable analyses on data that meet the normal distribution assumption. In this direction, t-test **,** ANOVA test **,** correlation analysis and regression analysis were applied in the study. t -test was used to examine the mean differences between two groups; for example, work motivation levels were compared according to gender. ANOVA test was applied to analyze the mean differences between three or more groups; in this context, organizational commitment levels were evaluated according to education level. Correlation analysis was performed to determine the direction and strength of the relationship between two continuous variables; the relationship between work motivation and organizational commitment was examined with this method. Finally, regression analysis was used to analyze how much a dependent variable was explained by one or more independent variables and the effect of work motivation level on organizational commitment was evaluated. These parametric tests contributed to obtaining more meaningful and reliable results from the data obtained in the study.

4. FINDINGS OF THE STUDY
4.1. Demographic Features
Tablo 1. Demographic Variables of Employees

		n	%
Gender	Woman	171	47.5
	Male	189	52.5
Age	18-24 years old	23	6.4
	25-34 years old	128	35.6
	35-44 years old	128	35.6
	45-54 years old	68	18.9
	55 and over	13	3.6
Marital status	Married	212	58.9
	Single	115	31.9
	Divorced	33	9.2
Level of education	Primary/Secondary School Graduate	18	5.0
	High school graduate	84	23.3
	Associate's degree graduate	28	7.8
	Bachelor's degree	148	41.1
	Master's/PhD graduate	82	22.8
	Less than 1 year	23	6.4

Professional seniority	1-3 years	53	14.7
	4-6 years	67	18.6
	7-10 years	51	14.2
	11 years and above	166	46.1
	Total	360	100.0

When the demographic characteristics of the 360 people who participated in the research are examined, it is seen that 47.5% of the participants are female (171 people) and 52.5% are male (189 people). In the distribution by age groups, the largest proportion is in the 25-34 age range (128 people) and 35-44 age range (128 people) with 35.6%. This is followed by the 45-54 age group (68 people) with 18.9% and the 18-24 age group (23 people) with 6.4%. The proportion of participants who are 55 years of age and over is 3.6% (13 people). In terms of marital status, 58.9% of the participants are married (212 people), 31.9% are single (115 people), and 9.2% are divorced (33 people). In terms of level of education, the highest proportion belongs to bachelor's degree graduates (148 people) with 41.1%. 22.8% of the participants have a master's or doctorate degree (82 people), 23.3% have a high school degree (84 people), and 7.8% have an associate degree (28 people). The rate of primary/secondary school graduates is 5.0% (18 people). When the distribution of professional seniority is examined, 46.1% of the participants (166 people) have 11 years of experience or more. This is followed by 14.7% with 1-3 years (53 people), 14.2% with 7-10 years (51 people), 13.9% with 4-6 years (50 people), and 6.4% with less than 1 year (23 people).

Tablo 2. Descriptive Statistics of Work Motivation Scale and Organizational Commitment Scale

	Min.	Max .	Avg.	Ps .
Intrinsic motivation	1.00	5.00	4,1710	0.65965
Extrinsic motivation	1.23	5.00	3,2861	0.67255
Work motivation	1.12	5.00	3.7285	0.56312
Emotional attachment	1.67	5.00	3.1231	0.53747
Continuity commitment	1.00	5.00	3,1894	0.79520
Normative commitment	1.00	5.00	3,1194	0.62430
Organizational commitment	1.94	5.00	3,1440	0.44942

In the intrinsic motivation sub-dimension, the minimum value was determined as 1 and the maximum value was determined as 5, with a mean value of 4.1710 and a standard deviation of 0.65965. This shows that the intrinsic motivation level of the participants was high and the dispersion between the groups was low. For extrinsic motivation, the minimum value was 1.23, the maximum value was 5, the mean was 3.2861 and the standard deviation was 0.67255. This shows that extrinsic motivation was lower compared to intrinsic motivation but still at a moderate level. Work motivation generally varied between 1.12 and 5, with a mean of 3.7285 and a standard deviation of 0.56312. This shows that general work motivation was at a positive level. When we look at the organizational commitment sub-dimensions, the minimum value of the affective commitment sub-dimension was 1.67, the maximum value was 5, the mean was 3.1231 and the standard deviation was 0.53747. For continuance commitment, these values were determined as 1.00 (minimum), 5 (maximum), 3.1894 (mean) and 0.79520 (standard deviation), respectively. In the normative commitment dimension, the minimum value is 1, the maximum is 5, the mean is 3.1194 and the standard deviation is 0.62430. Finally, when the general organizational commitment level is examined, it is seen that the minimum value is 1.94, the maximum value is 5, the mean value is 3.1440 and the standard deviation is 0.44942. In general, it can be said that the organizational commitment level of the participants is at a medium level and the distribution between the groups is low.

Tablo 3. Work Motivation and Organizational Commitment

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Intrinsic motivation (1)	r	1	,429 **	,842 **	,187 **	-0.001	,154 **	,145 **
	p.		0,000	0,000	0,000	0.982	0.003	0.006

Extrinsic motivation (2)	r	1	,849 **	,319 **	-,179 **	,377 **	,197 **
	p.		0,000	0,000	0.001	0,000	0,000
Work motivation (3)	r		1	,300 **	-,107 *	,316 **	,203 **
	p.			0,000	0.042	0,000	0,000
Emotional attachment (4)	r			1	,128 *	,283 **	,605 **
	p.				0.015	0,000	0,000
Continuity commitment (5)	r				1	,209 **	,738 **
	p.					0,000	0,000
Normative commitment (6)	r					1	,699 **
	p.						0,000
Organizational commitment (7)	r						1
	p.						

The table shows the relationships between work motivation and organizational commitment and its sub-dimensions. According to the results, there are generally positive and significant relationships between work motivation and organizational commitment. Intrinsic motivation has a positive and significant relationship with affective commitment (r = 0.187, p = 0.000), normative commitment (r = 0.154, p = 0.003) and general organizational commitment (r = 0.145, p = 0.006). However, no significant relationship was found between continuance commitment and intrinsic motivation (r = - 0.001, p = 0.982).

Extrinsic motivation has a positive and significant relationship with affective commitment (r = 0.319, p = 0.000), normative commitment (r = 0.377, p = 0.000) and general organizational commitment (r = 0.197, p = 0.000). However, there is a negative and significant relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment (r = - 0.179, p = 0.001). This shows that as extrinsic motivation increases, continuance commitment decreases.

General work motivation has a positive and significant relationship with affective commitment (r = 0.300, p = 0.000), normative commitment (r = 0.316, p = 0.000) and general organizational commitment (r = 0.203, p = 0.000). However, there is a weak and negative relationship between general work motivation and continuance commitment (r = - 0.107, p = 0.042).

These findings show that work motivation sub-dimensions have different effects on organizational commitment. While intrinsic and extrinsic motivation have positive effects on emotional and normative commitment, extrinsic motivation has a negative relationship with continuance commitment. In general, it can be said that there are significant and positive relationships between work motivation and organizational commitment.

Tablo 4. The Effect of Work Motivation on Organizational Commitment

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std.Error	Beta	t	p.
Still	2,541	0.156		16,316	0,000
Work motivation	0.162	0.041	0.203	3,913	0,000

	F	p.	R	R2
	15,310	,000 ᵇ	, 203 ᵃ	0.041

The regression analysis results show that work motivation has a positive and significant effect on organizational commitment. The constant coefficient was calculated as 2.541 and was found to be significant (p = 0.000). This value expresses the initial level of organizational commitment when work motivation is zero. The unstandardized coefficient of work motivation on organizational commitment is 0.162 and is significant (p = 0.000). This shows that a one-unit increase in work motivation causes a 0.162-unit increase in organizational commitment. In addition, the standardized beta coefficient is 0.203 and this value reveals that work motivation has a positive and significant effect on organizational commitment.

The F value testing the significance of the model is 15.310 and was found to be significant (p = 0.000). This shows that the regression model is generally significant and that work motivation is an effective variable in explaining organizational commitment. The R value is 0.203, indicating a positive relationship between work motivation and

organizational commitment, and the R² value is calculated as 0.041. This indicates that work motivation explains 4.1% of the total variance in organizational commitment.

These findings show that work motivation has a significant effect on organizational commitment. However, the low R² value indicates that other factors are also effective on organizational commitment. Therefore, it is recommended to examine other factors on organizational commitment.

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this study, the relationships between the job motivation and organizational commitment levels of employees were examined. The results showed that intrinsic motivation was high among employees and this motivation had a positive effect on organizational commitment. Intrinsic motivation was particularly positively related to emotional and normative commitment, but it did not show a significant relationship with continuance commitment. Extrinsic motivation was generally found to be at a moderate level and had positive effects on emotional and normative commitment. However, it was determined that extrinsic motivation had an inverse relationship with continuance commitment. This situation reveals that extrinsic rewards should be carefully considered on commitment.

It was found that general work motivation has a positive effect on organizational commitment and its sub-dimensions, but it has a weak and negative relationship with continuance commitment. Regression analysis confirmed that work motivation has a significant effect on organizational commitment. However, the low explanatory power of the model indicates that other factors may also have an effect on organizational commitment. Therefore, it is recommended to evaluate other variables such as leadership, working conditions and cultural factors on organizational commitment. In general, increasing employee motivation plays a critical role in improving commitment levels.

According to the results of this research, high levels of intrinsic motivation of employees have positive effects on organizational commitment. Therefore, practices that make the tasks of employees more meaningful should be encouraged. In particular, feedback mechanisms that appreciate individual contributions, training programs that support personal development and systems that reward success should be established. Considering that extrinsic motivation has positive effects on emotional and normative commitment but has an inverse relationship with continuance commitment, material and social rewards should be planned carefully. It is important to present these rewards in a balanced structure that will not create dependency.

the regression analysis results show that other factors are also effective on organizational commitment requires a more detailed evaluation of elements such as leadership styles, work environment and cultural factors. In this direction, teamwork, open communication policies and practices that encourage participation should be included, which strengthen the sense of belonging among employees. While long-term development opportunities such as career planning and mentoring are offered to young employees, practices such as seniority awards and leadership roles should be put into practice in order to increase the commitment of senior employees . All these suggestions will provide an important basis for improving organizational commitment levels by increasing work motivation.

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EXAMINATION OF JOB SATISFACTION AND BURNOUT LEVELS OF SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR

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ABSTRACT
In this study, burnout and job satisfaction levels of teachers working in TRNC Special Education Schools were examined from an organizational behavior perspective. The study includes 136 special education teachers working in Special Education Schools affiliated to the TRNC Ministry of National Education. Maslach Burnout Scale, Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale and personal information form prepared by the researcher were used as data collection tools. The collected data were analyzed with SPSS 26 program. The study aims to provide a comprehensive evaluation to understand the burnout and job satisfaction levels of teachers.
Job satisfaction of special education teachers is generally at a positive level, with high levels of internal satisfaction and moderate levels of external satisfaction. When burnout is examined, emotional exhaustion and general exhaustion are at medium level, depersonalization is low, and personal accomplishment is at high level. Job satisfaction is effective in reducing the sub-dimensions of burnout, and internal satisfaction and general job satisfaction decrease especially burnout and increase personal accomplishment. Strong relationships were found between burnout sub-dimensions, depersonalization increased overall burnout and showed a negative relationship with personal accomplishment. In the regression analysis, personal accomplishment had the strongest positive effect on burnout, depersonalization also had a significant effect, while general exhaustion decreased burnout.
Key Words: Special Education, Teachers, Organizational Behavior, Job Satisfaction, Mental Burnout.

1. INTRODUCTION

Special education refers to the provision of educational services specifically designed for individuals through a systematic education process that takes into account their individual differences and special needs. This concept applies not only to individuals with mental disabilities, but also to individuals with a wide range of differences, such as those with learning disabilities, autism spectrum disorders, hearing or visual impairments. The main purpose of special education is to maximize the potential of these individuals, ensure their integration into social life, and develop their independent living skills. Special education has developed as a response to the educational needs of individuals. Special education programs, which are designed for individuals who cannot be integrated into the regular education system or who cannot benefit sufficiently from this system, offer appropriate learning environments and methods by taking into account the strengths and weaknesses of individuals. The education process is structured to support the cognitive, physical, social and emotional development of individuals. In this way, it is aimed to increase the self-confidence of individuals, reinforce their independence and ensure their active participation in social life (Park and Shin, 2020).

Job satisfaction is an emotional state based on individuals' experiences in work life and has a significant impact on employees' overall happiness, productivity, and commitment. The importance of job satisfaction manifests itself in various dimensions for both individuals and organizations (Richards et al., 2020). The power of the term burnout to capture the reality of people's experiences at work has made it both important and controversial in the field of research (Kazu and Yıldırım, 2021). As a colloquial term, burnout is more deeply rooted in people's complex relationships with work and has drawn new attention to some aspects of these relationships. However, burnout was initially derided as an unscientific "pop psychology". Unlike other research in the workplace, instead of a top-down approach derived from an academic theory, burnout research initially used a bottom-up or "grassroots" approach derived from people's workplace experiences. Initially, the popular, non-academic origins of burnout were seen as a disadvantage rather than an advantage. However, given the development of theoretical models and numerous empirical studies, the problem with scientific studies in the field of research has now been resolved (Maslach et al., 2001) . Another metaphorical meaning of burnout is that an individual can only experience burnout if they are highly committed to and enthusiastic about their work. In this context, commitment, enthusiasm and interest in work are considered as a necessary prerequisite for the emergence of burnout (Korunka et al., 2010).

Special education teachers work under an emotionally and physically tiring workload, and strive to adapt to the different learning needs and pace of each student. Working with students who have severe learning disabilities or behavioral problems can challenge teachers' patience and motivation. Teachers' ability to effectively perform their teaching tasks is directly related to their abilities and their belief in their ability to succeed. However, many problems that teachers face and have to deal with cause them to be dissatisfied with their jobs and to experience a

sense of burnout resulting from the stress of the job. Burnout is a condition that is seen especially in those working in occupational groups that require intense communication with people, and manifests itself as a feeling of exhaustion felt in the physiological and emotional areas as a result of not being able to cope with the stress experienced due to the nature of the job (Tuğrul and Çelik, 2002).

Special education teachers also communicate intensively with families, regularly sharing students' progress and receiving feedback. This process requires teachers to exhibit high emotional resilience and flexibility, as slower than expected progress in students' development can negatively affect teachers' motivation and job satisfaction. It is generally accepted that teachers experience more stress than the average stress experienced by people working in other professions. Because in education and training services, there are problems such as student-teacher, school-family conflicts, student discipline problems, overcrowded classrooms and inadequate physical conditions, excessive bureaucratic work, low wages, difficulties in promotion, criticism from society, lack of support from society, pressure from social and political forces on educational institutions, inadequate rewards and participation in the decision-making process in the institution (Çokluk, 2003). As the levels of job dissatisfaction and burnout experienced by special education teachers increase, the attention they show to students and the quality of the education they provide are negatively affected. In addition, the problems that arise as a result of burnout experienced by teachers do not only concern themselves, but also their students, the school, their parents and their immediate environment (Girgin and Baysal, 2005). As a result, the peace and happiness of students and teachers begin to deteriorate.

Teachers' attitudes have various effects on students' achievement. Teachers with a good attitude are more likely to implement classroom management strategies and appropriate teaching methods and adopt innovations in the classroom (Jadoon et al., 2022). Contributions to teachers, such as organizational support and administrative policies, student load and professional development opportunities, are important elements that will contribute to teachers' work-life balance, provide benefits in terms of job satisfaction and reduce burnout levels. In this context, understanding the reasons for job satisfaction and burnout in special education teachers working in special education schools in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) reveals the importance of looking at the organization from an organizational behavior perspective in order to contribute to the development of effective methods and policies to support these educators.

Special education teachers' job satisfaction and burnout levels are issues that need to be taken into consideration due to the difficulties of the profession and the working conditions. Special education teachers face an intense emotional and physical workload while constantly trying to provide support to students with different individual needs. In this process, factors such as inadequate resources, lack of support staff, and busy classroom environments can reduce job satisfaction and increase burnout symptoms. While job satisfaction increases when teachers develop positive perceptions of their own roles, elements such as institutional support, professional development opportunities, and a positive work environment can strengthen satisfaction levels. However, in the event of inadequacy of these factors, burnout symptoms such as emotional exhaustion, loss of professional motivation, and disinterest in work can occur in teachers. Achieving this balance between job satisfaction and burnout helps special education teachers both communicate effectively with students and serve in their professions longer and more efficiently.

In this context, the aim of the research is to examine the burnout and job satisfaction levels of teachers working in TRNC Special Education Schools from an organizational behavior perspective.

The sub-objectives of the research are as follows:

- Are there any significant differences among the participants when looking at their demographic characteristics?
- Is there a significant relationship between job satisfaction and burnout levels?
- Does job satisfaction significantly predict burnout levels?
- Is there a significant difference among the participants when looking at the effect of job satisfaction on burnout?

3. METHOD
3.1. Research Model
This study was conducted using the relational screening model, one of the quantitative research methods. The main purpose of the relational screening model is to examine the existing or thought to exist degrees of relationship between two or more variables, the simultaneous effects of variables on each other and their changes (Bekman, 2022). As a research approach, it aims to analyze how a situation that existed in the past or present occurred, which factors it is related to, and what kind of structure the relationships between these factors exhibit. In this model, the relationships of certain variables with each other, the levels of interaction between them, and their possible effects are investigated. This model, which is frequently used especially in the field of social sciences, provides a more comprehensive understanding of the situation by describing the connections between dependent and independent variables (Karasar, 2008).

3.2. Universe and Sample

The research universe consists of a total of 152 special education teachers working as principals, responsible or on duty in Special Education Schools affiliated to the TRNC Ministry of National Education, Primary Education Department. The participants in the research were determined by the quota sampling method. Quota sampling is a sampling method in which individuals with certain qualifications are selected in order to reflect certain characteristics in the research universe. In this method, samples are divided into certain groups according to the demographic or social characteristics of the universe (Dawson and Trapp, 2001). However, the samples are not selected randomly, but in accordance with the criteria determined by the researcher. Although it is not a probabilistic method, it can be preferred when there are time and resource limitations. In this way, a sample is created according to the characteristics expected to represent the research universe (Kılıç, 2013). In this context, 136 special education teachers working as principals, responsible or on duty in Special Education Schools affiliated to the TRNC Ministry of National Education were included in the study .

3.3. Data Collection Tools

In this research, the Maslach Burnout Scale, the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale and the personal information survey form prepared by the researcher will be used as data collection tools. The relevant scales and the survey form are presented in the Appendix.

The Maslach Burnout Inventory was developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981) and its Turkish adaptation was made by Ergin (1992). This self-assessment inventory was prepared to measure the burnout levels of individuals and consists of three subdimensions: emotional exhaustion (9 items), depersonalization (5 items) and personal accomplishment (8 items). The inventory, which consists of 22 items in total, is a 7-point Likert-type scale where each item can be marked from 1 to 7. The "Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Form" used in this study was adapted in to Turkish by Dr. Nuri Barış İnce and Prof. Dr. Ali E. Şahin in 2015 and was organized according to the 7-point rating system to measure the burnout levels of educators. The burnout subdimensions are defined as follows (İnce & Şahin, 2016) :

1. Emotional Exhaustion : This dimension refers to the individual's feelings of being exhausted and overburdened by his or her job or profession.
2. Desensitization : This sub-dimension describes an individual's unemotional attitude towards the people he serves, ignoring their uniqueness as individuals.
3. Personal Accomplishment : This dimension represents the individual's sense of competence and ability to cope with events when working with people.

Cronbach's Alpha coefficient, calculated separately for each sub-dimension, was found to be 0.88 for the emotional exhaustion dimension, 0.78 for the depersonalization dimension, and 0.74 for the personal accomplishment dimension (Ince & Şahin, 2016).

The Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale was developed by David J. Weiss and his colleagues in 1967. The scale consists of two sub-dimensions, "intrinsic satisfaction" and "extrinsic satisfaction," and a total of 20 items to measure job satisfaction. High scores obtained from the scale indicate that the individual has a high level of job satisfaction, while low scores indicate that the level of satisfaction is low (Baycan, 1985) . The "Turkish Form of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale" used in this study was adapted in to Turkish by Aslı Baycan Binark in 1985, after translation, validity, and reliability studies were conducted. Within the scope of reliability studies conducted in Turkey, Baycan (1985) reported the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient for the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale as .77.

3.4 Data Collection Process

The necessary documents were prepared and applied to the Ethics Committee of the Mediterranean Karpasia University, Institute of Social Sciences, and the research process was started after the Ethics Committee Approval dated 14.10.2024 was received.

The research was conducted in special education schools affiliated with the Ministry of National Education of the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. In order to conduct the research and data collection process in these schools, a written application was made to the Ministry of National Education of the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, Department of Education and Training, and the necessary permissions were obtained for the survey and scale forms used, and then the data collection process was initiated.

All special education schools, school administrators, responsible teachers and teachers in the districts of Lefkoşa, Girne, Güzelyurt, Gazimağusa and İskele, affiliated to the TRNC MEB Primary Education Department Directorate, where the research was conducted, were contacted and informed about the research and its importance. After informing them that the information received would be confidential, the survey and scale forms prepared by the researcher were applied to the volunteer participants. The data of the research were collected using both face-to-face and e-mail survey techniques.

The validity and reliability of the scales used in the research are important factors that ensure that the research yields healthy results. Therefore, it is useful to understand how its reliability and validity are measured correctly by researchers. (Sürücü and Maslakçı, 2020).

According to Büyüköztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz, and Demirel (2012); while reliability in quantitative research can be expressed as the stability of a measurement tool in repeated measurements in similar environments, the concept of validity in quantitative studies means that the measurement tools used in measurement accurately measure the desired feature.

Determining the validity and reliability studies of the research: Although they are addressed under the title of data analysis in studies, presenting the validity and reliability studies under a separate title will increase the credibility of the research. In this section, all procedures related to validity and reliability should be explained in detail (Golafshani, 2003; Melchers & Beck, 2018). In the studies conducted on the validity and reliability of the questionnaires and scales used as data collection tools in this research;

"Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator Form" was adapted into Turkish by Dr. Nuri Barış İnce and Prof. Dr. Ali E. Şahin in 2015. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient calculated separately for each sub-dimension was found to be 0.88 for the emotional exhaustion dimension, 0.78 for the depersonalization dimension, and 0.74 for the personal accomplishment dimension (İnce & Şahin, 2016).

"The Turkish Form of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale" was adapted into Turkish by Aslı Baycan Binark in 1985, after conducting translation, validity, and reliability studies. Within the scope of reliability studies conducted in Turkey, Baycan (1985) reported the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient for the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale as .77.

According to the results of the reliability analysis, Cronbach's Alpha values and item numbers of the two scales used in the study are indicated. The Cronbach's Alpha value of the Maslach Burnout Inventory is 0.774 and consists of a total of 22 items. This value shows that the scale has an acceptable internal consistency. The Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale consists of 20 items and its Cronbach's Alpha value was calculated as 0.892. This value indicates that the scale has a very high reliability. Both scales are at a sufficient level in terms of reliability and can be used appropriately for research purposes.

Within the scope of the research, the schools affiliated to the TRNC Ministry of National Education Primary Education Department Directorate where data collection work was carried out are; "Nicosia Special Education and Vocational Training School" and "Rauf Raif Denktaş School for the Visually Impaired" in Lefkoşa, "Gazimağusa Special Education and Vocational Training School" in Gazimağusa, "Girne Special Education and Vocational Training School" in Kyrenia, "Ötüken Special Education and Vocational Training School" and "Ziyamet (Halil Falyalı) Special Education and Vocational Training School" in İskele, and "Yeşilyurt Special Education and Vocational Training School" in Lefke. The TRNC Special Education Foundation (ÖZEV Special Education School), which provides education approved by the TRNC Ministry of National Education and is located in Lefkoşa, was also included in the research.

3.5. Analysis of Data

In the study, the data were analyzed using the SPSS 26 program. In the first step, normality analysis was applied to examine the distribution properties of the data. In this analysis, it was evaluated whether the data showed normal distribution, and if it was aimed to select appropriate statistical tests accordingly. In the normality analysis, Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were used and the data's compliance with normal distribution was analyzed. Histogram, skewness and kurtosis values were examined, and QQ plots were reviewed. Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale For the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test p-value was calculated as 0.099 and the Shapiro-Wilk test p-value was 0.512. Since both p-values are greater than 0.05, it can be said that this scale is suitable for a normal distribution. The skewness value is 0.118 and the kurtosis value is 0.106. These values stay within the limits of -1.5 and +1.5 suggested by Tabachnick, showing that the distribution can be considered normal. For the Maslach Burnout Inventory , the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test p-value was found as 0.012 and the Shapiro-Wilk test p-value was found as 0.000. Since the p-values of both tests are less than 0.05, it is stated that this scale is not suitable for a normal distribution. However, the skewness value is 0.058 and the kurtosis value is 1.023. Since the skewness and kurtosis values are within the limits of -1.5 and +1.5, it can be said that this distribution is acceptable in terms of skewness and kurtosis (Groeneveld and Meeden, 1984).

4. FINDINGS
Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

		n	%
Gender	Male	49	36.0
	Female	87	64.0
Age	20-29 Years Old	44	32.4
	30-39 Years Old	62	45.6
	40-49 Years Old	27	19.9
	50 and above	3	2.2
Educational Status	Licence	93	68.4
	Masters/Doctorate	43	31.6
Marital status	Married	64	47.1
	Single	72	52.9
Title	Special Education Teacher	102	75.0
	Guidance Counselor	9	6.6
	Administrator/School Administrators	8	5.9
	Craft Design and Technology Teacher	4	2.9
	Other	13	9.6
Working stage	Primary school	50	36.8
	Primary School, Secondary School	55	40.4
	Kindergarten, Primary School, Secondary School	11	8.1
	Primary School, Middle School, High School	20	14.7
Professional seniority	Less than 1 Year	4	2.9
	1-5 years	54	39.7
	6-10 years	40	29.4
	11-14 Years	16	11.8
	15 Years and Above	22	16.2
Length of service in current institution	Less than 1 Year	28	20.6
	1-5 years	82	60.3
	6-10 years	18	13.2
	11-14 Years	4	2.9
	15 Years and Above	4	2.9
	Total	136	100.0

Participants were distributed as 64% female (87 people), 36% male (49 people). In terms of age groups, the highest participation rate came from the age group 30-39 with 45.6%, followed by the age group 20-29 with 22.8%. The rate of participants in the age group 40-49 was 29.6%, and the rate of the age group 50 and over was 2.1%. When the educational background of the participants was examined, 68.4% had a bachelor's degree (93 people), and 31.6% had a master's or doctorate degree (43 people). When examined in terms of marital status, 52.9% were reported as single (72 people) and 47.1% were reported as married (64 people). In terms of their professional positions, the majority of the participants (75.0%) worked as special education teachers (102 people). In addition, counsellors are 12.5% (17 people), administrator /school administrators are 5.9% (8 people), and craft design and technology teachers are 2.9% (4 people). There are 5 people in the other category with a rate of 3.7%. In terms of the education tiers they work at, 40.4% of the participants work in primary and secondary schools, and 40.4% work in kindergartens, primary schools, and secondary schools. In addition, 14.8% of the participants work at primary, secondary, and high school tiers. In terms of professional seniority, 39.7% of the participants have 1-5 years of experience, 29.4% have 6-10 years, 11.8% have 11-14 years, and 11.8% have 15 years or more of

experience. According to their working time in the current institution, 35.3% have been working for less than 1 year, 29.4% for 1-5 years, 26.5% for 6-10 years and 8.8% for 15 years and over.

Table 2. Participants' Job Satisfaction and Burnout Levels

	Min.	Max.	Avg.	P.S.
Inner satisfaction	1.92	5.00	3.9301	0.47976
External satisfaction	1.63	5.00	3,2059	0.77855
Overall job satisfaction	2.08	5.00	3,5680	0.56294
Emotional exhaustion	0.00	5.11	2,1969	1.22763
Desensitization	0.00	3.20	0.5250	0.67853
Personal success	1.25	6.00	4,8787	0.83707
General exhaustion	1.26	4.31	2.5335	0.46435

In the evaluations made regarding the participants' job satisfaction and burnout levels, it is seen that internal satisfaction levels are high (Mean = 3.9301, SD = 0.47976). External satisfaction levels are at a moderate level (Mean = 3.2059, SD = 0.77855). The general job satisfaction average is 3.5680 (SD = 0.56294), showing that the participants have a generally positive job satisfaction level. When the burnout dimensions are examined, the emotional exhaustion average score is at moderate levels with 2.1969 (SD = 1.22763), while the depersonalization dimension has a very low average score (Mean = 0.5250, SD = 0.67853). The personal accomplishment level has a high average (Mean = 4.8787, SD = 0.83707). The general burnout level is at medium levels with a mean of 2.5335 (SD = 0.46435). These findings reveal that the participants have a generally positive status in terms of job satisfaction, their burnout levels vary according to sub-dimensions, but their personal success levels are high.

Table 3. Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and Burnout (Correlation Analysis)

		Inner satisfaction	External satisfaction	Overall job satisfaction	Emotional exhaustion	Desensitization	Personal Success	General exhaustion
Inner satisfaction	r	1	,577 **	,825 **	-,570 **	-,277 **	,588 **	-,284 **
	p.		0,000	0,000	0,000	0.001	0,000	0.001
External satisfaction	r		1	,938 **	-,579 **	-0.093	,472 **	-,272 **
	p.			0,000	0,000	0.280	0,000	0.001
Overall job satisfaction	r			1	-,643 **	-,182 *	,577 **	-,309 **
	p.				0,000	0.034	0,000	0,000
Emotional exhaustion	r				1	,446 **	-,472 **	,815 **
	p.					0,000	0,000	0,000
Desensitization	r					1	-,440 **	,616 **
	p.						0,000	0,000
Personal Success	r						1	-0.030
	p.							0.732
General exhaustion	r							1
	p.							

According to the correlation analysis between job satisfaction and burnout sub-dimensions, job satisfaction has a significant effect on burnout. While intrinsic satisfaction shows a positive relationship with extrinsic satisfaction (r = 0.577, p = 0.000) and general job satisfaction (r = 0.825, p = 0.000), it shows a significant and negative relationship with emotional exhaustion (r = -0.284, p = 0.001), depersonalization (r = -0.277, p = 0.001) and general exhaustion (r = -0.284, p = 0.001). There is a strong positive relationship between personal accomplishment and intrinsic satisfaction (r = 0.588, p = 0.000). These results show that as the level of intrinsic satisfaction increases, the level of burnout decreases and personal accomplishment increases.

External satisfaction was positively correlated with general job satisfaction (r = 0.938, p = 0.000). However, there was a weakly negative correlation with emotional exhaustion (r = -0.093, p = 0.280) and depersonalization (r = -

0.182, p = 0.030) and had a significant and positive correlation with personal accomplishment (r = 0.472, p = 0.000). There was a weak negative correlation between general exhaustion and external satisfaction (r = -0.272, p = 0.001).

General job satisfaction has a significant and negative relationship with emotional exhaustion (r = -0.643, p = 0.000), depersonalization (r = -0.182, p = 0.030) and general exhaustion (r = -0.309, p = 0.000). There is a positive relationship between personal accomplishment and general job satisfaction (r = 0.577, p = 0.000). These findings show that general job satisfaction plays an effective role in reducing burnout. Strong positive relationships are noted among the burnout subdimensions. Especially, significant relationships were observed between emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (r = 0.446, p = 0.000) and general exhaustion (r = 0.815, p = 0.000). In addition, depersonalization was found to have a positive relationship with general exhaustion (r = 0.732, p = 0.000) and a negative relationship with personal accomplishment (r = -0.203, p = 0.003).

Job satisfaction, especially internal satisfaction and general job satisfaction, has a significant effect on reducing the sub-dimensions of burnout. As job satisfaction increases, there is a decrease in emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and general exhaustion levels, while there is an increase in personal accomplishment levels. These results show that job satisfaction has a protective effect on burnout and can increase individuals' general job and life satisfaction.

Table 4. Effect of Job Satisfaction on Burnout (Regression Analysis)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p.
Still	2,621	0.267		9,831	0,000
Desensitization	0.463	0.072	0.558	6,408	0,000
Personal Success	0.540	0.046	0.804	11,700	0,000
General exhaustion	-0.763	0.095	-0.629	-8,036	0,000
	F	p.	R	R Square	
	55,109	,000 [b]	,746 [a]	0.556	

According to the regression analysis results, the effect of job satisfaction on burnout was examined. The R² value representing the explanatory power of the model was calculated as **0.556** . This shows that the independent variables (depersonalization, personal accomplishment and general exhaustion) explained 55.6% of the total variance in burnout. The regression model was generally significant (**F = 55.109, p = 0.000**).

Independent Variables of the Model
1. Desensitization has a positive and significant effect on burnout (B = 0.463, Beta = 0.558, p = 0.000). This shows that when desensitization increases by one unit, burnout will increase by 0.463 units.
2. Personal accomplishment has the strongest positive effect on burnout (B = 0.540, Beta = 0.804, p = 0.000). This shows that as the level of personal accomplishment increases, burnout will also increase.
3. General exhaustion has a negative and significant effect on burnout (B = -0.763, Beta = -0.629, p = 0.000). This means that when general exhaustion increases by one unit, burnout will decrease by 0.763 units.

The constant coefficient (B = 2.621, p = 0.000) is significant. It represents the initial value of the burnout level when the independent variables are zero.

According to the regression analysis results, depersonalization and personal accomplishment have a positive effect on burnout. In particular, personal accomplishment has the strongest effect on burnout. On the other hand, general burnout has a negative effect on burnout. The fact that the model has a strong explanatory power in general indicates that burnout is significantly affected by job satisfaction dimensions. These results emphasize the importance of strategies that will reduce depersonalization and support personal accomplishment in order to reduce burnout and increase employees' general job satisfaction.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
In the job satisfaction evaluations of special education teachers, it is seen that internal satisfaction levels are high, while external satisfaction remains at medium levels. There is a generally positive job satisfaction level. When burnout is examined, emotional exhaustion and general exhaustion are at medium levels, depersonalization is at low levels, and personal accomplishment is at high levels. These findings reveal that special education teachers' job satisfaction is positive, while burnout levels vary in terms of sub-dimensions.

Significant relationships were found between job satisfaction and burnout. Internal satisfaction and general job satisfaction have a reducing effect on burnout sub-dimensions. In addition, increasing internal satisfaction levels decrease burnout levels and increase personal success. Although external satisfaction has a weaker effect on

burnout, it is positively related to general job satisfaction and personal success. Strong relationships were found between burnout sub-dimensions. While emotional exhaustion and desensitization increase general exhaustion, desensitization has a negative relationship with personal success.

According to the regression analysis results, depersonalization and personal accomplishment have a positive effect on burnout, while general burnout has a negative effect. While personal accomplishment has the strongest effect on burnout, it has been determined that depersonalization also has a significant effect. General burnout stands out as a factor that reduces burnout levels. The fact that the model has a strong explanatory power in general indicates that it is significant that burnout is affected by job satisfaction elements. These results emphasize the importance of implementing strategies that reduce depersonalization and support personal accomplishment in order to reduce burnout levels and increase job satisfaction of special education teachers.

In order to increase the job satisfaction of special education teachers, strategies that support internal and external satisfaction levels should be developed. In order to increase the level of internal satisfaction, teachers can be provided with professional development opportunities, reward systems and meaningful feedback mechanisms. In order to strengthen external satisfaction, salaries, fringe benefits and working conditions should be improved. In addition, it is recommended that continuing education programs, activities where teachers' achievements are made visible and guidance services be provided to support professional success.

In order to reduce burnout and prevent desensitization, balancing workload and implementing stress management programs are important. Support staff can be employed and working hours can be arranged to lighten teachers' workload. In addition, teachers' burnout levels can be reduced with psychological support, guidance and conscious awareness programs such as mindfulness. It would also be beneficial to organize social events and sharing meetings within the institution to strengthen cooperation and social ties.

A positive work environment and strong management support should be provided to increase organizational commitment. Management should conduct regular surveys and interviews to understand teachers' needs and include teachers in decision-making processes. Solidarity among teachers can be increased with empathy-enhancing awareness training and mentor-mentee programs. These approaches will contribute to balancing job satisfaction and burnout levels of special education teachers.

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EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL CYNICISM OF PRIVATE SECTOR EMPLOYEES IN NORTHERN CYPRUS

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between organizational cynicism and organizational commitment levels of private sector employees in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). The research was designed as a quantitative study and conducted with the relational survey method. The population of the study consisted of private sector employees residing in TRNC, and the sample group was determined by simple random sampling method. The sample group consisting of 386 participants selected by this method ensured the representativeness of the research. Within the scope of the research, two different scales were used to measure the organizational cynicism and organizational commitment levels of white-collar employees working in the sports sector. Data analysis was carried out using SPSS Statistics 22.0 program (IBM, 2022).
As a result of the analyses, while there was no significant difference between organizational cynicism and its sub-dimensions in terms of marital status, it was determined that the cognitive cynicism levels of married participants were higher than single participants. According to professional experience, especially the cynicism levels of employees with 6-10 years of experience are significantly different from the other groups. In the analysis according to the length of service, significant differences were found between certain groups in cognitive cynicism and emotional commitment dimensions. Correlation analyses revealed that cynicism and commitment dimensions showed positive relationships among themselves, but there was no significant relationship between cynicism and commitment. According to regression analysis, organizational cynicism had no significant effect on organizational commitment.
Key Words: Cynicism, Organizational Cynicism, Commitment, Organizational Commitment.

1. INTRODUCTION
1.1. Problem Status
Organizational cynicism is an attitude shaped by employees' negative feelings, thoughts and behaviors towards the organization (Kalağan and Güzeller, 2010). This concept usually stems from distrust towards the organization's values, policies and leadership style. As a result of injustices, lack of communication, inconsistent practices or unethical behaviors within the organization, employees may perceive the organization as insincere and prioritize their personal interests (Aslan and Terzi, 2023). Over time, this perception leads employees to lose faith in the organization's goals and processes. Organizational cynicism is generally addressed in three dimensions: cognitive dimension (negative thoughts towards the organization), emotional dimension (feelings such as anger and disappointment towards the organization) and behavioral dimension (criticizing the organization, passive resistance or alienation from work). This attitude negatively affects employees' job satisfaction, motivation and organizational commitment, while also endangering the organization's efficiency and long-term success (Balay et al., 2013).

Organizational commitment refers to the level of emotional, cognitive and behavioral commitment of employees to the organization they work for. This concept is associated with the employee's identification with the organization, adoption of the organization's values, and desire to contribute to the organization's achievement of its goals (Tamer & Bük, 2020). Organizational commitment is generally addressed in three dimensions: emotional commitment (feeling of love and belonging to the organization), continuance commitment (commitment sustained due to the material and moral benefits of staying in the organization), and normative commitment (seeing staying in the organization as a responsibility or moral obligation). A high level of organizational commitment increases employees' job satisfaction, reduces absenteeism and turnover rates, and positively affects the overall performance of the organization (Boz et al., 2021).

There is generally an inverse relationship between organizational cynicism and organizational commitment. As employees' distrust of the organization, perception of injustice, and insincerity increase, organizational cynicism increases, which negatively affects organizational commitment. The feeling of cynicism reduces employees' emotional attachment to the organization, their desire to contribute to the organization's goals, and their sense of responsibility (Aslan & Terzi, 2023). In particular, emotional commitment is the dimension most affected by organizational cynicism, reducing employees' level of identification with the organization. However, continuance and normative commitment dimensions may also weaken under the influence of cynicism, because employees may see staying in the organization as an obligation or habit, but their motivation and job satisfaction may decrease.

Therefore, reducing organizational cynicism is critical to strengthening employees' commitment and supporting the organization's sustainable success (Yücel & Çetinkaya, 2015).

1.2. Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between organizational cynicism and organizational commitment levels of private sector employees. In the research, the effects of cognitive, affective and behavioral dimensions of organizational cynicism on the emotional, continuation and normative sub-dimensions of organizational commitment were evaluated. The relationships between the demographic characteristics of the employees (gender, age, marital status, education, professional experience, position in the sector and working hours) and these two concepts were discussed.

1.3. Importance of the Research

Organizational cynicism and commitment are critical concepts that directly affect employee motivation, workforce productivity, and organizational success. High levels of organizational cynicism can negatively affect employee commitment and threaten the performance and sustainability of businesses. In this context, the research aims to both understand the emotions and behaviors of employees and contribute to the development of organizational strategies. With its focus on private sector employees in the TRNC, it will fill an important gap by providing a new perspective to the limited literature. The results are thought to be a valuable guide for human resources management and organizational practices .

1.4. Hypotheses

H1: There is no significant relationship between the marital status of the participants and organizational cynicism and its sub-dimensions.
H2: There is a significant relationship between the professional experience of the participants and organizational cynicism and its sub-dimensions.
H3: There is a significant relationship between the participants' working duration and organizational cynicism and its sub-dimensions.
H4: There is a significant relationship between the participants' working duration and organizational commitment and its sub-dimensions.
H5: There is a positive relationship between organizational cynicism dimensions.
H6: There is a positive relationship between organizational commitment dimensions.
H7: There is no significant relationship between organizational cynicism dimensions and organizational commitment dimensions.
H8: Organizational cynicism has no effect on organizational commitment.

1.5. Definitions

Organizational Cynicism: Negative attitudes and beliefs of employees towards their organizations. This concept consists of cognitive, emotional and behavioral dimensions (Balay et al., 2013) .
Organizational Commitment: It is the level of commitment and identification that employees feel towards the organization they work for. This commitment is addressed through emotional, continuance and normative commitment dimensions (Yücel and Çetinkaya, 2015) .
Emotional Cynicism: Negative emotions and prejudices that employees feel towards their organizations (Treadway et al., 2015) .
Cognitive Cynicism: Negative beliefs and thoughts of employees towards their organizations (Brockner, 2002).
Behavioral Cynicism: The way employees put their negative attitudes towards the organization into action (e.g. sarcastic behavior, passive resistance) (Abraham, 2000).
Emotional Commitment: Employees' emotional attachment to the organization and feeling that they are a part of the organization (Tamer & Bük, 2020) .
Continuance Commitment: The level of commitment that emerges as a result of employees' evaluation of the cost of leaving their organization (Meyer and Allen, 1997) .
Normative Commitment: It is the moral responsibility and commitment that employees feel towards their organizations (Boz et al., 2021) .

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
2.1. Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is a concept that describes the psychological attachment and loyalty an employee feels toward an organization. It is a reflection of the internal bond employees feel toward the organization's goals, values, and culture. Organizational commitment is not only about an employee's love of their job, but also their commitment to their job, workplace relationships, and alignment with organizational values. An employee's level of organizational commitment can affect their sense of belonging to the organization, their performance at work,

and their overall motivation. High organizational commitment enables employees to work with greater motivation, contribute voluntarily to their jobs, and reduce turnover rates (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Organizational commitment is usually examined in three main dimensions: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Affective commitment is the emotional bond that an employee feels towards his/her organization. The employee feels a deep connection to the organization's goals, values, and culture. Affective commitment is directly related to job satisfaction and positive experiences at work. An emotionally committed employee approaches his/her job with high motivation and voluntarily contributes to the organization's success. Continuance commitment is the employee's decision to stay with the organization, usually in order to prevent economic and personal losses. This type of commitment occurs when the employee's departure from the organization is costly or when other alternative job opportunities are limited. Continuance commitment can make organizational loyalty feel like an obligation. Normative commitment is related to employees' sense of ethical and moral responsibility towards their organization. This dimension develops with the employee's sense of gratitude and responsibility towards the organization and is usually linked to the resources and support provided by the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Organizational commitment is of great importance for organizations. Employees with high levels of commitment increase their performance at work, show less absenteeism at work, and have lower turnover rates. Organizational commitment allows employees to focus on the long-term goals and vision of the organization. When employees work in harmony with the values of the organization, they can achieve more effective and productive results (Porter et al., 1974).

The concept of organizational commitment was first defined by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979). In this definition, organizational commitment includes individuals' loyalty to the organization, their identification with the organization, and their commitment to organizational goals. Allen and Meyer (1990) discussed the concept of organizational commitment in three different dimensions: affective commitment, continuing commitment, and normative commitment. While affective commitment refers to individuals' emotional ties to the organization, continuing commitment stems from individuals' perceptions of the cost of leaving the organization. Normative commitment is a type of commitment in which employees consider staying in the organization as a social and ethical obligation. Many studies conducted on these theoretical foundations have shown that organizational commitment leads to important business outcomes. Organizational commitment can increase job performance, increase employee satisfaction, and reduce rates of leaving the organization. Allen and Meyer (1990) developed a comprehensive model on organizational commitment. In this model, organizational commitment consists of three different components: affective commitment, continuing commitment, and normative commitment. According to their studies, affective commitment is associated with stronger job satisfaction and job performance, while continual commitment is associated with greater rates of leaving the organization.

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), in their study on organizational commitment, examined how commitment plays a role in organizational change processes. This study examined how employees respond to changes in their organizations and how their commitment affects these processes. The findings of the study revealed that emotional commitment has a significant effect on employees' adaptation to changes in change processes.

Solinger, van Olffen, and Roe (2008) investigated the effects of organizational commitment on workplace behaviors. In this study, it was emphasized that organizational commitment levels are an important factor in increasing employees' participation in their jobs and job satisfaction. It was stated that organizational commitment reduces employees' intentions to leave the organization and increases cooperation within the organization. The results of the study show that organizational commitment has a strong effect on workplace behaviors and that organizations should develop various strategies to increase employee commitment. Riketta (2008) conducted a meta-analysis study examining the effect of organizational commitment on employees' job performance. The study shows that emotional commitment has a positive effect on employees' job performance. It was found that there is a negative relationship between emotional commitment and turnover rates, and as the level of organizational commitment increases, employees' loyalty to their organizations also strengthens. Kuvaas and Buch (2016) examined the relationship between organizational commitment and employee motivation. The study found that employees' emotional commitment to the organization is a factor that increases their job motivation. It has been observed that employees' commitment to the organization contributes to their higher job performance and their staying in the organization for longer periods of time.

2.2. Organizational Cynicism

Organizational cynicism is a concept that refers to the negative, sarcastic, and skeptical attitudes of individuals and groups toward the organizational environment. This concept is closely related to the dissatisfaction and distrust that employees feel toward managers, organizational policies, and work processes. The level of cynicism employees have toward the organization can affect the general atmosphere of the organization, work efficiency, and employee commitment. Organizational cynicism can generally result from organizational injustice, leadership errors, inadequate communication, and organizational change processes. In an environment where cynicism is high, employees negatively shape their expectations from management and other coworkers, and can weaken cooperation and communication within the organization (Dean et al., 1998). Organizational cynicism means that

employees have negative feelings toward the institution and management they work for, exhibit skeptical attitudes, and express these feelings both verbally and behaviorally (Dean et al., 1998). This concept is increasingly gaining interest in the organizational behavior literature. Particularly global competition, change management and the decrease in the commitment of employees to the organization make the causes and results of organizational cynicism important. According to the definition made by Dean, Brandes and Dharwadkar (1998), organizational cynicism is a negative general attitude of an individual towards his/her organization. This attitude consists of three components: cognitive, emotional and behavioral components. While the cognitive component includes negative beliefs towards the organization, the emotional component includes negative emotional reactions. The behavioral component refers to the reflection of these negative attitudes on behaviors (Abraham, 2000).

Many factors can be effective in the emergence of organizational cynicism. Among these, organizational injustice, poor leadership practices, and low organizational support are prominent. When organizations feel that their employees are evaluated fairly and are provided with equal opportunities, they contribute to the prevention of cynicism. Negative factors such as unfair practices and discrimination undermine employees' sense of trust and can increase the level of cynicism. Poor management and leadership styles can be counted among the factors that undermine employees' trust in the organization and create cynicism. Employees' perception of their managers' decisions and behaviors as manipulative or self-interested can feed organizational cynicism (Scott and Judge, 2009). There are various reasons that lead to the formation of organizational cynicism. These include factors such as the perception of injustice, lack of leadership, communication problems, workload, and job security concerns (James, 2005). In particular, the perception of injustice undermines employees' trust in their organizations and leads to cynicism. The decrease in employees' trust in managers and the institution causes these negative feelings to increase (Andersson & Bateman, 1997).

Organizational cynicism has many negative effects on individuals and organizations. At the individual level, organizational cynicism reduces employees' job satisfaction and motivation, and increases feelings of burnout (Chiaburu, Peng, Oh, Banks, & Lomeli, 2013). At the organizational level, it increases employee turnover, decreases productivity, and reduces organizational commitment (Reichers, Wanous, & Austin, 1997). Reducing organizational cynicism is possible by creating a positive work environment in organizations. Effective leadership, open and honest communication, fair management practices, and employee participation in decision-making processes play an important role in reducing cynicism (Gouldner, 1960).

Responding to employees' emotional needs and appreciating them are effective strategies to prevent cynicism (Wilkerson, Evans, & Davis, 2008). Organizational cynicism is not only dependent on individual and organizational factors, but is also affected by cultural and social dimensions. In particular, social norms can shape employees' attitudes and behaviors at work. In some societies, a skeptical and critical attitude is more widely accepted at work, while in other societies such behaviors are not welcomed (Erdogan, Liden, & Kraimer, 2006). Cultural differences are an important factor in understanding the causes and consequences of organizational cynicism.

Today, digitalization has greatly changed the communication and management processes in organizations. It has also had an impact on organizational cynicism. In particular, the widespread use of digital communication tools allows employees to express their complaints more easily and quickly (Tarafdar, Cooper, & Stich, 2019). It is also stated that digitalization can increase the sense of distance and alienation among employees and foster organizational cynicism. Organizational cynicism has significant effects on organizational performance. Cynicism can negatively affect employee motivation because cynicism is often associated with alienation from the organization. This can weaken employees' commitment to their duties and their attitudes toward their jobs. Employees often ignore the values and goals within the organization, causing them to be less productive in their work processes. Organizational cynicism can also lead to conflicts and lack of cooperation among employees. An organization with a high level of cynicism may have difficulty creating a healthy communication and teamwork environment (Treadway et al., 2015).

Managing organizational cynicism is a process that requires a careful approach from leaders and managers. In order to prevent and reduce cynicism, it is important for organizations to develop transparency, fair management, and effective communication strategies. When employees are provided with fair evaluation processes and equal opportunities, they trust their organizations more. Sincere and open communication by leaders can reinforce employees' sense of trust. Another important element in managing organizational cynicism is to respect employees' psychological needs and support their personal development. When employees feel valued, they can more easily overcome their feelings of organizational cynicism (Brockner, 2002).

3. METHOD OF THE RESEARCH
3.1. Research Model
This research was designed as a quantitative study and was conducted using the relational screening method. The relational screening method is a research design that aims to examine the level and direction of the relationship between variables. In this context, data were collected systematically and possible relationships between variables were evaluated with statistical analyzes (Karasar, 2012).

In line with the main purpose of the research, the relationships between organizational cynicism, perception of justice and organizational commitment were examined in detail using data obtained from private sector employees residing in the TRNC. This method used allowed for a comprehensive analysis of the connections between the variables and increased the scientific accuracy and reliability of the research. In this way, the results obtained provided significant contributions in both theoretical and practical contexts.

3.2. Universe and Sample

The universe of this study consisted of private sector employees residing in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Simple random sampling method was used to determine the sample group of the study. This method aimed to increase the representativeness of the study by ensuring that each individual in the universe has an equal chance of being included in the sample (Kılıç, 2013) .

Within the scope of the research, a sample group of 386 people selected with the specified method was created. This sample size provides sufficient data for statistical analyses and allows for generalizable results. In the selection of the sample group, priority was given to achieving comprehensive results that are appropriate to the objectives of the study. The data obtained made significant contributions to understanding the organizational cynicism, perception of justice and organizational commitment levels of TRNC private sector employees.

3.3. Data Collection Tools

In this study, two different scales were used to measure the organizational cynicism and organizational commitment levels of white-collar employees in the sports sector:

Organizational Cynicism Scale (OCS)

The Organizational Cynicism Scale was developed by Brandes, Dhalwadkar, and Dean (1999) and adapted to Turkish by Kalağan (2009). The scale consists of a total of 13 items consisting of three sub-dimensions: cognitive (5 items), affective (4 items), and behavioral (4 items). The measurement was made with a 5-point Likert-type rating system, and the responses ranged from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (5). The total score range that can be obtained from the scale is 13-65. In this study, the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was calculated as $\alpha=0.95$, and it was determined that the scale had high reliability.

Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS)

The Organizational Commitment Scale was developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) and adapted to Turkish by Dağlı et al. (2018). The scale contains a total of 18 items consisting of three sub-dimensions:

- Emotional Attachment (6 items)
- Continuity Commitment (6 items)
- Normative Commitment (6 items)

The scale used a 5-point Likert-type rating and responses ranged from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (5). The total score that can be obtained from the scale varies between 18-90, while the score range for each sub-dimension is 6-30. In the study, the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was determined as $\alpha=0.93$ and it was determined that the reliability of the scale was quite high.

According to the reliability analysis results, Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficients of the scales used in the study were determined as follows: Cronbach's Alpha value for Organizational Cynicism Scale (OCS) was calculated as 0.804. This value shows that the scale has a high reliability. The scale consists of a total of 13 items. Cronbach's Alpha value for Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) was found as 0.722. This value indicates that the scale has an acceptable reliability. Organizational Commitment Scale contains a total of 18 items. Both scales were evaluated as reliable tools in measuring the variables used in the study.

3.4. Analysis of Data

The research data were analyzed using the SPSS Statistics 22.0 (IBM, 2022) program. First of all, the conformity of the data to normal distribution was examined and the skewness and kurtosis values were evaluated accordingly. In this study, nonparametric tests were preferred because it was determined that the data did not conform to normal distribution. Mann-Whitney U Test was applied to examine the differences between two independent groups. This test was used, for example, to compare the organizational commitment levels of men and women. Kruskal-Wallis H Test was used to evaluate the differences between three or more independent groups. With this test, for example, the differences between the organizational cynicism levels of age groups were examined. Spearman's Rho Correlation Analysis was applied to determine the relationships between the variables. With this analysis, the direction and strength of the relationship between organizational cynicism and organizational commitment were evaluated.

4. FINDINGS

Tablo 1. Demographic Characteristics

		n	%
Gender	Male	209	54.1
	Woman	177	45.9
Age	18-25 years old	49	12.7
	26-35 years old	77	19.9
	36-45 years old	95	24.6
	46-55 years old	88	22.8
	56 and above	77	19.9
Marital status	Married	215	55.7
	Single	171	44.3
Education Status	Primary/Secondary Education	35	9.1
	High school	88	22.8
	Associate Degree	81	21.0
	Licence	114	29.5
	Master's Degree and above	68	17.6
Professional experience	Less than 1 year	38	9.8
	1-5 years	71	18.4
	6-10 years	103	26.7
	11-15 years	91	23.6
	16 years and above	83	21.5
	Less than 1 year	59	15.3
	1-3 years	68	17.6
	4-6 years	86	22.3
	7-10 years	80	20.7
Working hours	11 years and above	93	24.1
	Total	386	100.0

In terms of gender distribution, 54.1% (n=209) of the participants were male and 45.9% (n=177) were female. Looking at the age groups, 12.7% (n=49) of the participants were 18-25 years old, 19.9% (n=77) were 26-35 years old, 24.6% (n=95) were 36-45 years old, 22.8% (n=88) were 46-55 years old and 20% (n=77) were 56 years old and over. In terms of marital status, 44.3% (n=171) of the participants were single and 55.7% (n=215) were married. In terms of education status, 9.1% (n=35) were primary/secondary school graduates, 21.0% (n=81) were high school graduates, 51.3% (n=198) were bachelor's graduates, and 17.6% (n=68) had a master's degree or higher. When their professional experience was evaluated, 15.3% (n=59) had less than 1 year, 25.4% (n=98) 1-5 years, 20.7% (n=80) 6-10 years, 13.7% (n=53) 11-15 years, and 24.9% (n=96) 16 years or more of experience. In terms of working duration, 15.3% (n=59) had less than 1 year, 20.7% (n=80) had 1-3 years, 27.2% (n=105) had 4-10 years, and 36.8% (n=142) had 11 years or more.

Tablo 2. Mann-Whitney U Test Results on Organizational Cynicism and Its Sub-Dimensions According to Participants' Marital Status

		n	Average Ranking	Total Rankings	Mann Whitney University	Z	p.
Affective Cynicism	Married	215	198.63	42705.50	17279,500	-1,026	0.305
	Single	171	187.05	31985.50			
	Married	215	202.82	43607.00	16378,000	-1,864	**0.032**

Cognitive Cynicism	Single	171	181.78	31084.00			
Behavioral Cynicism	Married	215	196.50	42246.50	17738,500	-0.595	0.552
	Single	171	189.73	32444.50			
Organizational Cynicism	Married	215	200.05	43010.00	16975,000	-1,293	0.196
	Single	171	185.27	31681,00			

p<0,05

As a result of the analysis, no significant difference was found between married and single participants in terms of emotional cynicism, behavioral cynicism and general organizational cynicism levels (p > 0.05). In the emotional cynicism dimension, the average rank of married participants was calculated as 198.63 and that of single participants was 187.05, but this difference was not found to be statistically significant (p = 0.305). Similarly, no significant difference was found between the groups in behavioral cynicism (p = 0.552). In the general organizational cynicism level, the average rank of married participants was 200.05 and that of single participants was 185.27, but this difference was not statistically significant (p = 0.196). However, in the cognitive cynicism dimension, the average rank of married participants was calculated as 202.82 and that of single participants was 181.78, and this difference was found to be significant (p = 0.032; p < 0.05). This result shows that the cognitive cynicism levels of married participants are significantly higher than single participants.

Tablo 3. Participants Results of Kruskal-Wallis H Test and Post-Hoc Analysis on Organizational Cynicism and Its Sub-Dimensions According to Professional Experience

		n	Average Ranking	Kruskal-Wallis H	Median	Chi-Square	p.
Affective Cynicism	Less than 1 year	38	211.11	4,070	4,0000	6,418 [b]	0.397
	1-5 years	71	175.80				
	6-10 years	103	199.96				
	11-15 years	91	200.67				
	16 years and above	83	184.70				
Cognitive Cynicism	Less than 1 year	38	216.16	2,794	4,4000	8,208c	0.593
	1-5 years	71	183.96				
	6-10 years	103	186.35				
	11-15 years	91	198.87				
	16 years and above	83	194.27				
Behavioral Cynicism	Less than 1 year	38	203.25	11,127	3,7500	10,723d	**0.025** **3 > 4**
	1-5 years	71	192.42				
	6-10 years	103	164.88				
	11-15 years	91	215.34				
	16 years and above	83	201.54				
Organizational Cynicism	Less than 1 year	38	216.57	13,502	5,2000	10,409 [e]	**0.009** **3> 1-4-5**
	1-5 years	71	187.97				
	6-10 years	103	162.49				
	11-15 years	91	213.81				
	16 years and above	83	203.88				

p<0.05

In Table 9, organizational cynicism and its sub-dimensions were examined according to professional experience and significant differences were found between professional experience groups in terms of behavioral cynicism and organizational cynicism total level (p < 0.05). According to the post-hoc analysis results, a significant

difference was found between employees with 6-10 years of experience and employees with 11-15 years of experience in the behavioral cynicism dimension (Test statistic = -50.462; Adj. Sig. = 0.028). In terms of total organizational cynicism, significant differences were observed between employees with 6-10 years of experience and three different groups: employees with 16 years and above (Test statistic = -41.389; Adj. Sig. = 0.012), employees with 11-15 years (Test statistic = -51.323; Adj. Sig. = 0.001), and employees with less than 1 year (Test statistic = 54.075; Adj. Sig. = 0.011). These findings show that especially employees with 6-10 years of experience are significantly different from other experience groups in both behavioral cynicism and organizational cynicism levels and that professional experience may affect the perception of organizational cynicism.

Tablo 4. Participants Results of Kruskal-Wallis H Test and Post-Hoc Analysis on Organizational Cynicism and Its Sub-Dimensions According to Working Time

		n	Average Ranking	Kruskal-Wallis H	Median	Chi Square	p.
Affective Cynicism	Less than 1 year	59	174.83	9,486	4,0000	4,825 [b]	0.060
	1-3 years	68	192.15				
	4-6 years	86	189.85				
	7-10 years	80	178.99				
	11 years and above	93	222.18				
Cognitive Cynicism	Less than 1 year	59	170.80	10,663	4,4000	14,705c	**0.031 1>3**
	1-3 years	68	187.17				
	4-6 years	86	194.66				
	7-10 years	80	179.96				
	11 years and above	93	223.10				
Behavioral Cynicism	Less than 1 year	59	164.95	8,993	3,7500	9,520d	0.061
	1-3 years	68	187.04				
	4-6 years	86	208.79				
	7-10 years	80	213.68				
	11 years and above	93	184.83				
Organizational Cynicism	Less than 1 year	59	158.67	8,521	5,2000	9,005 [e]	0.074
	1-3 years	68	187.83				
	4-6 years	86	208.05				
	7-10 years	80	206.64				
	11 years and above	93	194.99				

p<0.05

Although no significant difference was found in the affective cynicism dimension according to the length of service (p = 0.060), it was observed that the average rank of the participants with 11 years and more working time (222.18) was higher than the other groups. A significant difference was found in the cognitive cynicism dimension according to the length of service (p = 0.031). According to the post-hoc analysis results, a significant difference was found between the group with less than 1 year of service and the group with 4-6 years of service, and it was determined that the cognitive cynicism levels of those working less than 1 year were significantly different from those working for 4-6 years (Test statistic = -28.506; Adj. Sig. = 0.043; p < 0.05). In addition, it was noted that the cognitive cynicism levels of those working for 11 years and more were the highest (223.10). Although no significant difference was found in the total level of behavioral cynicism and organizational cynicism according to the length of service (p = 0.061 and p = 0.074), it was observed that the behavioral cynicism (213.68) levels of those working for 7-10 years and the organizational cynicism (206.64) levels of those working for 4-6 years were higher than the other groups. As a result, it was determined that the length of service created significant differences especially in the perception of cognitive cynicism, but there was no statistically significant difference for the other dimensions.

In Table 5, the differences in organizational commitment and its sub-dimensions according to the working period of the participants were analyzed with the Kruskal-Wallis H Test .

Tablo 5. Participants Results of Kruskal-Wallis H Test and Post-Hoc Analysis on Organizational Commitment and Its Sub-Dimensions According to Working Time

		n	Average Ranking	Kruskal-Wallis H	Median	Chi Square	p.
Emotional attachment	Less than 1 year	59	223.05	16,396	4.3333	6,031 [b]	**0.001** 1> 4-5
	1-3 years	68	190.93				
	4-6 years	86	191.30				
	7-10 years	80	195.57				
	11 years and above	93	176.88				
Continuity commitment	Less than 1 year	59	199.46	0.627	3.8333	2,109c	0.960
	1-3 years	68	190.76				
	4-6 years	86	191.86				
	7-10 years	80	187.63				
	11 years and above	93	198.29				
Normative commitment	Less than 1 year	59	189.42	5,954	3,6667	3,903d	0.203
	1-3 years	68	172.83				
	4-6 years	86	201.60				
	7-10 years	80	213.83				
	11 years and above	93	186.23				
Organizational commitment	Less than 1 year	59	206.55	3,412	3.8333	4,535 [e]	0.491
	1-3 years	68	184.52				
	4-6 years	86	199.12				
	7-10 years	80	201.88				
	11 years and above	93	179.38				

p<0.05

emotional commitment dimension according to tenure (p = 0.001). According to the post-hoc analysis results, a significant difference was found between the group with less than 1 year of work and the group with 4-6 years of work ; the average rank of those working less than 1 year (223.05) was significantly higher than those working for 4-6 years (191.30). No significant difference was found in the continuance commitment dimension according to tenure (p = 0.960), and the highest average rank was observed in the group with 11 years and above tenure (198.29). No significant difference was found in the normative commitment dimension according to tenure (p = 0.093), however, the average rank of participants with 7-10 years of work (213.83) was higher than the other groups. There was no significant difference in the general organizational commitment level according to the length of service (p = 0.491), but it was observed that the average ranking of those working less than 1 year (206.55) was higher than the other groups. As a result, a significant difference was found only in the emotional commitment dimension between those working less than 1 year and those working 4-6 years.

In Table 6, the relationships between organizational cynicism and commitment dimensions were analyzed with Spearman's rho correlation test.

Table 6. Relationships Between Organizational Cynicism and Organizational Commitment Dimensions (Spearman's rho Correlation Analysis Results)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Affective Cynicism 1	r	1,000	,532 **	,429 **	,563 **	-0.047	-0.073	-0.079	-0.082
	p.		0,000	0,000	0,000	0.354	0.155	0.120	0.108
Cognitive Cynicism 2	r		1,000	,179 **	,605 **	-0.035	0.047	0.090	0.041
	p.			0,000	0,000	0.494	0.360	0.078	0.422
Behavioral Cynicism 3	r			1,000	,871 **	-0,019	-0,025	-0,062	-0,044
	p.				0,000	0,711	0,626	0,224	0,391
Örgütsel Sinizm 4	r				1,000	-0,030	0,001	-0,011	-0,018
	p.					0.561	0.985	0.836	0.724
Emotional attachment 5	r					1,000	,338 **	0.065	,620 **
	p.						0,000	0.203	0,000
Continuity commitment 6	r						1,000	,169 **	,747 **
	p.							0.001	0,000
Normative commitment 7	r							1,000	,605 **
	p.								0,000
Organizational commitment 8	r								1,000
	p.								

According to the results:

- There is a strong and positive relationship between Emotional Cynicism and Cognitive Cynicism (r = 0.532; p < 0.001). Similarly, a positive relationship was found between Emotional Cynicism and Behavioral Cynicism (r = 0.429; p < 0.001). A stronger positive relationship was found between Emotional Cynicism and Organizational Cynicism (r = 0.563; p < 0.001). However, no significant relationship was found between emotional cynicism and commitment dimensions (p > 0.05).
- There is a positive relationship between Cognitive Cynicism and Behavioral Cynicism (r = 0.605; p < 0.001). In addition, no significant relationship was found between cognitive cynicism and organizational cynicism (p > 0.05). Also, no significant relationship was found between cognitive cynicism and commitment dimensions (p > 0.05).
- Behavioral Cynicism and other dimensions of cynicism, no significant relationships were found with commitment dimensions (p > 0.05).
- No significant relationship was observed between Organizational Cynicism and commitment dimensions (p > 0.05).
- There is a positive relationship between Affective Commitment and Continuance Commitment (r = 0.338; p < 0.001). Similarly, a positive relationship was observed between Affective Commitment and Normative Commitment (r = 0.620; p < 0.001).
- There is a positive relationship between Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment (r = 0.605; p < 0.001).

As a result, it was found that cynicism dimensions were positively correlated with each other and commitment dimensions were positively correlated with each other. However, no significant relationship was found between cynicism dimensions and commitment dimensions.

Table 7. Regression Analysis Results on the Effect of Organizational Cynicism on Organizational Commitment

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p.
Still	3,954	0.312		12,666	0,000
Örgütsel Sinizm	-0,022	0,060	-0,018	-0,360	0,719
	F	p.	R	R^2	
	0,130	,719[b]	,018[a]	0,000	

According to the results of the regression analysis, the effect of organizational cynicism on organizational commitment is not found to be statistically significant (p = 0.719; p > 0.05). The unstandardized coefficient (B = -0.022) and standardized coefficient (Beta = -0.018) of organizational cynicism show a very low effect, which reveals that organizational cynicism has a weak and insignificant effect on organizational commitment. The result of the F test conducted for the general significance of the model is also not significant (F = 0.130; p = 0.719; p > 0.05), which shows that the model is insufficient to explain the change in organizational commitment. In addition, R^2 = 0.000 , which expresses the explanatory power of the model , reveals that the change observed in organizational commitment is not explained by organizational cynicism. As a result, no statistically significant relationship was found between organizational cynicism and organizational commitment in this analysis.

4. CONCLUSION
In this study, the relationship between organizational cynicism and organizational commitment levels of private sector employees was examined.

According to the analysis results, no significant difference was found between married and single participants in terms of emotional cynicism, behavioral cynicism and general organizational cynicism levels. However, in the cognitive cynicism dimension, it was determined that the cognitive cynicism levels of married participants were significantly higher than those of single participants. In the analysis made according to professional experience, significant differences were found between professional experience groups in terms of behavioral cynicism and organizational cynicism total levels. It was seen that especially employees with 6-10 years of experience were significantly different from other experience groups in both behavioral cynicism and organizational cynicism levels and that professional experience may affect the perception of organizational cynicism. In the analysis made according to the length of service, a significant difference was found in the cognitive cynicism dimension according to the length of service and a difference was found between participants with less than 1 year of service and those who had been working for 4-6 years. In addition, a significant difference was found between those who had been working for less than 1 year and those who had been working for 4-6 years in the emotional commitment dimension. According to the correlation analysis, it was seen that the cynicism dimensions were positively correlated with each other and the commitment dimensions showed positive relationships among themselves. However, no significant relationship was found between the dimensions of cynicism and commitment. The regression analysis results showed that the effect of organizational cynicism on organizational commitment was not statistically significant and the change observed in organizational commitment was not explained by organizational cynicism. Based on the results of this study, the following suggestions are presented:

1. Training and awareness programs should be organized to reduce the cognitive cynicism levels of employees in organizations. Supportive practices should be developed to reduce the cognitive cynicism experienced by married employees in particular.
2. Taking into account the organizational cynicism perceptions of different professional experience groups, career development plans and incentives should be implemented to increase the motivation of employees, especially those with 6-10 years of experience.
3. Effective orientation and social support mechanisms should be established to increase the commitment of employees with short working hours to the organization. In this way, their emotional commitment can be strengthened.
4. In order to minimize the possible negative effects of cynicism and commitment in organizations, practices that encourage open communication, fair management, and employee participation should be implemented.

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HUMAN RELATIONS AND COMMUNICATION IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study is to determine the communication problems between school administrators and teachers and to examine whether these problems differ in terms of variables such as gender, job distribution, professional seniority and working time in the current institution. The study was conducted with a quantitative method and a relational survey model was used. Data were collected from 112 participants selected by stratified sampling method from the universe of school administrators and teachers in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. The Communication Problems Scale developed by Bingöl (2013) was used as a data collection tool, and the analysis was carried out with the SPSS program. The findings showed that there was a borderline difference in communication problems scale scores in terms of gender variable. Significant differences were found between administrators and teachers, and it was determined that the communication perceptions of administrators were different from teachers. It was found that the communication problems scale scores increased as the length of professional seniority increased, and it was seen that individuals with longer seniority perceived more communication problems. Similarly, it was determined that communication problems were felt more as the duration of working in the organization increased. It was found that shorter-term employees perceived communication problems at a lower level, while individuals who had been working in the same organization for a long time experienced more communication problems.
Keywords: School management, communication, human relations, teacher-administrator relationship.

1. INTRODUCTION
1.1 Problem Status
The effective and efficient functioning of educational institutions depends on the quality of human relations and communication processes in school management. The communication process between school administrators, teachers, students, parents and other stakeholders has a decisive effect on the general atmosphere of the school, employee satisfaction and student success (Bozkurt, 1995). Failure to adopt an effective communication and human relations strategy by school administrators can lead to various problems in the school environment.

Today, the failure to effectively manage human relations in school management causes teachers and other employees to lose motivation, student success to be negatively affected, and the school climate to weaken in general. As a result, conflicts in the school increase, team spirit weakens, and solidarity among employees is lacking. Problems experienced in human relations can negatively affect the overall performance of the school by damaging the sense of belonging of individuals to the institution (Canlı et al., 2024).

For effective school management, it is important to adopt an open and transparent communication process and to ensure regular and timely flow of information. In addition, administrators need to develop active listening skills, value the opinions of stakeholders, and create constructive feedback mechanisms. An effective feedback system supports the professional development of employees and increases their motivation. A management approach developed on the basis of empathy and understanding establishes an environment of trust and respect within the school community (Halawah, 2005).

An approach that is sensitive to the different perspectives and needs of individuals ensures that the school has a more inclusive and tolerant structure. An effective motivation system developed by school administrators supports the morale of employees and students to reveal their potential by keeping them high. In addition, the adoption of a transparent management approach directly contributes to the academic and social success of the school (Alzoubi , 2022; Sedyastuti et al., 2021).

Support for the professional development of teachers and other staff by school administrators strengthens the knowledge sharing and learning climate in the school. A school administration that provides continuous education opportunities and contributes to the professional development of employees allows for both individual and institutional performance to increase. This research is carried out to determine the communication problems between school administrators and teachers and to examine whether these problems differ according to various variables.

1.2 Purpose of the Research
The purpose of this research is to determine the communication problems between school administrators and teachers and to examine whether these problems differ in terms of various variables (gender, task distribution,

professional seniority, length of service in the current institution, etc.). In this direction, the opinions of the participants were analyzed using the Communication Problems (CPS) Scale, and it was aimed to contribute to the education management and policy development processes in the light of the findings obtained.

1.3 Importance of Research

Providing an effective communication environment in schools is seen as a critical element for both administrators and teachers. In this context, identifying communication problems between school administrators and teachers and determining which variables affect these problems will provide suggestions for improving human relations in school management. The research aims to present basic data for a healthier functioning in educational institutions by revealing the contribution of effective communication in school management to the education-training process.

1.4 Limitations

- The universe of the research is limited to school administrators and teachers in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus.
- The data collection tool was limited to the OS Scale developed by Bingöl (2013).
- The number of participants is determined and limited to 112.

1.5 Definitions

Educational Management : It is a discipline that covers the process of planning, organizing, directing and supervising educational systems and includes strategic decision-making and implementation activities to ensure the effective and efficient functioning of schools and other educational institutions (Özdemir, 2020).

Communication : It is the process that enables the transfer of information, thoughts, feelings and opinions from one individual to another, and can be carried out verbally, in writing or through body language (Ekici, 2020) .

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Educational Management and Communication

Educational management is the process of effectively planning, organizing, directing and controlling resources to ensure that an educational institution achieves its goals. In this process, communication stands out as a critical element to ensure an effective flow of information between all stakeholders and to achieve institutional goals (Özdemir, 2020).

2.1.1 Communication Characteristics That a Training Manager Should Have

Education administrators must have certain communication skills to create a healthy communication atmosphere in the school environment. First of all, effective listening skills are important; because understanding the views of teachers, students and parents forms the basis for producing the right solutions. They should be able to evaluate the feelings and perspectives of the other person by establishing empathy. They should convey their messages correctly using clear and concise language and be open to giving and receiving feedback. They should increase the power of communication by effectively using nonverbal communication elements such as gestures, facial expressions and eye contact (Bingöl, 2013) .

A good education manager should include his staff in decision-making processes, strengthen their sense of belonging and increase the quality of education. He should make his employees feel that he cares about them by adopting democratic values and should seek their opinions on issues that concern them. He should have self-confidence but be careful not to give the impression of overconfidence or arrogance. He should respect the personalities of his employees and treat them fairly and equally. As a good listener, he should understand events better and make the staff feel valued. He should avoid arguments and prefer effective communication methods and establish harmonious relationships by being in regular communication (Özdemir, 2020). He should measure success by the work he does rather than the praise of others. He should create a safe environment where the staff can comfortably express their ideas; he should be open to transparent and constructive discussions. He should create a strong leadership image by adopting an encouraging communication style, take steps to accept criticism and remove communication barriers (Çubukçu et al., 2012) .

2.1.2 School Management

School administration performs various administrative and academic duties to ensure that the education and training process is carried out effectively (Anand et al., 2023) . These duties include determining the mission and vision of the school, creating and implementing educational policies, ensuring coordination between teachers and other personnel, developing strategies to increase student success, and strengthening parent-community cooperation. For effective school administration, it is of great importance for administrators to establish a strong communication network with teachers, students, and parents. An open and healthy communication environment helps to establish a sense of trust within the school and to solve problems quickly and effectively (Can, 2022) .

School management refers to the application of educational management in a specific context, and the boundaries of this context are usually drawn by the goals and structure of the educational system. School management is the adaptation of educational management to the school environment in a way that is specific to it, and its main function is to make the school functional and progress in line with its goals. The ability of an institution to achieve its determined goals depends on the most effective use of human resources and financial resources. In order for the school administrator to achieve these goals, it is of great importance that he/she understands the principles and processes of management well (Bursalıoğlu, 2011). School is an indispensable element of society and an institution where formal education is carried out. Although each school has its own physical structures and additional facilities, it basically shows the characteristics of a social group. The school, together with students, teachers, administrators, administrative staff and other personnel, is a dynamic and complex structure that is under the influence of both the immediate and distant environment (Ambon et al., 2025).

2.1.3 Communication in School

Communication stands out as a fundamental element in the school in terms of the efficient execution of educational processes. Effective communication between students, teachers, administrators and other personnel supports the institution to achieve its determined goals. Communication is not limited to the transfer of information, but also includes the sharing of feelings, thoughts and expectations. A strong communication environment increases the academic success of students, increases the professional satisfaction levels of teachers and strengthens harmony within the school. At the same time, open and transparent communication facilitates the resolution of possible disagreements and encourages cooperation (Ekici, 2020) .

Effective communication in the school environment is not limited to verbal interaction; written communication, body language and digital tools are also an integral part of this process. Today, digital communication technologies increase accessibility by accelerating the flow of information. However, disruptions in communication processes can negatively affect students' motivation and reduce teachers' productivity (Aytekin, 2018) . For this reason, school administration needs to regularly evaluate communication strategies and organize trainings to improve the communication skills of staff. Similarly, planning various activities to increase students' effective communication competencies will contribute to their better expression. As a result, creating a healthy communication environment in school has a direct decisive effect on the effectiveness of education and training processes (Çağlar and Çınar, 2021) .

2.2. Related Research

In the study conducted by Yüksel (2008), a significant difference was found depending on the gender variable and it was seen that this difference was in favor of women. It was determined that female teachers had a more positive attitude towards communication compared to men. It was revealed that individuals who received communication training made more positive evaluations regarding communication processes and evaluated administrators more objectively. A significant difference was also observed in terms of the region where the school was located, and it was determined that teachers working in shantytowns reported more positive opinions than their colleagues working in the center (Yinal & Banje, 2023). On the other hand, no significant difference was found in terms of age, branch, seniority and graduated faculty variables. In the study, it was also determined that school administrators did not give enough importance to teachers' ideas, did not include teachers in decision-making processes and their attitudes varied according to expectations. In addition, it was revealed that teachers were not provided with sufficient opportunities for their professional development.

In the study conducted by Açıkel (2010), it was aimed to measure and analyze the perceptions of teachers in the communication process between administrators and teachers in secondary schools. The sample of the study consists of 340 secondary school teachers in Kartal, Sultanbeyli and Kadıköy districts of Istanbul. The findings show that the communication of teachers with school administrators is generally at a positive level.

Aydoğan and Kaşkaya (2010) aimed to evaluate the communication skills of primary school administrators from the perspective of both administrators and teachers in their study. The research results revealed that primary school teachers generally found the personal characteristics of administrators sufficient. However, it was determined that administrators had deficiencies in problem-solving skills and creating a strong image in the school.

The research conducted by Şatır et al. (2024) aims to determine the administrative problems of school administrators arising from the school environment, to identify the sources of these problems, and to reveal the opinions and solution suggestions of the administrators regarding the problems they encounter. This study was conducted with a qualitative research method in the survey type. 30 school principals and vice principals working in the Akşehir district of Konya in the 2021-2022 academic year participated in the research. The research data were collected with the semi-structured interview method. The interview form titled "Problems Encountered by School Administrators Due to the Effects of the School Environment on School Administration and Solution Suggestions" developed by the researcher was used as the data collection tool. The data were evaluated with the content analysis method. According to the research results, it was determined that the main problems experienced by school administrators with their colleagues were carelessness in their duties, inadequate follow-up of work, and

inability to establish healthy, positive and constructive communication with the school staff and the environment. Suggestions such as reminding and implementing the regulations, organizing seminars on interpersonal relations and communication were presented for the solution of these problems.

Dacholfany et al. (2024), the main difficulties that school administrators face in the process of developing human resources are the high number of elderly teachers, inadequate infrastructure, and the school's location away from urban areas. Such obstacles make it difficult for administrators to communicate effectively with teachers and manage educational processes efficiently (Hayta & Yinal, 2024). However, the creation of discussion environments, the implementation of reward and sanction systems, and the provision of professional guidance by school administrators in order to encourage the professional development of teachers are considered as strategic steps to strengthen human relations within the school and improve communication.

Ezeafulukwe et al. (2024) study emphasizes the importance of inclusive employment and human resources management, and examines how effective human relations and communication strategies can transform the workplace environment. The study states that human resources departments should develop strategies on recruitment, training, performance management and workplace accessibility. Adopting inclusive practices, increasing collaboration and implementing continuous monitoring processes are seen as critical requirements for managers in educational institutions to make human relations healthier.

3. METHOD
3.1 Research Model
The research is a quantitative study and the relational screening model was used. Quantitative research is a research method in which data is expressed and analyzed numerically (Creswell , 2014). In such research, hypotheses are tested using statistical methods, relationships between variables are measured and generalizations are attempted. The relational screening model is a research model aimed at determining the relationships between variables. This model is used to examine the relationship between two or more variables (Büyüköztürk et al., 2017).

3.2 Universe and Sample
In the study, school administrators and teachers in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) constitute the universe. In order to ensure that the participants represent the universe, the stratified sampling method was used. This method is a technique that allows the universe to be divided into certain subgroups and a random sample to be selected from each stratum in proportion to the size of that group (Büyüköztürk, 2017). The sample size consists of 112 participants. During the selection process, the participants were divided into strata according to their educational levels, duties or other defining characteristics, and the participants were randomly selected from each stratum in determined proportions.

3.3 Data Collection Tools
The scale used in this study was developed by Bingöl (2013) and is intended to determine communication problems between school administrators and teachers. In this scale, which is a 5-point Likert-type rating scale, participants evaluated the items related to communication problems as "never (1), rarely (2), sometimes (3), often (4) and always (5)". Validity and reliability analyses were applied to 54 administrators and 143 teachers (197 people in total) in the 2012-2013 academic year. In the analyses, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficient was found to be .94, the Bartlett test result was found to be 4702.848, and the Bartlett test was found to be significant (p=0.000), indicating that the data were suitable for factor analysis . In factor analysis, factors with an eigenvalue of 1 or greater were considered significant and the scale was determined to have a single factor as a result of the analysis. While the variance explained in single factor scales is considered as 30% and above is considered sufficient, in this study, the variance explanation rate of 42.289% was obtained, which shows that the scale is valid. When the factor loading values were examined, 5 items below 0.35 were removed from the scale and the scale took its final form with the remaining 39 items. The reliability of the scale was determined by calculating the Cronbach Alpha coefficient as 0.67. The data collection tool consists of two parts. The first part includes personal information and includes information about the participants' job position, gender, branch, years of seniority in the profession, duration of management and the type of school they work in. The second part includes the Communication Problems (CPS) Scale. This scale consists of 39 items created to evaluate communication problems between school administrators and teachers. The items include both positive and negative expressions, and the participants were asked to mark the most appropriate option for themselves.

3.4 Analysis of Data
In this study, the data were analyzed using the SPSS program . During the analysis process, firstly the normality test was performed and it was examined whether the data were suitable for normal distribution. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were applied for normality test and also skewness and kurtosis values were examined. According to the results obtained, it was determined that the data showed normal distribution and therefore the analyzes were made using parametric tests .

4. FINDINGS

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

	Groups	n	Percentage (%)
Gender	Woman	63	56.3%
	Male	49	43.7%
Task Distribution	Executive	40	35.7%
	Teacher	72	64.3%
Professional Seniority	1-10 years	38	33.9%
	Between 11-20 years	42	37.5%
	21 years and above	32	28.6%
Working Time in Current Institution	1-5 years	30	26.8%
	Between 6-10 years	34	30.4%
	Between 11-15 years	28	25.0%
	16 years and above	20	17.9%
Total		**70**	**100**

When the demographic characteristics of the participants were examined, 56.3% were female and 43.7% were male in terms of gender distribution. In terms of job distribution, 35.7% of the participants worked as managers and 64.3% as teachers. When evaluated in terms of professional seniority, 33.9% of the participants had 1-10 years of professional experience, 37.5% had 11-20 years of experience, and 28.6% had 21 years or more of experience. Considering the length of time they worked in their current institution, it was seen that 26.8% had worked in the same institution for 1-5 years, 30.4% for 6-10 years, 25.0% for 11-15 years, and 17.9% for 16 years or more.

Table 2. T-Test Results for the Distribution of Views on the OS Scale by Gender

Gender	n	$\bar{X}$	ss	Levene Test (F)	Levene Test (p)	t	p
Woman	63	2.85	0.25	0.4057	0.5254	-1.9775	0.050
Male	49	2.90	0.24				

Levene's test shows that the variances are equal ($p > 0.05$), so the assumption of equal variances is accepted. According to the t -test result, it is seen that there is a statistically significant difference between the genders ($p=0.050$).

Table 3. Results of t-Test on the Opinions Regarding the Task Distribution of the OS Scale

Task Distribution	n	$\bar{X}$	ss	Levene Test (F)	Levene Test (p)	t	p
Executive	40	3.10	0.20	0.0003	0.9859	7.0501	<0.001
Teacher	72	2.80	0.22				

Levene's test shows that the variances are equal ($p > 0.05$), so the assumption of equal variances is accepted. According to the t -test result, there is a statistically significant difference between administrators and teachers in terms of their views on the OS scale ($p<0.001$).

Table 4. ANOVA Test Results for the Distribution of Opinions on the OS Scale in Terms of Professional Seniority

Professional Seniority	n	$\bar{X}$	ss	Levene Test (F)	Levene Test (p)	ANOVA (F)	ANOVA (p)
1-10 years	38	2.70	0.22	2.5054	0.0863	72.7370	<0.001
11-20 years	42	3.00	0.20				
21 years and above	32	3.20	0.18				

the Communication Problems (CPS) Scale were examined according to the professional seniority variable, it was seen that there were significant differences between the groups (F = 72.7370, p < 0.001).

Table 5. Post-hoc Tukey Test Results

Group 1	Group 2	Average Difference	p -value	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	Significant Difference
1-10 years	11-20 years	0.3332	<0.001	0.2340	0.4324	**Yes**
1-10 years	21 years and above	0.5277	<0.001	0.4214	0.6340	**Yes**
11-20 years	21 years and above	0.1945	0.0001	0.0905	0.2985	**Yes**

the post-hoc Tukey test results are examined, it is seen that there are statistically significant differences between the professional seniority groups ($p < 0.05$). In particular, the mean difference between individuals with 1-10 years of seniority and individuals with 11-20 years of seniority is 0.3332 and this difference is significant ($p < 0.001$). Similarly, a significant difference was found between individuals with 1-10 years of seniority and individuals with 21 years and above seniority (Mean difference = 0.5277, $p < 0.001$). A significant difference was also found between individuals with 11-20 years of seniority and individuals with 21 years and above seniority (Mean difference = 0.1945, $p = 0.0001$). These findings show that as professional seniority increases, the Communication Problems (CP) Scale scores also increase. In particular, it is observed that employees with 1-10 years of seniority have the lowest OS scale scores, while employees with 21 years of seniority and above have the highest scores.

Table 6. ANOVA Test Results on the Distribution of Opinions on the OS Scale and the Working Time in the Current Institution

Working Time in Current Institution	n	X̄	ss	Levene Test (F)	Levene Test (p)	ANOVA (F)	ANOVA (p)
1-5 years	30	2.75	0.22				
6-10 years	34	2.90	0.20	3.2154	0.0347	42.5673	<0.001
11-15 years	28	3.05	0.18				
16 years and above	20	3.20	0.17				

When the ANOVA test results of the opinions on the Communication Problems (CP) Scale were examined according to the variable of length of service in the current institution, it was seen that there were significant differences between the groups ($F = 42.5673$, $p < 0.001$).

Table 7. Post-hoc Tukey Test Results

Group 1	Group 2	Average Difference	p-value	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	Significant Difference
1-5 years	11-15 years	0.3698	<0.001	0.2478	0.4918	**Yes**
1-5 years	16 years and above	0.4489	<0.001	0.3149	0.5830	**Yes**
1-5 years	6-10 years	0.1526	0.0048	0.0362	0.2689	**Yes**
11-15 years	16 years and above	0.0791	0.4301	-0.0568	0.2151	**No**
11-15 years	6-10 years	-0.2172	<0.001	-0.3358	-0.0987	**Yes**

the post-hoc Tukey test results are examined, it is seen that there are statistically significant differences between the groups according to the variable of length of service in the current institution ($p < 0.05$). In particular, the mean difference between those who have worked for 1-5 years and those who have worked for 11-15 years is 0.3698 and this difference is significant ($p < 0.001$). Similarly, a significant difference was found between those who have worked for 1-5 years and those who have worked for 16 years and above (Average difference = 0.4489, $p < 0.001$). There is also a significant difference between those who have worked for 1-5 years and those who have worked for 6-10 years (Average difference = 0.1526, $p = 0.0048$). However, there is no significant difference between those who have worked for 11-15 years and those who have worked for 16 years and above ($p = 0.4301$). However, a significant difference was found between those who worked for 11-15 years and those who worked for 6-10 years (Mean difference = 0.2172, $p < 0.001$). These findings show that the Communication Problems (CC) Scale scores increase as the length of service increases. In particular, those who worked for 1-5 years had lower CC scale scores, while those who worked for 16 years and above had higher scores, indicating that individuals who worked for longer periods in the organization perceive communication problems more.

Table 8. Arithmetic Mean and Standard Deviation Results of Managers' and Teachers' Views on the OS Scale

ITEMS	X̄	ss
They express their thoughts clearly and concisely.	3.72	0.945
They try to understand each other by putting themselves in each other's shoes (establishing empathy).	3.45	1,015
They use body language effectively.	3.22	1,038
They include slang words.	2.65	1,127
They pay attention to the rules of politeness.	3.91	0.892
They interrupt each other.	2.78	1,134
They take each other's opinions into consideration.	3.51	1,017
They pay attention to their speaking distance.	3.67	0.954
They use inverted sentences.	2.88	1,075
They misunderstand each other's words.	2.42	1,156
They distort each other's views.	2.61	1,084
They ignore his jokes.	2.89	1,046
They are tolerant of each other.	3.75	0.927
They tolerate each other's ideas and thoughts.	3.34	1,089
They have an introverted and secretive nature.	2.57	1,132
They reveal each other's secrets.	2.34	1,098
His/her smile (with behavior and body language) is evident.	3.79	0.943
They listen to each other effectively and patiently.	3.68	1,003
They are open to criticism of each other.	3.41	1,217
They admit their own mistakes.	3.08	1,029
They pay attention to their tone of voice.	3.81	0.971
They are open to mutual communication.	3.92	0.899
They are careful about each other's personal rights.	3.88	0.920
They are responsive and respectful to being reached out to.	3.73	1,018
They take into account different approaches and ideas.	3.57	1,073
They insist that their views be accepted.	2.69	1,154
They speak disrespectfully.	2.39	1,111
They take care to listen to each other.	3.67	1,057
They deal with each other's negative behaviors.	2.81	1,106
They bring up past negativities with each other over and over again.	2.53	1,197
Instead of expressing feelings and thoughts openly, they tell them indirectly.	2.84	1,179
They take a stance against each other because of the negativities they experienced in the past.	2.49	1,153
They give the other person a chance to speak.	3.87	0.945
They stand appropriately while speaking.	3.74	1,062
They throw the other person's mistakes in his face.	2.92	1,138
They talk about the operation and guidance.	3.69	0.995
They try to catch each other's negative situations (explanation).	2.68	1,103
They prioritize respect for each other.	3.72	1,024

When the opinions of the administrators and teachers regarding the Communication Problems (CPS) Scale are evaluated, it is seen that the participants have generally positive communication skills. One of the highest average scores was observed in the item of being open to mutual communication (X̄ = 3.92, sd = 0.899). This situation shows that the participants are prone to effective communication. Similarly, the items of paying attention to the rules of courtesy (X̄ = 3.91, sd = 0.892) and respecting each other's personal rights (X̄ = 3.88, sd = 0.920) also received high scores, revealing that respect is an important element in communication.

On the other hand, the items such as interrupting each other (X̄ = 2.78, sd = 1.134) and using slang words (X̄ = 2.65, sd = 1.127) received lower scores, which is thought to cause communication problems. It is observed that

there are tendencies among the participants to distort each other's opinions ($\bar{X}$ = 2.61, sd = 1.084) and to bring up past negativities ($\bar{X}$ = 2.53, sd = 1.197).

The tendency to express feelings and thoughts indirectly instead of openly expressing them ($\bar{X}$ = 2.84, sd = 1.179) and the tendency to point out the other person's mistakes ($\bar{X}$ = 2.92, sd = 1.138) also received relatively low scores. However, the items of finding each other open to criticism ($\bar{X}$ = 3.41, sd = 1.217) and being careful to listen to each other ($\bar{X}$ = 3.67, sd = 1.057) were evaluated with higher means.

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

According to the research findings, it was determined that there was a borderline significant difference in terms of communication problems scale scores among the participants in terms of gender variable. However, a statistically significant difference was found between administrators and teachers in terms of their views on the communication problems scale. It was revealed that there were significant differences between the communication perceptions of administrators and teachers.

When the professional seniority variable is taken into account, it was determined that the communication problems scale scores increased as the seniority period increased. It was observed that there were significant differences especially between individuals with less seniority and individuals with more seniority. This shows that as seniority increases, more problems are perceived in communication.

As a result of the analyses conducted according to the variable of length of service in the current institution, it was determined that communication problems were perceived more as length of service increased. It was revealed that those who worked for shorter periods had lower communication problems scale scores, while those who had been working in the same institution for a longer period thought that they had more problems with communication.

When the general views of the administrators and teachers regarding communication skills were evaluated, it was seen that the majority of the participants had positive communication skills. Elements such as being open to mutual communication, paying attention to the rules of courtesy and respecting personal rights were evaluated at a high level. However, it was determined that negative communication behaviors such as interrupting, using slang words and distorting opinions were at a relatively low level.

It was determined that the participants tended to use indirect expression instead of expressing their feelings and thoughts directly, and also exhibited a relatively high level of awareness in being open to criticism and listening carefully to each other. The general findings of the study reveal that communication problems differ according to some demographic variables and that managers should create a more effective communication environment by taking these factors into account.

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

- An effective communication culture should be established between school administrators, teachers and other stakeholders. For this purpose, it is important for administrators to adopt an open and transparent communication approach.
- Training and seminars should be organized regularly to reduce communication problems among employees. Training should be given especially on empathy, active listening and constructive feedback.
- Since it has been determined that communication problems are perceived more as professional seniority increases, supportive communication programs should be established for senior employees.
- Since it has been observed that communication problems increase as the length of service in the institution increases, activities that strengthen cooperation and team spirit within the institution should be encouraged.
- An open door policy should be implemented in schools, allowing administrators to communicate directly with teachers and other employees.
- In order to ensure an environment of trust among employees, platforms should be created where individuals can freely express their ideas and opinions.
- School administration should expand guidance activities to develop courtesy rules, respect for personal rights, and effective listening skills.
- In order to minimize communication problems, feedback systems should be created for teachers and administrators, and strategies to increase interaction between employees should be implemented.
- In order to make in-school communication processes more efficient, technological tools should be used and digital platforms should be actively used.
- In order to strengthen the corporate culture, social events and activities that encourage teamwork should be organized.

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LEAN MANAGEMENT: BIBLIOMETRIC ANALYSIS AND VISUALIZATION ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT
Lean management increases efficiency by reducing waste and maximizes customer value. Therefore, studies on lean management can indirectly positively affect the performance of businesses. Examining these studies, creating clear and consistent new research routes can contribute to the formation of studies that have a strong impact on the future of businesses. The aim of this study is to apply bibliometric analysis to studies on the concept of lean management. The Bibliometrix application in the R package was used to perform the bibliometric analysis. According to the analysis results, it was found that the number of studies on the subject has increased since 2007, the journal with the most published studies is Sustainability, the author who has done the most studies is Thomas Rundall, the organization that has done the most studies is the University System of Ohio, the country that has done the most studies in terms of the number of authors is the USA, the keywords lean management, lean production, lean leadership, continuous improvement, and quality development are mentioned the most in the articles.
Keywords: Lean Management, Bibliometric Analysis, Visualization Analysis

INTRODUCTION

Lean management is a comprehensive approach to eliminate waste and increase efficiency in various sectors such as manufacturing, healthcare, and construction (D'Andreamatteo et al., 2015). It is an integrated socio-technical system that reduces or minimizes variability in supplier, customer, and internal processes (Soliman et al., 2018). Lean Management is a management system that integrates specific practices and techniques to reduce internal and external variability of processes (Rebelo et al., 2014). It is a set of principles, methods, and procedures for the organization and management of companies that focus on reducing or eliminating waste in value chain processes through the identification of critical points of the system aimed at improving processes, products, or services that provide added value to the customer (Manzouri et al., 2014). Lean management is widely perceived as a way to reduce waste without additional resources, making it an attractive strategy for industries seeking operational efficiency (Lewis, 2000). The benefits of Lean management implementation are divided into economic, environmental and social, so the use of Lean management can have a good effect on sustainable project delivery (Carvajal-Arongo et al., 2019). From an economic perspective, Lean management can help reduce project costs and duration, increase productivity and quality, minimize errors and rework (Al-Aomar, 2012). From an environmental perspective, Lean management can reduce waste materials, energy consumption, and help conserve water (King & Lenox, 2001). From a social perspective, Lean management can provide customer and employee satisfaction, minimize conflicts, enhance teamwork, and improve decision making (Goshime et al., 2019). Lean culture places special emphasis on teamwork, collaborative work, and good communication skills (Alves et al., 2012). Multidisciplinary teamwork can encourage improvements in business performance and a more efficient and effective business system by allowing professionals to learn from each other (Sales-Coll et al., 2023). Lean aims to help public sector organizations become more efficient and effective in their service delivery and policy implementation, and has not been given much due attention by managers and employees from organizations due to unsuccessful Lean implementations (Radnor & Osborne, 2013). Part of the problem may lie in the functionalist perspective on Lean management (Johansson & Osterman, 2017). This perspective views Lean as a largely linear and hierarchical process (Lyons et al., 2013). Adopted as a global concept, Lean is specifically designed at a specific organizational level and then implemented. Here, implementation is considered a top-down process that spreads the concept from the center to the periphery throughout an organization. If the concept fails to achieve its predetermined goals, it is considered a failure. Such a perspective underestimates the dynamics involved in Lean (Secchi & Camuffo, 2019).

The aim of this study is to apply bibliometric analysis to studies on the concept of lean management. Thus, it is aimed to guide future research topics on lean management.

METHODOLOGY

Bibliometric Analysis

Bibliometric analysis, as a quantitative analysis of literature, serves as a methodological tool to identify development trends in specific academic fields and emphasizes the achievement of measurable, reproducible, and objective results (Azarian et al., 2023). This methodology allows the research field to be structured as it develops and guides future research areas (Mukherjee et al., 2022). Therefore, bibliometric methods have become important in the evaluation of institutional research and the positioning of future academic research (Jappe, 2020). A bibliometric analysis can present an analysis by referring to, among others, the number of publications, the most influential authors, the countries where the topic is most researched, or journals that focus their publications on topics related to the object of analysis (Ellegaard, 2018).

VOSviewer is a software tool developed by the Centre for Science and Technology Studies at Leiden University that facilitates the creation and evaluation of bibliometric networks (Kuzior & Sira, 2022). This application demonstrates the ability to create bibliographic networks, especially co-authorship, co-creation and citation-based relationships in bibliographic data (Maltseva & Batagelj, 2024).

Bibliometrix in R software is a robust software package specifically designed for quantitative research in the fields of bibliometrics and scientometrics (Aria & Cuccurullo, 2017). It has been used to create maps representing various countries, analyze trends in journal publications, enhance the intuitiveness of findings with a more scientific touch, and perform scientific keyword analysis (Lim et al., 2024).

In this study, the Web of Science database was used to ensure scientific validity. The keywords "Lean Management", "Lean Leadership", and "Lean Culture" were used in the Web of Science article search engine. The results were then filtered. These filters were in English and articles, and a total of 1054 articles were reached.

FINDINGS

General characteristics of the articles used for bibliometric analysis are given in Table 1. The first article was accessed in 1993, a total of 1054 articles, 2706 keywords, 3053 authors, 36782 references were accessed, and the average age of the articles was found to be 5.34 years.

Table 1. Descriptive Information

Definition	Conclusion
Time period	1993:2024
Number of Articles	1054
Average Age of Articles	5.39
Average Number of Citations of Articles	14.95
Number of References	36782
Number of Keywords	2706
Number of Authors	3053
Number of Single Author Articles	98

Figure 1 shows the distribution of studies on lean management by year. Accordingly, it has been determined that the articles generally show an increasing trend by year. It is observed that the studies on the subject have increased especially since 2007.
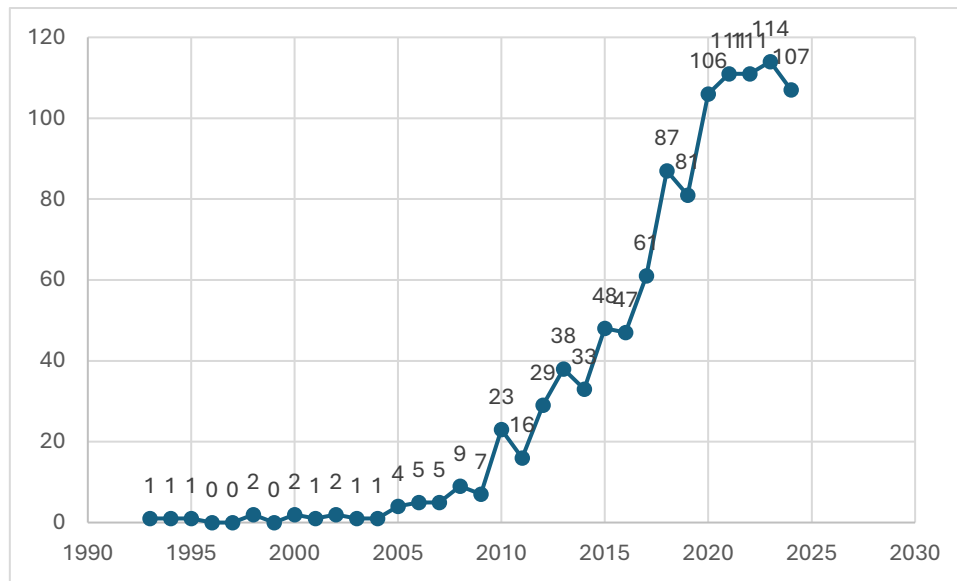
Figure 1. Distribution of Articles by Year

Figure 2 shows the journals that include studies on lean management. Accordingly, it was determined that the journals with the most studies on lean management were Sustainability (38 articles), International Journal of Lean Six Sigma (34 articles), Production Planning & Control (32 articles), International Journal of Production Research (20 articles), and BMJ Open Quality (20 articles).

Figure 2. Journals in which the Studies Appeared (Top Ten)

Figure 3 shows the authors of studies on lean management. Accordingly, the authors who have done the most studies on lean management are Thomas Rundall (12 articles), Shortell (12 articles), Stadlmann (11 articles), Pramreiter (11 articles), and Mann (11 articles), respectively. In his studies, Thomas Rundall examined the relationship between lean management and hospital performance (Shortell et al., 2021), the relationship between lean management and the performance of US public hospitals (Po et al., 2019), the relationship between the

adoption of lean management and hospital performance (Rundall et al., 2021), the relationship between lean management and groundbreaking performance improvement in healthcare (Ahn et al., 2021), the relationships between the functions of Human Resources, Finance and Information Technologies and general Lean Implementation and self-reported performance improvements of hospitals implementing Lean (Shortell A et al., 2021).
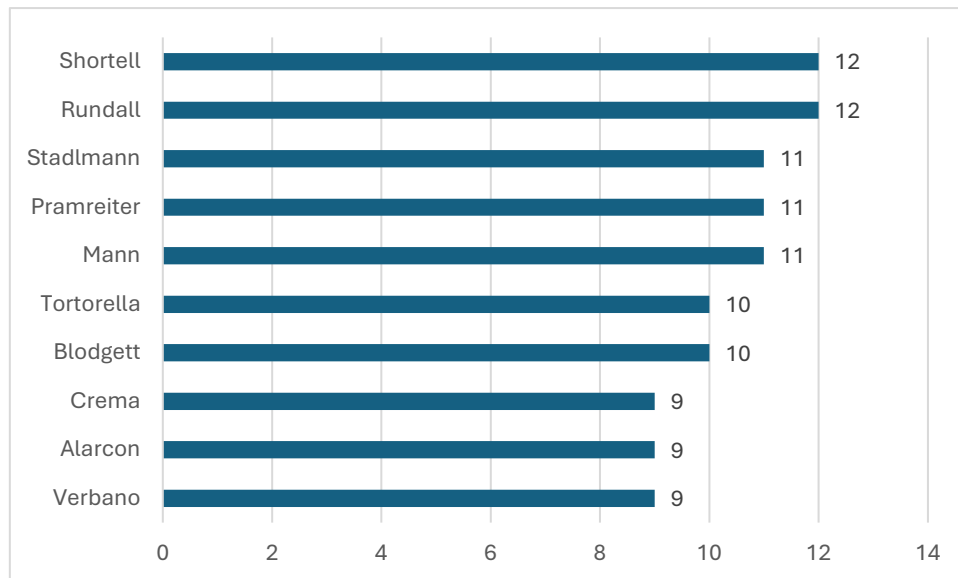
Figure 3. Authors (Top Ten)

Figure 4 shows the organizations that have conducted studies on lean management. Accordingly, the organizations that have conducted the most studies on the subject are University System of Ohio (34 articles), University of California System (34 articles), Ohio State University (24 articles), Veterans Health Administration (21 articles), University of California Berkeley (21 articles). When examined, it is seen that all of these organizations are in the USA.
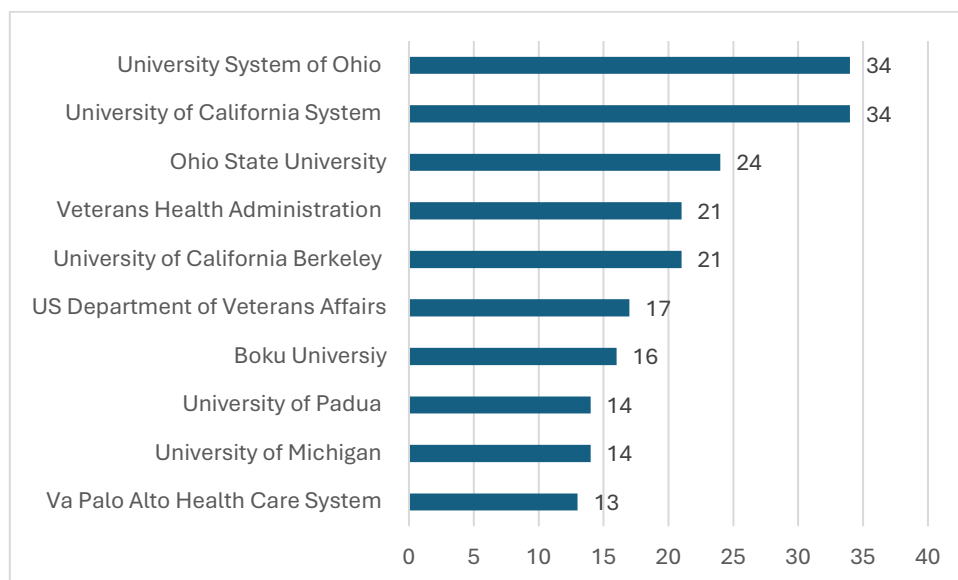
Figure 4. Organizations (Top Ten)

Figure 5 shows the countries of the authors of studies on lean management. Accordingly, the countries with the highest number of studies on lean management are the USA (439 authors), China (209 authors), the United Kingdom (174 authors), Italy (116 authors), and Poland (107 authors), respectively. It is seen that studies on lean management, which is a concept on productivity, are mostly concentrated in developed countries.
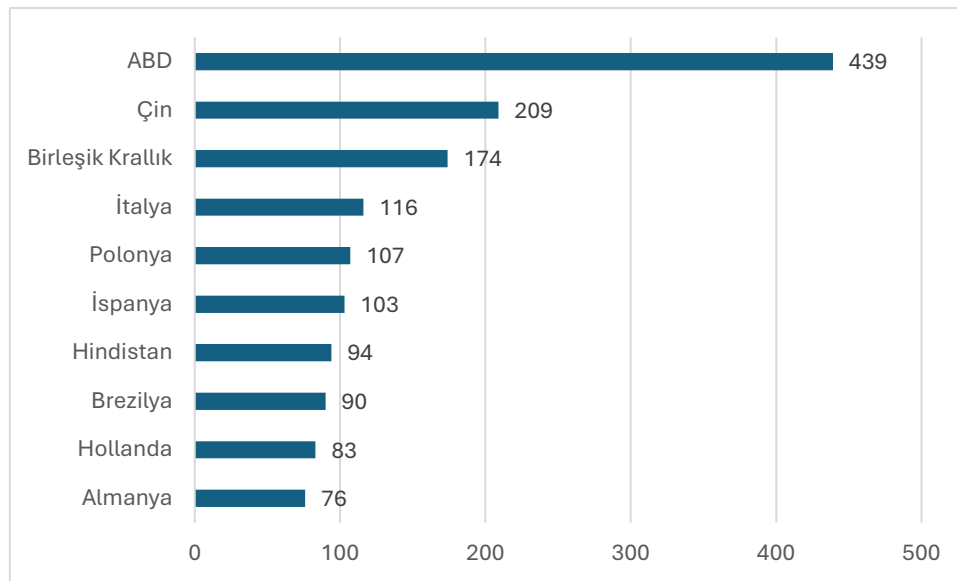
Figure 5. Countries (Top Ten)

Table 2 shows the most cited articles on lean management. Accordingly, the most cited article is the study by Bortolotti et al. (2015) with 375 citations. This study examines whether facilities that successfully implement Lean Management have a certain organizational culture profile and whether they widely adopt soft Lean Management practices (Bortolotti et al., 2015). The second most cited study is by Rothenberg et al. (2001) with 354 citations. This study examines the relationship between Lean production practices and environmental performance measured in terms of air emissions and resource use (Rothenberg et al., 2001). The third most cited study is by Fullerton et al. (2014) with 219 citations. This study examined the mediating effect of lean management accounting practices on the relationship between lean production and firm performance (Fullerton et al., 2014). The fourth most cited study was the article by Toussaint & Berry (2013) with 216 citations. This study defines Lean and presents the 6 principles that constitute the basic dynamics of Lean management (Toussaint & Berry, 2013). The fifth most cited study was the article by Rosin et al. (2020) with 213 citations. This article examined the effects of Industry 4.0 technologies on Lean principles (Rosin et al. 2020).

Table 2. Most Cited Articles (Top Ten)

R	Magazine	TR	Average Quote	Article	Writer	Year
1	Int J Prod Econ	375	37.5	Successful lean implementation: Organizational culture and soft lean practices.	Bortolotti et al.	2015
2	Prod Opera Manag	354	14.75	Lean, green, and the quest for superior environmental performance.	Rothenberg et al.	2001
3	J Opera Manag	219	19,909	Lean manufacturing and firm performance: The incremental contribution of lean management accounting practices.	Fullerton et al.	2014
4	Mayo Clinic Proc	216	18	The promise of Lean in health care	Toussaint & Berry	2013
5	Int J Prod Res	213	42.6	Impacts of Industry 4.0 technologies on Lean principles	Rosin et al.	2020
6	J Clean Prod	174	14.5	Lean management and supply management: their role in green practices and performance	Hajmohammad et al.	2013
7	Bus Process Management J	174	14.5	A methodology for effective implementation of lean strategies and its performance evaluation in manufacturing organizations	My wife & Arif-Uz-Zaman	2013
8	Prod Manuf Res	169	24.14	Industry 4.0 and lean management: a proposed integration model and research propositions.	Sony	2018
9	J Clean Prod	141	15.67	Lean/Green integration focused on waste reduction techniques.	Fercoq et al.	2016

| 10 | Brit J Manage | 138 | 27.6 | The impact of lean management practices and sustainably-oriented innovation on sustainability performance of small and medium-sized enterprises: empirical evidence from the UK. | Dey | 2020 |

Table 3 shows the keywords frequently mentioned in lean management studies. Accordingly, in articles related to lean management, the keywords lean management were mentioned 420 times, lean production 124 times, lean leadership 116 times, continuous improvement 45 times, and quality development 37 times.

Table 3. Most Frequently Mentioned Keywords (Top Ten)

Words	Frequency
Lean Management	420
Lean Production	124
Lean Leadership	116
continuous improvement	45
quality improvement	37
value stream mapping	29
health services	25
productivity	22
simple thinking	21
case study	19

Figure 6 shows the keyword visual map of lean management. The keyword visual map consists of 10 clusters. The leader of the red cluster is lean manufacturing, which consists of 17 keywords. The leader of the green cluster is lean leadership, which consists of 16 keywords. The blue cluster consists of 10 keywords, and the leader of lean management. The leader of the yellow cluster, which consists of 8 keywords, is quality management. The leader of the purple cluster, which consists of 7 keywords, is value stream mapping. The leader of the light blue cluster, which consists of 6 keywords, is industry 4.0. The leader of the orange cluster, which consists of 6 keywords, is healthcare. The leader of the brown cluster, which consists of 6 keywords, is productivity. The leader of the pink cluster, which consists of 3 keywords, is project management. The light pink cluster, which has a single keyword, consists of the word occupational safety.

Figure 6. Keywords

Figure 7 shows the visual map of references according to the co-citation analysis of lean management. This visual map consists of 90 references and 5 clusters. Accordingly, the reference with the highest number of co-citations was Womack et al. (1990) with 209 co-citations and 1316 total link strength (ranked 1st). This reference is the leader of the blue cluster. The reference with the second highest number of co-citations was Shah & Ward (2003) with 143 co-citations and 1241 total link strength (ranked 2nd). This reference is the leader of the red cluster. The reference with the third highest number of co-citations was Shah & Ward (2007) with 136 co-citations and 1241 total link strength (ranked 2nd). This reference is the second leader of the red cluster. The fourth most co-cited reference is Womack & Jones (1996) with 109 co-citations and a total link strength of 598 (ranked 7). This reference is the second leader of the blue cluster. The fifth most co-cited reference is Hines et al. (2004) with 99 co-citations and a total link strength of 882 (ranked 4). This reference is the third leader of the blue cluster.

Figure 7. Co-Citation Analysis by Reference

Figure 8 shows the visual map of journals according to the co-citation analysis of lean management. The visual map of journals is divided into 315 journals and 6 clusters. The red cluster consists of 83 journals and Journal of Cleaner Production is the leader of the red cluster with 908 co-citations and 35235 total link power (ranked 5th). The second leader of the red cluster is Procedia CIRP with 339 co-citations and 13095 total link power (ranked 15th). The third leader of the red cluster is Sustainability with 316 co-citations and 11892 total link power (ranked 16th). These journals focus on research topics such as sustainable production, innovative technologies and environmentally friendly applications.

The leader of the green cluster consisting of 80 journals is International Journal of Lean Six Sigma with 531 co-citations and 24541 total link power (ranked 8th). The second leader of the green cluster is International Journal for Quality Research with 288 co-citations and 14800 total link power (ranked 13th). The third leader of the green cluster is Business Process Management Journal with 195 co-citations and 9160 total link power (ranked 19th). These journals focus on research topics such as process improvement and quality management.

The leader of the blue cluster consisting of 71 journals is Total Quality Management and Business Excellence with 432 co-citations and 20173 total link power (ranked 9th). The second leader of the blue cluster is Harvard Business Review with 379 co-citations and 15655 total link power (ranked 10th). The third leader of the blue cluster is The Academy of Management Journal with 277 co-citations and 15354 total link power (ranked 11th). This journal focuses on research topics such as business, management, strategy and quality.

The leader of the yellow cluster consisting of 52 journals is International Journal of Operations & Production Management with 1334 co-citations and 68819 total link power (Rank 1). The second leader of the yellow cluster is International Journal of Production Research with 1170 co-citations and 55481 total link power (Rank 3). The third leader of the yellow cluster is Journal of Operations Management with 1169 co-citations and 61545 total link power (Rank 2). These journals focus on research topics such as operational efficiency, process optimization, and manufacturing systems management.

The leader of the purple cluster consisting of 28 journals is Strategic Management Journal, with 187 co-citations and 11174 total link power (ranked 17th). The second leader of the purple cluster is Journal of Business Research, with 121 co-citations and 6754 total link power (ranked 32nd). The third leader of the purple cluster is California Management Review, with 80 co-citations and 4019 total link power (ranked 60th). These journals focus on research topics such as strategy and business management. The light blue cluster consisting of one journal is Production Planning & Control.
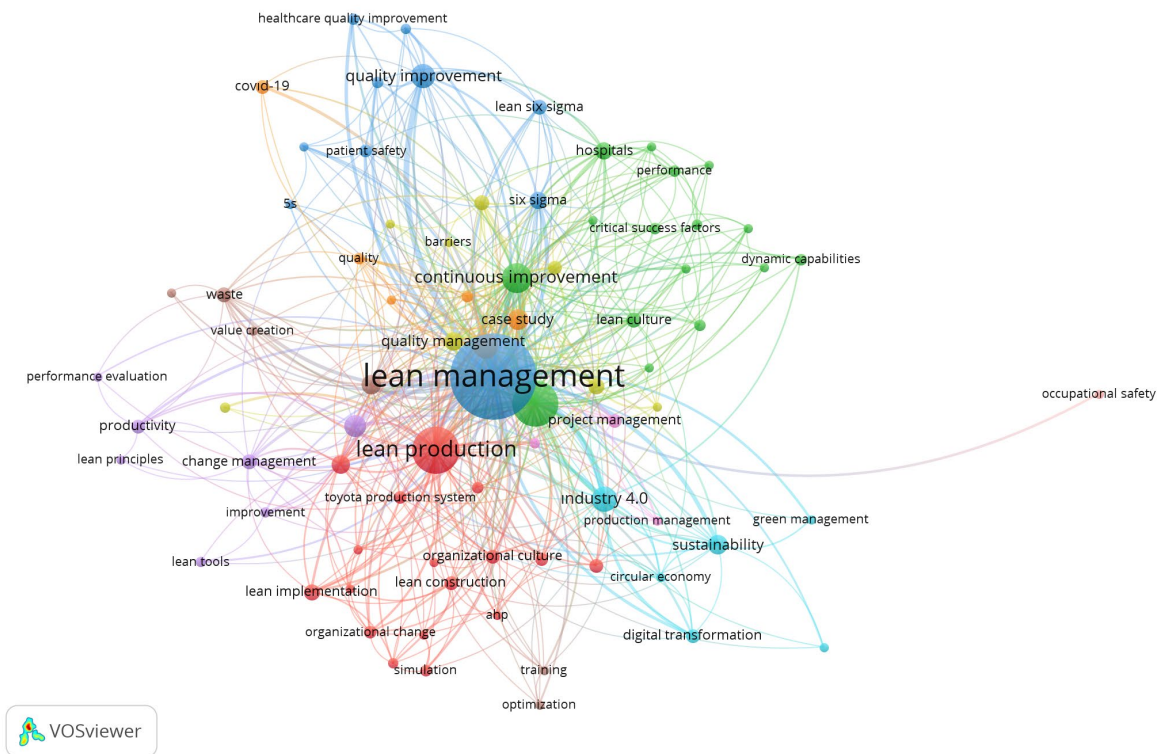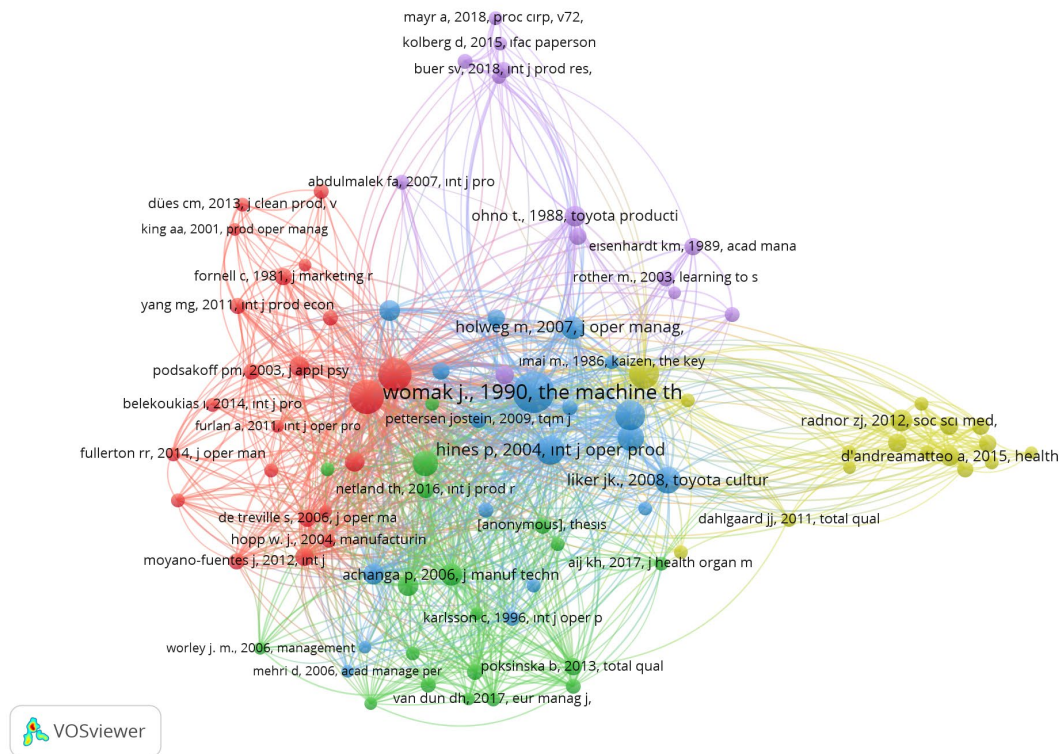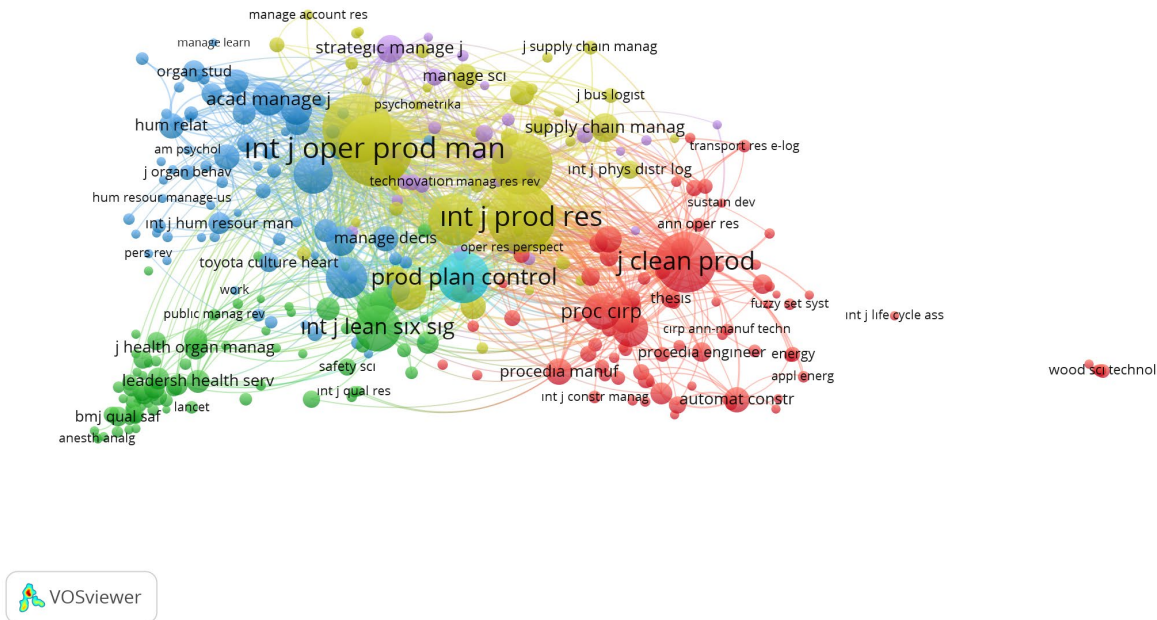
Figure 8. Co-Citation Analysis by Journal

Figure 9 shows the visual map of authors according to the co-citation analysis of lean management. This visual map consists of 206 authors and 6 clusters. The leader of the red cluster consisting of 49 authors, Shah & Ward (2003), has 301 co-citations and 6226 total link power (Rank 1). The second leader of the red cluster, Hair et al. (2011), has 97 co-citations and 1814 total link power (Rank 14). The third leader of the red cluster, Chiarini & Kumar (2021), has 67 co-citations and 1089 total link power (Rank 36). This cluster is a cluster that provides methods for improving operational processes and increasing business performance. Shah & Ward (2003) examines the effects of plant size, plant age, and unionization status on the probability of implementing 22 production practices, which are the basic elements of lean manufacturing systems. Hair et al. (2011) conducted a study on the conditions under which PLS-SEM models should be used. Chiarini & Kumar (2021) investigates a possible integration between Lean Six Sigma (LSS) tools and principles and Industry 4.0 technologies.

The leader of the green cluster consisting of 44 authors is Womack & Jones (1996), who has 267 co-citations and a total link power of 3730 (ranked 3rd). The second leader of the green cluster is Womack & Jones (1994), who has 209 co-citations and a total link power of 3159 (ranked 6th). The third leader of the green cluster is Radnor et al. (2012), who has 108 co-citations and a total link power of 1854 (ranked 13th). This cluster focuses on the application of Lean principles. Womack & Jones (1996) discusses the Lean approach in detail to increase the efficiency of business management and production processes. Womack & Jones (1994) examined the efficiency and success management of Toyota. Radnor et al. (2012) examines four multi-level case studies on the implementation of Lean in the British National Health Service.

Liker & Choi (2004), the leader of the blue cluster consisting of 39 authors, has 232 co-citations and 3907 total link power (ranked 2nd). Hines et al. (2004), the second leader of the blue cluster, has 194 co-citations and 3593 total link power (ranked 4th). Bhasin (2012), the third leader of the blue cluster, has 141 co-citations and 3213 total link power (ranked 5th). This cluster covers topics such as supply chain, collaboration, continuous improvement, innovation, and value creation of lean manufacturing philosophy. Liker & Choi (2004) examines the practices of leading companies such as Toyota and Honda on how to do successful supplier management. Hines et al. (2004) examines approaches that attempt to address some of the gaps that emerged earlier in lean thinking. Bhasin (2012) examines the significant barriers that prevent organizations from adopting the concept of lean or implementing it more broadly.

The leader of the yellow cluster consisting of 38 authors, Tortorella et al. (2017), has 133 co-citations and 2921 total link power (ranked 7th). The second leader of the yellow cluster, Rother (2010), has 116 co-citations and 1552 total link power (ranked 19th). The third leader of the yellow cluster, Ballard & Howell (2003), has 63 co-citations and 427 total link power (ranked 140th). This cluster focuses on the principles of Lean Thinking and discusses how these principles can be applied to improve organizational processes. Tortorella et al. (2017) provide

a framework to define the precise practices to be considered in relation to Lean Supply Chain Management in their study. Rother (2010) aims to strategically structure Lean processes in his study. Ballard & Howell (2003) present a lean project management model and compare lean and traditional approaches.

The leader of the purple cluster consisting of 20 authors, Emiliani (1998), has 126 co-citations and 2673 total link power (ranked 8th). The second leader of the purple cluster, Netland (2017), has 102 co-citations and 2555 total link power (ranked 9th). The third leader of the purple cluster, Anthony & Banuleas (2002), has 101 co-citations and 1743 total link power (ranked 16th). This cluster focuses on organizational excellence, lean thinking, and process improvement strategies. Emiliani (1998) examined the real-life impact of lean practices. Netland (2017) investigates how contingency variables affect what practitioners see as success factors in lean implementation. Anthony & Banuleas (2002) presents the basic components required for Six Sigma implementation.

The leader of the light blue cluster consisting of 16 authors is Womack et al. (1990), who has 209 co-citations and a total link power of 3159 (Rank 6). The second leader of the light blue cluster is Ohno (2019), who has 167 co-citations and a total link power of 2442 (Rank 11). The third leader of the light blue cluster is Monden & Minagawa (2015), who has 52 co-citations and a total link power of 997 (Rank 40). This cluster focuses on the Toyota Production System (TPS) and Lean Thinking philosophies. Womack et al. (1990) examined the birth and evolution of the Lean production system, and how it revolutionized the industrial world. Ohno (2019) describes the basic principles and applications of the Toyota Production System (TPS) . Monden & Minagawa (2015) focus on the Toyota Production System and lean manufacturing.

Figure 9. Co-Citation Analysis by Author

CONCLUSION

In this study, lean management articles were examined by applying bibliometric analysis. These articles were accessed from the Web of Science database. After selecting the keywords related to the subject and performing the necessary filtering process, a total of 1054 articles, 2706 keywords, 3053 authors, 36782 references were accessed, and the average age of the articles was determined to be 5.34. Accordingly, it was determined that the number of studies on the subject increased since 2007, the journal with the most studies was Sustainability, the author who did the most studies was Thomas Rundall, the institution that did the most studies was the University System of Ohio, and the country with the most studies according to the number of authors was the USA,

It was found that the most cited article was Bortolotti et al. (2015) and that the keywords lean management, lean production, lean leadership, continuous improvement and quality development were mentioned the most in the articles.

According to the results of co-citation analysis by reference, it was determined that the reference with the highest number of co-citations was Womack et al. (1990), the second highest number of co-citations was Shah & Ward (2003), and the third highest number of co-citations was Shah & Ward (2007). According to the results of co-citation analysis by journals, the journals were divided into 6 clusters, the leader of the red cluster was Journal of Cleaner Production, the leader of the green cluster was International Journal of Lean Six Sigma , the leader of the blue cluster was Total Quality Management and Business Excellence. It was determined that the leader of the yellow cluster is the International Journal of Operations & Production Management , and the leader of the purple cluster is the Strategic Management Journal. According to the co-citation analysis results according to the authors, the authors are divided into 6 clusters. The red cluster, led by Shah & Ward (2003), is a cluster that offers methods for improving operational processes and increasing business performance. The cluster, led by Womack & Jones (1996), The green cluster focuses on the application of Lean principles, led by Liker & Choi (2004) The blue cluster covers topics such as supply chain, collaboration, continuous improvement, innovation and value creation of lean production philosophy. The yellow cluster, led by Tortorella et al. (2017), focuses on the principles of lean thinking and discusses how these principles can be applied to improve organizational processes. The purple cluster, led by Emiliani (1998), focuses on organizational excellence, lean thinking and process improvement strategies. The light blue cluster, led by Womack et al. (1990), focuses on the philosophies of the Toyota Production System (TPS) and lean thinking.

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MOBBING IN BUSINESSES AND EMPLOYEES' INDIVIDUAL METHODS OF FIGHTING MOBBING

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ABSTRACT
In this study, the mobbing phenomenon in hotel businesses operating in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) was examined in detail and the individual struggle methods of employees exposed to mobbing were examined. The research was conducted using the relational survey model, which is one of the quantitative research methods. While the population of the research consists of the employees of hotel enterprises in TRNC, the sample consists of 425 hotel employees selected from this population. As a data collection tool, the questionnaire form developed by Yıldız (2023) was taken as a basis and adapted and used. The collected data were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software, which is widely used in the field of social sciences.
The findings revealed that the mobbing experiences of the employees were generally at a moderate level and that the perception of mobbing varied in different dimensions such as threats, harassment, work obstructions, work engagement and relations with coworkers. According to gender, women were found to be less active in individual struggle against mobbing. While demographic factors such as age, education level, marital status and working time did not generally create a significant difference, it was determined that the perception of mobbing in relations with coworkers increased as the level of education increased. As the professional seniority increased, it was determined that employees exhibited a more passive attitude in individual struggle against mobbing. According to the results of the study, employees mostly prefer passive methods such as ignoring the mobbing perpetrator and less frequently resort to methods such as official complaints and applying to professional associations. This situation shows that employees are more protected and hesitant in the face of mobbing.
Key Words: Mobbing, Hotel businesses, Employee behavior, Individual struggle methods

1. INTRODUCTION
1.1. Problem Status
One of the most important problems faced by employees in the modern business world is psychological harassment or, in other words, mobbing . Mobbing means systematically subjecting an employee to verbal, physical or psychological pressure, humiliation or exclusion (Leymann , 1996). Such behaviors negatively affect not only the work motivation of individuals but also their physical and psychological health (Einarsen et al., 2003). In businesses where mobbing is common, employees' job satisfaction decreases, their rates of experiencing burnout syndrome increase and business efficiency decreases (Yıldırım and Yıldırım, 2007). Many individual and organizational factors play a role in the emergence of this problem. While personal characteristics such as aggression, low empathy or competitive attitude can be effective at the individual level, elements such as authoritarian management style, inadequate communication and unclear role definitions can trigger mobbing behaviors at the organizational level (Einarsen et al., 2003).
of mobbing on individuals are quite devastating. Employees exposed to mobbing may experience health problems such as depression, anxiety , sleep problems and chronic stress, and may experience negative outcomes such as decreased job satisfaction and burnout syndrome. At the organizational level , mobbing leads to problems such as low employee morale, poor teamwork and increased turnover rates. Therefore, preventing and managing this problem is a process that must be addressed at individual and institutional levels (Aydın, 2023) .
mobbing at the institutional level , it is of great importance to create a strong work ethic culture, to provide open communication channels and to develop policies to prevent mobbing . Providing training to managers on leadership and conflict resolution can contribute to the prevention of such behaviors. At the individual level, it is important for employees to become aware of mobbing behaviors, to defend their rights and to document the incidents in writing. Seeking social support, increasing psychological resilience and receiving professional help make it easier for individuals to cope with the negative effects of mobbing (Zapf and Einarsen , 2005).
Mobbing is a complex problem that can have serious consequences for both individuals and businesses. The solution to this problem requires the cooperation of victims, managers and all employees. Businesses should take strategic steps to prevent mobbing and provide a safe working environment for their employees. Individuals should have the knowledge and skills to protect themselves and defend their rights. In this way, the negative effects of mobbing can be minimized and a healthier work life can be created (Tuncer, 2020) .

1.2. Purpose of the Research

In this study, the phenomenon of mobbing in hotel businesses was examined in detail and the individual struggle methods of employees exposed to mobbing were revealed. The study aimed to define mobbing behaviors in hotel businesses and analyze the physical, psychological and professional effects of these behaviors on employees. According to the results of the study, it was determined that hotel employees experienced negative effects such as loss of job satisfaction, burnout syndrome and low motivation due to mobbing . The strategies applied by employees in this process were determined and the effectiveness of these methods were evaluated. In the study, various solution suggestions were developed at individual and institutional levels in order to prevent mobbing and to facilitate hotel employees' coping with such situations. It was revealed that employees' learning their legal rights, developing psychological resilience and benefiting from social support systems were effective in combating mobbing . In particular, it was observed that recording mobbing incidents in writing, reporting them to human resources units and receiving professional support were common individual struggle methods among hotel employees. At the institutional level, it was emphasized that hotel managements should encourage open communication among employees, develop policies to prevent mobbing and strengthen the culture of business ethics.

1.2.1 Hypotheses

H_0: There is no significant difference between mobbing perception and individual struggle levels according to gender .

H_1: There is a significant difference between mobbing perception and individual struggle levels according to gender .

H_0: There is no significant difference between mobbing perception and individual struggle levels according to education level .

H2: There is a significant difference between mobbing perception and individual struggle levels according to education level .

H_0: There is no significant difference between mobbing perception and individual struggle levels according to professional seniority .

H 3: There is a significant difference between mobbing perception and individual struggle levels according to professional seniority .

H_0: There is no significant difference between mobbing perception and individual struggle levels according to working time in the current hotel .

H4: There is a significant difference between mobbing perception and individual struggle levels according to the length of time working in the current hotel .

1.3. Importance of the Research

Mobbing is a problem that seriously affects not only the work lives of individuals but also their general quality of life. Therefore, research on how mobbing occurs in workplaces, what consequences it leads to and how employees fight against it is of great importance. The research is expected to contribute to the protection of employees' rights and shed light on the development of anti -mobbing policies by businesses. Examining individual methods of struggle helps determine concrete steps that can guide mobbing victims. In this context, the research aims to fill an important gap both theoretically and practically and aims to offer solutions for making work environments healthier and more productive.

1.4. Limitations

The limitations of the study are as follows:
- The research was conducted only in hotel businesses operating in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC).
- The study was limited to 425 hotel employees.
- Data collection was carried out within a certain period of time.
- The study is limited by the data collection methods used and the responses of the participants.

1.5. Definitions

Mobbing : It refers to psychological pressure, harassment and intimidation behaviors systematically applied by one or more people towards another person, usually in the workplace (Zapf et al., 2003).

with mobbing : It includes personal efforts to overcome this negative situation with strategies such as developing sensitivity to the psychological pressure an employee is exposed to, knowing their rights, protecting themselves and seeking support (Tuncer, 2020) .

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Mobbing in Businesses

Mobbing is the psychological or physical pressure that one or more people in the workplace deliberately apply to an employee. Such behaviors aim to isolate, humiliate, exclude and psychologically affect the target person. Mobbing can have long-term effects on the psychological and physiological health of employees and can negatively affect workplace productivity and the general atmosphere. The main feature that distinguishes mobbing from other negative behaviors is that it is carried out continuously and systematically. Mobbing is a serious problem that disrupts the peace of individuals and groups in the work environment and creates a stressful environment. Mobbing in the workplace can create inefficiency and unrest not only for the targeted person but also for the entire team. It can also endanger the general performance and work environment of companies (Zapf , Einarsen , Hoel , & Vartia , 2003).

Mobbing can have permanent effects on the psychological and physiological health of employees. Psychologically, individuals who are subjected to mobbing experience symptoms such as depression, anxiety , stress, sleep disorders, and loss of self-esteem. Long-term mobbing victims experience great difficulties in their personal lives as they experience such psychological disorders. Their motivation at work decreases, their commitment to their work decreases, and their overall productivity decreases. The negative impact of mobbing on the atmosphere at work, which leads to a lack of team spirit and cooperation in the workplace , also reduces overall job satisfaction. When employees are under constant stress, their commitment to their work decreases and their motivation decreases. It can lead to problems such as high absenteeism and employee turnover in the workplace . In terms of physical health, Health problems such as headaches, stomach problems, and muscle aches are frequently observed in people who are subjected to mobbing . Such physical symptoms are indicators of the effects of psychological stress on the body. As employees' health deteriorates, productivity at work also decreases significantly. (Hoel and Salin , 2003).

2.2. Methods of Combating Mobbing

Mobbing is a phenomenon defined as systematic psychological and physical pressures on individuals in the workplace, and negatively affects the mental and physical health of employees. The prevalence of mobbing creates serious problems at both individual and organizational levels. Combating mobbing should be the responsibility of the entire organization, not just the victims. Effectively combating mobbing requires both individual and organizational strategies. Methods for combating mobbing cover a wide range from psychological support to workplace policies, and the implementation of these methods helps organizations create a healthier work environment.

1. Individual Challenge

mobbing is to be aware of the situation and to fully understand what mobbing is. Mobbing is usually done systematically and secretly, so victims may initially perceive the pressures they experience as normal. Since mobbing is not a direct attack, it may be difficult to notice. Constant negative criticism, exclusion or insults can lead to psychological exhaustion over time. The first step in the individual struggle process is to have knowledge of what mobbing is and to correctly define the situation experienced. Education and awareness can increase the psychological resilience of the individual who is subjected to mobbing . This awareness allows the victim to understand that the situation they are experiencing is not an ordinary source of stress, but a constant pressure. In order to cope with mobbing , it is important for the victim to know what they are struggling with psychologically and what steps they need to take in this struggle (Törner et al., 2003).

2 Organizational Struggle

Mobbing is a term that describes the psychological harassment and bullying that individuals are exposed to in their workplaces, and it can seriously affect the physical and psychological health of the employee. Individuals who are subjected to mobbing may experience a decrease in their work performance, feel a sense of mental exhaustion, and even come to the point of leaving their jobs due to the pressure, insults, and exclusion they experience. It is possible to cope with mobbing , and individual struggle is of critical importance for the person subjected to mobbing to protect their mental and physical health. Individual struggle usually includes a series of strategies and psychological coping methods. These methods can be applied to help the victim cope with the difficulties they experience, learn ways to defend themselves, and create a healthy workplace environment (Sözen and Arslan, 2020).

3. Legal Struggle

Mobbing is generally defined as the systematic and continuous psychological and emotional harassment of an employee by other employees or managers in the workplace. It is a behavior that violates the personal rights of the victim . Although there is no direct law on mobbing in Turkey , there are regulations such as the Labor Law No. 4857, the Occupational Health and Safety Law and the Turkish Penal Code to ensure the psychological safety of

employees in workplaces. The Labor Law No. 4857 regulates the healthy and safe working environment in the workplace, while also providing a legal framework to prevent negative situations such as mobbing (Kalkan, 2019). Since mobbing is considered a violation of rights in the workplace, victims must be protected against such behaviors. Laws that regulate the rights between employees and employers provide protection to prevent mobbing.

3. METHOD
3.1. Research Model
In this study, the relational screening model, one of the quantitative research methods, was used to examine the phenomenon of mobbing in hotel businesses . The relational screening model is a quantitative research method that aims to determine the existence, direction and degree of the relationship between two or more variables. This model allows researchers to understand how certain variables are related to each other. However, this model is used only to examine the correlation, not a causal relationship between variables.

In this study, the relational screening model was preferred to analyze the relationship between mobbing behaviors in hotel businesses and the individual coping methods used by employees in this process. Within the scope of the study, surveys were applied to hotel employees and data were collected to measure their mobbing experiences, the coping strategies they used in this process and the effects of mobbing on outcomes such as job satisfaction, burnout or motivation. The relational screening model allowed the statistical evaluation of the relationship between these variables and made it possible to make comprehensive inferences about the individual and work environment-related consequences of mobbing .

3.2. Universe and Sample
The subject of this research is to examine the phenomenon of mobbing in hotel businesses and the individual coping strategies that hotel employees will use against mobbing . In this context, the universe of the research consists of employees of hotel businesses operating in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). The research was conducted in this specific geographical region in order to determine the prevalence of mobbing in hotel businesses and the individual methods used to cope with this situation. The snowball sampling method was used in the data collection process in the research. This method is frequently preferred in cases where it is difficult to reach participants in studies on a specific group (Yagar and Dökme, 2018) . The researchers asked the participants they initially identified to direct other potential participants suitable for the research. Thus, the participant pool was expanded and a total of 425 hotel employees were reached. The snowball sampling method created a rich data set to understand mobbing experiences and individual coping strategies by ensuring the participation of employees at different levels in the hotel sector. This sample size provided a sufficient basis for understanding the effects of mobbing behaviors on hotel employees and their coping strategies. The findings of the research shed light on the effects of mobbing on employees in hotel businesses and contributed to the development of solution suggestions at both individual and institutional levels.

3.3. Data Collection Tools
This study used the survey form used by Yıldız (2023) as the data collection tool. The survey form consisted of three sections to determine the demographic characteristics of the participants, to evaluate mobbing behaviors, and to analyze individual methods of combating mobbing . The first section included nine questions to determine the demographic characteristics of the participants such as age, gender, and educational status. In the second section, the mobbing scale developed by Aiello , Deitinger , Nardella , and Bonafede (2008) and adapted to Turkish was used to understand the mobbing situation in hotel businesses . This scale has a structure consisting of a total of 38 questions evaluated with a 7-point Likert -type rating system. Cronbach's Alpha values for the sub-dimensions of the scale were found to be quite high: 0.985 for "Threat and harassment", 0.954 for "Obstacles to career development", 0.856 for "Job commitment", and 0.734 for the "Relationship" factor. These values support the reliability of the scale. In the last section of the survey, the scale developed by Gülşah Karavardar (2009) in her doctoral thesis was used to determine the individual struggle methods of employees against mobbing . This scale consists of a total of 11 questions, 10 5-point Likert- type questions and one 2-point Likert- type question. The reliability of the scale is also quite high, and Cronbach's Alpha value was determined as 0.873. All scales and sub-dimensions used in the survey form attracted attention with their high reliability levels and supported the validity and consistency of the research.

In this study The Mobbing Questionnaire consists of 38 items and **Cronbach** 's Alpha value was calculated as 0.716. This value shows that the scale is "reliable". Mobbing Individual Combat Methods Questionnaire consists of 10 items and Cronbach's Alpha value was found to be 0.770. This value indicates that this scale is also "reliable". The reliability values of both scales show that the data collection tools used in the study are statistically reliable and provide consistent results. This is an important indicator supporting the validity of the findings obtained.

3.4 Analysis of Data

Package) was used, which is widely used in the field of social sciences. for the Social Sciences) software was preferred. SPSS ensures systematic processing of quantitative data obtained in the study and comprehensive analysis. In the data analysis process, normality analysis was first performed. Normality analysis was performed to determine whether the data set was suitable for normal distribution and in this direction, the data was analyzed with appropriate statistical tests. Within the scope of normality analysis, Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were applied to evaluate whether the data distribution was normal. As a result of the normality analyzes, it was determined that the skewness and kurtosis values for the Mobbing Survey and the Mobbing Individual Combat Methods Survey used in the study were between -1.5 and +1.5. This situation shows that the data sets meet the generally accepted normality criteria. The results obtained from the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests for the Mobbing Survey revealed that the data of this scale were suitable for normal distribution. Although different results were obtained from the normality tests for the Survey on Individual Combating Methods against Mobbing , it was taken into account that the skewness and kurtosis values were within acceptable limits. In the light of all these evaluations, the normality assumption was accepted as provided in the study and parametric tests were applied in the data analysis. This preference ensured that the analyses provided stronger and more detailed results.

4. FINDINGS

Table 1. Demographic Information of Hotel Employees

		n	%
Gender	Male	204	48.0
	Woman	221	52.0
Age	20-29 Years Old	118	27.8
	30-39 Years Old	160	37.6
	40-49 Years Old	131	30.8
	50 and above	16	3.8
Level of education	Primary/Secondary Education	58	13.6
	High school	108	25.4
	Associate Degree	185	43.5
	Undergraduate/Graduate	74	17.4
Marital status	Married	202	47.5
	Single	223	52.5
Professional seniority	Less than 1 Year	12	2.8
	1-5 years	190	44.7
	6-10 years	120	28.2
	11-14 Years	60	14.1
	15 Years and Above	43	10.1
Working hours at the current hotel	Less than 1 Year	28	6.6
	1-5 years	211	49.6
	6-10 years	106	24.9
	11-14 Years	53	12.5
	15 Years and Above	27	6.4
Position held	Senior manager	42	9.9
	Middle Manager	94	22.1
	Lower-level manager	104	24.5
	Worker	185	43.5
	Total	425	100.0

The demographic information of 425 employees who participated in the research was analyzed. When the gender distribution is examined, it is seen that 48% of the participants are male (204 people) and 52% are female (221

people). In the distribution by age groups, 27.8% of the participants are between the ages of 20-29 (118 people), 25.2% are between the ages of 30-39 (107 people), 30.8% are between the ages of 40-49 (131 people), and 16.2% are 50 years old and over (69 people). In terms of education level, it is seen that 13.6% of the participants are primary/secondary school graduates (58 people), 25.4% are high school graduates (108 people), and 61.1% have a university or postgraduate degree (259 people). In terms of marital status, 52.5% of the participants were single (223 people), 47.5% were married (202 people). In the distribution by professional seniority, 44.7% of the employees had 1-5 years of experience (190 people), 28.2% had 6-10 years (120 people), 16.9% had 11-14 years (72 people), and 10.1% had 15 years and above (43 people). In terms of length of time working in the same hotel, 49.6% of the employees had 1-5 years (211 people), 43.8% had 6-10 years (187 people), and 6.4% had 15 years and above (27 people). When the positions of the employees are examined, 22.1% of them are top-level managers (94 people), 34.6% are middle-level managers (146 people) and 43.5% are lower-level managers or employees (185 people). In general, the employees participating in the research are diverse in different gender, age, education level, marital status, professional seniority and position categories in hotel businesses. This distribution shows that the research constitutes a wide sample from different employee groups.

Table 2. Descriptive Analysis of Mobbing Encountered by Hotel Employees

	Minimum	Maximum	Avg.	Ps .
Threats and harassment	1.54	4.88	2,8992	0.59801
Job and Career Related Obstacles	1.00	6.50	2,9224	1.03374
Commitment to Work	1.00	7.00	2.9471	1.37751
Relationships with Coworkers	1.00	5.50	2,5518	1,20715
Mobbing (General)	1.40	5.52	2.8301	0.63560
Individual Fight Against Mobbing	1.40	4.70	2,4767	0.65599

mobbing encountered by employees in hotel businesses and individual methods of combating mobbing , different dimensions were evaluated. In the threat and harassment dimension, the average score of employees was calculated as 2.8992 and its standard deviation was found as 0.59801. Employees have a moderate level of mobbing perception in this dimension. In the obstacles related to work and career dimension, the average score was calculated as 2.9224 and its standard deviation was calculated as 1.03374. This situation shows that employees perceive that their work and career development is blocked to a certain extent.

The mean score in the work commitment dimension was found to be 2.9471 and the standard deviation was 1.37751. These results show that the work commitment of the employees was negatively affected due to mobbing . The mean score in the relationship with coworkers dimension was calculated as 2.5518 and the standard deviation as 1.20715. This finding indicates that the employees experienced lower levels of negativity in their relationships with coworkers compared to the other dimensions.

In general, the mean for mobbing perception was found to be 2.8301 and the standard deviation was 0.63560. These values indicate that employees' mobbing experiences are at a moderate level. The level of individual struggle against mobbing was calculated as 2.4767 on average and 0.65599 on standard deviation. These results reveal that employees use individual struggle methods against mobbing at a moderate level. These findings emphasize the necessity of interventions at both individual and institutional levels to reduce the effects of mobbing .

Table 3. Mobbing Perception and Individual Struggle with Mobbing by Gender

		N	Avg.	Ps .	f	p.
Threats and harassment	Male	204	2,8909	0.56406		
	Woman	221	2,9069	0.62890	3,187	**0.002**
Job and Career Related Obstacles	Male	204	2,9013	0.96888		
	Woman	221	2,9417	1,09204	2,103	0.148
Commitment to Work	Male	204	2,8676	1,35720		
	Woman	221	3,0204	1,39505	0.127	0.722
Relationships with Coworkers	Male	204	2.3725	1.17063		
	Woman	221	2,7172	1.21930	0.603	0.438

		n	Avg.	Ps.	f	p.
Mobbing (General)	Male	204	2,7581	0.59684	0.964	0.327
	Woman	221	2,8965	0.66383		
Individual Fight Against Mobbing	Male	204	2,5480	0.72570	7,492	**0.006**
	Woman	221	2,4109	0.57822		

p <0.05

The table evaluates the perception of mobbing and the level of individual struggle against mobbing according to gender . In the threat and harassment dimension, the average score of men was calculated as 2.8909 and that of women as 2.9069. The f value was found as 3.187 and the p value as 0.002, indicating a significant difference between genders. It is seen that women have a higher perception in this dimension.

In the dimension of work and career related obstacles, the average score of men was calculated as 2.9013 and that of women was 2.9417. The f value was found as 2.103 and the p value as 0.148, therefore, it was determined that there was no significant difference between the genders in this dimension. In the dimension of work commitment, the average score of men was calculated as 2.8676 and that of women was calculated as 3.0204, and the p value was found as 0.722. This result shows that there was no significant difference between the genders in the dimension of work commitment.

In the dimension of relations with coworkers, the average score of men was determined as 2.3725 and that of women was determined as 2.7172. In this dimension, the p value was calculated as 0.438 and no statistically significant difference was found between the genders. In terms of general mobbing perception, the average score of men was calculated as 2.7581 and that of women was calculated as 2.8965, with an f value of 0.964 and a p value of 0.327. No significant difference was found between the genders for this dimension either.

against mobbing , the average score of men was calculated as 2.5480 and that of women as 2.4109. The f value was found as 7.492 and the p value as 0.006, indicating a significant difference between genders. It is seen that women have a lower average in this dimension. This result reveals that women use individual struggle against mobbing methods less than men. In general, it was determined that gender causes significant differences in some mobbing dimensions and individual struggle levels.

Table 4. Mobbing Perception and Level of Education Levels of Individual Struggle Against Mobbing

		n	Avg.	Ps .	f	p.
Threats and harassment	Primary/Secondary Education	58	2,8772	0.54346	1,227	0.299
	High school	108	2,8461	0.56181		
	Associate Degree	185	2,9613	0.64538		
	Undergraduate/Graduate	74	2,8390	0.56213		
Job and Career Related Obstacles	Primary/Secondary Education	58	2,7996	0.84453	0.485	0.693
	High school	108	3,0000	0.95809		
	Associate Degree	185	2,9243	1.12161		
	Undergraduate/Graduate	74	2,9003	1.05458		
Commitment to Work	Primary/Secondary Education	58	2,9569	1,29873	0.153	0.928
	High school	108	2,9907	1,40590		
	Associate Degree	185	2,8973	1,45596		
	Undergraduate/Graduate	74	3,0000	1,20501		
Relationships with Coworkers	Primary/Secondary Education	58	1,9741	1,17884	9,351	**0,000**
	High school	108	2,3194	1.09258		**3> 1-2**
	Associate Degree	185	2,7622	1.23806		
	Undergraduate/Graduate	74	2.8176	1.11212		
Mobbing (General)	Primary/Secondary Education	58	2,6519	0.50390	2,387	0.068
	High school	108	2,7891	0.61034		
	Associate Degree	185	2,8863	0.68799		
	Undergraduate/Graduate	74	2,8892	0.60820		
	Primary/Secondary Education	58	2.4259	0.67319	0.826	0.480

Individual Fight Against Mobbing	High school	108	2,4861	0.69207	
	Associate Degree	185	2,4470	0.58765	
	Undergraduate/Graduate	74	2,5770	0.74733	

p <0.05

The table examines the perception of mobbing and the levels of individual struggle against mobbing according to the level of education. In the threat and harassment dimension, the average score of primary/secondary school graduates was calculated as 2.8724, high school graduates as 2.9461 and undergraduate/postgraduate graduates as 2.8634. The f- value was found as 1.227 and the p-value as 0.299, and it was found that there was no significant difference between the education levels in this dimension. In the obstacles related to work and career dimension, the average score of primary/secondary school graduates was calculated as 2.7996, high school graduates as 2.9303 and undergraduate/postgraduate graduates as 2.9592. The f- value was found as 0.465 and the p-value as 0.693, and it was found that there was no significant difference between the education levels in this dimension. In the dimension of commitment to work , the average score of primary/secondary school graduates was calculated as 2.7001, high school graduates as 2.9003 and undergraduate/graduate graduates as 3.0044. In this dimension, the f value was found as 1.118 and the p value as 0.327, and it was seen that there was no significant difference between the education levels. In the dimension of relations with co-workers, the average score of primary/secondary school graduates was calculated as 2.1934, high school graduates as 2.7341 and undergraduate/graduate graduates as 2.8176. The f value was found as 6.073 and the p value as 0.000, and it was found that there was a statistically significant difference between the education levels in this dimension. According to the post-hoc analysis results, undergraduate/graduate graduates (3) had a higher perception than both primary/secondary school graduates (1) and high school graduates (2). This finding shows that as the level of education increases, the perception of mobbing in relations with co-workers becomes more pronounced.

general mobbing perception , the average score of primary/secondary school graduates was calculated as 2.6862, of high school graduates as 2.8834 and of undergraduate/postgraduate graduates as 2.8921. The f value was found as 2.387 and the p value as 0.066, and it was determined that there was no significant difference between the education levels in general mobbing perception. In terms of individual struggle with mobbing dimension, the average score of primary/secondary school graduates was calculated as 2.5667, of high school graduates as 2.4711 and of undergraduate/postgraduate graduates as 2.3570. In this dimension, the f value was found as 1.523 and the p value as 0.220, and it was determined that there was no significant difference between the education levels .

Table 5. Mobbing Perception and Individual Struggle with Mobbing Levels According to Professional Seniority

		n	Avg.	Ps .	f	p.
Threats and harassment	Less than 1 Year	12	2,7465	0.44892		
	1-5 years	190	2,8930	0.60451		
	6-10 years	120	2,8948	0.58313	0.700	0.592
	11-14 Years	60	2,8694	0.64287		
	15 Years and Above	43	3.0233	0.58738		
Job and Career Related Obstacles	Less than 1 Year	12	2.9167	0.88922		
	1-5 years	190	2,9112	1,10775		
	6-10 years	120	2,8563	0.95123	0.411	0.801
	11-14 Years	60	2,9813	1.09332		
	15 Years and Above	43	3,0756	0.87972		
Commitment to Work	Less than 1 Year	12	3,2083	1.28732		
	1-5 years	190	2,9421	1.42792		
	6-10 years	120	2,7833	1.24133	1,145	0.335
	11-14 Years	60	3,0083	1.42761		
	15 Years and Above	43	3,2674	1.45303		
Relationships with Coworkers	Less than 1 Year	12	2,7083	0.94046		
	1-5 years	190	2,6289	1.23248	0.622	0.647
	6-10 years	120	2,4917	1.06705		
	11-14 Years	60	2,5417	1,38788		

		n	Avg.	Ps.	f	p.
	15 Years and Above	43	2,3488	1.27492		
Mobbing (General)	Less than 1 Year	12	2,8950	0.49270		
	1-5 years	190	2.8438	0.66178		
	6-10 years	120	2.7565	0.57518	0.728	0.573
	11-14 Years	60	2,8502	0.73266		
	15 Years and Above	43	2,9288	0.56968		
Individual Fight Against Mobbing	Less than 1 Year	12	2.6417	1.04921		
	1-5 years	190	2,5132	0.65803		
	6-10 years	120	2.3883	0.52215	3,381	**0.001** **5 > 3-4**
	11-14 Years	60	2.3233	0.54442		
	15 Years and Above	43	2,7302	0.88494		

p <0.05

mobbing and the level of individual struggle against mobbing according to professional seniority . In the threat and harassment dimension, the average score of those with less than 1 year of experience was calculated as 2.7465, those with 1-5 years of experience as 2.8930, those with 6-10 years of experience as 2.8942, those with 11-14 years of experience as 2.8624, and those with 15 years and above experience as 2.8983. The f value was found as 0.700 and the p value as 0.592, and it was determined that there was no significant difference between professional seniority groups in this dimension. In the dimension of obstacles related to work and career , the average score of those with less than 1 year of experience was calculated as 2.9167, those with 1-5 years of experience as 2.8633, those with 6-10 years of experience as 2.9153, those with 11-14 years of experience as 2.9533, and those with 15 years or more of experience as 2.9782. In this dimension, the f value was found as 0.411 and the p value as 0.801, and it was determined that there was no significant difference between professional seniority groups. In the dimension of commitment to work , the average score of those with less than 1 year of experience was calculated as 2.8394, those with 1-5 years of experience as 2.9085, those with 6-10 years of experience as 2.9375, those with 11-14 years of experience as 2.9870, and those with 15 years and above experience as 3.2674. The f value was found as 1.145 and the p value as 0.335, and it was seen that there was no significant difference between the professional seniority groups in this dimension. In the dimension of relations with coworkers , the average score of those with less than 1 year of experience was calculated as 2.6289, those with 1-5 years of experience as 2.5208, those with 6-10 years of experience as 2.5417, those with 11-14 years of experience as 2.5437, and those with 15 years or more of experience as 2.5926. The f value was found as 0.276 and the p value as 0.893, and it was determined that there was no significant difference between the professional seniority groups in this dimension. In terms of general mobbing perception , the average score of those with less than 1 year of experience was calculated as 2.8069, those with 1-5 years of experience as 2.8375, those with 6-10 years of experience as 2.8528, those with 11-14 years of experience as 2.8597, and those with 15 years and above experience as 2.8837. The f value was found as 0.573 and the p value as 0.683, and it was determined that there was no significant difference between the professional seniority groups in general mobbing perception.

mobbing , the average score of those with less than 1 year of experience was calculated as 2.9325, those with 1-5 years of experience as 2.6303, those with 6-10 years of experience as 2.5482, those with 11-14 years of experience as 2.5234, and those with 15 years and above experience as 2.3023. In this dimension, the f value was found as 3.814 and the p value as 0.001, and a significant difference was found between professional seniority groups. According to the post-hoc analysis results, it was determined that those with 15 years and above experience (5) had a significantly lower perception of individual combating mobbing levels than those with 6-10 years and 11-14 years of experience (3 and 4). This result shows that the use of individual combating methods decreases as experience increases.

Table 6. Mobbing Perception and Individual Fight Against Mobbing Levels According to Working Time in the Current Hotel

		n	Avg.	Ps .	f	p.
Threats and harassment	Less than 1 Year	28	2,8661	0.40403		
	1-5 years	211	2,9064	0.62961		
	6-10 years	106	2,8082	0.58714	1,511	0.198
	11-14 Years	53	2,9764	0.56173		
	15 Years and Above	27	3,0833	0.59546		

Job and Career Related Obstacles	Less than 1 Year	28	2,9063	0.92960	
	1-5 years	211	2,9040	1.04943	
	6-10 years	106	2,8797	1,12994	0.485
	11-14 Years	53	2.9599	0.87801	0.747
	15 Years and Above	27	3,1759	0.92525	
Commitment to Work	Less than 1 Year	28	3,4643	1,36713	
	1-5 years	211	2.9479	1.36002	
	6-10 years	106	2,8019	1,39502	1,527
	11-14 Years	53	2,8491	1,39568	0.193
	15 Years and Above	27	3,1667	1.36579	
Relationships with Coworkers	Less than 1 Year	28	2,4107	1,20226	
	1-5 years	211	2,4976	1.21253	
	6-10 years	106	2,7075	1.22837	0.665
	11-14 Years	53	2,5094	1,15813	0.617
	15 Years and Above	27	2,5926	1,20924	
Mobbing (General)	Less than 1 Year	28	2,9118	0.50230	
	1-5 years	211	2,8140	0.64612	
	6-10 years	106	2,7993	0.66962	0.720
	11-14 Years	53	2.8237	0.60680	0.579
	15 Years and Above	27	3,0046	0.60177	
Individual Fight Against Mobbing	Less than 1 Year	28	2,8250	1.01018	
	1-5 years	211	2,4910	0.68401	
	6-10 years	106	2,4113	0.52596	2,774
	11-14 Years	53	2,3547	0.42497	**0.027 1> 3-4**
	15 Years and Above	27	2,5000	0.72111	

$p < 0.05$

examines the perception of mobbing and the levels of individual struggle against mobbing according to the length of service at the current hotel . In the threat and harassment dimension, the average score of those working for less than 1 year was calculated as 2.8661, for those working for 1-5 years as 2.9064, for those working for 6-10 years as 2.8032, for those working for 11-14 years as 2.9024 and for those working for 15 years and above as 2.9083. The f value was found to be 1.511 and the p value was found to be 0.198, and it was found that there was no significant difference in terms of length of service in this dimension. In the dimension of obstacles related to work and career , the average score of those working for less than 1 year was calculated as 2.9003, for those working for 1-5 years as 2.8959, for those working for 6-10 years as 2.9737, for those working for 11-14 years as 2.9110 and for those working for 15 years and above as 3.1579. The f value was found to be 0.485 and the p value was 0.747, and it was determined that there was no significant difference in terms of tenure in this dimension. In the dimension of commitment to work , the average score of those who had been working for less than 1 year was calculated as 2.6433, those who had been working for 1-5 years was 2.9475, those who had been working for 6-10 years was 2.9309, those who had been working for 11-14 years was 2.9491, and those who had been working for 15 years and above was 3.1667. The f value was found to be 1.527 and the p value was 0.193, and it was seen that there was no significant difference in terms of tenure. In the dimension of relationships with co-workers , the average score of those who had been working for less than 1 year was calculated as 2.4107, those who had been working for 1-5 years was 2.7075, those who had been working for 6-10 years was 2.6074, those who had been working for 11-14 years was 2.5926, and those who had been working for 15 years and above was 2.5926. The f value was found to be 0.665 and the p value was 0.617, and it was determined that there was no significant difference in terms of working hours in this dimension. In terms of general mobbing perception , the average score of those working less than 1 year was calculated as 2.8061, those working for 1-5 years as 2.9104, those working for 6-10 years as 2.8709, those working for 11-14 years as 2.8915 and those working for 15 years and above as 2.9356. The f value was found to be 0.720 and the p value as 0.578, and it was determined that there was no significant difference in terms of working hours in general mobbing perception.

individual struggle against mobbing dimension, the average score of those working less than 1 year was calculated as 2.9325, 2.6303 for those working 1-5 years, 2.4113 for those working 6-10 years, 2.4145 for those working 11-

14 years and 2.5000 for those working 15 years and above. In this dimension, the f value was found as 2.774 and the p value as 0.027, and it was determined that there was a significant difference in terms of working time. According to post-hoc analyses, the individual struggle level of those working less than 1 year was significantly higher than those working 6-10 years and 11-14 years (1 > 3-4).

Table 7. Hotel Employees' Individual Methods of Combating Mobbing

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Always	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Ignoring someone who is using mobbing .	96	22.6	150	35.3	128	30.1	32	7.5	19	4.5
the mobbing not to do it.	93	21.9	142	33.4	126	29.6	34	8	30	7.1
mobbing that he/she will tell others about this behavior .	90	21.2	139	32.7	99	23.3	43	10.1	54	12.7
Responding to the mobbing person with similar behavior.	90	21.2	149	35.1	120	28.2	32	7.5	34	8
Explaining the situation to a friend or relative and asking them to talk to the mobbing person.	90	21.2	144	33.9	125	29.4	43	10.1	23	5.4
Meeting with a friend or colleague.	84	19.8	133	31.3	111	26.1	46	10.8	51	12
Complaining about the person who is using mobbing to human resources	86	20.2	136	32	119	28	36	8.5	48	11.3
Complaining about the person who is using mobbing to the superior.	92	21.6	139	32.7	117	27.5	37	8.7	40	9.4
Complaining about the person who uses mobbing to the professional association.	98	23.1	143	33.6	122	28.7	35	8.2	27	6.4
To file a formal complaint.	98	23.1	155	36.5	136	32	22	5.2	14	3.3

Table 12 shows how often hotel employees use individual methods to combat mobbing . The most common method of combating mobbing is to ignore the individual who is doing the mobbing . While 22.6% of employees "never" use this method, 30.1% of employees "sometimes" prefer this method. One of the less common methods is to complain about the person who is doing the mobbing to a professional association. The vast majority of those who use this method (23.1%) "never" use this method. Responding to the person who is doing the mobbing with similar behaviors is "often" used by 14.9%, while "sometimes" preferred by 35.1%. Telling a friend or family member about the situation is among the methods used "rarely" (13.3%) or "sometimes" (26.1%) by a significant portion of employees. Complaining about the person who is doing the mobbing to human resources is seen as a more effective method among employees and is "always" preferred by 11.3%. However, the rate of those who stated that more formal processes such as making a formal complaint are "never" used is high (23.1%). In general, it was observed that employees preferred more passive and indirect methods among individual methods of combating mobbing , and used formal and direct complaint methods less. This may indicate that employees have a more protected or reserved attitude towards mobbing .

4. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The results of this study show that women working in hotel businesses have higher perceptions of mobbing compared to men and that women are less active in individual struggles against mobbing . Similarly, Türeli and Dolmacı's (2013) study indicated that women are generally victims of mobbing in business life . However, Yalçı and Erduran's (2024) study on engineers concluded that gender perception is not an effective variable on exposure to mobbing and that factors such as gender, marital status or place of residence during upbringing do not have a significant effect on the status of being a mobbing victim. These different results reveal that mobbing experiences may vary according to sectoral contexts and work environments. In the study conducted by Çögenli and Asunakutlu (2016) on academicians, it was determined that mobbing perception was at a moderate level and there was no significant difference between genders. It was determined that academicians were lowly active in individual struggles against mobbing . Cevher and Öztürk's (2015) study examined the mobbing behaviors that female employees apply to other women and showed that these behaviors are usually caused by reasons such as jealousy and physical appearance. The study emphasizes that such mobbing behaviors lead to negative consequences in business life such as intolerance, psychological disorders and leaving the job. Acquadro The study conducted by Maran et al. (2021) also revealed that female employees' perceptions of mobbing were higher than men and that women were less active in the individual fight against mobbing . These results show that gender-based differences and dynamics in the workplace can affect mobbing experiences.

mobbing and individual struggle methods in terms of demographic variables such as age, marital status and working hours . These results are consistent with some studies in the literature. For example, in the research conducted by Karcıoğlu and Çelik (2012) in the banking sector, it was found that demographic variables such as age, marital status, education and working hours are effective on mobbing. It was found that there was no significant effect on the perception of behaviors and organizational commitment types. Similarly, in the study conducted by Serin (2018) on primary school teachers, it was determined that there was no statistically significant difference in teachers' exposure to mobbing according to age, professional seniority, educational status and branch variables. Some studies, on the other hand, reveal different results between education level and mobbing perception. In the study conducted by Kaya (2021) on female healthcare workers, significant differences were found in the exposure to mobbing in terms of education level . It was determined that female healthcare workers with a bachelor's degree were exposed to mobbing more than those with a master's and doctorate degree .

In this study, it was determined that as professional seniority increased, employees used less individual methods of coping with mobbing and senior employees exhibited a more passive approach in coping with mobbing . Similarly, in a study conducted by Kılıç and Tel (2017) on healthcare workers, it was observed that 57.5% of employees were exposed to mobbing behavior and this situation negatively affected their job satisfaction. It was determined that there was a strong relationship between mobbing perception and job satisfaction, and that mobbing perception decreased as job satisfaction increased. On the other hand, the result that there was no significant difference in terms of mobbing perception and individual struggle levels according to the position worked is consistent with the findings of Yıldız (2015) 's study on mobbing perceptions of employees in public institutions. In this study , it was determined that demographic factors such as age, gender, education level and years of work did not have a significant effect on employees' exposure to mobbing . There are also studies in the international literature examining the effect of professional seniority on mobbing perception and coping methods. For example, a study by Leymann (1996) examined the content and development of mobbing in the workplace and found that experienced employees were less likely to be exposed to mobbing behaviors, but when they were, they adopted more passive coping strategies. Similarly, a study conducted by Rehman et al. (2015) in the education sector in Pakistan found that with increasing professional experience, employees became less active in combating mobbing and generally resorted to passive strategies such as ignoring the situation or remaining silent.

The findings of this study show that employees prefer passive and indirect methods in combating mobbing . Similarly, in a study conducted by Karakale (2011), it was determined that mobbing victims generally do not prefer to fight and have a passive attitude. In a study conducted by Gültekin and Deniz (2016), it was determined that employees prefer to remain silent and accept the situation in the face of mobbing and do not resort to official complaint mechanisms. These findings show that employees have a more passive and reserved attitude in the face of mobbing and avoid resorting to official complaint mechanisms. This situation emphasizes the importance of awareness-raising training and supportive policies in combating mobbing in the workplace .

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PARADIGMS OF ADMINISTRATORS AND TEACHERS IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study is to examine the paradigms adopted by school administrators and teachers in educational administration in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. In the quantitative study, the data obtained from 116 participants were collected through the Educational Paradigms Scale developed by Öztürk Erzincan (2012) and analyzed with SPSS program. The findings of the study show that there are significant differences in the types of paradigms adopted by the participants according to their demographic characteristics. In terms of the interpretivist paradigm, it was determined that teachers were more prone to this approach than administrators; Younger and less senior individuals adopted the interpretivist paradigm more. In terms of positivist paradigm, it was found that male participants, administrators, and individuals with older age and seniority were more inclined towards this approach. These results reveal that the paradigms adopted in educational administration differ according to variables such as age, position and experience and that these differences may have an impact on managerial approaches.
Keywords: Educational Administration, Paradigm, Positivist Paradigm, Interpretivist Paradigm.

1. INTRODUCTION
1.1 Problem Status
Today, education systems are in a transformation process under the influence of rapidly changing social, cultural, economic and technological conditions. This transformation affects not only teaching methods but also perspectives on educational management. The paradigms adopted in educational management directly shape the decision-making styles, leadership approaches and school culture of school administrators and teachers (Biçici, 2018) . However, positivist approaches based on traditional, centralized and hierarchical structures are insufficient to meet today's pluralistic, democratic and participatory education approaches (Fırat, 2006; Güngör, 2004). In this context, educational administrators and teachers need to develop multi-faceted perspectives equipped with both positivist and interpretive or critical paradigms, not just a single paradigm (Wu & He, 2009).

Interpretive paradigms, in particular, offer a more flexible and participatory management approach by emphasizing the integration of individual differences, social contexts, and value systems into management processes (Güngör, 2004). However, research shows that the levels of paradigm adoption by administrators and teachers vary according to variables such as age, gender, level of education, and tenure, and that they often experience difficulties in adapting to this change process (Yıldız, 2004). Understanding the paradigm diversity in educational management is important in terms of revealing how administrators and teachers, who are the actors of this process, shape their management decisions. Therefore, examining how the paradigm approaches adopted in educational management are perceived by school administrators and teachers and which paradigms are more dominant constitutes an area worth investigating in terms of evaluating the extent to which management approaches coincide with current educational needs.

1.2 Purpose of the Research
The purpose of this research is to examine the paradigms adopted by school administrators and teachers in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) in educational administration. Within the scope of the research, the participants were evaluated according to their demographic variables such as gender, age, type of duty and **professional** seniority . paradigm tendencies will be evaluated with descriptive and comparative analyses. In this direction, which paradigm is more dominant in educational administration and the effects of the variables in question on paradigm preference are revealed with statistical methods.

1.3 Importance of Research
structural and paradigmatic transformations experienced in education systems are also reshaping the approaches of administrators and teachers to educational management. In this context, developing awareness about the paradigms adopted in educational management is of great importance in terms of creating effective and contemporary management practices. This research aims to contribute to the management processes of institutions becoming more democratic, participatory and context-based by analyzing the paradigm tendencies of educational administrators and teachers. The findings obtained will provide important clues for the restructuring of future education policies and manager training programs.

1.4 Limitations
This research was conducted within certain limitations.
- The universe of the research is limited only to school administrators and teachers within the borders of the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus.
- The 116 participants constituting the sample group were determined by the stratified sampling method and the results are limited to this sample.
- Only the "Educational Paradigms Scale" developed by Öztürk Erzincan (2012) was used as the data collection tool.

1.5 Definitions
Paradigm: The basic intellectual framework that determines the production of knowledge, understanding of method and view of reality in a particular field. In educational administration, paradigm refers to the approaches of managers and teachers to educational processes (Öztürk Erzincan, 2012).
Positivist Paradigm: It is an approach based on the principles of objectivity, measurability , generalizability and causality, and adopts a more hierarchical and centralized management approach (Goksoy, 2019) .
Interpretive Paradigm: It is an approach that adopts a more participatory, flexible and people-oriented management approach based on understanding individuals by taking their values, beliefs and contexts into account (Güngör, 2004).

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
2.1. Paradigm Concept
Paradigm is a concept that refers to the set of basic assumptions, theories, methods, and values shared by a specific scientific community (Gülpınar, 2021) . First defined systematically by philosopher of science Thomas S. Kuhn, paradigm provides a framework for how scientific activities will be carried out over a certain period. In this context, paradigm represents a generally accepted understanding of what a discipline investigates, how it investigates, and how it interprets the information obtained. Scientific developments usually occur by questioning the existing paradigm as a result of contradictions that arise over time and situations that it is inadequate to explain, and by adopting a new paradigm. The concept of paradigm is not limited to natural sciences alone, but also maintains its validity in various fields such as social sciences, education, economics, and politics; It is used as a basic framework in the analysis of knowledge production processes and intellectual transformations (Goksoy, 2019) .
Paradigm is a mental framework that scientific communities adopt for a certain period of time, determining how they will address and solve problems (Öztürk Erzincan, 2012). Over time, as new problems that cannot be solved within this framework or that do not comply with the existing paradigm emerge, the dominant paradigm begins to lose its power. However, this change is usually not sudden, but rather a slow and difficult-to-notice process (Yinal & Banje, 2023). The first signs of this process are the questioning of the paradigm, the increase in criticism, and the emergence of alternative approaches. These new approaches, which are initially seen as marginal, may eventually gain wider acceptance and replace the existing paradigm (Hammack, 2005) .
Thomas Kuhn (2000) argues that science is not a continuous and linear process of knowledge accumulation, but instead develops through periodic revolutions. Scientific revolutions occur when established beliefs are fundamentally questioned and may initially be rejected by the existing scientific community. However, such changes lead to the adoption of new norms, especially with the contributions of young scientists. For example, Galileo's heliocentric model of the universe encountered great resistance not only scientifically but also at the social and institutional level because it contradicted the dominant paradigms of the time. This example reveals that paradigm shifts have not only scientific but also ideological and structural dimensions (Öztürk Erzincan, 2012).
The modern paradigm, on the other hand, has been shaped by the ideas of thinkers such as Descartes, Newton and Bacon since the 17th century and has been transferred to the social sciences based on a positivist understanding. This approach argues that nature and society can be explained by universal and objective laws, and that these laws can be reached through reason and science (Özel, 2007) . However, the crises that the modern paradigm encountered in the field of natural sciences in the 20th century - especially with developments such as quantum physics, the theory of relativity and the uncertainty principle - have brought the absolute validity of this understanding into question. The Newtonian mechanical universe model is no longer sufficient to explain all phenomena, and the quantum paradigm offers a new intellectual ground. These developments reveal that science should be re-evaluated not only in technical but also in social and philosophical contexts (Kara, 2022) .

2.2. Basic paradigms
2.2.1. Positivist Paradigm/ Rational paradigm
The positivist paradigm was developed in the 19th century, inspired by the methods of natural sciences in particular, and argues that social phenomena can be examined with the same principles of objectivity and measurability (Topkaya, 2013) . This paradigm accepts the existence of universal and immutable laws; it assumes

that scientific knowledge will be obtained through observation, experimentation and logical reasoning. Elements such as the principle of causality, objectivity, measurability and generalizability constitute the fundamental foundations of this approach. In this framework, reality is a structure that exists in the external world and can be explained independently of the human mind (Bal, 2008) .

The positivist paradigm is based on fundamental principles such as objectivity, measurability, and observability in obtaining scientific knowledge. This paradigm argues that reality exists independently of individual perceptions and can be explained by scientific methods. Reality can be expressed through numerical data; therefore, scientific knowledge must be measurable and experimentally testable. According to the principle of universalism, nature and society operate according to universal laws, and these laws are valid always and everywhere. The positivist approach investigates the cause-effect relationships between events and assumes that every event has a reason that can be explained by scientific methods. In this understanding, scientific knowledge should be produced independently of personal values and beliefs (Biçici, 2018).

The scientific method of the positivist paradigm refers to a systematic process of acquiring knowledge. This process begins with objective observations and then continues with the creation of testable hypotheses to explain these observations. Hypotheses are tested through experimental studies and data collection; the obtained data are analyzed and hypotheses are confirmed or refuted. As a result of this verification process, scientific laws and theories are developed (Baykara and Yinal, 2023). However, the positivist paradigm has also been subject to various criticisms. Especially in the field of social sciences, the difficulty of objectively measuring human behavior and social structures reveals the inadequacy of this approach. It is argued that the values and beliefs of scientists can affect the research process, and therefore scientific knowledge cannot be completely unbiased. It has been stated that the process of interpreting scientific data is also open to subjective evaluations. Another criticism is that, given the constantly evolving and changing nature of knowledge, it is not possible to reach absolute truths (Holtz and Odag, 2020).

2.2.2. Interpretative/Positivist Post-Paradigm

The interpretive paradigm offers a more subjective, contextual and multi-faceted perspective to understand human behavior. It is accepted that reality does not consist of a single objective structure; it is shaped according to the experiences, perceptions and meaning-making processes of individuals. This approach, especially in social sciences, focuses on understanding the cultural and social context in which individuals are located. Knowledge production is achieved through techniques such as qualitative research methods, in-depth interviews, observation and content analysis. This paradigm is based on penetrating the world of meaning of individuals and evaluating phenomena within their own context (İbrahimoğlu, 2011) .

The interpretive paradigm refers to an approach that argues that social reality is constructed through the subjective experiences, beliefs, and contextual interpretations of individuals. Rather than an objective reality, this paradigm is based on the understanding of multiple realities that individuals and communities create within the framework of their own worlds of meaning. It argues that meaning changes according to context and cannot be fixed universally. Therefore, scientific knowledge is obtained not through direct observation or measurement, but through the interpretation of events, discourses, and actions in individual and cultural contexts. The interpretive paradigm sees the main purpose of scientific research as understanding, not explaining, phenomena, and accepts the influence of the researcher's values and beliefs as an inevitable element in this process (Çarpar, 2020). This approach prefers qualitative research methods in knowledge production. Participant observation allows the researcher to be present in the natural environment of the community and collect data through interaction. Individuals' experiences and perceptions are examined in detail through in-depth interviews. Textual analysis allows layers of meaning to be revealed through the analysis of written or verbal expressions. Case studies, where a specific phenomenon is comprehensively addressed, and ethnographic methods, where cultural structures are examined in depth, are also among the techniques frequently used by this paradigm (Özkan, 2023).

Despite its strengths, the interpretive paradigm also faces some criticisms. One of the most frequently voiced criticisms is that it cannot provide sufficient objectivity because it is based on subjective interpretations, and this weakens scientific reliability. The generalizability of the findings is limited because it is usually studied with small and contextual samples. The possibility that the values of the researcher may affect the research process is also considered one of the weaknesses of this approach. Another criticism is that qualitative research is more open to debate in terms of scientific validity, especially when compared to quantitative research (Emir et al., 2020).

2.3. Contemporary Paradigms for Learning and Teaching

Today, paradigms related to learning and teaching processes have moved beyond classical approaches focused solely on knowledge transfer and have adopted individual-centered, interactive and experience-based approaches. These new paradigms address the cognitive, affective and social dimensions of learning as a whole; they aim to develop students' active participation, critical thinking skills, problem-solving abilities and lifelong learning habits. Constructivist approach, multiple intelligence theory, social learning theory and student-centered teaching models are among the prominent examples of this paradigm shift. In this framework, the teacher is considered in

a guiding position that directs the learning process rather than a knowledge transferor (Charikova and Zhadanov, 2017) .

Education is accepted as the basic element of social progress with its function of producing and transferring knowledge and is constantly renewed in parallel with the changes in the social structure. In this context, the concept of value, which shapes the thinking styles, attitudes and behaviors of individuals, gains importance. Values express the basic principles that the individual and society attach importance to, deem correct and necessary, and they can change over time. The transformation in values has brought about paradigm changes, especially in education, and differentiations in the perspective towards knowledge (Öztürk Erzincan, 2012) .

In this change experienced in teaching processes, it is observed that the focus has shifted from teaching to learning. The basis of this transformation is social developments such as democratization, sensitivity to human rights, and importance given to individual differences (Overton et al., 2020) . Learning processes are now designed according to the interests and abilities of the individual ; alternative education models and school types are diversifying, and learning is becoming more individual. In this context, criticisms are voiced that current education programs and measurement-evaluation tools often focus on superficial knowledge and do not sufficiently support thinking. However, thinking is a complex activity that includes deep cognitive processes such as understanding, analyzing, applying, and evaluating information. For this reason, it is emphasized that education programs should be rearranged in a way that develops students' critical, analytical, and creative thinking skills (Şentürk and Baş, 2020). Today's paradigms for learning and teaching reflect the transformations that education has undergone throughout history, and highlight individual-centered, flexible, and interaction-based approaches. These paradigms offer different perspectives on how learning occurs, the function of the teacher, and how learning environments should be structured. The constructivist paradigm argues that individuals actively gain meaning from knowledge through their own experiences; in this context, the teacher is not a transferor of knowledge but a guide who facilitates learning. This approach aims to develop high-level cognitive skills such as problem solving, critical thinking, and collaboration (Mezirow, 1996).

2.4. Related Research

In the study conducted by Aktan (2007), the transformation processes experienced in the field of higher education were examined, new paradigm searches were evaluated and trends that could guide the reforms that need to be carried out in the future were determined. According to the results of the study, it was predicted that the traditional teacher-focused education model in universities would be gradually abandoned and a student-focused and active learning approach would be adopted. It was stated that the traditional roles of the state in higher education would undergo a radical change and its influence on service delivery and financing would gradually decrease.

The study conducted by Wu and He (2009) examines the paradigm trends that are prominent and regressive in the management of public institutions. The researchers collected data on 48 different management courses conducted in China and the United States and examined how the curriculum used in vocational education is affected by changing paradigm understandings. As a result of the study, it was stated that a single paradigm approach is not sufficient; instead, it is stated that evaluating positivist and interpretive paradigms together will produce more effective results in the field of public administration. It was emphasized that the curricula used in vocational education programs should be constantly updated to adapt to changing social, administrative and technological conditions; in this context, it was concluded that a single-dimensional approach cannot fully meet the needs of education.

The study conducted by Green, Noone and Nolan (2013) examines teaching practices in rural areas within the framework of contemporary paradigms and emphasizes the decisive role of the concept of "place" in education. The study reveals that rural teaching is not only a spatial difference but also a multi-layered experience with pedagogical, social and cultural dimensions. According to the results of the study, rural teaching requires establishing strong relationships with local communities, developing context-based teaching strategies and integrating the opportunities offered by place into the education process. The authors argue that traditional approaches to rural teaching are inadequate and that contemporary teacher education programs should provide teacher candidates with place sensitivity and pedagogical approaches specific to rural contexts. In this context, "knowledge of place" has been evaluated as a central element in terms of effective teaching and interaction with the community in rural education.

The study written by Cingel Bodinet (2016) emphasizes that current educational paradigms are inadequate in the face of rapidly changing global conditions and discusses how pedagogical approaches for the future should be shaped. The author states that traditional, static and exam-focused educational models are inadequate in preparing individuals for a world full of uncertainty; instead, he advocates the necessity of transformational and future-focused pedagogies that focus on skills such as flexibility, creativity, critical thinking, collaboration and emotional intelligence. The study also suggests that education should be re-constructed not only as a transfer of knowledge but also as a process that supports the internal development of the individual and social transformation. As a result, Bodinet reveals that a paradigm shift in education is inevitable and that this change is of critical importance for humanity to build a sustainable and meaningful future.

In the study conducted by Overton et al. (2020), five different paradigms that address education in the context of development were examined. These paradigms were classified as education for development, education in development, education against development, education through development, and education where development is redefined, respectively. Each paradigm addresses the role of education from a different perspective and offers unique contributions on the meaning, purpose, and direction of learning at both individual and societal levels. The findings of the study indicate that development policies and education approaches should not only focus on economic growth, but also include broader humanitarian goals such as social justice, cultural diversity, and sensitivity to local contexts. The authors emphasize that the role of education in development is multidimensional and therefore, it is important to evaluate different paradigms together and develop a more inclusive and transformative understanding of education.

3. METHOD
3.1 Research Model
The research is a quantitative study. Quantitative research is a systematic research type conducted based on the collection, analysis and interpretation of numerical data. The aim of such research is to reveal the relationships between variables with statistical methods, to determine patterns and to reach generalizable results (Karasar, 2022). In this context, the relational screening model was used in the research. The relational screening model is a screening model used to determine the level of relationship between multiple variables. Through this model, whether there is a significant relationship between variables, the direction and strength of the relationship are evaluated with statistical methods. This model, which is generally supported by correlation analyses, is aimed at describing the current situation between variables rather than establishing a cause-effect relationship (Büyüköztürk, 2017).

3.2 Universe and Sample
The universe of this research consists of school administrators and teachers in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). In order to increase the representativeness of the participants, the stratified sampling method was preferred. This method is a sampling technique that allows the main mass to be divided into certain subgroups and randomly select individuals from each subgroup in accordance with the ratio of that group in the universe (Büyüköztürk, 2017). The number of participants constituting the sample within the scope of the research is 116. During the sampling process, individuals were divided into strata by considering their educational levels, types of duties and similar decisive characteristics; then, a sample was created by randomly selecting an appropriate number of participants from each stratum.

3.3 Data Collection Tools
The Educational Paradigms Scale developed by Öztürk Erzincan (2012) was used for educational administration paradigms. The scale consists of a total of 70 items, including 5 items on personal information (gender, age, length of service, duty and educational status), 45 items on educational administration paradigms and 35 items on educational paradigms. The items are organized into two options as "a" and "b"; option "a" represents positivist paradigm statements, and option "b" represents interpretivist paradigm statements. The participants were asked to mark both options in order to analyze the opinions in detail. The scale was prepared with a five-point Likert -type rating system. The response options are listed as "Strongly Disagree (1)", "Slightly Agree (2)", "Moderately Agree (3)", "Very Agree (4)" and "Strongly Agree (5)". The lowest score on the scale is 1, and the highest score is 5. For example, a participant who answers "I Totally Agree" to the statement "The manager should maintain the current functioning" receives 5 points, while a participant who answers "I Totally Disagree" receives 1 point. As a result of the reliability analysis of the scale, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was calculated as .9674, which shows that the scale is highly reliable.

3.4 Analysis of Data
The data obtained in the study were analyzed using the SPSS program. First, normality tests were applied to determine whether the data were normally distributed and it was determined that the data were normally distributed. In this direction, parametric tests were used in the analysis process. Independent Sample t-Test was used to compare the means between two groups, and One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to evaluate the means of three or more groups . Pearson Correlation Analysis was used to determine the relationship between variables . Since the data showed a normal distribution, these tests were considered appropriate and were preferred to test the hypotheses of the study.

4. FINDINGS

Table 1. Demographic Variables

Category	Variable	n	%
Gender	Woman	65	56.03
	Male	51	43.97
Duty	Executive	30	25.86
	Teacher	86	74.14
Age	20-30	40	34.48
	31-40	35	30.17
	41-50	25	21.55
	51 and over	16	13.79
Professional Seniority	0-5 years	38	32.76
	6-10 years	28	24.14
	11-15 years	22	18.97
	16 years and above	28	24.14
Total		116	100

When the gender distribution of the participants was examined, 56.03% (65 people) were female and 43.97% (51 people) were male. When the distribution of duties was examined, 25.86% (30 people) of the participants were managers and 74.14% (86 people) were teachers. When evaluated in terms of age groups, 34.48% (40 people) were in the 20-30 age range, 30.17% (35 people) were in the 31-40 age range, 21.55% (25 people) were in the 41-50 age range and 13.79% (16 people) were 51 years of age and over. The participants were divided into four groups in terms of professional seniority. While 32.76% (38 people) of the participants had 0-5 years of experience, 24.14% (28 people) had 6-10 years, 18.97% (22 people) had 11-15 years, and again 24.14% (28 people) had 16 years or more of professional experience.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics and T-Test Results of Participants' Gender and Adoption of Interpretative Paradigm in Educational Administration Scores

Group	n	Average	Standard Deviation	t Value	p -Value
Woman	65	3.93	0.36	0.22	0.829
Male	51	3.91	0.48		

When the participants' scores for adopting the interpretive paradigm in education management were examined according to their gender, the average score of female participants was calculated as 3.93 and 3.91 for male participants. The standard deviation of females was determined as 0.36 and 0.48 for males. According to the independent sample t-test results, $t(114) = 0.22$, $p = 0.829$, which shows that there is no statistically significant difference. This result reveals that there is no significant difference between female and male participants in terms of their level of adopting the interpretive paradigm in education management.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics and T-Test results of the scores of the participants regarding their duties and their adoption of the interpretive paradigm in educational management.

Group	n	Average	Standard Deviation	F Value	p -Value
Executive	30	3.80	0.50	19.80	0.000
Teacher	86	4.10	0.40		

the scores of the participants regarding the adoption of the interpretive paradigm in educational management were examined according to their duties, the average score of the administrators was determined as 3.80 and the teachers as 4.10. The standard deviation of the administrators was calculated as 0.50 and the teachers as 0.40. According to the independent sample t-test results, $F(1, 114) = 19.80$, $p = 0.000$, which indicates a statistically significant difference. The results reveal that the teachers adopted the interpretive paradigm in educational management at a higher level compared to the administrators.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA-Test Results of Participants' Age and Adoption of Interpretative Paradigm in Educational Administration Scores

Age group	n	Average	Standard Deviation	F Value	p -Value
20-30	40	4.03	0.29		
31-40	35	4.00	0.39	4.40	0.006
41-50	25	3.76	0.38		1> 2-3-4
51 and over	16	3.71	0.63		

scores for adopting the interpretive paradigm in educational management were examined according to their age groups , the average score of the participants between the ages of 20-30 was 4.03 , the average score of the participants between the ages of 31-40 was 4.00 , the average score of the participants between the ages of 41-50 was 3.76 , and the average score of the participants aged 51 and over was 3.71 . Standard deviations were calculated as 0.29, 0.39, 0.38, and 0.63 , respectively. The ANOVA test results were $F(3, 112) = 4.40$, $p = 0.006$, which shows that there is a statistically significant difference . According to the ANOVA test results, the 20-30 age group adopts the interpretive paradigm in educational management at a higher level compared to the other age groups. When post-hoc analyses are performed, it is seen that the 20-30 age group (group 1) has significantly higher scores than the 31-40, 41-50 and 51 and above age groups (groups 2, 3 and 4). This suggests that young individuals adopt a more flexible and interpretive approach in educational management.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA-Test Results of Participants' Scores on Adopting Interpretative Paradigm in Educational Administration with Professional Seniority

Professional Seniority	n	Average	Standard Deviation	F Value	p -Value
0-5 years	38	4.04	0.29		
6-10 years	28	3.96	0.34	2.84	0.041
11-15 years	22	3.92	0.41		4 >1
16 years and above	28	3.78	0.44		

When the scores of the participants regarding their adoption of the interpretive paradigm in educational administration were examined according to their professional seniority, the average score of the participants with 0-5 years of seniority was determined as 4.04, the average score of those with 6-10 years of seniority was determined as 3.96, the average score of those with 11-15 years of seniority was determined as 3.92 and the average score of those with 16 years of seniority and above was determined as 3.78 . The standard deviations were calculated as 0.29, 0.34, 0.41 and 0.44, respectively. The ANOVA test results were $F(3, 112) = 2.84$, $p = 0.041$, indicating that there was a statistically significant difference. Post-hoc analyses showed that those with 16 years of seniority and above (group 4) had significantly lower scores compared to those with 0-5 years of seniority (group 1). These results reveal that there is a tendency to move away from the interpretivist paradigm in educational administration as professional experience increases.

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics and T-Test Results of the Positivist Paradigm Adoption Scores in Educational Administration by Participants' Gender

Group	n	Average	Standard Deviation	t Value	p -Value
Woman	65	3.53	0.36	-3.51	0.001
Male	51	3.81	0.48		

When the scores of the participants regarding the adoption of the positivist paradigm in educational management were examined according to their gender, the average score of the female participants was determined as 3.53 and the male participants as 3.81. The standard deviation values were calculated as 0.36 and 0.48, respectively. According to the independent sample t-test results, $t(114) = -3.51$, $p = 0.001$, indicating a statistically significant difference. This result reveals that the level of adoption of the positivist paradigm in educational management of the male participants was significantly higher than that of the female participants.

Table 6. Descriptive statistics and T-Test results of the scores of the participants regarding their duties and their adoption of the positivist paradigm in educational management.

Group	n	Average	Standard Deviation	t Value	p -Value
Executive	30	3.82	0.36	3.03	0.003
Teacher	86	3.57	0.47		

When the scores of the participants regarding the adoption of the positivist paradigm in educational management were examined according to their duties, the average score of the administrators was determined as 3.82 and that of the teachers as 3.57. The standard deviations were calculated as 0.36 and 0.47, respectively. According to the independent sample t-test results, t (114) = 3.03, p = 0.003, indicating a statistically significant difference. This result reveals that the administrators adopted the positivist paradigm in educational management at a significantly higher level compared to the teachers.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA-Test Results of Participants' Age and Positivist Paradigm Adoption Scores in Educational Administration

Age group	n	Average	Standard Deviation	F Value	p -Value
20-30	40	3.41	0.38	11.15	0.000 4>1-2-3-4 5 > 2
31-40	35	3.70	0.39		
41-50	25	3.76	0.38		
51 and over	16	4.00	0.32		

When the scores of the participants regarding adoption of the positivist paradigm in educational administration were examined according to their age groups, the average score of the 20-30 age group was determined as 3.41, the average score of the 31-40 age group was determined as 3.70, the average score of the 41-50 age group was determined as 3.76 and the average score of the 51 and over age group was determined as 4.00. Standard deviations were calculated as 0.38, 0.39, 0.38 and 0.32, respectively. The ANOVA test results were F (3, 112) = 11.15, p = 0.000, indicating that there was a statistically significant difference. Post-hoc analyses show that the 51 and over age group (group 4) had a significantly higher positivist paradigm score compared to the 20-30, 31-40 and 41-50 age groups (groups 1, 2 and 3). A significant difference was found when the 31-40 age group (2nd group) was compared with the 51 and above age group (4th group). These results reveal that as age increases, the tendency towards the positivist paradigm in educational administration increases.

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA-Test Results of Participants' Scores on Adopting the Positivist Paradigm in Educational Administration with Professional Seniority

Professional Seniority	n	Average	Standard Deviation	F Value	p -Value
0-5 years	38	3.42	0.38	14.86	0.000 4 > 2-3
6-10 years	28	3.66	0.34		
11-15 years	22	3.93	0.52		
16 years and above	28	3.99	0.27		

When the scores of the participants regarding their adoption of the positivist paradigm in educational administration were examined according to their professional seniority, the average score of those with 0-5 years of seniority was determined as 3.42, the average score of those with 6-10 years of seniority was determined as 3.66, the average score of those with 11-15 years of seniority was determined as 3.93, and the average score of those with 16 years of seniority and above was determined as 3.99. Standard deviations were calculated as 0.38, 0.34, 0.52, and 0.27, respectively. The ANOVA test results were F(3, 112) = 14.86, p = 0.000, indicating a statistically significant difference. Post-hoc analyses revealed that those with 16 years of seniority and above (group 4) had significantly higher positivist paradigm scores compared to the 2-3 years of seniority groups. These results show that as professional experience increases, the tendency to adopt a positivist paradigm in educational administration becomes stronger.

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

According to the findings of this study, the paradigms adopted in educational administration show significant differences according to some demographic characteristics of the participants. No significant difference was found between women and men in terms of the level of adoption of the interpretive paradigm according to the gender variable. However, in the comparison made according to the type of duty, it was revealed that teachers adopted the interpretive paradigm approach at a higher level compared to administrators. When the age variable was

examined, it was seen that the participants in the younger age group adopted the interpretive paradigm more strongly; the level of adoption of this approach decreased as the age increased. A similar trend was observed in terms of professional seniority; it was determined that the tendency towards the interpretive paradigm decreased as the duration of professional experience increased.

When evaluated in terms of the positivist paradigm, it was determined that male participants adopted this approach at a higher level than female participants. It was determined that administrators tended to the positivist paradigm more than teachers. In the examinations made according to age groups, it was seen that the tendency towards the positivist paradigm increased with age; especially the participants in the oldest age group adopted this approach significantly more. Similarly, it was revealed that the tendency towards the positivist paradigm increased significantly as the professional seniority period increased.

These findings show that participants adopt different paradigm understandings in educational administration depending on variables such as age, seniority and duty, and that these differences have the potential to be reflected in managerial practices.

In line with the research findings, the following recommendations can be made:

1. In order to increase the awareness of educational administrators and teachers about different paradigm approaches, in-service training programs should be organized that include contemporary educational management approaches, especially introducing interpretive and critical paradigms.
2. The study found that young teachers adopt the interpretive paradigm more. In order to maintain this positive attitude as professional seniority increases, guidance should be provided for this approach in professional development activities and structured interaction environments should be created with experienced teachers.
3. Considering that administrators tend to lean more towards the positivist paradigm, more emphasis should be placed on content based on the interpretive paradigm in leadership training and administrator education programs in order to adopt more flexible, participatory and human-oriented approaches in school management.
4. In order for teacher candidates to be prepared for the profession with a more critical and flexible perspective, the theoretical and practical course content regarding the educational paradigm should be increased in teacher training programs and students should be introduced to different management approaches.

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ECO-INNOVATION AND ENVIRONMENTAL PERFORMANCE: BIBLIOMETRIC ANALYSIS AND VISUALIZATION ANALYSES

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ABSTRACT
Eco-innovation is defined as the discovery and development of innovative practices by businesses to solve environmental problems. With this aspect, eco-innovation contributes to the reduction of costs and environmental pollution in the long term. The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between eco-innovation and environmental performance through bibliometric analysis and visualization methods. Biblioshiny and VOSviewer programs were used to perform the analysis. According to the results of the analysis, it has been determined that the interest in Eco-Innovation and Environmental Performance studies has accelerated since 2021, the journal with the highest number of studies is the Journal of Cleaner Production, the author with the highest number of on the subject is Cai Li, the institution with the highest number of studies is Jiangshu University, the country with the highest number of studies on the subject is China, the most mentioned keywords other than eco-innovation and environmental performance are sustainability, sustainable development, financial performance, economic performance.
Keywords: Eco-Innovation, Environmental Performance, Sustainability Bibliometric Analysis, Visualization Analysis

INTRODUCTION
Eco-innovation refers to new ideas, behaviors, products, or processes that reduce environmental impacts or resource use, whether intentional or not (Diaz-Garcia et al., 2015). Eco-innovation is a business strategy that encourages green creativity and the development of environmentally friendly products and services (Ilic et al., 2022). Eco-innovation is a strategy that provides customer and business values in order to reduce the negative impact of industrial activities on the environment and promote sustainable development (Kuo & Smith, 2108). Accordingly, the main drivers of eco-innovations can be grouped as external and internal drivers (Passaro et al., 2023). The external drivers of eco-innovation in organizations include environmental regulations, competitive pressures, and customer demands for environmentally friendly products and services (Cai & Li, 2018). The internal drivers of eco-innovation in organizations include institutional capabilities, technological capabilities, and corporate social responsibility (Salim et al., 2019). Effective knowledge management is essential in building organizational capabilities and enhancing workforce creativity for developing environmentally friendly products and services (Wang et al., 2022). Data-driven talent management practices can be adopted to enhance technological capabilities and ensure continuous business process improvement for eco-innovation performance (Munodawafa & Johl, 2019). The corporate social responsibility strategy to promote eco-innovation in organizations is channeled through the creation of employee green consciousness exhibited through employee green behaviors and managerial environmental awareness reflected through pro-environmental behaviors at the corporate level (Peng & Liu, 2016). Eco-innovation refers to the pursuit of innovation in various environmental areas such as emission reduction, recycling, and material substitution (De Jesus et al., 2018). It goes beyond the mere adoption of eco-innovation and focuses on the extent to which firms' activities benefit the environment (Bossle et al., 2016). Eco-innovation can positively impact society by addressing social challenges such as access to clean water, sanitation, and affordable clean energy (Park et al., 2017). Eco-innovation can promote inclusive growth and improve the quality of life by providing sustainable solutions to societal needs (Dogaru, 2020). Therefore, eco-innovation is of increasing importance for research and policy-making aimed at optimizing natural resource use and reducing the ecological footprint (Hassan et al., 2023). Firms have traditionally not been structured to integrate environmental aspects into their internal domains, thus facing the liability of innovation (Hellström, 2007). While well-defined environmental regulations encourage eco-innovation in companies, resulting in higher productivity, eco-innovation patents are becoming increasingly important as market opportunities (Oltra et al., 2010).

The value of the company cannot be increased only by good financial successes, the company should also pay attention to the social, economic and environmental impacts of the company's activities, such as pollution and the effects of the company's production process activities (Alsayegh et al., 2020). Therefore, companies should be more effective and efficient in the use of company resources for the continuity of the company's current and future activities (Tammineedi, 2010). The main reason for improving the environmental performance of the company is

the increasing and unmet demands from stakeholders (Azzone & Manzini, 1994). Eco-innovation offers innovative solutions that aim to improve environmental performance by reducing the environmental impacts of businesses (Costantini et al., 2017). This relationship is based on factors such as resource efficiency, waste and emission reduction, legal compliance and consumer preferences (Sumrin et al., 2021). Eco-innovations increase energy efficiency and reduce carbon footprint, while at the same time becoming attractive to environmentally conscious consumers (Paparoidamis & Tran, 2019). Thus, environmental performance increases and contributes to sustainability goals (Carchano et al., 2024).

The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between eco-innovation and environmental performance through bibliometric analysis and visualization methods.

METHODOLOGY
Bibliometric Analysis
Bibliometric analysis serves as a valuable tool to evaluate the characteristics of a particular field of study (Salinas-Ríos, 2022). Bibliometric methods primarily aim to identify literature flows within a broad or more specialized subject area through content and citation analysis of scientific publications (Gan et al., 2022). While alternative methods such as literature reviews can be used to search, organize, and synthesize scientific production in a specific subject area, the strength of the bibliometric approach lies in its systematicity and transparency, as well as its ability to reveal relational, structural, and temporal aspects of established or emerging research streams (Marzi et al., 2024). Various software applications are available to perform bibliometric analyses, such as VOSViewer, SATI, HistCite, and CiteSpace (Geng et al., 2024).

In this study, articles on the themes of eco-innovation and environmental performance were selected. Web of Science database was used as data sources. VOSviewer and Biblioshiny were used for data analysis. Citation analysis and key analysis were performed in the study. First, keyword selections and combinations were determined in the study, and the relevant keywords were used in the search engine. In the search engine, the combination of "eco innovation" and "environmental performance" or "green innovation" and "environmental performance" or "green stage innovation" and "environmental performance" or "green product innovation" and "environmental performance" was used. Then, the studies were filtered to be English and articles. As a result of the combinations, 714 articles were reached, and as a result of the filtering process, 685 articles were reached.

Keyword analysis and co-citation analysis were performed using VOSviewer. It uses the VOS mapping technique to create distance-based maps using similarity matrices (Markscheffel & Schröter, 2021). VOSviewer provides visualization of knowledge maps for large-scale literature data representing authors, journals, and other related information (Cheng et al., 2021). It is widely used in bibliometric analysis research. The visualization map consists of nodes and links (Guo et al., 2021). The size of the circle of a node is proportional to the frequency of the displayed indicator (Shen et al., 2018). In cluster analysis, the color of the circle is determined by its category (Meija et al., 2021). The thickness and length of the links between nodes represent their connection strength and relevance (Donthu et al., 2021).

FINDINGS
Table 1 shows the characteristics of the articles obtained from the Wos database using specific keywords and combinations of these keywords. A total of 685 articles, 33,373 references, and 1,782 keywords were found. The first article was found in 2002. The average age of the articles is 2.57 years, which indicates that the studies on the subject are mostly recent. It is understood from the total number of authors that the majority of the studies have co-authors (2007 authors).

Table 1. Descriptive Information

Definition	Conclusion
Time period	2002:2024
Number of Articles	685
Average Age of Articles	2.57
Average Number of Citations of Articles	37.95
Number of References	33373
Number of Keywords	1782
Number of Authors	2007
Number of Single Author Articles	39

Figure 1 shows the distribution of studies examining the relationship between eco-innovation and environmental performance over the years. When evaluated in general, it can be said that the studies have increased steadily over the years. According to the figure, it is seen that the interest in these studies has accelerated since 2021. The

widespread environmental sensitivities around the world and the governments' orientation towards such practices may have pushed researchers to conduct more research on this subject.
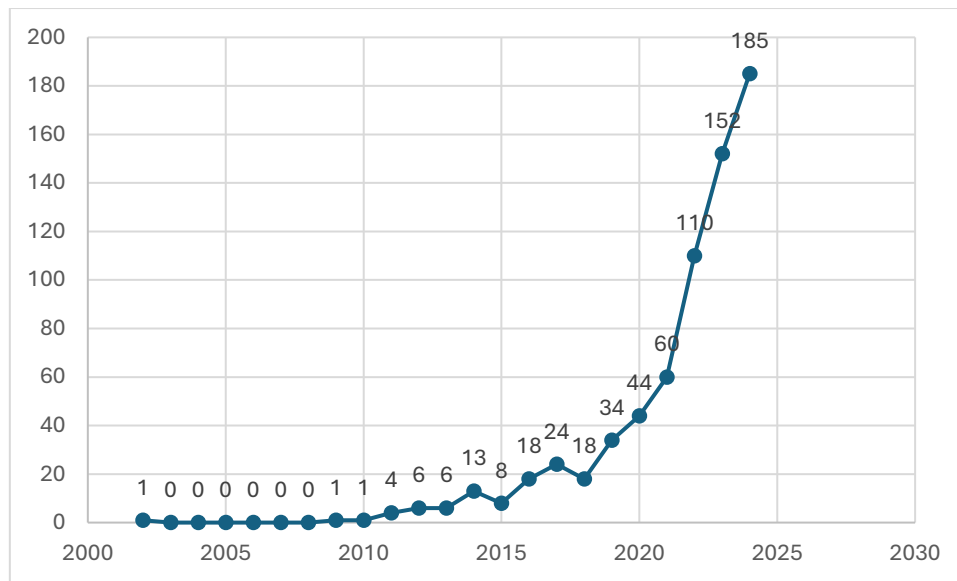
Figure 1. Distribution of Articles by Year

Figure 2 shows the journals in which eco-innovation and environmental performance articles are published the most. Accordingly, the Journal of Cleaner Production is the journal in which the most studies have been conducted on this relationship, with 77 articles. Sustainability is in second place with 72 studies, and Business Strategy and Environment is in third place. The reason why these journals are the ones with the most publications may be that they are journals that publish frequently.
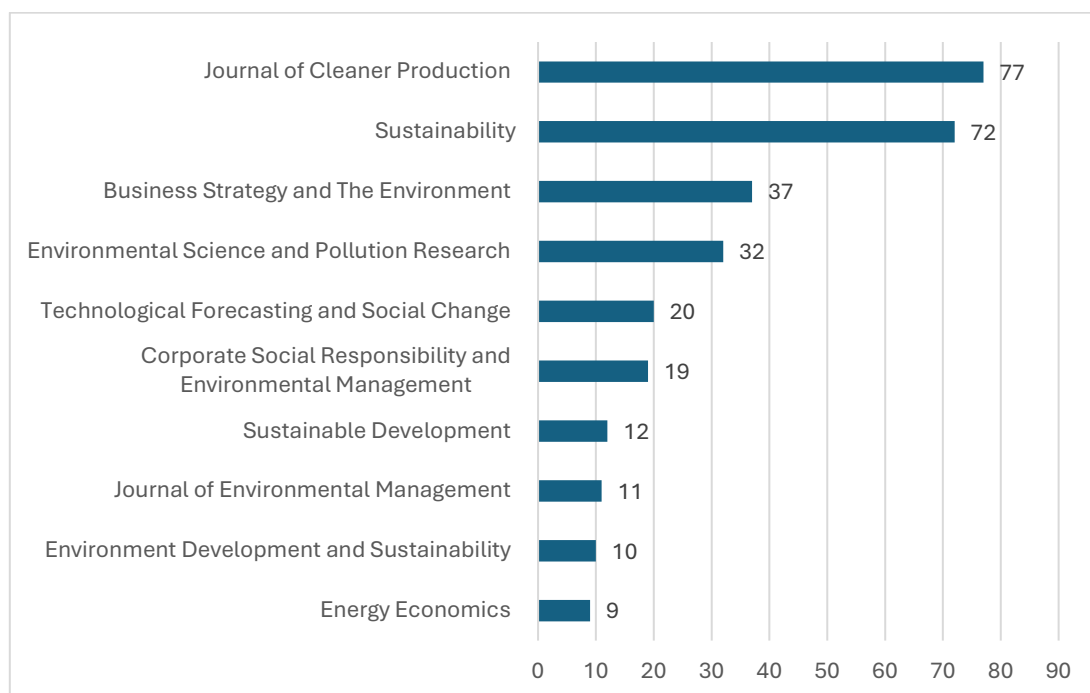
Figure 2. Featured Journals

Figure 3 shows the authors who contributed the most to the studies on the relationship between eco-innovation and sustainable performance. Accordingly, the author who has done the most studies on the subject is Cai Li with 9 articles. Adnan Khan, Qian Li, Hai-Jie Wang are in the second place with 6 articles. In his studies, Cai Li examined the relationship between energy innovation and energy pollution (Li et al. B, 2023), how green business strategies and competencies improve green innovation for firm performance (Ashraf et al., 2024), how it affects green innovation after the implementation of environmental regulations by the Chinese Government (Li et al.,

2022), how entrepreneurial SMEs increase environmental performance with green impact orientations (Khan et al., 2022), how the relationships between corporate social responsibility, green behavior of employees, green culture, environmental performance and green innovation are (Li et al. A, 2023), and how green dynamic capability affects environmental and social innovation behavior.
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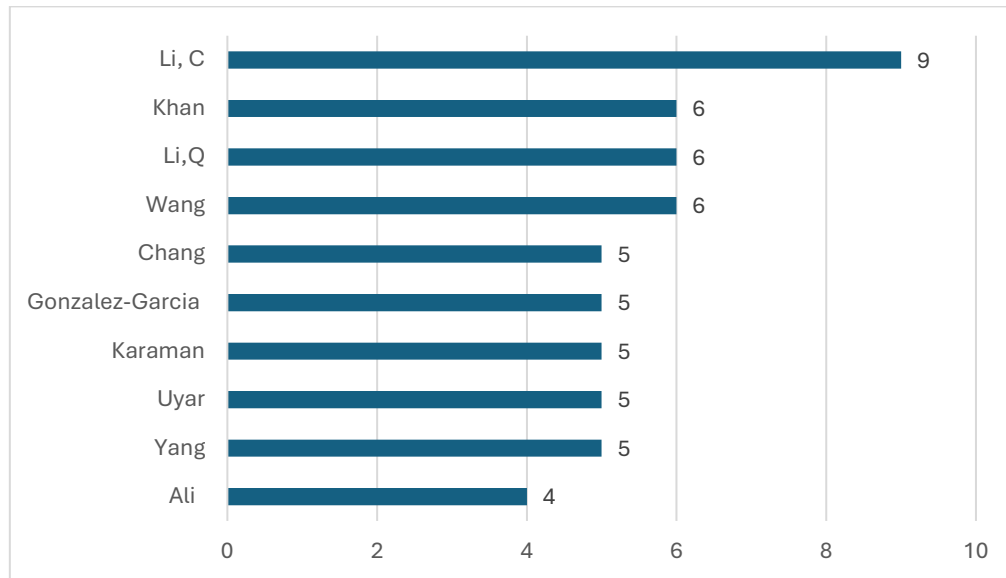
Figure 3. Featured Authors

Figure 4 shows the institutions that have published the most on the relationship between eco-innovation and environmental performance. Accordingly, the institution that has published the most studies is Jiangshu University with 27 articles, the second institution that has published the most studies is Beijing Institute of Technology with 12 articles, and the third institution that has published the most studies is Xi'an Jiatong University.
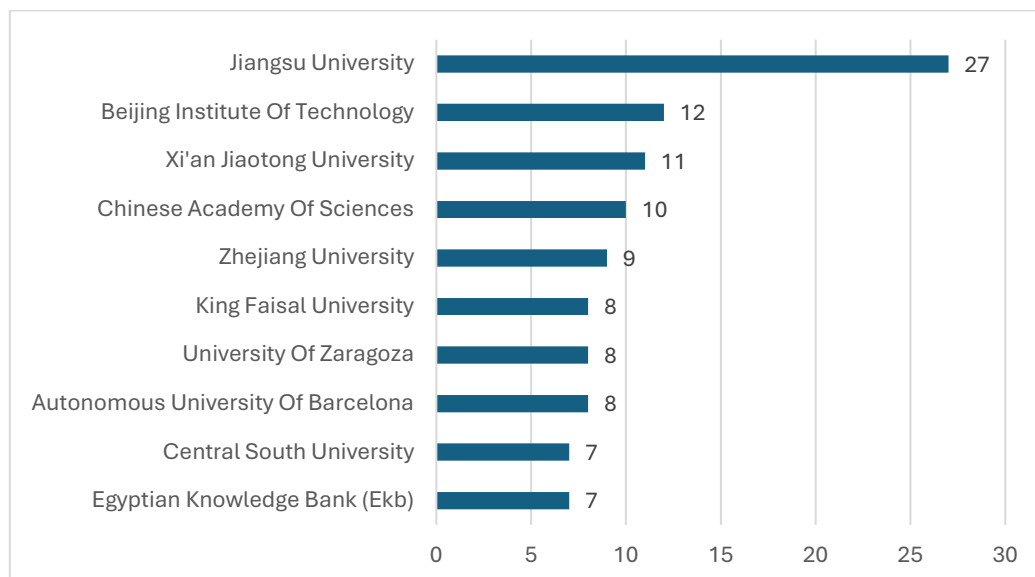
Figure 4. Featured Organizations

Figure 5 shows the countries that the articles belong to. Accordingly, the country with the most studies on the subject was China with 687 authors. China was followed by Spain with 99 authors and Pakistan with 96 authors. Based on the figure, it is possible to say that China is involved in most of the studies in this field. China may have attracted the attention of researchers as one of the countries that has problems with environmental pollution.
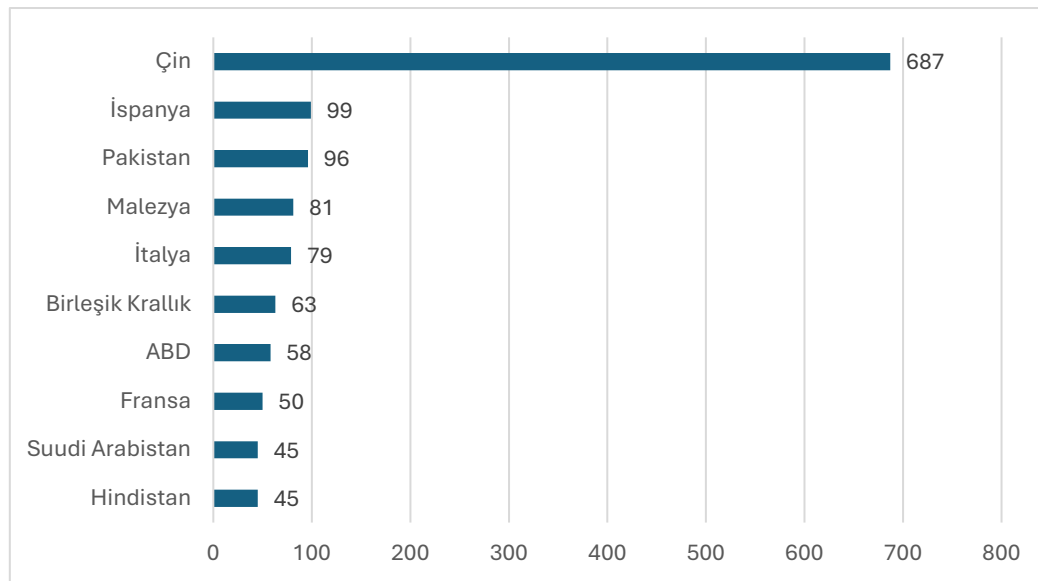
Figure 5. Featured Countries

Table 2 shows the most cited articles on the relationship between eco-innovation and environmental performance. It was determined that the most cited study was the article titled "Determinants of eco-innovations by type of environmental impact—The role of regulatory push/pull, technology push and market pull" written by Horbach et al. in 2012 with 964 citations. In this article, Horbach et al. (2012) investigated the determinants of eco-innovation. It was determined that the second most cited study was the article titled "Green innovation and environmental performance: The role of green transformational leadership and green human resource management" written by Singh et al. in 2020 with 889 citations. Singh et al. (2020) examined how green human resource management interacts with green transformational leadership, green innovation, and environmental performance. The third most cited study was the article titled "Green innovation and environmental performance: The role of green transformational leadership and green human resource management" written by Chiou et al. in 2011 with 782 citations. It was determined that the article titled "The influence of greening the suppliers and green innovation on environmental performance and competitive advantage in Taiwan" written by Chiou et al. (2011) examined the relationship between the concepts of green supply chain, green innovation, environmental performance and competitive advantage.

Table 2. Most Cited Articles

R	Magazine	TR	Average Quote	Article	Writer	Year
1	Eco-Econ	964	74.15	Determinants of eco-innovations by type of environmental impact—The role of regulatory push/pull, technology push and market pull.	Horbach et al.	2012
2	Technol Forecast Soc	889	177.8	Green innovation and environmental performance: The role of green transformational leadership and green human resource management.	Singh et al.	2020
3	Transport Res E-Log	782	55.86	The influence of greening the suppliers and green innovation on environmental performance and competitive advantage in Taiwan	Chiou et al.	2011
4	J Clean Prod	649	64.9	Green R&D for eco-innovation and its impact on carbon emissions and firm performance	Lee & Min	2015
5	Technol Forecast Soc	626	104.34	Green innovation and organizational performance: The influence of big data and the moderating role of management commitment and HR practices	Al-Qasar & Singh	2019
6	Technol Forecast Soc	554	110.8	Corporate social responsibility and environmental performance: The mediating role of environmental strategy and green innovation	Kraus et al.	2020
7	J Clean Prod	455	65	The drivers of eco-innovation and its impact on performance: Evidence from China	Cai & Li	2018

8	Bus Strategy Environ	40 8	58.29	Green innovation, managerial concern and firm performance: An empirical study	Tang et al.	2018
9	J Bus Ethics	39 6	49.5	Green innovation and performance: The view of organizational capability and social reciprocity.	Huang & Li	2017
10	Technol Forecast Soc	36 2	90.5	Analyzing the relationship between green innovation and environmental performance in large manufacturing firms	Rehman et al.	2021

Table 3 shows the keywords frequently included in eco-innovation environmental performance studies. Accordingly, the most frequently mentioned keywords, other than eco-innovation and environmental performance, were Sustainability (41 articles), Sustainable Development (38 articles), Financial Performance (31 articles), Economic Performance (29 articles).

Table 3. Most Frequently Mentioned Keywords

Words	Frequency
Eco Innovation	396
Environmental Performance	242
Sustainability	41
Sustainable Development	38
Financial Performance	31
Economic Performance	29
Corporate Social Responsibility	25
Company Performance	25
SME	21

Figure 6 shows the visual map of keywords in studies addressing the relationship between eco-innovation and environmental performance. Accordingly, the keywords are divided into 9 different clusters. The red cluster consisting of 14 keywords is led by sustainable development, the green cluster consisting of 13 keywords is led by sustainability, the blue cluster consisting of 9 keywords is led by the company's environmental performance, the yellow cluster consisting of 8 keywords is led by eco-innovation, the purple cluster consisting of 7 keywords is led by green human resources management, the light blue cluster consisting of 5 keywords is led by environmental performance, the orange cluster consisting of 4 keywords is led by green supply chain management, the brown cluster consisting of 4 keywords is led by economic performance, and the pink cluster consisting of 3 keywords is led by corporate social responsibility.
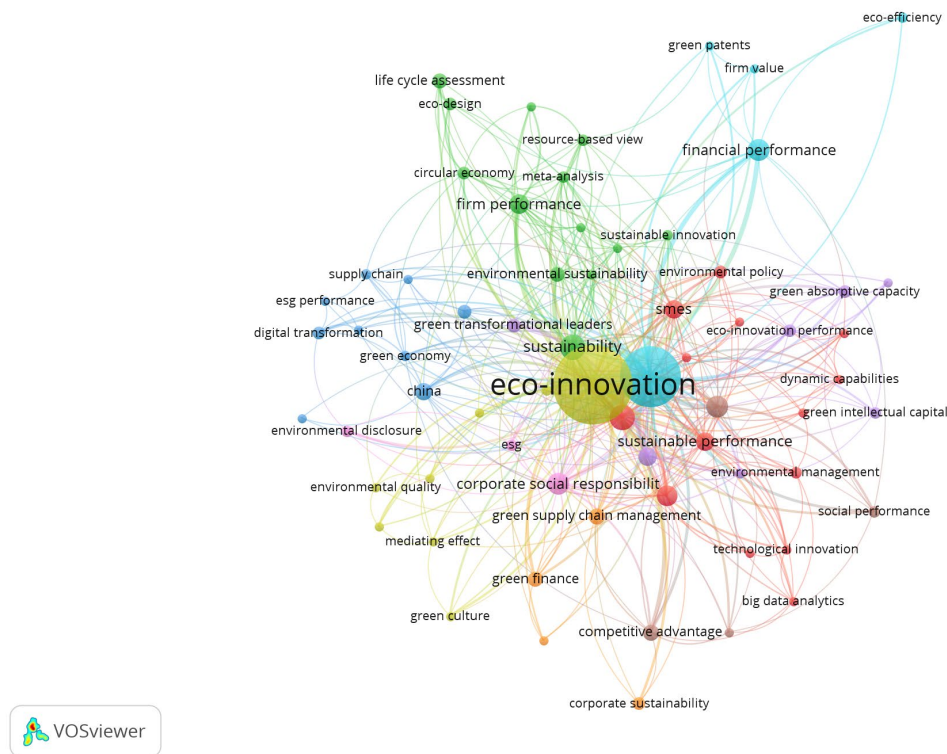
Figure 6. Keywords

Figure 6 shows the results of the co-citation analysis by reference. Accordingly, the references are divided into 4 separate clusters. The red cluster has 58 references, the green cluster has 53 references, the blue cluster has 34 references, and the yellow cluster has 26 references. The reference with the most co-citations is the study by Chen et al. (2006), which is the leader of the yellow cluster. The reference with the second most co-citations is the study by Chiou (2011), which is the second leader of the yellow cluster. The reference with the third most co-citations is the study by Singh et al. (2020), which is the leader of the green cluster. The reference with the fourth most co-citations is the study by Porter & Linde (1995), which is the leader of the red cluster. The reference with the fifth most co-citations is the study by Chen (2008), which is the second leader of the green cluster.
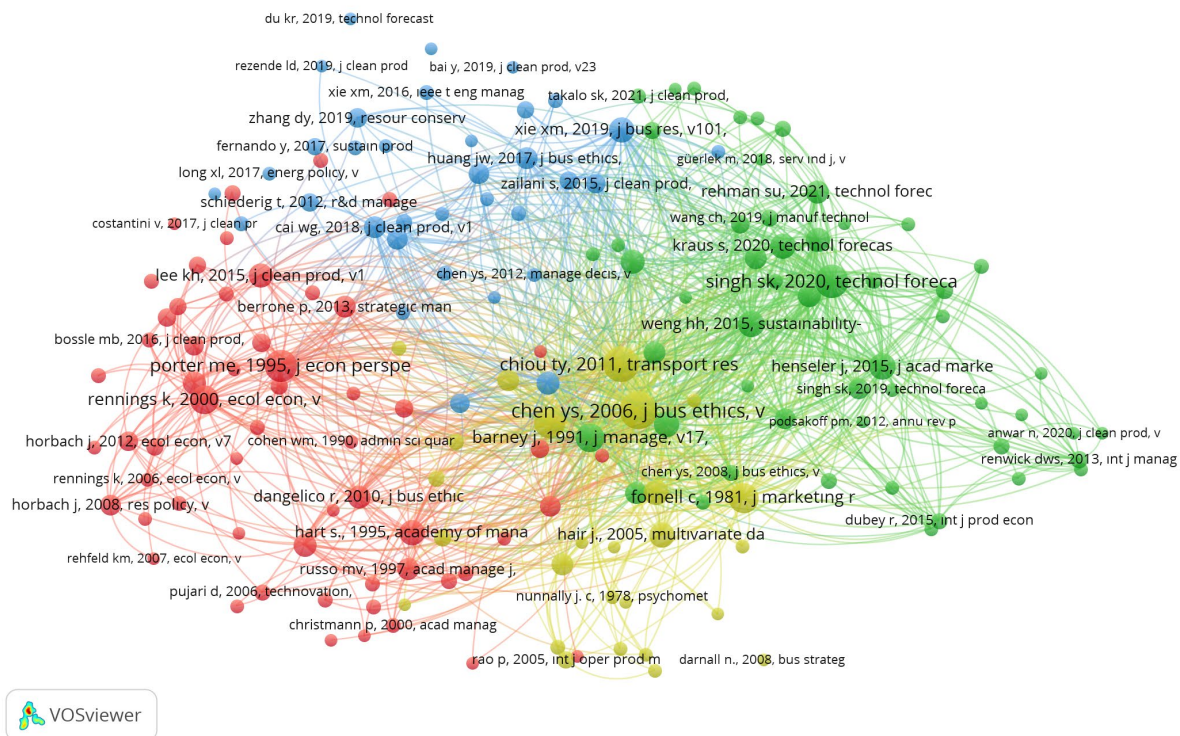
Figure 7. Co-Citation Analysis by Reference

In Figure 8, co-citation analysis was performed by journal in the articles examining the eco-innovation-environmental performance relationships. The red cluster has 102 journals. Journal of Cleaner Production is the leader of the red cluster with 5329 co-citations and 322610 total link power (ranked 1st). Ecological Economics is the second leader of the red cluster with 814 co-citations and 51777 (ranked 10th). Environmental Science and Pollution Research is the third leader of the red cluster with 721 co-citations and 46597 total link power (ranked 12th). Research Policy is the fourth leader of the red cluster with 640 co-citations and 43307 total link power (ranked 13th). Journal of Environmental Management is the fifth leader of the red cluster with 636 co-citations and 43129 total link power (ranked 14th). This cluster focuses on topics such as environmental management and environmental economics.

The green cluster has 92 journals, Business Strategy Environment is the leader of the green cluster with 2199 co-citations and 163294 total link strength (ranked 2nd). Sustainability is the second leader of the green cluster with 1589 co-citations and 107549 total link strength (ranked 4th). Technological Forecasting and Social Change is the third leader of the green cluster with 1272 co-citations and 93646 total link strength (ranked 5th). Journal of Business Research is the fourth leader of the green cluster with 855 co-citations and 66894 total link strength (ranked 7th). Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management is the fifth leader of the green cluster with 826 co-citations and 61419 total link strength (ranked 8th). This cluster includes environmental studies.

The blue cluster has 59 journals and the Journal of Business Ethics is the leader of the blue cluster with 1734 co-citations and 128386 total link strength (ranked 3rd). Strategic Management Journal is the second leader of the blue cluster with 928 co-citations and 70291 total link strength (ranked 6th). The Academy of Management Journal is the third leader of the blue cluster with 624 co-citations and 47573 total link strength (ranked 11th). The Academy of Management Review is the fourth leader of the blue cluster with 446 co-citations and 35712 total link strength (ranked 16th). Journal of Financial Economics is the fifth leader of the blue cluster with 305 co-citations and 19773 total link strength (ranked 24th). This cluster focuses on financial economics and business.

The yellow cluster has 57 journals, International Journal of Production Economics is the leader of the yellow cluster with 743 co-citations and 56482 total link power (ranked 9th). Journal of Operations Management is the second leader of the yellow cluster with 328 co-citations and 26178 total link power (ranked 19th). International Journal of Operations & Production Management is the third leader of the yellow cluster with 310 co-citations and 24195 total link power (ranked 21st). International Journal of Production Research is the fourth leader of the yellow cluster with 285 co-citations and 21977 total link power (ranked 23rd). Transportation Research Part E: Logistics and Transportation Review is the fifth leader of the yellow cluster with 247 co-citations and 17951 total link power (ranked 28th). This cluster focuses on topics such as logistics, production management, operations management.
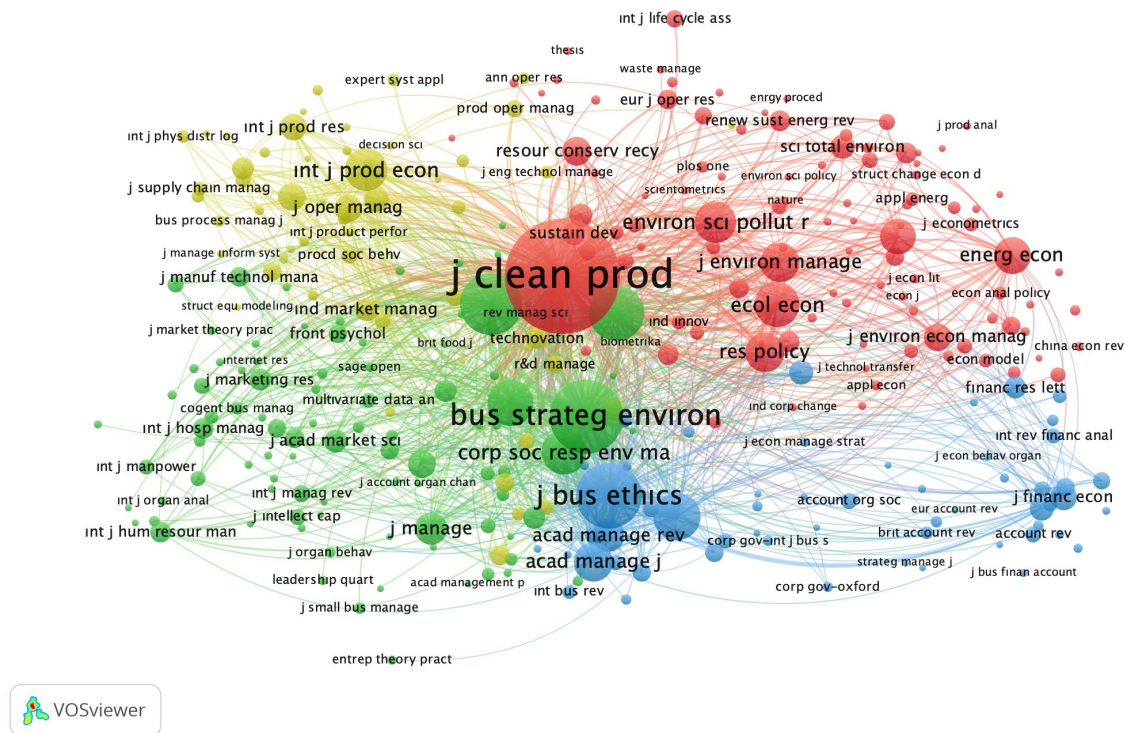
Figure 8. Co-Citation Analysis by Journal

In Figure 9, co-citation analysis was performed by author in the articles examining the eco-innovation-environmental performance relationships. The authors are divided into 4 clusters. The red cluster consists of 99 authors. The leader of this cluster is Xie et al. (2019) with 147 co-citations and 4464 total link power (ranked 11th). Li et al. (2018) is the second leader of the red cluster with 114 co-citations and 3409 total link power (ranked 19th). Berrone et al. (2013) is the third leader of the red cluster with 95 co-citations and 2746 total link power (ranked 28th). This cluster focuses on the role of environmental regulations in the relationship between eco-innovation and environmental performance, and the relationship between eco-innovation and firm performance. Xie et al. (2019) examined the relationship between green product innovation, green process innovation and the financial performance of a firm. Li et al. (2018) investigated the impact of environmental legitimacy on corporate carbon disclosure and examined its role as a mediator of green innovation . Berrone et al. (2013) examined the impact of greater regulatory and normative pressures regarding environmental issues on firms' propensity to engage in environmental innovation.

The green cluster has 92 authors. Porter & Linde (1995) is the leader of the green cluster with 294 co-citations and 7797 total link strength (ranked 3rd). Hart (1995) is the second leader of the green cluster with 169 co-citations and 5295 total link strength (ranked 7th). Rennings (2000) is the third leader of the green cluster with 165 co-citations and 4294 total link strength (ranked 12th). This cluster focuses on the theoretical explanation of studies on eco-innovation and environmental performance. Porter & Linde (1995) examined the relationship between environmental regulation and competitiveness. Hart (1995) proposed a natural resource-based view of the firm, a theory of competitive advantage based on the firm's relationship with the natural environment. Rennings (2000) examined the contribution of eco-innovation research to ecological economics by redefining innovation.

The blue cluster has 77 authors. Chen (2008) is the leader of the blue cluster with 515 co-citations and 15871 total link strength (Ranked 1). Hair et al. (2011) is the second leader of the blue cluster with 267 co-citations and 8514 total link strength (Ranked 2). Singh et al. (2020) is the third in the blue cluster with 193 co-citations and 6282 total link strength (Ranked 5). This cluster focuses on studying the structural equation model on eco-innovation. Chen (2008) proposed a new structure to investigate green innovation and its positive effects on firms' green image. Hair et al. (2011) conducted a research on the conditions under which PLS-SEM models can be used. Singh et al. (2020) examined how green human resource management affects the links between green transformational leadership, green innovation, and environmental performance.

The yellow cluster has 53 authors. Zhu et al. (2012) is the leader of the yellow cluster with 249 co-citations and 7407 total link strength (ranked 4th). Chiou et al. (2011) is the second leader of the yellow cluster with 156 co-citations and 4940 total link strength (ranked 8th). Chang & Chen (2013) is the third leader of the yellow cluster

with 127 co-citations and 4802 total link strength (ranked 9th). This cluster focuses on green supply chain management practices. Zhu et al. (2012) investigated how organizations adopt green supply chain management innovation practices and whether this adoption affects their performance. Chiou et al. (2011) investigated how green supply chain and green innovation affect environmental performance. Chang & Chen (2013) examined the positive effect of green organizational identity on green innovation performance.
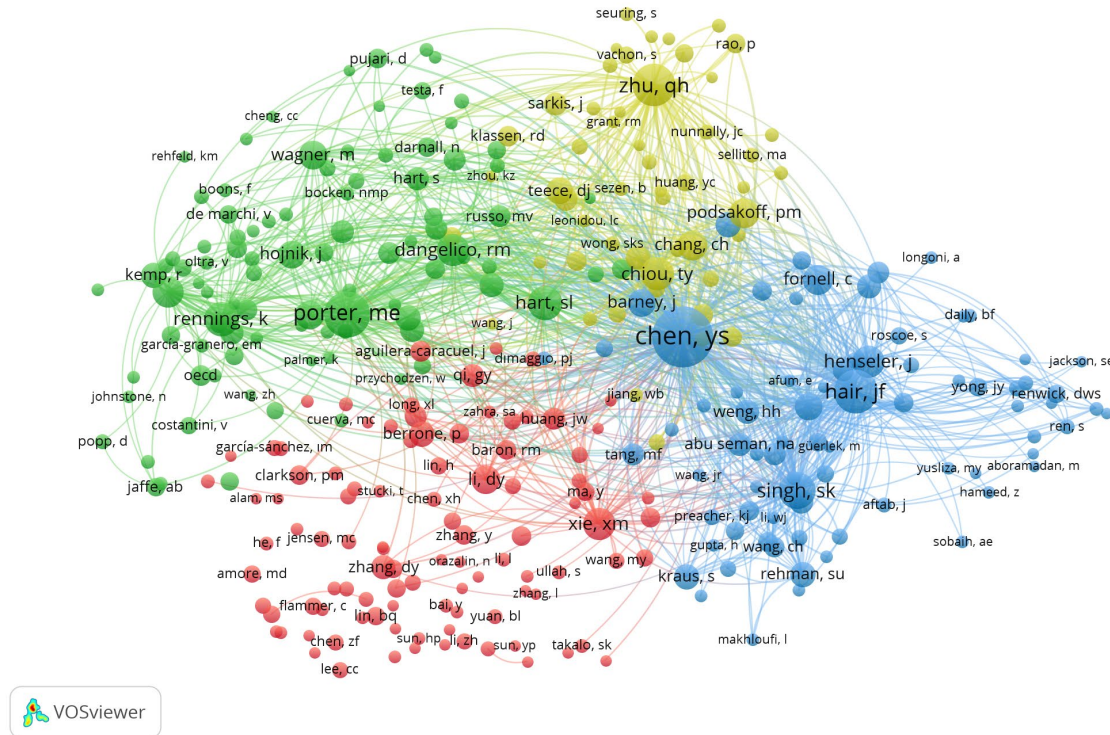
Figure 9. Co-Citation Analysis by Author

CONCLUSION

In this study, a bibliometric analysis of studies on the relationship between eco-innovation and environmental performance was performed. The Web of Science database was used for this process. As a result of the relevant keyword combinations and filtering process, a total of 685 articles, 33373 references, and 1782 keywords were reached. According to the articles obtained, it was determined that the interest in these studies has increased rapidly since 2021, the journal with the most studies was Journal of Cleaner Production, the author who has done the most studies on the subject was Cai Li, the institution with the most studies was Jiangshu University, the country with the most studies on the subject was China, the most cited study was the article titled "Determinants of eco-innovations by type of environmental impact—The role of regulatory push/pull, technology push and market pull" written by Horbach et al. in 2012, and the most mentioned keywords other than eco-innovation and environmental performance were sustainability, sustainable development, financial performance, and economic performance. In the co-citation analysis performed by reference, it was determined that the studies of Chen et al. (2006), Chiou (2011) and Singh et al. (2020) had the most co-cited references. In the co-citation analysis performed by journals, the journals were divided into 4 clusters. Journal of Cleaner Production is the leader of the red cluster. The journal Business Strategy Environment leads the green cluster . The journal Journal of Business Ethics leads the blue cluster . The journal International Journal of Production Economics leads the yellow cluster.

As a result of the co-citation analysis carried out according to the authors, the authors were divided into 4 clusters. The leader of the red cluster is Xie et al. (2019) and focuses on the role of environmental regulations in the relationship between eco-innovation and environmental performance and the relationship between eco-innovation and firm performance. Porter & Linde (1995) is the leader of the green cluster and focuses on the theoretical explanation of studies on eco-innovation and environmental performance. Chen (2008) is the leader of the blue cluster and focuses on structural equation model studies on eco-innovation. Zhu et al. (2012) is the leader of the yellow cluster and focuses on green supply chain management practices.

In this study, Web of Science database was used. A broader perspective can be provided by using various databases and industry reports. In-depth analyses can be made with case studies and surveys on the subject. Eco-innovation practices and environmental performance policies in different regions may differ in cultural and legal frameworks.

Researchers can conduct regional studies on the subject. Specific industries can be studied to analyze the effects of eco-innovation on sectors.

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL ATTENTION AND COGNITIVE FLEXIBILITY LEVEL OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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ABSTRACT
This study aims to examine the relationship between school administrators' organizational attention level and cognitive flexibility. In the study, which was conducted with the relational survey model, data were collected using the Organizational Attention Scale and Cognitive Flexibility Scale, and the analyzes were carried out with the SPSS program. According to the findings of the study, although there was no significant difference in organizational attention and cognitive flexibility levels in terms of gender and title, it was observed that the scores of male administrators and principals were slightly higher. No statistically significant difference was found between the length of experience and these variables, but a certain change was observed as the experience increased. While the level of education had a significant effect on organizational attention, it was determined that it did not create a significant difference in terms of cognitive flexibility, but there was an increase in cognitive flexibility tendency as the level of education increased. A positive relationship was found between organizational attention and cognitive flexibility. The fact that especially selectivity and focusing dimensions show a strong connection with cognitive flexibility suggests that managers' ability to direct attention processes effectively may be related to their flexibility levels. In addition, leadership attitudes and collective reaction dimensions were also found to be related to cognitive flexibility, indicating that managers who can think flexibly can exhibit more effective leadership and adapt to changes faster.
Keywords: Organizational Attention, Cognitive Flexibility, School Administrators

1. INTRODUCTION
1.1. Problem Status
Today's educational institutions have a structure that requires effective decision-making, strategic focus, and flexibility in management processes due to rapidly changing environmental factors and increasing complexity. School administrators must focus their organizational attention on specific issues and adapt to changing conditions in line with their cognitive flexibility in order to successfully manage educational institutions. However, it is seen that there are limited studies in the existing literature that directly examine the relationship between organizational attention and cognitive flexibility. Organizational attention is a process that determines which information managers focus on and which issues they prioritize (Ocasio, 2011). Educational managers must evaluate many sources of information, from daily operations to long-term strategies. In this process, the correct direction of attention plays a critical role in ensuring the efficient, effective and sustainable management of educational institutions. On the other hand, cognitive flexibility is a factor related to managers' ability to adapt to different situations, produce alternative solutions and solve problems (Topal, 2024; Martin & Rubin, 1995). Changing educational policies, unexpected crises and organizational transformations require managers to develop flexible thinking skills and use these skills effectively in decision-making processes.

The relationship between cognitive flexibility and organizational attention is important in understanding how managers direct their attention, which situations they prioritize, and how they shape decision-making processes. However, in the field of educational administration, there is insufficient research to reveal how these two concepts work together, how they affect each other, and what role managers' cognitive flexibility plays in organizational attention processes (Topal, 2024).

In the study, the relationship between organizational attention levels and cognitive flexibility levels of school administrators will be analyzed using the relational screening model using statistical methods. Organizational attention is a process that determines how organizations process existing information, focus on environmental stimuli, and prioritize which information (Ocasio, 1997). In the context of school administrators, it is considered as the capacity to determine strategic priorities, show sensitivity to environmental factors, and focus on management processes (Weick & Sutcliffe, 2006). Cognitive flexibility is defined as the ability of an individual to adapt to changing environmental conditions, evaluate different perspectives, and develop alternative solutions (Spiro & Jehng, 1990). In the context of management, cognitive flexibility is associated with school administrators' ability to respond quickly to crisis situations, have an innovative management approach, and adapt to different situations (Martin & Rubin, 1995). In this study, whether the organizational attention levels of school administrators have a significant relationship with cognitive flexibility will be analyzed using statistical methods. The main purpose of the research is to determine the direction and strength of the relationship between these two

variables and also to examine the effects of demographic variables such as gender, title, length of experience and educational status.

1.2 Purpose of the Research

The main purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between the organizational attention level of school administrators and cognitive flexibility. In particular, it is aimed to determine the effect of the cognitive flexibility of administrators on organizational attention processes and to reveal the direction and strength of the relationship between these two variables. It is aimed to develop suggestions for management processes by examining the differences in organizational attention and cognitive flexibility of demographic variables such as gender, title, experience and education status.

1.3 Importance of Research

This study is important in terms of being one of the limited number of studies examining **the relationship between organizational attention and cognitive flexibility in the field of educational administration** . Today, it has become a critical skill for educational administrators to make effective decisions in changing and dynamic school environments and to manage their strategic attention efficiently. Organizational attention is an important factor that determines what information school administrators focus on, what they ignore, and how they make decisions. Cognitive flexibility is directly related to the capacity of administrators to adapt to different situations, produce alternative solutions, and improve decision-making processes. The research aims to contribute to the decision-making mechanisms in educational institutions by revealing how the concepts of attention and flexibility interact in management processes. It is thought that the findings will contribute to the determination of educational policies and the development of training programs for school administrators.

1.4 Limitations

This research was conducted within the following limitations:

- The universe of the research consists of school administrators working in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) .
- The research was conducted within a specific time period.
- Organizational Attention Scale (Topal, 2024) and Cognitive Flexibility Scale (Martin & Rubin, 1995; Çelikkaleli, 2014) were used in the research .
- Variable Limitation : Only organizational attention and cognitive flexibility variables were considered in the study.

1.5 Definitions

Organizational Attention: It refers to the process of how decision makers manage the flow of information within the organization, which issues they focus on, and which information they filter and prioritize (Ocasio, 1997).

Cognitive Flexibility: It is defined as the ability of a person to adapt to changing environmental conditions, evaluate different perspectives and produce alternative solutions (Topal, 2024)

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Organizational Attention

Attention can be defined as a cognitive process in which an individual consciously selects environmental information or actively processes information and thoughts in memory (Ocasio et al., 2017). From a broader perspective, attention can be considered as the ability to focus and show interest in a specific topic or task, including the control of mental distraction. One of the basic characteristics of attention is that it is selective. The preference of certain stimuli among many available ones is one of the most obvious indicators of the concept of selective attention (Groenewald et al., 2009).

Organizational attention is defined as the shaping of the attention processes of decision makers within the organization within a social structure (Williams, 2019). This concept refers to the collective awareness of the immediate or long-term threats and opportunities that occur in both the internal and external environment of the organization. Organizational attention is largely based on communication and interaction processes. Organizational members need to develop a common understanding and produce solutions by sharing information about various problems facing the organization (Wickens and McCarley, 2007).

Organizational attention is a set of cyclical routines and processes that determine which information is included in organizational memory and which is filtered out and considered less important. This approach treats the organization as a distributed information system. The effectiveness of information within the organization depends on the degree to which it attracts attention. Ocasio's (1997) definition focuses on decision makers who operationalize existing information for strategic decisions. This perspective emphasizes that selection processes that filter information are shaped not only by top management but also by various organizational actors.

In the daily functioning of organizations, the actions of individuals and subunits do not always directly coincide with the decisions of the upper management. Many actions take place without being dependent on a central direction and become a part of the organizational functioning. Such actions are included in a wide flow of decisions and actions. In order for information to take place in the organizational memory, it is not enough for it to attract the attention of the upper management alone; the attention of other representatives within the organization is also a determining factor. These actors become a part of the process that determines which information will be integrated into organizational processes and transformed into a long-term source of information (Topal, 2024).

2.2. Cognitive Flexibility

Cognitive flexibility is the ability of an individual to restructure their current knowledge and produce alternative solutions to adapt to changing conditions. Spiro and Jeng (1990) were the first researchers to define this concept. Martin and Rubin (1995) emphasized that an individual should be aware of their options, be willing to adapt, and feel competent. Individuals with high cognitive flexibility can adapt to environmental changes more quickly, are responsible, enterprising, and have effective communication skills in their business and private lives (Martin et al., 1998). While flexibility increases an individual's self-confidence, confidence also enables the individual to be more flexible. Çelikkaleli (2014) stated that cognitive flexibility is positively related to problem solving, stress management, and collaborative decision-making skills, and negatively related to depression and argumentative personality. Managers with high cognitive flexibility can effectively manage organizational attention levels and make rational or intuitive decisions.

Cognitive flexibility is the ability of an individual to adapt to changing environmental conditions, evaluate different perspectives, and develop alternative solutions. This concept plays an important role in problem solving, decision making, and learning processes. Cognitive flexibility allows an individual to change previously learned thought patterns when necessary and develop strategies appropriate for new situations (Aslan & Turk, 2022). Cognitive flexibility is a critical skill, especially in coping with uncertain or complex situations. The ability of a person to switch from one task to another, to apply old knowledge to new contexts, and to adopt different thinking perspectives are the basic indicators of cognitive flexibility. This ability is a part of cognitive processes called executive functions and is closely related to attention control, memory management, and problem-solving skills. Studies in the fields of neuroscience and psychology show that cognitive flexibility is linked to the prefrontal cortex. The development of cognitive flexibility depends on education, experience, and environmental factors. Supporting flexible thinking skills in learning processes helps individuals to be innovative and adaptive. It is observed that individuals with high cognitive flexibility are more successful, especially in the changing business world and social dynamics (Dağ and Gülüm, 2013).

2.3. Related Research

Durand (2003) suggests that forecasting ability is a distinctive competence in organizational terms . In the study, a model explaining the differences in forecasting ability among firms was developed and tested. When the mutual effects were controlled, it was found that two basic organizational factors (organizational control illusion and organizational attention) affected both the bias and magnitude of forecast errors. A high level of organizational control illusion increases positive forecast bias. On the other hand, an increase in relative investments in market information within the scope of organizational attention reduces positive forecast bias and error magnitude. It also plays a balancing role for the forecast bias caused by the illusion of control. An increase in relative investments in employee competence unexpectedly increases both negative forecast bias and error magnitude. The study reveals that attention management and investment strategies are important for organizations to improve their forecasting capabilities.

In the study conducted by Topal (2024), it was aimed to develop a theoretical model related to the process and management of organizational attention. In the study, the conceptual framework of organizational attention was created, the views of educational administrators on this process were determined, and the components of organizational attention were examined. It was aimed to develop a valid and reliable scale on organizational attention. The research findings revealed that the basic elements of organizational attention are selectivity and focus. Within the scope of the study, the Organizational Attention Scale (OAS) consisting of three sub-dimensions and 16 items was developed and it was determined that the scale was highly valid and reliable. According to the structural equation model (SEM) analysis, it was concluded that organizational attention has a partial mediating role in the relationship between cognitive flexibility and rational and intuitive decision-making processes. This finding shows that organizational attention is an important factor affecting the decision-making processes of managers.

Hilligoss and Wong (2024) argue that organizations need to coordinate the attention of a wide range of employees in order to effectively respond to and manage extreme uncertainty and volatility. The ability of organizations to consciously organize their collective attention resources by focusing them on a specific problem is critical to successful crisis management. However, the existing organizational attention literature does not fully explain how organizations achieve such concentration. In order to fill this gap, a qualitative case study was conducted in a US

healthcare organization responding to the COVID-19 pandemic. As a result of the research, a process model was developed in which organizational concentration operates in a rhythmic cycle between two main phases. In the divergence phase of attention, organizational attention is spread among different issues and actors, and issues are analyzed in detail and examined in depth. In the convergence phase of attention, organizational attention is integrated horizontally and vertically and focuses on a specific issue or set of issues. These two phases affect the quality of attention in different ways in terms of stability, vitality, and integrity, contributing to the overall management capacity of the organization. The study reveals that repetitive organizational activities (e.g., meetings) are the primary mechanisms that regulate the transitions between attention separation and fusion. Effective management of these processes strengthens organizational concentration and enables organizations to better adapt to uncertainty by increasing their agility.

In the study conducted by Kartal et al. (2024), the relationship between the cognitive flexibility levels of physical education and sports teachers and their self-efficacy for inclusive education was examined. The research findings show that as teachers' cognitive flexibility increases, their self-efficacy for the education of individuals with special needs also increases. In other words, it was determined that teachers who can easily adapt to different situations and have flexible thinking skills feel more competent in the education of students with special needs. It was determined that cognitive flexibility is a variable that significantly predicts self-efficacy levels. However, it was observed that whether teachers take courses on inclusive education or not does not create a statistically significant difference on self-efficacy and cognitive flexibility scores. Despite this, it was determined that the average self-efficacy scores of teachers who take courses are relatively high. In general, the research results reveal that teachers with high cognitive flexibility feel more competent in inclusive education processes and this situation is positively reflected in educational practices.

In the study conducted by Altuğ and Ünal (2024), cognitive control and cognitive flexibility levels of healthy geriatric individuals were compared in terms of gender. The cognitive flexibility levels of individuals aged 65 and over participating in the study were evaluated with the Cognitive Control and Flexibility Scale (CFC). According to the results of the study, no statistically significant difference was found between women and men in cognitive control over emotions, appraisal and coping flexibility, and total cognitive control and flexibility scores. However, in women, the presence of chronic disease was negatively associated with appraisal and coping flexibility. In men, the presence of chronic disease was negatively associated with cognitive control over emotions and total cognitive control scores.

3. METHOD
3.1 Research Model
This study was conducted with the relational screening model within the scope of the quantitative research method. The quantitative research method is a research approach that focuses on measuring the relationships between variables and obtaining generalizable results by working with numerical data (Creswell, 2014). In quantitative research, the data collection process is carried out in an objective, systematic and measurable manner. In the research, hypotheses are tested using statistical analysis methods and the cause-effect or relational links between variables are evaluated (Büyüköztürk, 2012). The relational screening model is a research model used to determine the existing relationship between two or more variables and to examine the direction and strength of the relationship (Karasar, 2009). In this model, instead of establishing a causal link between variables, how the variables are related to each other is analyzed. It is determined whether there is a positive, negative or insignificant relationship between variables (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006).

3.2 Universe and Sample
In this study, the school principals in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) constitute the universe. There are approximately 189 school principals in the TRNC. In the study, the proportional stratified random sampling method was used to ensure that the participants represented the universe. This method is a method that divides the universe into subgroups and selects random samples from each stratum proportionate to the size of that group (Büyüköztürk, 2012). The sample size of 70 school principals was selected proportionally according to their education levels.

3.3 Data Collection Tools
In this study, the Organizational Attention Scale (OAS) developed by Topal (2024) and the Cognitive Flexibility Scale (CFS) created by Martin & Rubin (1995) and adapted to Turkish by Çelikkaleli (2014) were used.
SRS is a 6-point Likert-type scale consisting of 16 items and 3 sub-dimensions developed to measure the level of organizational attention. It includes leadership attitudes, collective reaction and selectivity & focus dimensions. High scores indicate high organizational attention. Validity and reliability analyses yielded positive results, and the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the scale was calculated as .92.
BEÖ is a 12-item, single-dimensional scale that evaluates the level of cognitive flexibility and uses a 6-point Likert-type response system. Items 2, 3, 6 and 10 are reverse scored. High scores indicate that the individual has

a high level of cognitive flexibility. In the validity and reliability analyses conducted by Çelikkaleli (2014), the internal consistency coefficient of the scale was found to be .74 and it was determined that it was a reliable measurement tool.

3.4 Analysis of Data

The data obtained in this study were analyzed using the SPSS program. For the reliability analysis of the data collected with the Organizational Attention Scale (OAS) and the Cognitive Flexibility Scale (CFS), Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was calculated and the internal consistency of the scales was tested. As a result of the analysis, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of the Organizational Attention Scale was determined as 0.87 and the Cognitive Flexibility Scale as 0.83, and it was determined that both scales had high reliability. In the data analysis process, the normality assumption was evaluated with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, and it was determined that the distribution was normal. Since the normality assumption was provided, parametric tests were applied. Independent Groups t-Test was used to compare the organizational attention and cognitive flexibility levels according to the gender variable, and One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used for categorical variables such as title and education level. Pearson Correlation Analysis was performed to examine the relationships between experience length and other variables and it was determined that there was a positive significant relationship between organizational attention and cognitive flexibility.

4. FINDINGS

In this study, demographic information of the sample group of 70 school administrators is presented in the table below.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Demographic Characteristics	Groups	Frequency (F)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Woman	27	38.6
	Male	43	61.4
Title	Manager	39	55.7
	Deputy Director	31	44.3
Experience Period	0-5 years	11	15.7
	6-10 years	16	22.9
	11-15 years	20	28.6
	16 years and above	23	32.9
Educational Status	Licence	33	47.1
	Degree	29	41.4
	Doctorate	8	11.5

When gender distribution is examined, 38.6% (n=27) of the participants are female and 61.4% (n=43) are male. When evaluated on the basis of title, 55.7% (n=39) are school principals and 44.3% (n=31) are assistant principals. In terms of experience, 15.7% (n=11) of the administrators have 0-5 years, 22.9% (n=16) have 6-10 years, 28.6% (n=20) have 11-15 years, and 32.9% (n=23) have 16 years or more experience. When educational background is examined, 47.1% (n=33) of the participants have a bachelor's degree, 41.4% (n=29) have a master's degree, and 11.5% (n=8) have a doctorate degree.

Table 2. Independent Group t-Test Results of Organizational Attention and Cognitive Flexibility Scales According to Gender Variable

Point	Groups	N	X	ss	Shx	t	Sd	p
Organizational Attention	Woman	27	98.75	22.32	4.08			
	Male	43	104.51	20.99	3.32	-0.688	68	0.362
Cognitive Flexibility	Woman	27	90.58	16.01	2.92			
	Male	43	98.66	17.08	2.70	-0.959	68	0.688

male and female managers (p>0.05). However, it was observed that male managers had slightly higher organizational attention and cognitive flexibility scores compared to women. This may suggest that male managers may have a broader perspective in terms of cognitive flexibility and may show higher focus in attention processes.

Table 3. Independent Group t-Test Results of Organizational Attention and Cognitive Flexibility Scales According to Title Variable

Point	Groups	N	X	ss	Shx	t	Sd	p
Organizational Attention	Manager	39	102.35	19.87	3.18			
	Deputy Director	31	99.42	21.36	3.84	-0.789	68	0.442
Cognitive Flexibility	Manager	39	96.72	17.51	2.81			
	Deputy Director	31	94.38	16.89	3.04	-0.654	68	0.518

The results show that there is no statistically significant difference ($p>0.05$) based on title. However, it was observed that the organizational attention and cognitive flexibility scores of the principals were slightly higher than those of the assistant principals. This may suggest that the principals may have a broader perspective in the management processes and assume more responsibility in the organizational attention processes.

Table 4. One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Results According to the Experience Length Variable

Variable	Variance Source	Sum of Squares (SS)	Degrees of Freedom (D)	Mean Squares (MS)	F	p
Organizational Attention	Intergroup	1487.25	3	495.75	2,145	0.087
	Within Groups	15587.32	66	236.17		
Cognitive Flexibility	Intergroup	985.63	3	328.54	1,872	0.142
	Within Groups	14467.89	66	219.06		

According to the results, no significant difference was found in the levels of organizational attention and cognitive flexibility depending on the length of experience ($p>0.05$). However, it was observed that the means of organizational attention and cognitive flexibility changed as the length of experience increased. This result suggests that managers may show a certain development in their attention processes and flexibility levels as they gain experience.

Table 5. One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Results According to the Educational Status Variable

Variable	Variance Source	Sum of Squares (SS)	Degrees of Freedom (D)	Mean Squares (MS)	F	p
Organizational Attention	Intergroup	1725.43	2	862.72	3,574	0.032*
	Within Groups	16528.61	67	246.69		
Cognitive Flexibility	Intergroup	943.27	2	471.63	1,984	0.112
	Within Groups	15984.23	67	238.57		

According to the results, a statistically significant difference was found between the educational status groups in terms of organizational attention (F=3.574, p=0.032). This finding shows that the organizational attention levels of managers differ as the level of education increases. In terms of cognitive flexibility, no significant difference was found according to the level of education ($p>0.05$), but when the means were examined, a certain trend was observed in the levels of cognitive flexibility as the level of education increased.

Correlation analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between Cognitive Flexibility and the Organizational Attention Scale and its sub-dimensions.

Table 6. Relationship Between Cognitive Flexibility and Organizational Attention Scale and Its Sub-dimensions

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
Cognitive Flexibility	1,000	0.721*	0.654*	0.589*	0.532
Organizational Attention Total	0.721*	1,000	0.678*	0.643*	0.712*
Selectivity and Focus	0.654*	0.678*	1,000	0.691*	0.637
Leadership Attitudes	0.589*	0.643*	0.691*	1,000	0.725*
Collective Reaction	0.532	0.712*	0.637	0.725*	1,000

asterisk ( ) in the table indicates statistically significant correlations at the p<0.05 significance level.*

The analysis results show that there is a significant and positive relationship between cognitive flexibility and organizational attention total score (r=0.721, p<0.05). Similarly, different levels of relationships were found between cognitive flexibility and the sub-dimensions of organizational attention, which are selectivity and focus (r=0.654, p<0.05), leadership attitudes (r=0.589, p<0.05) and collective reaction (r=0.532, p>0.05).

These relationships between organizational attention and cognitive flexibility indicate that school administrators' cognitive flexibility levels may have an impact on organizational attention processes. The fact that selectivity and focus dimensions in particular have a strong relationship with cognitive flexibility suggests that administrators' ability to direct their attention efficiently may be related to cognitive flexibility skills. Leadership attitudes and collective reaction dimensions also exhibit significant relationships with cognitive flexibility, suggesting that administrators who can think flexibly can exhibit more effective leadership and adapt to organizational processes more quickly.

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The research results show that there is no statistically significant difference between male and female managers in terms of organizational attention and cognitive flexibility. However, the fact that male managers have slightly higher scores in terms of these two variables may suggest that they may have a broader perspective in cognitive flexibility and attention processes. In the examinations made on the basis of title, it was observed that the organizational attention and cognitive flexibility levels of managers were slightly higher than those of assistant managers. When evaluated in terms of experience, no significant difference was found in organizational attention and cognitive flexibility levels. However, it was observed that the means of these two variables changed as experience increased. A significant difference was found in organizational attention levels in terms of education level. It is observed that the organizational attention levels of managers change as the education level increases. In terms of cognitive flexibility, although there is no statistically significant difference depending on the education level, it was observed that there is a certain trend in cognitive flexibility levels as the education level increases.

It has been determined that there is a positive relationship between organizational attention and cognitive flexibility. The fact that selectivity and focus dimensions show a strong relationship with cognitive flexibility in particular suggests that managers' ability to direct their attention efficiently may be linked to their flexibility levels. In addition, significant relationships have been found between leadership attitudes and collective reaction dimensions and cognitive flexibility. This suggests that managers with flexible thinking skills can exhibit more effective leadership and adapt to organizational processes more quickly.

Based on these findings, the following recommendations can be made:

- Training and workshops should be organized to improve managers' organizational attention and cognitive flexibility skills.
- Considering the impact of education level on organizational attention, it is important to encourage managers to engage in continuous learning and development processes.
- Content that strengthens cognitive flexibility and attention processes should be included in leadership and management programs.
- In order for managers to improve their attention management skills, supportive training on strategic thinking and focus techniques should be provided.
- Considering that managers who can think flexibly manage organizational processes more efficiently, cognitive flexibility skills should also be taken into account in manager selection and promotion processes.

These suggestions can contribute to more effective execution of school management processes and increase the ability of administrators to adapt to changing conditions.

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RESEARCH ON CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY PRACTICES IN THE TOURISM SECTOR: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

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ABSTRACT
Corporate social responsibility has become mandatory rather than voluntary activities in today's businesses. The role of the business in society and the increased awareness of internal and external stakeholders are seen as one of the reasons for this responsibility. Another reason is to gain competitive advantages and contribute to the long-term economic performance of the business. Gaining the trust of stakeholders and ensuring corporate reputation makes social responsibility activities an obligation in a society with awareness. In this context, businesses have to invest in social responsibility practices as well as financial profitability targets. In recent years, these practices, which have become so important in the business world, have also taken their place in academia as a problem to be researched. This study aims to examine and bring together research on corporate social responsibility, specific to the tourism sector, conducted between 2020 and 2024, under certain headings. 40 scientific publications were found suitable in the literature review, determined based on their publication year, number of authors, journal in which they were published, method, data collection tools, and data analysis techniques. These categories were analyzed and interpreted using the systematic review method. This research is intended to provide easy access to resources for scientists conducting research in the field.
Keywords: Corporate Social Responsibility, Systematic Review, Methodology

INTRODUCTION

The industrial revolution and rapidly developing technology have increased the welfare of individuals and societies and at the same time contributed to the financial stability of businesses. However, along with these positive developments, natural resources and the environment have been exposed to negative impacts (air pollution, water pollution, waste of natural resources, etc.). As time passes, the awareness of these negative impacts by the stakeholders of the organization (customers, employees, suppliers, and society) has created reactions against organizations and led to stakeholder distrust (Seyitoğlu, 2020). In line with these reactions, businesses have started to attach importance to philosophies such as corporate ethics, corporate morality, commitment to community values, and environmentally friendly activities (Aktan & Börü, 2007). Within the framework of these developments, the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) began to be encountered in the literature in the 1970s.

CSR briefly refers to the responsibility of the business towards its internal and external stakeholders. These stakeholders can be listed as nature, environment, employees, shareholders, government, suppliers, and so on. While businesses fulfill their responsibilities towards their internal stakeholders on issues such as transparency and fairness, they should carry out activities by the law and social values towards external stakeholders. Also, while carrying out production and service activities, they should tend towards actions that do not harm the environment and are beneficial to society (Aktan, 1999).

Businesses need to gain stakeholder trust in line with their goals of achieving sustainability, competitiveness, and long-term financial performance. In this context, they need to invest in CSR practices. In this study, based on the tourism business sector, studies published between 2020 and 2024 in the tourism sector were examined and evaluated within the framework of 6 predetermined criteria (journal of publication, year of publication, number of authors, method, data collection tool, data analysis technique).

Purpose of the Study

It is aimed to provide easy access to studies conducted in the Turkish language on CSR practices in the tourism sector. It is thought that researchers who are inclined to conduct research in this field can form an idea in terms of methodology, and it is aimed to reach the most recent studies in terms of dates. It was also thought that the sources used would facilitate the literature review. Conceptually, it is expected to shed light on explaining corporate social responsibility in a general sense.

Method
Type of Research
The research is descriptive and conducted through a qualitative method. The data were collected from Turkish publications in the form of a literature review and interpreted as a compilation. In descriptive research, the participant investigates and defines the distribution of the phenomenon in society according to place and time qualities (Çaparlar & Dönmez, 2016). A review, on the other hand, is a systematic study conducted by adhering to specified topics and variables in a specific field (Çınar, 2022).

Population and Sample
The literature constitutes the population of the study. The survey was conducted in the range covering the years 2020-2024 and the sample was selected from this main mass by non-random method, taking into account the variables.

Criteria for Selection of Publications
- Published in 2020-2024
- Conducted in Turkish language
- Focused in the field of tourism
- Accessing the full text
- Having a structure that can be analyzed under specified headings

Criteria for Non-Selection of Publications
- Publications outside of the years 2020-2024
- Publication in languages other than Turkish
- Not conducted in the field of tourism
- Inaccessibility of full text
- Inadequacy within the framework of the criteria set

In the literature review, 7960 (N) publications were reached. However, 40 (n) studies were included in the study after being examined and screened in terms of publication year, language, subject, title, and variables.

Limitations of the Study
The fact that the study considers Turkish-language publications, is limited to the period between 2020 and 2024, and deals with publications in the tourism sector causes the study to be limited in generalization.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
A review of the literature on corporate social responsibility (CSR) reveals different definitions by researchers with different perspectives (Campbell, 2007). It can be defined from different perspectives in connection with the structures of organizations in society (Branco & Rodrigues, 2007). Although the fact that there are so many definitions of the concept makes it difficult for scientists to reach a consensus in this field, it generally refers to the responsibilities of organizations towards their internal and external stakeholders. The activities of organizations within the framework of CSR express their corporate, economic, environmental, and social responsibilities (Varol, 2010).
Although CSR has been defined in different ways by scholars with different perspectives, it has common points. These common points can be listed as follows: (Sönmez, 2004).
- Businesses should work not only for financial profitability but also for social welfare.
- They should also focus on solving the social and environmental problems they create while producing goods and services.
- Businesses are responsible not only to their shareholders but also to all stakeholders and the environment.
- While pursuing economic goals, they should also consider social values.

Apart from the four items mentioned above, the concept of volunteerism is the most commonly expressed in definitions. In this context, social responsibility activities are voluntary business activities outside of legal obligations (Büyükyılmaz & Fidan, 2015).
CSR refers to the investments of organizations in business practices that take into account issues such as contributing to the welfare of stakeholders, avoiding environmental damage, and protecting natural resources while carrying out their activities. The term stakeholders used here refers to the organization's employees, customers, suppliers, and society. In this context, CSR practices both benefit stakeholders and address environmental and social needs (Kotler & Lee, 2006; Vural & Coşkun, 2011).
When the concept of CSR is analyzed in terms of historical development, its existence can be found in ancient times. One of the most prominent examples that emerged with written history is the laws of the Babylonian ruler Hammurabi. Hammurabi made laws that protected social interests in many sectors and these laws made significant contributions to the institutionalization of social responsibility (Öktem et al., 2017). The concept of CSR, which first appeared in the scientific literature in 1953 with Bowen's book, dealt with business people who are responsible for social goals and moral values (Carrol, 1999). There are different views on the emergence of CSR in the

literature. One of these views argues that organizations should be taught to fulfill their responsibilities to create social benefits through religious means (Aydede, 2007). Another view associates responsibility with laws (Hirschland, 2006).

According to the classical approach, the only goal and responsibility of businesses should be to make a profit. In reaction to this view, social responsibility activities, which have developed since the 1970s, address stakeholders in a broader framework by considering the legal rights of other interest groups (Öztürk 2013). Today's businesses are moving in the direction of the modern approach and, unlike the classical approach, do not only invest in business profitability. With modern developments, corporate social responsibility has become a combination of economics, laws, ethics, and voluntary responsibilities (Kaplan 2013). Today's businesses carry out their activities not only to achieve financial profitability but also to provide social benefits (Atlığ, 2006).

CSR activities of businesses that accept the moral philosophy of the modern approach can be based on Carrol's corporate social responsibility hierarchy. According to this hierarchy, the pyramid consists of 4 dimensions. These can be listed as ethics, laws, economy, and voluntary responsibilities. According to the pyramid, economic and legal dimensions are classified as obligatory, ethical behavior as expected, and voluntary responsibilities as desirable (Carroll, 1991). In line with Carroll's hierarchy, a business should carry out its activities related to the economic rights of its shareholders in a fair manner, fulfill its responsibilities towards the government in its activities related to the law, and fulfill its responsibilities towards employees, customers, and suppliers, in other words, its stakeholders, following ethical rules. They should reflect what comes from society to the society through social responsibility activities that will benefit the welfare of the society (Atakan & İşçioğlu, 2009).

Businesses that carry out their activities within the framework of corporate social responsibility principles gain the trust of stakeholders, create corporate reputation, and contribute to their financial performance and sustainability in the long term (Foster, 2019). There is a chain relationship between trust, reputation, and loyalty, and the trust created by the business over stakeholders which increases reputation and leads to stakeholder loyalty (Alemdar, 2008). Corporate reputation is a concept that expresses how reliable and reputable perceptions an organization creates over its stakeholders (Fombrun, 1996). Businesses that invest in CSR practices gain trust and prestige in the eyes of their stakeholders, and this reputation creates competitive power by influencing customer preferences. Accordingly, it affects the financial profitability of the business (Karaköse, 2007).

FINDINGS

Table 1. Studies According to the Journals in which they were published (n=40)

1.	The Effect of Corporate Social Responsibility Perceptions on Organizational Identification and Virtual Shirking Behavior: A Study on Hotel Businesses	Journal of Business Research
2.	Social Marketing Research in Tourism Literature: A Bibliometric Analysis	Journal of Interdisciplinary Tourism Research
3.	The Effect of Corporate Social Responsibility Activities on Competitive Advantage in Hospitality Businesses: The Case of Sapanca	Third Sector Journal of Social Economy
4.	Examining the Effect of Quality of Work Life and Corporate Social Responsibility Perception on Job Commitment: A Study on Chain Hotel Companies	Business & Management Studies
5.	The Effect of Demographic Characteristics of Hospitality Business Employees on Corporate Social Responsibility: Bodrum Example	Tourism and Cultural Heritage Congress
6.	Analyzing the Websites of Tourism Enterprises in Fortune 1000 with Content Analysis	International Journal of Turkish World Tourism Research (Dergi Park)
7.	Sustainability in Hospitality Businesses	International Journal of Global Tourism Research (Dergi Park)
8.	The Effect of Corporate Social Responsibility Practices on Purchase Intention in Tourism Sector: Sarigerme Case Study	Safran Journal of Culture and Tourism Research (Dergi Park)
9.	The Effect of Global Social Responsibility on the Green Organizational Behavior of Hospitality Managers	Tourism And Recreation (Dergi Park)
10.	Analyzing the Instagram Posts of Luxury Class Hotels: A Research in Istanbul	Turkish Journal of Tourism Research
11.	Global Social Responsibility, Environmental Passion and Green Organizational Behavior	Selçuk University, Student Thesis

	Interaction: A Research in Accommodation Businesses	
12.	Green Management and Green Human Resources Management for Tourism Enterprises: A Conceptual Research	Journal Of Academıc Tourism Studies
13.	Investigation of Environmentally Friendly Practices within the Scope of Sustainability in Accommodation Businesses	Tourism Academic Journal (Dergi Park)
14.	The Role of Corporate Environmentalism in the Impact of Stakeholder Pressures on Green Innovation in Hotel Businesses: Istanbul Case	Nevşehir University, Student Thesis
15.	Investigation of the Opinions of Accommodation Business Managers on Green Management Practices: Trabzon Case	International Journal of Global Tourism Research (Dergi Park)
16.	Understanding of Tourism from the Republic to the Present: A Bibliometric Study of Current Research on Green Tourism	Balıkesir University Journal of Institute of Social Sciences (Dergi Park)
17.	Perceived Corporate Sustainability and Customer Loyalty Relationship for Airline Companies in Turkey: Erzurum Airport Case	Balıkesir University Journal of Institute of Social Sciences (Dergi Park)
18.	Social Innovation and Tourism Sector Applications in Turkey	Journal of Tourism and Business Sciences (Dergi Park)
19.	The Mediating Role of Transparency in the Effect of Corporate Reputation Perceptions on Belonging Perceptions of Hotel Employees	Tourism Academic Journal (Dergi Park)
20.	Green Marketing in the Tourism Sector: A Conceptual Framework on Advantages, Challenges and Strategies	Kastamonu Journal of Human and Society (Dergi Park)
21.	The Relationship Between Environmental Ethics Awareness, Environmentally Friendly Behavior and Individual-Organization Fit in Environmentally Friendly Hotel Businesses	Journal of Travel and Hotel Management (Dergi Park)
22.	The Effect of Green Marketing Activities on Consumers' Purchasing Behavior in Accommodation Businesses: Arus Hotel Case	Sakarya Journal of Economics (Dergi Park)
23.	The Mediating Role of Innovation Orientation in the Effect of Stakeholder Orientation on Business Performance in Hospitality Businesses	Selçuk Journal of Tourism and Informatics Research
24.	The Effect of Green Destination Brand Value on Tourist Attitudes - A Research on Alanya Destination	Alanya Alaaddin Keykubat University, Student Thesis
25.	The Effects of Green Core Capability and Green Marketing Practices on Climate Change within the Scope of Environmental Policies: A Research in Accommodation Businesses	Selçuk University Institute of Social Sciences, Student Thesis
26.	The Relationship Between Green Business Model and Managers' Environmental Perception in Hotel Businesses	Dokuz Eylül University, Student Thesis
27.	Investigation of Corporate Social Responsibility Perceptions of Tourism Business Employees as a Stakeholder	Journal of Atatürk University Graduate School of Social Sciences (Dergi Park)
28.	A Bibliometric Study on Employees' Reactions to Corporate Social Responsibility Activities in Tourism and Hospitality Sector	Journal of Travel and Hotel Management
29.	Corporate Social Responsibility Activities in Hospitality Businesses: A Comparative Analysis of the Accommodation Companies with the Highest Brand Value in the World and Borsa Istanbul Accommodation Companies	Journal of Travel and Hotel Management (Dergipark)

30.	The Effect of Corporate Social Responsibility on Organizational Justice and Organizational Commitment: A Research in Five Star Hotel Businesses in Istanbul	International Academy of Management Journal (Dergi Park)
31.	Ethics and Corporate Social Responsibility - Analysis of the Opinions of Hotel Managers Operating in Çorum	Erciyes Akademi (Dergi Park)
32.	The Effect of Hotel Employees' Perception of Corporate Social Responsibility on Employer Attractiveness and Emotional Commitment: The Mediating Role of Corporate Reputation	Alanya Journal of Academic Review (Dergi Park)
33.	A Research on the Effect of Social Responsibility Practices on Organizational Commitment of Employees: An Application in Hotel Businesses	Turkish Journal of Tourism Research (Dergi Park)
34.	Corporate Social Responsibility in Tourism Enterprises	Iksad Publishing House, Book
35.	Corporate Reputation Management in Tourism Enterprises: Erzurum Case	Journal of Atatürk University Graduate School of Social Sciences Study (Dergi Park)
36.	Corporate Social Responsibility in the Pandemic: A Research on Accommodation Businesses	Tourism Academic Journal (Dergi Park)
37.	Conceptual Structure of Ethical Articles in the Field of Tourism	Safran Journal of Culture and Tourism Research (Dergi Park)
38.	Social Responsibility Practices in Hotel Businesses and Determination of Expectations of Domestic Tourists in Covid-19 Period	Journal of Business Innovation and Governance (Dergi Park)
39.	Investigation of the Relationship between Employees' Perceptions of Corporate Social Responsibility and Organizational Commitment Dimensions	Journal of Business Research
40.	The Effect of Perception of Professional Ethics on Corporate Reputation in Hospitality Industry	Third Sector Social Economic Review

Table 1 shows the names of 40 studies and the scientific journals in which they were published. In line with the findings obtained from the table, it is seen that 23 of the publications are in Dergi Park. This shows that more than half of the studies were published in scientific journals in Dergi Park. 3 of the studies consist of student theses. The remaining 14 studies were published in various independent journals.

Graph 1. Studies by Year of Publication (n=40)
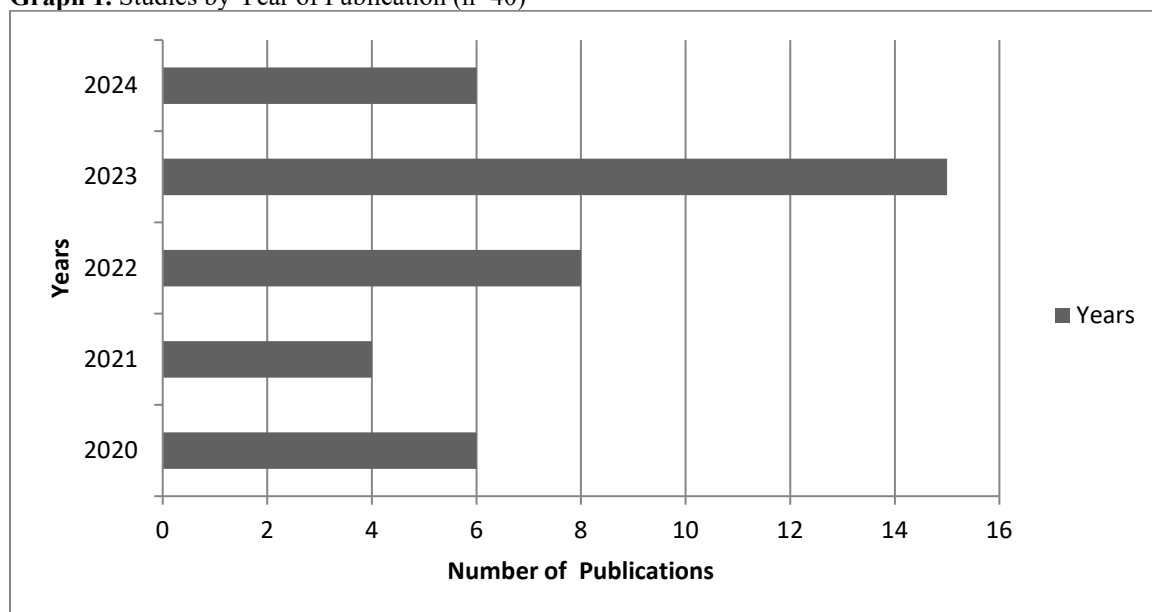
According to the data obtained from Graph 1 above, it is seen that the highest number of publications was made in 2023. In 2023, 15 publications were made on the subject. This is followed by 2022 with 8 studies. This is followed by 2020 and 2024 with 6 studies each. According to the graph, 4 studies were reached in 2021.

Graph 2. Studies by Method (n=40)
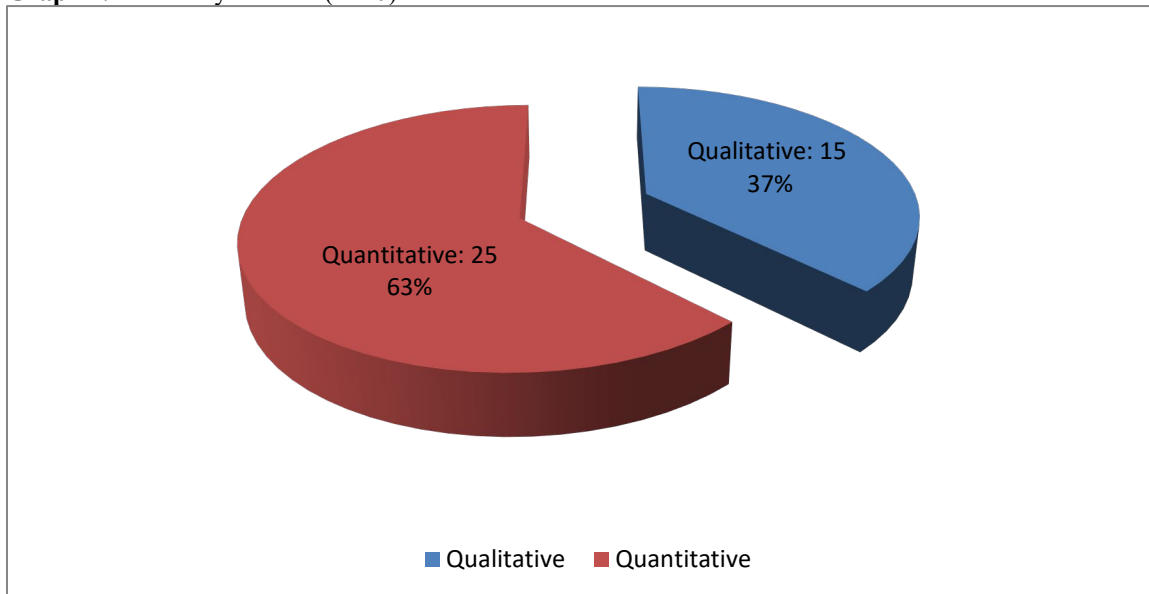
The methods used in the studies are shown in Graph 2. Of the 40 studies included in the study, 25 (63%) were quantitative, while 37% (15) were qualitative.

Graph 3. According to Data Collection Tools (n=40)
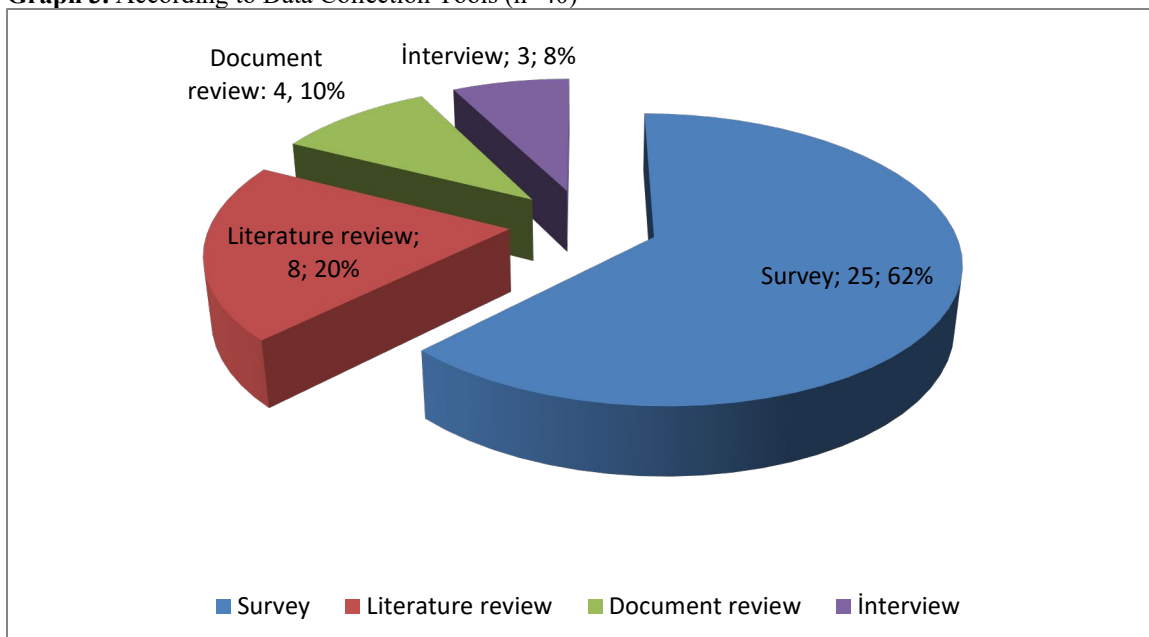
Graph 3 shows the findings of data collection tools. When the graph is analyzed, it is seen that data collection was realized through questionnaires in most of the studies. This corresponds to 62% of the total number of studies. Literature review was used in 8 of the studies, document analysis in 4 of the studies and interviews in 3 of the studies.

Table 2. According to Data Analysis Techniques (n=40)

	Data Analysis	Technique Quantity	%
1.	SPSS	24	60
2.	Content Analysis	6	15
3.	Bibliometric Analysis	4	10
4.	Descriptive Analysis	3	7,5
5.	NCSS	1	2,5
6.	AMOS	1	2,5
7.	Statistical analysis	1	2,5
	TOPLAM	**40**	**100**

According to the data obtained from Table 2, SPSS analysis techniques were mostly used in the studies. There were 24 of them, accounting for 60% of the whole. Content analysis technique ranked second with 15% (6). Bibliometric analysis was identified 4 times, representing 10%. 3 descriptive analyses were found, NCSS, AMOS and statistical analysis 1 each.

Graph 4. Studies by Number of Authors (n=40)
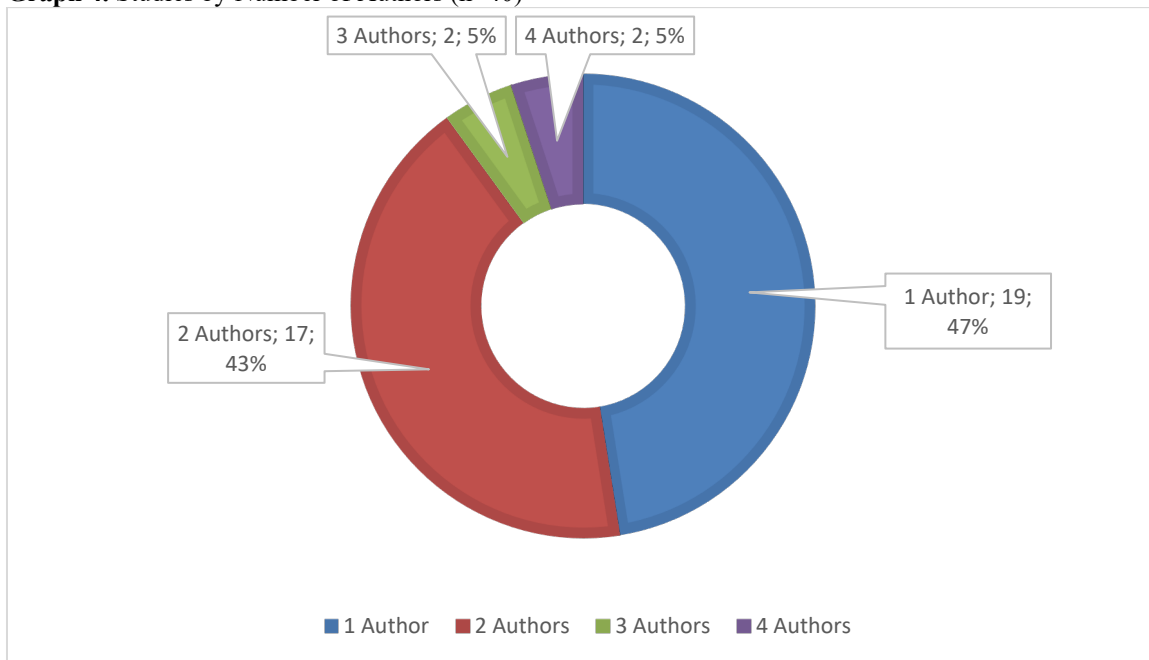
The findings obtained according to the number of authors are shown in Graph 4. Based on these findings, 19 (47%) of the studies had one author, 17 (43%) had 2 authors, 2 (5%) had 3 authors and 2 (5%) had 4 authors.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

In this study, 40 eligible publications (Table 1) were analyzed from the published studies on social responsibility activities that contribute to the sustainability, reputation, credibility, and competitive advantages of today's businesses. In this review-type study, the studies were compiled under 6 headings (publication year, journal, number of authors, method, data collection tool, and analysis technique).

When the table containing the names of the 40 selected studies and the names of the scientific journals in which they were published is examined, the publication organ Dergi Park is frequently encountered. As this amount corresponds to more than half of the studies, it is possible to claim that Dergi Park publishes more studies in the Turkish language and publishes more frequently. The studies include student theses and dissertations. University journals and various scientific journals are also included. Based on the titles of the studies, it is seen that only tourism sector studies are included in the field of CSR.

In the study covering the years 2020-2024, it was found that most of the CSR research on the tourism sector was conducted in 2023. In addition, a limited number of studies conducted in the sector were found. The reason for this result may be the limited time scope. In studies covering a 10-year period instead of 4 years, more research can be accessed. Fulya Almaz, published in 2020, 'Trends in Civil Aviation Management Research in Turkey: A Comparative Review on Doctoral and Master's Theses Done Between 1998-2019', covering the years 1998-2019 and the number of studies included in the review exceeds 300 (Almaz, 2020).

The quantitative method was used in the majority of the studies included in the research. Accordingly, it can be said that researchers are more oriented towards specific results. In Canan Tiftik's study titled 'Sustainability in Health Sector Enterprises: A Systematic Review Study' in contrast to this study, qualitative method-oriented studies exceed that of quantitative (Tiftik, 2022). The reason for this different finding may be related to the subject or the sector. In addition, the fact that 15 studies were included in the review may also lead to this result.

In the analysis, the data collection tools used, in order from more to less, were found to be questionnaires, literature reviews, document reviews, and interviews. The fact that the most commonly used instrument was a questionnaire can be attributed to the fact that the quantitative method was preferred the most. Again, in comparison with Tiftik's review, it is seen that the data of only 5 of the studies included were collected by questionnaire. The preference for the qualitative method can be shown as a factor for this result.

In line with the findings of the study, it was determined that 7 types of analysis techniques were used. The most common analysis technique in the studies was found to be the SPSS package program. The fact that 24 out of 40 studies were analyzed with SPSS is due to the high number of quantitative studies. In addition, analysis techniques such as interviews, content analysis, bibliometric analysis, descriptive analysis, NCSS, and AMOS are among the findings. Data analysis techniques were not included in Tiftik's study. In this case, it can be said that this study contains richer information in terms of methodology.

As the 6th and last variable in this study, the studies were analyzed in terms of the number of authors. The highest number of single-author publications were found, 2 authors were detected with a small difference, and 3 and 4 authors were found in only 4 studies. This result may suggest that researchers often prefer to work alone and that it is easier for two researchers to collaborate than for more than two researchers to come together. In Tiftik's study, the number of authors was not included as a variable. However, it was enriched in other aspects with variables such as research fields and findings.

It is thought that comparative analyses of the results of these studies may create an idea about more topics for researchers who intend to conduct studies in the field. It is aimed that the studies included in the review and the sources used will shed light on the research to be conducted in the field of CSR in terms of method, subject, title, and publication organ.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In future studies in the field, it is recommended to conduct a more comprehensive survey and to analyze within the framework of a longer period. The effects of CSR practices on businesses can be analyzed through content analysis or document analysis techniques. Variables can be increased and studies conducted in sectors other than the tourism sector can be included.

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THE EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT ON ORGANIZATIONAL HEALTH

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of organizational commitment on organizational health. The study was designed and implemented as a quantitative research. The population of the study consists of private sector employees in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). A sample size of 403 people was determined and data were obtained from this group. In the study, the three-dimensional organizational commitment model developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) was used to measure organizational commitment and a scale based on this model was used. In order to measure employees' perceptions of organizational health, the 44-item, 5-point Likert-type Organizational Health Scale developed by Hoy (1991) and adapted into Turkish by Taneri (2011) was used. The data obtained were analyzed and evaluated with SPSS 28.0 program.

According to the results of the research, a significant difference was found between age groups in the organizational health dimensions only in the resource support dimension and it was determined that the 31-39 age group had higher perceptions. In terms of education levels, a significant difference was found only in the dimension of organizational integrity, and it was seen that participants at primary/secondary and associate degree levels had higher perceptions. In terms of working time, a significant difference was found only in the respect dimension and it was determined that those who worked longer had a higher perception of respect. Positive and significant relationships were found between organizational commitment and organizational health dimensions, and especially affective commitment showed a strong relationship with organizational health. According to the regression analysis results, it was determined that organizational commitment has a strong, positive and significant effect on organizational health.

Key Words : Commitment, Organizational commitment, Organizational health,   Employee.

1. INTRODUCTION
1.1. Problem Status

Organizational commitment can be defined as an emotional, cognitive and behavioral sense of belonging and loyalty towards the organization where the individual works. This concept is associated with the individual's desire to adopt the goals and values of the organization, to strive for the success of the organization and to stay in the organization (Aslan & Terzi, 2023) . Organizational commitment is usually addressed in three dimensions: emotional commitment, the individual's emotional closeness to the organization and sense of belonging; continuance commitment, the individual's feeling of obligation to stay in the organization due to the high cost of leaving the organization; normative commitment, the individual's perception of staying in the organization as a moral responsibility. A high level of organizational commitment increases employees' job performance, motivation and job satisfaction, while reducing turnover rates and absenteeism. For this reason, organizations focus on elements such as effective leadership, fair management, career development opportunities and trust in the work environment to increase the commitment levels of their employees. Organizational commitment, as a strong indicator of the individual's relationship with the organization, is of critical importance for the long-term success and sustainability of the organization (Öksüz & Adem, 2024) .

Organizational health refers to the effective, harmonious and sustainable functioning of an organization's internal dynamics and interactions with the external environment. This concept encompasses the organization's ability to successfully achieve its current goals and adapt to future changes (Korkmaz, 2007) . Organizational health is associated with creating a work environment that supports employees' physical and psychological well-being, as well as effective leadership, open communication, cooperation, fair management and practices that increase employees' commitment to the organization. A healthy organization supports not only the well-being of individual employees, but also the organization's efficiency, innovation and sustainability. Organizational health contributes to the long-term success of the organization by providing an environment where conflicts are effectively managed, stress levels are kept under control, employees are motivated and satisfied with their jobs (Buluç, 2008) .

Organizational commitment has a significant and direct impact on organizational health. Employees' emotional, normative and continuance commitment to the organization stands out as an element that strengthens cooperation, trust, communication and motivation, which are the basic elements of organizational health. High organizational commitment leads to employees contributing more to organizational goals, increasing job satisfaction and creating a positive atmosphere in the workplace. This allows employees to reduce stress levels, effectively manage conflicts and reduce turnover. In addition, committed employees prefer to stay in the organization for the long term,

contributing to the sustainability and innovative capacity of the organization. Employees with a high level of organizational commitment establish healthier relationships with their colleagues and managers, increasing the general level of communication and cooperation in the organization and supporting the continuity of organizational health. Therefore, organizational commitment has a critical role in the formation and maintenance of a healthy organizational structure (Bilgiç, 2023).This study examined the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational health and evaluated the impact of organizational commitment on organizational health. In the study, the different dimensions of organizational commitment, namely emotional commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment, were examined in detail and the contributions of these dimensions to the overall health of the organization were analyzed. In this context, the effects of employees' commitment levels on organizational health elements such as cooperation, communication, trust and job satisfaction within the organization were examined .

1.2. Purpose and Importance of the Research
The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of organizational commitment on organizational health. The study also analyzed the relationships between demographic variables such as gender, age, marital status, length of professional experience, length of service in the organization and educational status, and organizational commitment and organizational health. The study aims to determine the effects of these variables on organizational commitment and organizational health, and to contribute to organizations developing strategic approaches to increase employee commitment and health levels. In addition, it is aimed to provide a scientific perspective on how individual and institutional dynamics interact with each other by understanding the possible relationships between organizational commitment and organizational health.

This study aims to reveal the effects of individuals' commitment to the organization on the general health of the organization by analyzing the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational health. The study examines in depth the dynamic interaction between these two concepts by addressing how organizational commitment levels shape organizational health elements (trust, cooperation, communication, employee well-being, etc.). In addition, the effects of demographic factors such as gender, age, marital status, length of professional experience, length of service in the organization, and educational status on this relationship are evaluated, thus providing an original contribution to the literature. The research findings will provide important data that organizations can take into consideration when developing policies to increase employee commitment, and will also guide managers in developing applicable strategies to improve the level of organizational health . In this respect, the study has the potential to be a valuable resource both in the academic field and in applied management processes.

1.3. Hypotheses
The research hypotheses are as follows:
- **H_0** : There is no significant difference in organizational commitment dimensions between married and single participants.
- **H_1** : There is a significant difference in organizational commitment dimensions between married and single participants.
- **H_0** : There is no significant difference in organizational commitment dimensions between age groups.
- **H_1** : There is a significant difference in organizational commitment dimensions between age groups.
- **H_0** : There is no significant difference in organizational commitment dimensions between the working period groups in the current institution.
- **H_1** : There is a significant difference in organizational commitment dimensions between the working period groups in the current institution.
- **H_0** : There is no significant difference in organizational health dimensions between age groups.
- **H_1** : There is a significant difference in organizational health dimensions between age groups.
- **H_0** : There is no significant difference in organizational health dimensions between education level groups.
- **H_1** : There is a significant difference in organizational health dimensions between education level groups.
- **H_0** : There is no significant difference in organizational health dimensions between working time groups in the current institution.
- **H_1** : There is a significant difference in organizational health dimensions between working period groups in the current institution.
- **H_0** : There is no significant relationship between organizational commitment and organizational health.
- **H_1** : There is a significant relationship between organizational commitment and organizational health.
- **H_0** : Organizational commitment has no significant effect on organizational health.

- **H₁** : Organizational commitment has a significant effect on organizational health.

1.4. Definitions
Organizational commitment : The attitudes and behaviors of employees towards the institution they work for in terms of emotional, normative and continuance commitment (Aslan and Terzi, 2023) .

Organizational health: It is a general structure that includes the functioning of the organization, employee satisfaction, trust, cooperation, adequacy of resources and working order (Buluç, 2008) .

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
2.1. Organizational Commitment
Organizational commitment is the deep attachment and sense of belonging that an individual feels to the organization they work for. This concept refers to the emotional and psychological ties an employee has to their organization, their level of commitment to their job, and their loyalty to the organization. Organizational commitment is directly related to the interest and motivation individuals have in their jobs and plays an important role in increasing job performance. While commitment facilitates the organization's achievement of its goals, it also contributes to individuals' career development. The more employees are attached to the values and culture of their organizations, the more the organization's overall efficiency increases. (Allen and Meyer , 1990)

Organizational commitment is generally considered in three different dimensions. The first dimension is affective commitment . commitment). Affective commitment refers to the emotional ties that the employee feels towards his/her organization. This type of commitment shows the employee's love and devotion to his/her job and the people in the workplace. The second dimension is continuance commitment). The employee considers the financial or personal costs of staying with the organization. That is, this type of commitment is due to the difficulty of a person finding better alternatives, rather than a feeling of commitment to the organization. The third dimension is normative commitment . commitment) and expresses that the individual's commitment to the organization is based on a sense of ethical and social responsibility. All three dimensions constitute the basic building blocks of organizational commitment and it is important for the success of the organization that each of these dimensions be in balance. (Meyer and Allen , 1991)

Organizational commitment requires developing various strategies to increase the level of commitment that employees feel towards their organizations. These strategies include encouraging employees to participate in decision-making processes, structuring reward systems in a fair and motivating manner, creating open communication channels, and investing in employee development. Leaders also have an important role. A good leader should understand the needs of their employees, support them, and increase their motivation. This type of leadership increases employees' commitment to their jobs while also strengthening their organizational commitment. The empathy and trust that managers feel towards their employees contribute greatly to the formation of organizational commitment. (Keller, 2006)

Organizational commitment is also closely related to job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is the level of satisfaction employees get from their jobs and has a significant effect on organizational commitment. When employees are satisfied with their jobs, they feel more committed and increase their loyalty to the organization. Negative experiences of employees with their organizations can negatively affect their commitment. Organizational commitment is not just a psychological state, but a strategic factor for increasing performance and employee satisfaction in the workplace. (Locke, 1976)

2.2. Organizational Health
Organizational health refers to the structural, cultural and psychological balance required for an organization to function effectively, work efficiently and achieve sustainable success. It includes not only the financial or physical resources of an organization, but also the psychological well-being, trust, motivation and organizational commitment of its employees. Organizational health means that the sense of belonging of employees to the organization, their job satisfaction and their relationships within the organization are at a healthy level. A healthy organization provides significant contributions to the organization's achievement of its goals by increasing workforce productivity while having productive, motivated and committed employees (Macky , 2021).

The importance of organizational health is that it directly affects the sustainability of an organization. Having a healthy organizational structure means investing not only in financial success but also in the psychological and emotional well-being of employees. Low stress levels and high motivation of employees lead to a productive workforce, strong relationships within the company and increased job satisfaction. Organizational health reduces turnover rates by increasing employees' commitment to the organization (Harter et al., 2020).

The health of an organization becomes even more important during times of crisis. In times of crisis, the structure of the organization, leadership style, trust and communication channels among employees play a critical role in successfully getting the organization through these difficult processes. Organizational health increases resilience against crises, keeps employees' stress levels under control and enables the organization to recover more quickly

from these processes. Organizational health is of great importance not only for daily operations but also for strategic plans for the future (Liu et al., 2019).

Organizational health also reflects the management skills of leaders within the organization. In a healthy organization, leaders are not only decision makers, but also individuals who support, motivate and guide employees' well-being. Leaders' sensitivity to the emotional and psychological needs of employees enables employees to be more efficient and productive. A healthy organizational culture makes employees feel valued and increases their sense of belonging to the organization (Bakker and Demerouti , 2020). Organizational health is a critical factor not only for the well-being of individual employees, but also for the overall efficiency and success of the organization. A healthy organizational structure provides sustainable success and productivity not only in the short term but also in the long term. Therefore, organizations should constantly monitor their organizational health and create strategies to improve it. It contributes to the success of the organization by increasing the motivation, commitment and job satisfaction of employees (Sonnentag et al., 2021).

3. METHOD
3.1. Research Method
This study was designed and conducted as a quantitative research. Quantitative research was preferred as a research method in which data is measured and analyzed numerically and the results allow generalizable inferences to be made. This method was used to test the hypotheses determined in the research, to determine the relationships between the variables and to reach meaningful results through statistical analyzes. Within the scope of the research, the survey method was preferred as the data collection tool and data was obtained from a large sample group using standardized scales. The obtained data were examined with various statistical analyzes to test the hypotheses and evaluate the significance of the relationships between the variables. A systematic approach was adopted throughout the research process and standard data collection and analysis methods were applied to ensure accuracy and reliability. The focus of the study is to obtain objective results based on numerical data and to reveal the cause-effect relationships between organizational commitment and organizational health by analyzing these results with scientific methods. The research findings once again demonstrated the effectiveness of quantitative analysis methods widely used in the field of social sciences in providing accuracy and generalizability (Garip , 2023) .

3. 2. Universe and Sample
The universe of this study consists of private sector employees in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). In the study, the purposeful sampling method was used to select samples from the universe. The purposeful sampling method is based on the principle of selecting individuals who meet certain criteria or variables targeted by the study (Başaran , 2024) . In this direction, in order to examine the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational health, the individuals most suitable for the purposes of the study were selected from among private sector employees. In the study, a sample size of 403 people was determined. This sample group ensured that data that could answer the research questions were collected and that a group compatible with the objectives of the study was created. In the sample selection, special care was taken to ensure that private sector employees represented various sectors and provided data diversity that could evaluate the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational health. This approach both increased the suitability of the sample group to the objectives of the study and ensured that the data collected supported the objectives of the study. The collected data were analyzed on the sample group and generalizable results were obtained.

3.3. Data Collection Tools
a 22-item, 5-point Likert- type Organizational Commitment Scale , based on Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-dimensional organizational commitment model and adapted to Turkish by Wasti (2000) , was used to measure organizational commitment . This scale was previously used in a study conducted by Ertan (2008), and reliability analyses yielded results above expected values and proved to be a reliable measurement tool. In the study conducted by Bilgiç (2023), the reliability analysis result of the organizational commitment scale was found to be 0.906, and this value was stated to be very reliable.

To determine employees' perceptions of organizational health, the 44-item, 5-point Likert- type Organizational Health Scale (The Organizational Health Scale), developed by Hoy (1991) and adapted to Turkish by Taneri (2011), was used. Organisation Health Inventory-OHI) was used. This scale has obtained appropriate results from validity and reliability analyses in previous studies. In the study conducted by Bilgiç (2023), the reliability analysis result of the organizational health scale was calculated as 0.929 and it was stated that this value is very reliable. Reliability analysis to the results According to used scales reliability levels evaluated . Organizational Loyalty The scale Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for 0.771 found And This of scale reliability acceptance Possible at level is This scale has been seen 22 items in total Organizational Health The scale for Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is 0.912 calculated And This your value increasingly high One reliability to the level of sign he said This scale has

been determined is 44 items Analysis results , both in the study of the scale available for use at level Trustworthy is shows .

3.4. Analysis of Data

The study data were analyzed with SPSS 28.00 program. Normality analysis was first performed to determine the analyses to be performed. Normality analysis to the results According to organizational loyalty And organizational health scales of whether the distribution is normal with the Kolmogorov -Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests has been evaluated . Organizational Loyalty The scale Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for statistics value is 0.065 and The significance (Sig.) value was found to be 0.000 . Shapiro-Wilk test statistics value is 0.980 and meaningfulness value again as 0.000 These results are calculated as the normal distribution of the data . does not show sign Also , the distortion value is -0.556 and oblateness value as 0.550 calculated , which means that the distribution slightly skewed to the left And than normal A little more flattened is shows .

Organizational Health The scale Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for statistics value is 0.053 and meaningfulness value was found to be 0.009 . Shapiro-Wilk test statistics value is 0.959 and meaningfulness value as 0.000 This scale is calculated for the data has a normal distribution does not comply Distortion is seen . value is -0.826 and oblateness value as 2.791 calculated , which means the distribution is skewed to the left And increasingly flattened One to the structure owner is shows .

Conclusion as , both of scale normal distribution of data does not show detection was made for   in analysis parametric non- methods preference In this context , two independent group between differences to examine Mann-Whitney U Test for This test was used in two group between hydrangea values to be compared possibility For example , recognize different age groups organizational loyalty levels with this test analysis has been made . Also , two more independent group between differences to determine Kruskal-Wallis H Test for This test was applied to different education to the level of owner employees organizational health their perceptions in comparison has been used . In addition, order , scales between Relationships examination Spearman Correlation for Analysis preference This method is used to analyze data between linear non- Relationships your power And direction to evaluate for   used . Appendix as , suddenly more independent variable One dependant variable on it the effect of analysis to be done for parametric non- regression analysis from the methods has been utilized . With these analyses Variables between Relationships detailed in this way has been evaluated .

4. FINDINGS

Table 3. Demographic Information of Participants

		n	%
Gender	Male	216	53.6
	Woman	187	46.4
Marital status	Married	226	56.1
	Single	177	43.9
Age	30 years old And six	99	24.6
	31-39 years old	110	27.3
	40-49 years old	103	25.6
	50 years old And above	91	22.6
Education situation	Primary Education / Secondary Education	37	9.2
	High school	96	23.8
	Associate Degree	84	20.8
	Licence	118	29.3
	High Licence And above	68	16.9
Available in the institution study duration	1 year little	62	15.4
	1-3 years	72	17.9
	4-6 years	92	22.8
	7-10 years	84	20.8
	11 years And above	93	23.1
Vocational experience	0-2 years	41	10.2
	3-5 years	75	18.6

6-10 years	82	20.3
11-15 years	86	21.3
16-20 years	79	19.6
21 years And above	40	9.9
Total	403	100.0

53.6% (n=216) of the participants were male and 46.4% (n=187) were female. is a woman . Civilized to their situation According to the age group , 56.1% (n=226) of the participants were married and 43.9% (n=177) were single . distribution When examined , 24.6% (n=99) were under 30 years of age . And 27.3 % (n=110) were aged 31-39 , 25.6% (n=103) were aged 40-49 and 22.6% (n=91) were 50 years old And above aspect Education is seen to the situation According to the data , 9.2% (n=37) of them had primary / secondary education , 23.8% (n=96) of them had high school , 20.8% (n=84) of them had associate degree , 29.3% (n=118) of them had undergraduate degree. and 16.9% (n=68) were high licence And above education to the level of has . Available in the institution study to their duration When we look at it , 15.4% (n=62) of them are more than 1 year less , 17.9% (n=72) 1-3 years , 22.8% (n=92) 4-6 years , 20.8% (n=84) 7-10 years and 23.1% (n=93) 11 years And above has worked . Professional experience In terms of age , 10.2% (n=41) of the participants had 0-2 years , 18.6% (n=75) had 3-5 years , 21.8% (n=88) had 6-10 years , 21.3% (n=86) had 11-15 years , 19.6% (n=79) had 16-20 years. and 9.9% (n=40) 21 years And above experience has .

Table 2. Mann- Whitney U Test Results Regarding Organizational Commitment Dimensions Among Married and Single Participants

		n	Average Arrangement	Rankings Total of	Mann Whitney University	Z	p.
Emotional loyalty	Married	226	211.31	47755.50	17897,500	-1,822	**0.048**
	Single	177	190.12	33650.50			
Continue commitment	Married	226	206.05	46568.00	19085,000	-0.792	0.428
	Single	177	196.82	34838.00			
Normative loyalty	Married	226	199.13	45003.00	19352,000	-0.563	0.573
	Single	177	205.67	36403.00			
Organizational loyalty	Married	226	206,37	46638,50	19014,500	-0,850	0,395
	Bekar	177	196,43	34767,50			

p<0,05

Mann–Whitney U test to the results According to , married And single Participants between organizational loyalty from its dimensions just emotional loyalty at the level of significant There was a difference (U=17897.500, p=0.048). Married participants emotional loyalty average ranking (211.31), single than the participants (190.12) is high . Continue commitment (U=19085.000, p=0.428), normative commitment (U=19352.000, p=0.573) and general organizational commitment (U=19014.500, p=0.395) dimensions whereas married And single Participants between statistical aspect significant No difference was found . These results are only emotional loyalty in size married individuals single to individuals according to more high loyalty to the level of owner is shows .

Table 3. Kruskal -Wallis H Test Results Regarding Organizational Commitment Dimensions According to Age Groups

		n	Average Arrangement	Kruskal-Wallis H	Chi-Square	p.
Emotional loyalty	30 years old And six	99	198.03	1,480	2,778 [b]	0.427
	31-39 years old	110	211.82			
	40-49 years old	103	203.35			
	50 years old And above	91	192.92			
Continue commitment	30 years old And six	99	197.56	1,934	1,094c	0.779
	31-39 years old	110	210.34			

		n	Average Arrangement	Kruskal-Wallis H	Chi-Square	p.
	40-49 years old	103	191.19			
	50 years old And above	91	208.98			
Normative loyalty	30 years old And six	99	208.67			
	31-39 years old	110	223.25	7,502	9,677d	**0.022**
	40-49 years old	103	186.77			**2>4**
	50 years old And above	91	186.29			
Organizational loyalty	30 years old And six	99	196.86			
	31-39 years old	110	221.42	4,485	1,915 e	0.590
	40-49 years old	103	189.86			
	50 years old And above	91	197,85			

p<0,05

Kruskal-Wallis H test to the results According to age groups between organizational loyalty dimensions In terms of difference is It is not has been examined . Emotional loyalty in size , age groups average Rankings between significant No difference was found (H=1.480, p=0.427) .Continue commitment age in size groups between significant there is no difference (H=1.934, p=0.779) . However , normative loyalty in size age groups between significant spot a difference (H=7.502 , p=0.022). Average to the rankings According to , 31-39 years old group (2nd group) normative loyalty in terms of 40-49 years old According to group (4th group) more high One level exhibited . General organizational loyalty In terms of whereas age groups between significant there is no difference It was seen (H=4.485, p=0.590). Result as , age groups between just normative loyalty in size significant a difference was found , another in dimensions statistical aspect significant One difference detection has not been done .

Table 4. Kruskal -Wallis H Test Results Regarding Organizational Commitment Dimensions According to Working Time in the Current Institution

		n	Average Arrangement	Kruskal-Wallis H	Chi-Square	p.
Emotional loyalty	1 year little	62	180.66			
	1-3 years	72	193.19			**0.036**
	4-6 years	92	197.73	8,810	8,795 b	**5 >1**
	7-10 years	84	197.32			**3>1**
	11 years And above	93	231.51			
Continue commitment	1 year little	62	170.60			
	1-3 years	72	197.50			
	4-6 years	92	216.90	8,660	8,123c	0.070
	7-10 years	84	220.60			
	11 years And above	93	194.88			
Normative loyalty	1 year little	62	224.24			
	1-3 years	72	200.35			
	4-6 years	92	192.31	3,099	3,043d	0.541
	7-10 years	84	202.68			
	11 years And above	93	197.42			
Organizational loyalty	1 year little	62	184.27			
	1-3 years	72	194.39			
	4-6 years	92	203.77	3,096	3,127 e	0.542
	7-10 years	84	216.31			

| | 11 years And above | 93 | 205.03 | | | |

p<0.05

Kruskal-Wallis H test to the results According to , available in the institution study to the duration according to organizational loyalty dimensions In terms of difference is It is not has been examined . Emotional loyalty in size , work duration groups between significant There was a difference (H=8.810, p=0.036). Mean to the rankings According to , 11 years And above employees (5th group) emotional loyalty level , 1 year little According to employees (1st group) more high It was found that 7-10 years employees (3rd group) emotional loyalty level is also 1 year little to employees according to more is high . Continue commitment in size whereas study duration groups between significant there is no difference It was seen (H=6.860, p=0.070). Normative loyalty groups in terms of between significant spot a difference (H=0.994, p= 0.541). General organizational loyalty in size whereas significant there is no difference It was determined (H=3.096, p=0.542). Result as , available in the institution study duration just emotional loyalty in size significant while making a difference , in dimensions statistical aspect significant One difference detection has not been done .

Table 5. Kruskal -Wallis H Test Results for Organizational Health Dimensions by Age Groups

		n	Average Arrangement	Kruskal-Wallis H	K Square	p.
Organizational Integrity	30 years old And six	99	184.97	4,044	6,445 [b]	0.257
	31-39 years old	110	216.58			
	40-49 years old	103	205.48			
	50 years old And above	91	198.96			
The manager's The effect	30 years old And six	99	197.23			
	31-39 years old	110	216.90	2,540	4,634c	0.468
	40-49 years old	103	197.46			
	50 years old And above	91	194.31			
Respect	30 years old And six	99	209.36			
	31-39 years old	110	212.80			
	40-49 years old	103	196.41	3,075	6,035d	0.380
	50 years old And above	91	187.26			
Study The order	30 years old And six	99	204.81			
	31-39 years old	110	208.60	2,376	1,066 [e]	0.498
	40-49 years old	103	187.03			
	50 years old And above	91	207.90			
Source support	30 years old And six	99	210.13			
	31-39 years old	110	212.11	9,769	8,238 [f]	**0.035 2>3**
	40-49 years old	103	190.79			
	50 years old And above	91	193.62			
Ray Importance	30 years old And six	99	197.89			
	31-39 years old	110	210.78	0.931	3.115g	0.818
	40-49 years old	103	197.29			
	50 years old And above	91	201.19			
Organizational health	30 years old And six	99	200.41			
	31-39 years old	110	218.02			

40-49 years old	103	189.06	3,431	3,583 hours	0.330
50 years old And above	91	199.00			

p<0.05

Kruskal-Wallis H test to the results According to age groups between organizational health dimensions In terms of significant is there a difference It is not has been examined . Organizational integrity in size , age groups average Rankings between significant No difference was found (H=4.044, p = 0.257). effect age in size groups between significant there is no difference It was seen that (H=2.540, p=0.468). Respect in size age groups between significant spot a difference The study was not conducted (H=3.105, p=0.380). order groups in size between significant No difference was found (H=1.066, p=0.785). Source support in size whereas age groups between significant spot a difference (H=9.769, p=0.035) . Average to the rankings According to , 31-39 years old group (2nd group), 40-49 years old than group (3rd group) high source support to the perception owner is has been determined . The work importance in size age groups between significant No difference was found (H=9.331, p=0.318). General organizational health in terms of age groups between significant there is no difference detection (H=3.341, p=0.340) .

Table 6. Kruskal -Wallis H Test Results Regarding Organizational Health Dimensions According to Education Level Groups

		n	Average Arrangement	Kruskal-Wallis H	K Square	p.
Organizational Integrity	Primary Education / Secondary Education	37	222.61	14,663	9,183 [b]	**0.037** **1>2** **3>4**
	High school	96	186.41			
	Associate Degree	84	213.74			
	Licence	118	194.68			
	High Licence And above	68	211.00			
The manager's The effect	Primary Education / Secondary Education	37	217.54	2,222	4,899c	0.695
	High school	96	188.62			
	Associate Degree	84	207.97			
	Licence	118	201.83			
	High Licence And above	68	205.35			
Respect	Primary Education / Secondary Education	37	222.18	3,566	7,017d	0.468
	High school	96	190.12			
	Associate Degree	84	198.73			
	Licence	118	212.60			
	High Licence And above	68	193.44			
Study The order	Primary Education / Secondary Education	37	208.30	1,683	2,684 [e]	0.794
	High school	96	192.81			
	Associate Degree	84	213.76			
	Licence	118	198.66			
	High Licence And above	68	202.82			
Source support	Primary Education / Secondary Education	37	205.69	1,186	1,418 [f]	0.880
	High school	96	199.19			
	Associate Degree	84	196.65			
	Licence	118	210.81			
	High Licence And above	68	195.27			

		n	Average Arrangement			
Ray Importance	Primary Education / Secondary Education	37	206.86	1,541	1.015g	0.819
	High school	96	210.53			
	Associate Degree	84	202.97			
	Licence	118	191.72			
	High Licence And above	68	203.96			
Organizational health	Primary Education / Secondary Education	37	219.66	1,858	2,885 hours	0.762
	High school	96	191.86			
	Associate Degree	84	208.48			
	Licence	118	200.73			
	High Licence And above	68	200.90			

p<0.05

Kruskal-Wallis H test to the results According to education level groups between organizational health dimensions In terms of difference is It is not has been examined . Organizational integrity in size , education level groups between significant There was a difference (H=14.663, p=0.037). Mean to the rankings according to primary / secondary education at the level of participants (group 1), high school According to those at the level (2nd group) more high One organizational integrity to the perception owner is ; also Associate's degree at the level of participants (3rd group), high licence And above According to those at the level (4th group) more high organizational integrity to the perception owner is has been determined . The manager effect in size education levels between significant No difference was found (H=2.222, p=0.529). Respect groups in size between significant spot a difference was not found (H=3.566, p=0.312). order in size , education levels between significant there is no difference It was seen (H=1.683, p=0.641). Source support in size education levels between significant No difference was found (H=1.186, p=0.880) . importance also significant in size there is no difference It was determined (H=1.541, p=0.816). General organizational health groups in terms of between significant there is no difference detection (H=1.858, p=0.762) .

Table 7. Kruskal -Wallis H Test Results Regarding Organizational Health Dimensions According to Working Time in the Current Institution

		n	Average Arrangement	Kruskal-Wallis H	K Square	p.
Organizational integrity	1 year little	62	197.10	2,023	2,897 b	0.732
	1-3 years	72	192.49			
	4-6 years	92	198.22			
	7-10 years	84	202.61			
	11 years And above	93	215.82			
The manager's effect	1 year little	62	187.31	9,063	5,582c	0.060
	1-3 years	72	188.23			
	4-6 years	92	201.93			
	7-10 years	84	191.22			
	11 years And above	93	232.25			
Respect	1 year little	62	180.02	13,601	7,487d	**0.009 5 > 2**
	1-3 years	72	174.42			
	4-6 years	92	199.74			
	7-10 years	84	209.44			
	11 years And above	93	233.51			
Study order	1 year little	62	203.90	2,186	1,723 e	0.702
	1-3 years	72	184.81			
	4-6 years	92	201.63			
	7-10 years	84	209.74			

	11 years And above	93	207.42			
Source support	1 year little	62	182.28	8,210	1,456 f	0.084
	1-3 years	72	179.98			
	4-6 years	92	202.25			
	7-10 years	84	210.99			
	11 years And above	93	223.82			
Ray importance	1 year little	62	180.71	5,162	6.081g	0.271
	1-3 years	72	195.69			
	4-6 years	92	212.72			
	7-10 years	84	218.75			
	11 years And above	93	195.35			
Organizational health	1 year little	62	180.24	9,770	12,505 hours	**0.044**
	1-3 years	72	175.54			
	4-6 years	92	205.51			
	7-10 years	84	214.14			
	11 years And above	93	222.55			

p<0.05

Kruskal-Wallis H test to the results According to , available in the institution study to the duration according to organizational health dimensions In terms of significant differences is It is not reviewed . Respect in size study duration groups between significant There was a difference (H=13.601, p=0.009). Mean to the rankings According to , 11 years And above employees (5th group), 1-3 years According to employees (2nd group) more high One respect to the perception owner is has been determined . General organizational health Working in size duration groups between significant A difference was found (H=9.770, p=0.044), but Bonferroni correction post- This difference is also statistical aspect significant acceptance not included . Other dimensions (organizational integrity of the manager effect , study scheme , source support And ray importance) for groups between significant spot a difference was not found (p>0.05).

Table 8. Spearman's Statistics on the Relationship Between Organizational Commitment and Organizational Health Rho Correlation Analysis Results

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Emotional commitment (1)	r	1,000	,337**	-0.01	,604**	,642**	,806**	,668**	,536**	,687**	,250**	,840**
	p.		0,000	0.788	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
Continue commitment (2)	r		1,000	,143**	,779**	,172**	,325**	,327**	,227**	,308**	,732**	,524**
	p.			0.004	0,000	0.001	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
Normative commitment (3)	r			1,000	,543**	,237**	,121*	-0.06	,370**	-0.08	0.016	,134**
	p.				0,000	0,000	0.015	0.195	0,000	0.074	0.755	0.007
Organizational commitment (4)	r				1,000	,511**	,610**	,437**	,552**	,403**	,516**	,731**
	p.					0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
Organizational integrity (5)	r					1,000	,701**	,357**	,648**	,281**	,129**	,702**
	p.						0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0.010	0,000
The manager's effect (6)	r						1,000	,524**	,610**	,492**	,225**	,819**
	p.							0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
Saygı (7)	r							1,000	,222**	,757**	,250**	,741**
	p.								0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000

Study layout (8)	r	1,000	,274**	0.094	,638**
	p.		0,000	0.059	0,000
Source support (9)	r		1,000	,262**	,730**
	p.			0,000	0,000
Ray importance (10)	r			1,000	,490**
	p.				0,000
Organizational health (11)	r				1,000
	p.				

Spearman's rho correlation analysis to the results According to organizational loyalty dimensions with organizational health dimensions between positive And significant Relationships is It has been seen . Emotional loyalty with organizational health between strong One relationship detection (r=0.840, p= 0.000). In addition , sensory loyalty organizational integrity of the manager influence , respect And source support with positive And significant to relationships has . Continue commitment with organizational health between significant One relationship was found (r=0.524, p=0.000), the same in time organizational loyalty And normative loyalty with positive Relationships observed . Normative commitment , organizational health (r=0.731, p=0.000) and organizational integrity like other also meaningful with dimensions Relationships Organizational health , organizational loyalty with its dimensions positive And strong to relationships has ; especially organizational loyalty with strong One connection (r=0.732, p=0.000). These analyses show that organizational loyalty dimensions organizational health on it effect Supports in nature is , all dimensions between strong And significant Relationships is emerge is putting .

Table 9. Regression Analysis Results on the Effect of Organizational Commitment on Organizational Health

	Not standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p.
Still	1,374	0.125		10,960	0,000
Organizational health	0.674	0.031	0,733	21,599	0,000

	F	Sig.	R	R^2	
	466,519	,000^b	,733^a	0,538	

Regression analysis to the results According to organizational your loyalty organizational health on positive And significant One effect is detection Organizational loyalty variable regression coefficient (B) as 0.674 It was found that this is organizational in commitment One unity increase organizational health on 0.674 units One increase created The standardized Beta coefficient is 0.733 , indicating that organizational your loyalty organizational health on it strong effect expression Meaningfulness level (p) as 0.000 calculated And This result , relationship statistical aspect significant is emerge The model has been put general its significance The F value evaluated as 466.519 found And This is the model general aspect significant is (p=0.000). Also , R² value is 0.538 . calculated , this is also organizational health in the variable total 53.8% of the variance is organizational loyalty by It was explained The result shows as organizational your loyalty organizational health on strong , positive And significant One effect is has been determined .

CONCLUSION
At the end of this research, the effect of organizational commitment on organizational health was examined.
In terms of organizational commitment dimensions, a significant difference was found only in the emotional commitment level between married and single participants, and it was determined that married participants exhibited higher emotional commitment. A significant difference was found only in the normative commitment dimension between age groups, and it was seen that the normative commitment level of the 31-39 age group was higher. In terms of working hours, a significant difference was found only in the emotional commitment dimension, and it was found that those who worked for longer periods had higher emotional commitment levels.

In organizational health dimensions, a significant difference was found only in the resource support dimension between age groups, and it was determined that the 31-39 age group had a higher perception. In terms of education levels, a significant difference was found only in the organizational integrity dimension, and it was seen that participants with primary/secondary education and associate degree levels had a higher perception. In terms of working hours, a significant difference was found only in the respect dimension, and it was determined that those who worked for longer periods had a higher perception of respect.

Positive and significant relationships were found between organizational commitment and organizational health dimensions, and it was determined that especially emotional commitment showed a strong relationship with organizational health. According to the regression analysis results, it was determined that organizational commitment had a strong, positive and significant effect on organizational health.

Based on the research results, the following recommendations have been prepared:

It has been observed that emotional commitment and perception of respect increase as the length of service increases. Therefore, motivation-enhancing policies should be developed for long-term employees in the organization and their experiences should be utilized. For example, seniority awards can be given to long-term employees.

Considering that organizational commitment has a strong impact on organizational health, improvements should be made in leadership development, workload balance, and job satisfaction to increase employee commitment. Workplace health programs and stress management workshops can be organized to support employees' physical and psychological health.

Research results show that organizational health dimensions are closely related to employee commitment. Therefore, corporate culture should be structured to ensure that employees work with trust, respect and cooperation and should be kept open to continuous development.

In order for organizational health dimensions to be perceived strongly, it is important to include employees in decision-making processes. Platforms should be created to receive employee suggestions and the implementation of these suggestions should be encouraged.

Continuous training and personal development programs should be implemented to create positive effects on organizational commitment and health. These programs will allow employees to improve themselves and increase their commitment to the organization.

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THE EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL FAVORITANISM AND ORGANIZATIONAL EXCLUSION ON ORGANIZATIONAL SILENCE

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ABSTRACT
The main purpose of this study is to examine the effects of organizational favoritism and organizational exclusion on organizational silence. The study was designed and implemented as a quantitative research. The population of the study consists of individuals residing in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) and working in the private sector. The sample of the study was determined as 388 people. In the study, survey method was preferred to measure the effect of organizational favoritism and exclusion on organizational silence. Data analysis was carried out using SPSS 26 program and the results were evaluated with statistical methods.

As a result of the research, it was determined that organizational favoritism and exclusion have significant effects on organizational silence. It has been determined that organizational exclusion does not differ according to demographic variables in general, but there are significant differences in the Accepting Silence dimension depending on age and education level. Participants in the middle age group and those with low educational level have higher perceptions in this dimension. Organizational favoritism, especially in promotion and recruitment processes, stood out as the strongest factors that increase organizational silence. While the effect of favoritism in the process was found to be limited, organizational exclusion was found to have a significant effect on accepting silence. These findings suggest that perceptions of organizational justice and nepotism directly affect employees' silence behaviors.

Key Words: Organizational Nepotism, Exclusion, Organizational Exclusion, Silence, Organizational Silence

1. INTRODUCTION
1.1. Problem Status
Organizational favoritism is the situation in which individuals or groups within an organization are treated in a privileged manner, regardless of merit, usually based on factors such as personal, family, ethnic or political connections. Such an approach usually leads to injustice in decision-making processes, distrust among employees and loss of motivation. Organizational favoritism can occur in processes such as recruitment, promotion, reward or task distribution. This situation can negatively affect organizational efficiency and corporate reputation, causing serious problems in the long term (Yıldırım and Tokgöz, 2020) . Especially in cases where ethical values are violated, it can cause conflicts within the organization and a decrease in employee loyalty. In order to prevent organizational favoritism, it is important to adopt a transparent management approach, develop decision-making processes based on merit and strengthen control mechanisms (Aydın, 2016).

Organizational exclusion is the systematic removal of individuals or groups from the work environment, social relations or decision-making processes in an organization. This situation usually occurs regardless of the performance, skills or contributions of individuals and can mostly be caused by prejudices, discrimination, power balances or personal conflicts (Scott et al., 2014) . Organizational exclusion can damage the sense of belonging of employees and lead to psychological wear, job dissatisfaction and loss of motivation. It negatively affects overall productivity by weakening communication and cooperation within the organization. Individuals exposed to exclusion may tend to break away from the organization and increase their turnover rates. In order to prevent this problem, it is of great importance to promote an inclusive organizational culture, implement effective policies against discrimination and establish open communication channels among employees (Yarmacı & Ayyıldız, 2020) .

Organizational silence is a situation where employees hesitate to express their opinions about the problems, needs, ideas or suggestions they encounter at work or they deliberately remain silent (Öneren, 2024) . This behavior usually arises from reasons such as individuals within the organization being afraid of the consequences of sharing their ideas, anxiety about being punished, negative attitudes of managers or the fact that the organizational culture does not encourage participation. Organizational silence can negatively affect the development of the organization by preventing the emergence of innovative ideas and can reduce the organizational commitment of employees. It reduces individual performance and overall work efficiency by causing job dissatisfaction, loss of motivation and psychological wear. In order to prevent this negative situation, it is necessary to encourage an open communication culture within the organization, to create safe environments where employees can freely share their opinions and suggestions and for managers to adopt a participatory leadership approach (Nartgün and Kartal, 2013) .

Organizational favoritism and organizational exclusion can negatively affect employees' tendency to express their opinions and thoughts at work, leading to widespread organizational silence. In an organization where favoritism

is present, when employees think that decisions are made based on personal relationships or connections rather than merit, this increases the perception of injustice and reduces employees' motivation to voice their opinions (Yıldırım and Tokgöz, 2020). In particular, if employees believe that expressing their opinions will not create a change or that they may encounter negative consequences, silence becomes a defense mechanism. Organizational exclusion causes individuals to be alienated from group dynamics and social ties. This situation leads to a loss of self-confidence and alienation from the organization in excluded individuals, reducing their desire to express themselves. Excluded employees may fear that sharing their thoughts may have social or professional consequences and therefore prefer to remain silent. Both situations damage the environment of trust within the organization, block open communication channels, and limit the possibility of employees expressing their innovative ideas or criticisms. In this context, reducing organizational favoritism and exclusion, adopting an inclusive organizational culture, and implementing policies that strengthen employees' sense of equality, justice, and belonging are of critical importance to prevent organizational silence (Akyıldız, 2023) . In this study, the effects of organizational favoritism and organizational ostracism on organizational silence were examined.

1.2. Purpose and Importance of the Research

The purpose of this research is to examine the effects of organizational favoritism and organizational exclusion on organizational silence. The study also analyzes how critical organizational behaviors such as organizational favoritism, organizational exclusion and organizational silence differ within the framework of demographic characteristics of individuals (gender, age, marital status, educational status and professional experience). In this context, the purpose of the study is to provide significant contributions both theoretically and practically.

The importance of the research lies in the fact that it provides a solid foundation for understanding the individual and organizational consequences of such behaviors by revealing the effects of negative behaviors such as favoritism and exclusion, which are frequently encountered in organizations, on the silence attitudes of employees. This study can contribute to organizational managers and policy makers in determining the negative organizational factors that affect the silence attitudes of employees and developing measures against them. At the same time, understanding how employees with different demographic characteristics are affected by these processes can provide important clues for the development of equality and justice practices within the organization.

This research is an important guide for organizations to create a more inclusive, fair and sustainable work environment. The study findings aim to provide concrete suggestions for improving the human resources management policies of organizations and increasing employee satisfaction.

1.3. Hypotheses

The research hypotheses are as follows:

H1 : There is a positive and significant relationship between organizational favoritism, organizational exclusion and organizational silence.

H0 : There is no significant relationship between organizational favoritism, organizational exclusion and organizational silence.

H2 : Organizational favoritism has a significant effect on organizational silence.

H0 : Organizational favoritism does not have a significant effect on organizational silence.

H3 : Organizational ostracism has a significant effect on organizational silence.

H0 : Organizational ostracism does not have a significant effect on organizational silence.

1.4. Definitions

Organizational Favoritism : This is a situation where employees believe that certain individuals or groups receive unfair advantage instead of equal opportunities within the organization (Avcı, 2023) .

Organizational Exclusion : It is the situation where employees are isolated from social relations and work processes within the organization or deliberately ignored (Yarmacı & Ayyıldız, 2020) .

Organizational Silence : This is the situation where employees choose to remain silent by avoiding expressing their opinions about problems, ideas or suggestions within the organization (Nartgün & Kartal, 2013) .

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Organizational Favoritism

instead . Such practices undermine the principles of justice and equality in the workplace, reduce employee motivation and negatively affect overall organizational performance. Favoritism usually occurs in the form of nepotism (favoritism), cronyism (favoritism of friends) and patronage (providing support for political or economic interests). These practices cause an increase in unethical behaviors in organizations and create distrust and dissatisfaction among employees. Studies conducted especially in academic institutions show that favoritism has negative effects on organizational commitment and job satisfaction. For example, in a study conducted in universities in Ankara, it was determined that although the perception of favoritism of academics was low, their organizational commitment and job satisfaction were at a moderate level. A negative relationship was found

between the perception of favoritism and organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Cankurtaran and Tengilimoğlu , 2022).

The effects of favoritism on organizational citizenship behaviors have also been examined. Organizational citizenship behavior refers to positive behaviors that employees voluntarily exhibit beyond their official job descriptions. It has been found that employees with high perceptions of favoritism exhibit less organizational citizenship behaviors. It can negatively affect cooperation and productivity within the organization (Avcı, 2023). The effect of favoritism perception on organizational opposition behavior has also been investigated. Organizational opposition is employees' reaction to or criticism of negativities within the organization. It has been found that employees with high perceptions of favoritism exhibit more organizational opposition behaviors. It can increase conflicts within the organization and negatively affect the work environment (Yıldırım and Tokgöz, 2020).

Organizational favoritism occurs when personal relationships, kinship or friendship ties are effective instead of merit in the promotion and advancement processes of individuals within the organization. In their study, Özkanan and Erdem (2015) defined organizational favoritism as the illegal favoritism of senior managers towards their employees or public employees (Özkanan and Erdem, 2015). Such favoritism damages the sense of trust among employees and reduces the perception of justice within the organization. Kurtoğlu (2012) states in his study that there are various types of favoritism. These types include relationships such as religious order fellowship , school friendship, military friendship, kinship and professionalism (Kurtoğlu, 2012). Expressions such as "my uncle would be", "my friend", "I know him well", " my fellow countryman would be", which are widely used in society, show that favoritism is also accepted and widely practiced in daily life. Özkanan and Erdem (2014) emphasize that such statements are seen as disturbing elements especially in public institutions and private enterprises (Özkanan and Erdem, 2014).

2.2. Organizational Exclusion

It occurs in the form of isolating employees within the organization and preventing them from participating in organizational activities. Organizational ostracism is a process that negatively affects both the psychological and professional lives of employees. When the social needs of employees are not met within the organization, motivation and job performance are negatively affected. It can disrupt the efficiency of the organization and the social dynamics in the work environment (Williams, 2007). Organizational ostracism can manifest itself in various ways. Common examples include excluding employees from meetings, not being invited to social events, or being deprived of important information. These ostracism behaviors damage the individual's sense of belonging and can create a sense of burnout in the long term (Robinson et al., 2013).

Organizational exclusion can occur for individual or organizational reasons. Power imbalances within the organization, lack of leadership, or management styles can lead to the exclusion of employees. Factors such as discrimination, prejudice, or favoritism in the organizational culture can also accelerate the exclusion processes. Exclusion is common, especially due to differences such as gender, race, and ethnicity (Ng et al. , 2021). When leaders make unfair decisions or favor some employees, it can create a feeling of exclusion in other employees. In cases where competition is high in the workplace, employees may resort to exclusion tactics to eliminate their competitors. It damages the environment of trust in the workplace and creates conflict between employees (Rudert et al., 2019). Organizational exclusion has serious consequences both at the individual and organizational levels. Employees who are excluded at the individual level may face psychological problems such as depression, anxiety, loss of self-confidence, and burnout. It reduces the employee's job satisfaction and decreases their performance. Excluded individuals may tend to leave the job and become emotionally disconnected from the organization (Robinson et al., 2013).

2.3. Organizational Silence

Organizational silence refers to the situation where employees avoid expressing their opinions about problems, suggestions or complaints at work for various reasons. It is especially used to explain situations where employees prefer to remain silent against problems and wrong practices within the organization. Organizational silence can prevent innovation , negatively affect the work environment and reduce organizational efficiency because employees are reluctant to share their ideas freely (Morrison and Milliken , 2000). One of the main reasons for organizational silence is the fear of employees encountering negative consequences when they express their ideas. Especially in organizations where an authoritarian management style prevails, employees often prefer to remain silent due to fear of being punished, excluded or having their careers negatively affected. It reduces employees' trust in the organization and weakens their sense of belonging. According to research, a large portion of employees avoid expressing the problems they experience at work and this silence threatens the long-term success of organizations (Detert and Edmondson , 2011).

Organizational silence is also related to managers not being open to feedback. If managers do not take into account employees' opinions and suggestions and do not welcome criticism, employees will prefer to remain silent over time. It blocks communication channels within the organization and reduces employees' motivation to solve

problems. The lack of open communication within the organization creates distrust among employees and weakens the culture of cooperation (Vakola and Bouradas , 2005). Organizational silence is also affected by the individual psychological states of employees. Especially employees who experience low self-confidence, job dissatisfaction and burnout syndrome may avoid expressing their ideas. Such individuals prefer to remain silent because they think that making their voices heard will not make a difference. It can negatively affect both the personal development of individuals and their performance at work. Organizational silence can increase employees' burnout and stress levels in the long run (Brinsfield , 2013).

3. METHOD
3.1. Research Method
This study was conducted as a quantitative research. Quantitative research is a scientific research method that aims to explain a phenomenon or event through the collection, analysis and interpretation of numerical data. In such studies, data is evaluated using objective measurements and statistical analysis techniques (Garip, 2023) . In this context, the study was designed as a relational screening model. The relational screening model is a quantitative research design that aims to reveal the relationship between two or more variables. This model allows examining whether there is a connection between variables and, if so, the direction (positive or negative) and strength (weak, medium, strong) of this relationship. The relational screening model focuses on understanding existing correlations rather than explaining a causal relationship between variables (Karasar , 2000).

3. 2. Universe and Sample
The universe of this research consists of individuals residing in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) and working in the private sector. The universe aims to cover private sector employees in the TRNC. Since it is not possible to reach the universe of the research completely due to limited time and financial resources, the quota sampling method will be used in the research. In line with this method, certain subgroups reflecting the general structure of the universe (e.g. gender, age groups, graduation level, sector, etc.) will be determined and the sample will be formed by taking participants from these groups at predetermined rates. The target for the research is to reach a total of 400 employees. This number was designed to represent the general universe of the research and it was aimed for the sample to have a homogeneous distribution. Thus, it was aimed to obtain more reliable and valid results. In the sample selection, accessibility and criteria that will facilitate the participation of institutions in the research were taken into consideration. The quota sampling method was used in the research. This method is an effective approach that aims to increase the representativeness rate of the research by creating groups according to certain characteristics of the universe (Yağar and Dökme, 2018). With the quota sampling method, a sample structure that strengthens the validity of the research was created. However, due to incomplete forms and inaccessible participants, the final sample size was 388 people.

3.3. Data Collection Tools
In this study, the survey method was preferred to measure the effect of organizational favoritism and ostracism on organizational silence. The three different scales in the survey form are as follows:
1. **Organizational Favoritism Scale** : This scale, developed by Abdalla et al. (1998), was adapted into Turkish by Asunakutlu and Avcı (2009). The scale was designed to assess perceptions of organizational favoritism.
2. **Organizational Exclusion Scale** : This scale, which was developed by Scott (2007) and consists of a single dimension with 11 items, was adapted to Turkish by Karabey (2014) and its validity and reliability studies were conducted. This scale is used to measure perceptions of organizational exclusion.
3. **Organizational Silence Scale** : This scale, developed by Dyne et al. (2003), was designed to assess the perception of organizational silence. The Turkish adaptation of the scale was carried out by Taşkıran (2010).

The items in the survey form require participants to express their opinions on a five-point Likert- type scale. This scale includes the following response options:
- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = I disagree
- 3 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree
- 4 = I agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree

With this approach, it is aimed to evaluate the participants' perceptions of organizational favoritism, exclusion and silence in an objective and comparable manner.

The dimensions and number of statements of the scales used in the study were arranged in detail. The questionnaire form includes statements under three main headings as organizational favoritism, organizational silence and organizational exclusion. The organizational favoritism scale consists of three sub-dimensions as favoritism in promotion (5 statements), favoritism in procedure (6 statements) and favoritism in recruitment (3 statements). The

organizational silence scale includes the dimensions of acquiescent silence (4 statements), protective silence (6 statements) and protective silence (6 statements). The organizational exclusion scale is addressed with the dimensions of exclusion (11 statements), favoritism in promotion (5 statements) and favoritism in procedure (6 statements).

The statements in the questionnaire form aim to measure organizational exclusion with questions 1-14, organizational silence with questions 15-29, and organizational favoritism with questions 30-40. There are four additional questions that question information such as gender, marital status, age, and educational status in order to determine the demographic characteristics of the participants. Thanks to this structure, both the dimensions of the scales and the characteristics of the participants were evaluated comprehensively.

3.4. Analysis of Data

Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was calculated to determine the reliability levels of the scales and their sub-dimensions . This analysis evaluated the reliability of each scale by measuring its internal consistency. The reliability levels of the scales used in the study were evaluated with Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. Accordingly, Cronbach's Alpha value for the Organizational Exclusion Scale was calculated as 0.783 , and the scale consists of 14 items. Cronbach's Alpha value for the Organizational Silence Scale was determined as 0.731 , and this scale consists of 15 items. Finally, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for the Organizational Favoritism Scale was 0.720. and the scale contains 11 items. These results show that the scales used are sufficiently reliable and suitable for use in analyses.

According to the normality analysis results, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests showed that the normality assumption was not fully met for all three scales. For the Organizational Exclusion Scale, the p-value (Sig .) was calculated as 0.000 in both tests , indicating that the scale did not meet the normality assumption. Although the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for the Organizational Silence Scale showed normality at an acceptable level with a p-value of 0.076 , The Shapiro-Wilk test indicated that normality was not achieved with a p-value of 0.014. Similarly, the p-values of both tests for the Organizational Favoritism Scale (0.002 and 0.011) revealed that the assumption of normality was rejected. Skewness and kurtosis values were also taken into account in the normality assessment. For the Organizational Exclusion Scale, the skewness value is -0.670 and the kurtosis value is 1.780. The skewness value is in the range of -1.5 to +1.5, which is appropriate in terms of normality. Since the kurtosis value is in the range of -2 to +2, it largely supports normality. For the Organizational Silence Scale, the skewness (-0.313) and kurtosis (0.099) values are completely in the appropriate range in terms of normality. Similarly, the Organizational Favoritism Scale also meets the normality criteria in terms of skewness (-0.383) and kurtosis (0.183) values.

As a result, although the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests may reject the normality assumption due to sensitivity in large samples ($n > 300$), it can be said that all scales meet the normality criteria when the skewness and kurtosis values are taken into account. This supports the usability of parametric methods. In this context, t-test , ANOVA test , correlation analysis and regression analysis were performed in the study.

4. FINDINGS

Tablo 1. Demographic Characteristics

		n	%
Gender	Male	201	51.8
	Woman	187	48.2
Marital status	Married	231	59.5
	Single	157	40.5
Age	18-25 years old	48	12.4
	26-35 years old	117	30.2
	36-45 years old	89	22.9
	46-55 years old	73	18.8
	56 and above	61	15.7
Level of education	Primary/Secondary Education	46	11.9
	High school	105	27.1
	Associate Degree	80	20.6
	Licence	77	19.8
	Master's Degree and above	80	20.6
	Less than 1 year	53	13.7

	1-5 years	82	21.1
Professional Experience	6-10 years	94	24.2
	11-15 years	88	22.7
	16 years and above	71	18,3
	Toplam	388	100,0

When the demographic characteristics of the 388 people who participated in the study were examined, it was seen that 51.8% of the participants were male (n=201) and 48.2% were female (n=187). When evaluated in terms of marital status, 59.5% of the participants were married (n=231) and 40.5% were single (n=157). When the age distribution was examined, 12.4% of the participants were in the 18-25 age range (n=48), 27.8% were in the 26-35 age range (n=108), 22.9% were in the 36-45 age range (n=89), 15.2% were in the 46-55 age range (n=59) and 15.7% were 56 years of age and over (n=61). When examined in terms of education level, 11.9% of the participants were primary/secondary school graduates (n=46), 27.1% were high school graduates (n=105), 20.6% had an associate degree (n=80), 19.8% were bachelor's degree graduates (n=77), and 20.6% had a master's degree or higher (n=80). In terms of professional experience, it was determined that 13.7% of the participants had less than 1 year of experience (n=53), 21.1% had 1-5 years (n=82), 24.2% had 6-10 years (n=94), 22.7% had 11-15 years (n=88), and 18.3% had 16 years or more of professional experience.

Tablo 2. The Relationship between Organizational Favoritism, Organizational Exclusion and Organizational Silence (Correlation Analysis)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Exclusion (1)	r	1	0.082	-0.006	-,117 [*]	-0.036	,720 [**]	0.065	0.026	,424 [**]
	p.		0.107	0.912	0.021	0.484	0,000	0.199	0.615	0,000
Protective silence (2)	r		1	,375 [**]	0.095	,650 [**]	-0.046	-0.037	,404 [**]	,191 [**]
	p.			0,000	0.062	0,000	0.362	0.465	0,000	0,000
Protective silence (3)	r			1	,140 [**]	,715 [**]	-0.009	0.050	,896 [**]	,542 [**]
	p.				0.006	0,000	0.861	0.322	0,000	0,000
Accepting silence (4)	r				1	,678 [**]	-,123 [*]	,735 [**]	0.068	,359 [**]
	p.					0,000	0.016	0,000	0.181	0,000
Organizational silence (5)	r					1	-0.094	,428 [**]	,636 [**]	,544 [**]
	p.						0.065	0,000	0,000	0,000
Favoritism in business (6)	r						1	,156 [**]	0.018	,613 [**]
	p.							0.002	0.728	0,000
Favoritism in promotion (7)	r							1	0.039	,625 [**]
	p.								0.440	0,000
Favoritism in hiring (8)	r								1	,611 [**]
	p.									0,000
Organizational Favoritism (9)	r									1
	p.									

According to the results of the correlation analysis, there is a positive and significant relationship between organizational ostracism and protective silence (r = 0.375, p = 0.000). On the other hand, a negative and significant relationship was found between organizational ostracism and acquiescent silence (r = - 0.117, p = 0.021). In addition, there are positive and significant relationships between organizational ostracism and organizational silence (r = 0.720, p = 0.000) and organizational favoritism (r = 0.424, p = 0.000). Protective silence has a positive and significant relationship with protective silence (r = 0.650, p = 0.000) and acquiescent silence (r = 0.678, p = 0.000). At the same time, positive and significant relationships were found between protective silence and

organizational silence (r = 0.404, p = 0.000) and organizational favoritism (r = 0.191, p = 0.000). There are positive and significant relationships between organizational silence and favoritism in procedures (r = 0.156, p = 0.002), favoritism in promotion (r = 0.428, p = 0.000), favoritism in hiring (r = 0.636, p = 0.000) and general organizational favoritism (r = 0.544, p = 0.000). Finally, a positive and significant relationship was determined between general organizational favoritism and organizational silence (r = 0.544, p = 0.000).

According to the correlation analysis results, organizational exclusion and organizational favoritism generally have a positive and significant relationship with organizational silence. This situation shows that employees' perceptions of exclusion and favoritism can increase organizational silence levels. The sub-dimensions of favoritism (favoritism in processing, promotion and hiring) also show significant relationships with organizational silence. These findings reveal that perceptions of injustice within the organization can affect silence behaviors.

Tablo 3. The Effect of Organizational Favoritism on Organizational Silence (Regression Analysis)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p.
Still	1,194	0.203		5,889	0,000
Organizational Favoritism	0.660	0.052	0.544	12,739	0,000
	F	Sig.	R	R2	
	162,290	,000 [b]	,544 [a]	0.296	

According to the regression analysis results, the effect of organizational favoritism on organizational silence is positive and statistically significant (p = 0.000). The unstandardized coefficient (B) of the organizational favoritism variable was calculated as 0.660 and the standardized coefficient (Beta) was calculated as 0.544. This result shows that the increase in organizational favoritism significantly increases the perception of organizational silence. The constant coefficient was found to be 1.194 and this value is also statistically significant (p = 0.000). This indicates that even in the absence of organizational favoritism, the perception of organizational silence is at a certain level. When the explanatory level of the model is examined, the R^2 value was calculated as 0.296. This shows that organizational favoritism explains 29.6% of the variance in organizational silence. The F test result (F = 162.290, p = 0.000) reveals that the model is generally significant.

Tablo 4. in Transactions on Organizational Silence (Regression Analysis)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p.
Still	4,073	0.170		23,959	0,000
Favoritism in business	-0.073	0.039	-0.094	-1,847	0.065
	F	Say.	R	R^2	
	3,413	.065 [b]	,094 [a]	0.009	

According to the regression analysis results, the effect of transaction favoritism on organizational silence is negative, but this effect is not found to be statistically significant (p = 0.065). The unstandardized coefficient (B) of the transaction favoritism variable was calculated as -0.073, and the standardized coefficient (Beta) was calculated as -0.094. This result shows that transaction favoritism has a weak and negative effect on organizational silence, but this effect is not statistically significant. The constant coefficient was found to be 4.073 and is statistically significant (p = 0.000). This indicates that even when there is no transaction favoritism, the perception of organizational silence is at a certain level. When the explanatory power of the model is examined, the R^2 value was calculated as 0.009. This shows that transaction favoritism explains only 0.9% of the variance in organizational silence. The F test result (F = 3.413, p = 0.065) reveals that the model is not significant overall.

Tablo 5. in Promotion on Organizational Silence (Regression Analysis)

	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std . Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	p.
	B				
Still	2,549	0.132		19,250	0,000
Favoritism in promotion	0.333	0.036	0.428	9,316	0,000
	F	One .	R	R^2	
	86,789	,000 b	, 428 a	0.184	

According to the regression analysis results, the effect of favoritism in promotion on organizational silence is positive and statistically significant (p = 0.000). The unstandardized coefficient (B) of the favoritism in promotion variable was calculated as 0.333 and the standardized coefficient (Beta) as 0.428. This shows that the increase in favoritism in promotion significantly increases the perception of organizational silence. The constant coefficient was found as 2.549 and this value is statistically significant (p = 0.000). This indicates that even when there is no favoritism in promotion, the perception of organizational silence is at a certain level. In terms of the explanatory level of the model, the R² value was calculated as 0.184. This shows that favoritism in promotion explains 18.4% of the variance in organizational silence. As a result of the general significance test of the model (F = 86.789, p = 0.000), it was determined that the model was generally significant.

Tablo 6. in Recruitment on Organizational Silence (Regression Analysis)

	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std . Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	p.
	B				
Still	2,102	0.105		20,101	0,000
Favoritism in hiring	0.443	0.027	0.636	16,193	0,000
	F	Mr.	R	R^2	
	262,209	,000 b	, 636 a.	0.405	

According to the regression analysis results, the effect of favoritism in hiring on organizational silence is positive and statistically significant (p = 0.000). The unstandardized coefficient (B) of the favoritism in hiring variable was calculated as 0.443 and the standardized coefficient (Beta) as 0.636. This shows that the increase in the perception of favoritism in hiring strongly increases the perception of organizational silence. The constant coefficient was found as 2.102 and is statistically significant (p = 0.000). This indicates that even in the absence of favoritism in hiring, the perception of organizational silence is at a certain level.
the explanatory power of the model is examined, the R² value is calculated as 0.405. This shows that favoritism in recruitment explains 40.5% of the variance in organizational silence . As a result of the general significance test of the model (F = 262.209, p = 0.000), it was determined that the model was generally significant.

Tablo 7. Organizational Exclusion on Organizational Silence (Regression Analysis)

	Unstandardized Coefficients	Std . Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	p.
	B				
Sabit	3,911	0,214		18,254	0,000
Dışlanma	-0,037	0,052	-0,036	-0,700	0,484
	F	Sig.	R	R^2	
	0,490	,484 b	,036 a	0,001	

The table shows the effect of Organizational Exclusion on Organizational Silence. According to the regression analysis results, the coefficient of the constant value (B) was calculated as 3.911 and this coefficient is statistically significant (p = 0.000). This indicates that even in the absence of organizational exclusion, the perception of organizational silence is at a certain level.

) of the organizational ostracism variable was found to be -0.037, and the standardized coefficient (Beta) was found to be -0.036. These coefficients show that the effect of organizational ostracism on organizational silence is negative, but there is a very weak relationship. These effects are not statistically significant (p = 0.484).

The R² value for the overall fit of the regression model was calculated as 0.001. This shows that organizational ostracism explains only 0.1% of the variance on organizational silence . The F test result (F = 0.490, p = 0.484) revealed that the model was not significant overall.

Tablo 8. Organizational Exclusion on Defensive Silence (Regression Analysis)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std . Error	Beta	t	p.
Still	3,769	0.267		14,134	0,000
Exclusion	0.105	0.065	0.082	1,616	0.107
	F	Sig .	R	R2	
	2,611	,107 [b]	, 082 [a]	0.007	

The table shows the results of the regression analysis evaluating the effect of Organizational Exclusion on Protective Silence. It is seen that the constant coefficient (B) is 3.769 and this value is statistically significant (p = 0.000). This indicates that even without organizational exclusion, the perception of protective silence is at a certain level.

The unstandardized coefficient (B) and standardized coefficient (Beta) of the organizational ostracism variable were calculated as 0.105 and 0.082, respectively. These values indicate that organizational ostracism has a positive but very weak effect on defensive silence. However, these effects are not statistically significant (p = 0.107). The R² value, which expresses the explanatory power of the model, was found to be 0.007. This shows that organizational ostracism explains only 0.7% of the variance in defensive silence . The F test result (F = 2.611, p = 0.107) revealed that the model was generally not significant.

Tablo 9. Organizational Exclusion on Protective Silence (Regression Analysis)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std . Error	Beta	t	p.
Still	3,707	0.308		12,027	0,000
Exclusion	-0.008	0.075	0.623	-0.111	0.002
	F	Sig .	R	R2	
	112,317	,004[b]	,306[a]	0,323	

The table shows the effect of Organizational Exclusion on Protective Silence. It is seen that the constant coefficient (B) is 3.707 and this value is statistically significant (p = 0.000). This indicates that even in the absence of organizational exclusion, the perception of protective silence is at a certain level. The unstandardized coefficient (B) of the organizational exclusion variable was calculated as - 0.008 and the standardized coefficient (Beta) as - 0.111. This shows that organizational exclusion has a negative effect on protective silence. However, this effect is not statistically significant (p = 0.002). The R² value expressing the explanatory power of the regression model was calculated as 0.323. This shows that organizational exclusion explains 32.3% of the variance in protective silence . The F test result for the general fit of the model (F = 112.317, p = 0.004) revealed that the model was generally significant.

Tablo 10.   Organizational Exclusion on Acquiescent Silence (Regression Analysis)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p.
Still	4,258	0.365		11,668	0,000
Exclusion	-0.207	0.089	-0.117	-2,320	0.021
	F	Sig.	R	R^2	
	5,383	,021^b	,117^a	0,014	

According to the regression analysis results, the effect of organizational ostracism on acquiescent silence is negative and statistically significant (p = 0.021). The unstandardized coefficient (B) of the organizational ostracism variable was found to be -0.207, and the standardized coefficient (Beta) was found to be -0.117. This result shows that as organizational ostracism increases, the perception of acquiescent silence decreases. The constant coefficient was calculated as 4.258 and was found to be statistically significant (p = 0.000), indicating that the perception of acquiescent silence is at a certain level even in the absence of organizational ostracism. When the explanatory level of the model is examined, the R² value was calculated as 0.014. This shows that organizational ostracism explains only 1.4% of the variance in acquiescent silence. The F test results (F = 5.383, p = 0.021) reveal that the model is generally significant. However, the low R² value shows that the explanatory power of the model is limited.

CONCLUSION
In this study, the effects of organizational favoritism and organizational exclusion on organizational silence were examined.
Organizational Ostracism Scale scores were analyzed according to demographic variables such as gender, marital status, age, education level and professional experience, but no statistically significant difference was found between these variables.
According to the correlation analysis results, organizational exclusion and organizational favoritism have a positive and significant relationship with organizational silence in general. This situation shows that employees' perceptions of exclusion and favoritism can increase organizational silence levels . The sub-dimensions of favoritism (favoritism in processing, promotion and hiring) also exhibit significant relationships with organizational silence. The findings reveal that perceptions of injustice within the organization can affect employees' silence behaviors and that these perceptions can strengthen their tendency to silence.
The regression analysis results reveal the positive and significant effect of organizational favoritism on organizational silence. In general, organizational favoritism increases the perception of organizational silence and explains approximately one-third of the variance . When the sub-dimensions of organizational favoritism are examined, it is seen that transactional favoritism has a weak and negative effect on organizational silence, but this effect is not statistically significant. Promotional favoritism creates a positive and significant effect on organizational silence, explaining one-fifth of the variance . Recruitment favoritism stands out as the factor that increases the perception of organizational silence most strongly, explaining 40% of the variance . These findings show that the perception of favoritism among employees, especially the perceptions in the promotion and recruitment processes, significantly affects organizational silence behaviors. However, the effect of the transactional favoritism dimension on silence seems limited and insignificant. These results emphasize the importance of justice perception in organizations and the role of favoritism on silence behaviors.
The regression analysis results show that the effect of organizational exclusion on organizational silence and its sub-dimensions is generally limited. Organizational exclusion has a negative but very weak effect on organizational silence and this relationship was not found to be statistically significant. The effect of this variable on protective silence is also positive but weak and no significant relationship was found. However, the effect of organizational exclusion on acquiescent silence is negative and statistically significant. This result shows that as the perception of exclusion increases, the perception of acquiescent silence decreases. The explanatory power of the regression models is low and the organizational exclusion variable explains a very small part of the variance in the sub-dimensions . This situation shows that organizational exclusion has a limited role in affecting the perception of silence but can create statistically significant effects on certain sub-dimensions.
Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations can be made:
- It is important to encourage participatory management practices to reduce employees' perceptions of exclusion and favoritism. Including employees in decision-making processes can reduce the perception of exclusion and support an environment of open communication instead of organizational silence.

- Considering that the perception of organizational exclusion has a negative effect on acquiescent silence, inclusive communication policies should be adopted within the organization. Communication strategies that reach all employees equally can reduce the perception of exclusion.
- Employee satisfaction and perceptions should be measured periodically to detect perceptions of organizational favoritism and exclusion. These surveys can allow for early detection and intervention of problem areas.
- Managers should be trained in fair management, conflict resolution and managing employee diversity. This training can play a critical role in reducing perceptions of favoritism and exclusion.
- In organizations where negative perceptions such as favoritism and exclusion are common, the goal should be to create an organizational culture based on trust. A culture where values, ethical rules and equality are at the forefront can reduce perceptions of silence.
- In order to reduce the perception of favoritism in the process, performance evaluation processes should be made more transparent and the evaluation criteria in these processes should be clearly shared with employees.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR AND PERCEPTION OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEFEMATURIZATION: THE TRNC CASE

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between the perception of organizational dehumanization and counterproductive work behaviors. The study was designed using quantitative research method and the data were evaluated by statistical analysis. The study was conducted on individuals actively working in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. The study targeted employees in businesses operating in the insurance and body shop sectors in Nicosia, Kyrenia and Famagusta regions of TRNC. Within the scope of the research, a total of 437 participants were reached. Data were collected using the Counterproductive Work Behavior Scale and the Perception of Organizational Dehumanization Scale. The collected data were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 26.0 software, which is widely used in social sciences.

The study revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between the perception of organizational dehumanization and counterproductive work behaviors. Participants' perception of organizational dehumanization was generally at low-medium level, while their counterproductive work behaviors were at low levels. In particular, the sub-dimensions of "dehumanization" and "workplace relations" showed a stronger relationship with counterproductive work behaviors. Regression analysis showed that the increase in counterproductive work behaviors significantly affected the perception of organizational dehumanization. However, the low level of explanatory power suggests that other factors affecting this perception should be examined.

Key Words: Perception of Organizational Dehumanization, Counterproductive Work Behaviors, Organizational Behavior, Employee Psychology

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Problem status

The effectiveness of institutions and the productivity of employees are one of the basic elements of organizational success. However, employees' experiences within the organization can have various consequences at both individual and organizational levels. The positive or negative situations that employees encounter within the organization play a critical role in organizational dynamics by affecting their motivation, job performance, and commitment to the organization. In particular, the perception of organizational dehumanization can cause employees to not feel like a part of their organization and, as a result, negative outcomes such as emotional exhaustion, intention to leave, and low commitment can emerge. In addition, the perception of organizational dehumanization can negatively affect employees' motivation and behaviors and trigger counterproductive work behaviors (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Counterproductive work behaviors can be defined as behaviors that employees intentionally engage in at work in a way that harms the organization's goals. Such behaviors include a series of actions that can have significant consequences on the individual and organizational level, such as absenteeism, theft, sabotage, gossip, and conflict with coworkers. The association of organizational dehumanization with such behaviors emphasizes the importance of organizational ties and employees' psychological needs (Ferris et al., 2008).

experienced by employees in work environments can lead to serious problems for both individuals and organizations. Dehumanization refers to situations where individuals do not see themselves as part of a community or group or feel that they are deprived of their human characteristics by others. The perception of dehumanization within the organization can have negative effects on the psychological and emotional health of employees, significantly affecting their experiences and performance in the work environment. It is known that when employees feel dehumanized, their commitment to the organization decreases, their job satisfaction decreases, and they tend to engage in counterproductive work behaviors (Haslam, 2006).

Such perceptions threaten the basic psychological needs of individuals. When needs such as belonging, autonomy, and self-actualization are not met, employees may experience feelings of alienation, inadequacy, and worthlessness within the organization. Dehumanization can affect not only the individual's perception of himself/herself, but also the organization's culture, leadership style, and work environment. This can lead to a number of negative consequences within the organization. For example, problems such as decreased employee motivation, deterioration of relationships with coworkers, and thus decreased harmony in the work environment may occur (Tepper, 2000).

Counterproductive work behaviors are another important problem that draws attention in this context. These behaviors refer to behaviors that consciously or unconsciously reduce employees' performance at work and harm the goals of the organization. These behaviors may include actions such as skipping work, gossiping, exhibiting passive-aggressive attitudes towards coworkers or managers, sabotage or misuse of organizational resources. It is seen that the perception of dehumanization triggers such behaviors. Employees may tend to harm both the organization and other members of the organization with such behaviors. This situation can have serious negative consequences not only on the individual level, but also on teamwork and overall organizational performance (Dalal, 2005).

The effects of dehumanization may vary depending on individual differences and contextual factors. For example, when an employee feels excluded, this perception may lead to different outcomes depending on their level of self-efficacy, psychological resilience, and perception of organizational support. Similarly, the impact of organizational culture, leadership style, and social support mechanisms may play an important role in determining the severity and consequences of this perception. Preventing the perception of dehumanization within the organization not only increases the well-being of individuals, but also contributes to the more effective achievement of organizational goals (Demir & Çelik, 2020).

In this context, managers and leaders have important responsibilities. Creating a work environment that will enable employees to feel valued and respected as individuals within the organization can be a critical step in preventing dehumanization. Elements such as open communication, inclusive leadership, valuing employees' opinions, and a fair management approach can reduce the perception of dehumanization, prevent counterproductive work behaviors, and increase organizational commitment. Therefore, a better understanding of the individual and organizational consequences of the perception of dehumanization and the development of preventive strategies in this regard constitute an important area of research for both academic studies and applications (Kaya & Yılmaz, 2021) .

1.2. Purpose and Importance of the Research

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between the perception of organizational dehumanization and counterproductive work behaviors. While the perception of dehumanization refers to individuals feeling undervalued or detached from their human characteristics within the organization, counterproductive work behaviors refer to behaviors of employees that may harm the goals of the organization (Einarsen et al., 2016) . In this context, the focus of the study is to reveal how the effects of the perception of organizational dehumanization on employees are related to counterproductive behaviors. In addition, it is aimed to provide a more comprehensive perspective by evaluating the demographic variables that affect the perceptions and behaviors of employees from different sectors in the context of the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC).

The TRNC context offers a unique research area. A small-scale economy, a limited labor market, and regional cultural norms are among the factors that shape the perceptions and behaviors of employees in organizations. The perception of organizational dehumanization can lead to the prevalence of counterproductive work behaviors by damaging the degree to which employees feel part of the organization and the social ties in the workplace (Zohar and Luria, 2005; Cortina et al., 2001) . Examining this relationship in the TRNC context will provide critical information, especially for developing strategies to increase employee satisfaction and minimize dysfunctional behaviors within the organization.

1.3. Hypotheses

The research hypotheses are as follows:

H_0: There is no significant relationship between counterproductive work behavior and perception of organizational dehumanization.

$H1$: There is a significant relationship between counterproductive work behavior and perception of organizational dehumanization .

H_0: Counterproductive work behavior has no significant effect on the perception of organizational dehumanization.

$H2$: Counterproductive work behavior has a significant effect on the perception of organizational dehumanization .

1.4. Limitations

Research;

- Since the study was conducted only in the Nicosia, Kyrenia and Famagusta regions of TRNC, the results are limited to these regions.
- The research was limited to employees working in businesses operating only in the insurance and bodywork sectors; employees in other sectors were not included in the research.
- Since the research is based on data collected over a specific period of time, the results may reflect conditions specific to that period.

1.5. Definitions
Perception of Organizational Dehumanization: This is the situation where employees feel that they are deprived of human values in the workplace and that their individual needs and identities are ignored (Demir and Çelik, 2020) .

Counterproductive Work Behaviors: These are intentional and negative behaviors of employees that may harm the interests of the organization or their co-workers (Dalal, 2005) .

Organizational Behavior: It is a field of research that examines the behavior, interactions and performance of individuals, groups and organizations in the workplace (Cortina et al., 2001).

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
2.1. Counterproductive Work Behavior
Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) is a term used to describe behaviors that are contrary to workplace rules, norms, or values and that negatively affect both the productivity of individuals and the workplace in general. CWB encompasses a variety of actions by employees that disrupt workplace functioning, harm the organization, or prevent the achievement of business goals. These behaviors can directly threaten both workplace culture and work processes. CWB is seen as actions that harm not only the productivity of employees but also their commitment to the organization (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

It should be noted that such behaviors can be seen directly among people within the workplace, as well as negatively impacting the organizational structure. Counterproductive work behaviors can be classified in different ways, and each behavior can have different consequences. These behaviors can include, for example, arriving late to work, wasting time at work, malicious gossip, doing poor work, or physical or emotional violence at work. Some subtypes of CWB focus on harm done in pursuit of personal goals (such as sabotage of the workplace), while others are more concerned with violations of organizational goals or norms (Dalal, 2005).

The organizational damages of CWB can be great. Especially long-term counterproductive behaviors can reduce both the individual performance of the employee and the organizational efficiency. It also negatively affects the motivation of other employees and disrupts the general workplace environment. Such behaviors can damage the relationships between employees and cause the elimination of positive features such as cooperation within the organization. As a result, the damages that CWB will cause to the organization can lead to significant losses, both materially and morally. Therefore, it is clear that CWB is an issue that needs to be managed and minimized (Spector and Fox, 2005).

Preventing CWB is a critical factor for organizational success. It is essential for organizations to better understand the attitudes of their employees in the workplace and take the necessary measures to prevent such behaviors. Increasing employee motivation, providing a fair work environment, and encouraging open communication can be effective strategies for reducing CWB. Early detection of such behaviors and the establishment of appropriate disciplinary mechanisms can also help take important steps in this regard (Kelloway and Barling, 2000).

Another important factor is the understanding of leadership and management in the workplace. The effective transfer of the organization's values and norms to employees by leaders plays a critical role in shaping general attitudes in the workplace. A fair and inclusive leadership style can increase employees' commitment to their jobs and thus reduce CWB. Leaders' motivating approaches to employees help prevent negative behaviors (Robinson and Bennett, 1995).

2.2. The Concept of Dehumanization
The concept of dehumanization means that a person is considered devoid of human characteristics and is seen as an object or tool. The perception of employees in the workplace as mere labor force manifests itself by ignoring their emotions and human needs. The perception of dehumanization in organizations leads to the alienation of employees from their organizations, their colleagues, and their own roles (Demir and Çelik, 2020).

The concept of dehumanization comes into play when employees feel like they are merely labor or a resource. This perception usually stems from management styles and organizational structures. Elements such as authoritarian leadership and poor communication can cause employees to dehumanize. It is known that authoritarian leadership styles and organizational structures that limit participation strengthen the perception of dehumanization and cause employees to feel excluded. It weakens employees' ties to the organization and encourages counterproductive behaviors (Kaya & Yılmaz, 2021).

Dehumanization leads to an increase in counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) in organizations. When employees feel dehumanized, they become alienated from the organization and their coworkers. For example, it can lead to negative behaviors such as organizational sabotage, slowdown, absenteeism, and theft. In a study conducted by Özkan and Çelik (2022), it was determined that when the perception of dehumanization in the workplace increases, employees' tendencies to exhibit behaviors that harm the organization are strengthened. An employee who feels dehumanized may begin to have negative feelings towards the organization and their managers and, as a result, exhibit counterproductive work behaviors. Such situations can negatively affect the efficiency of organizations and employee motivation.

Dehumanization of employees has many negative effects on individual and organizational levels. When employees feel dehumanized, they lose their commitment to their jobs and this leads to psychological problems such as burnout. The perception of dehumanization negatively affects employees' job satisfaction and increases their intention to leave their jobs. Aksoy and Demir (2023) revealed that the perception of dehumanization leads to a significant decrease in job satisfaction and negatively affects job performance. When employees do not feel valued, they lose their commitment to the organization and this can lead to the formation of a negative culture in the workplace.

3. METHOD
3.1. Research Method
This study was designed using the quantitative research method . Quantitative research is a scientific approach used to measure, analyze and generalize the results of a specific phenomenon based on numerical data. This method provides a framework that is compatible with the objectives of the study as it aims to obtain objective and measurable results (Yıldız, 2017) . The main purpose of the study is to investigate the perception of organizational dehumanization and counterproductive work behavior. is to statistically evaluate the relationship between these two variables. In this context, the data to be collected with the quantitative research method aims to reveal the nature and strength of the relationship between these two variables. It is aimed to obtain generalizable and reliable findings by focusing on the process of systematic collection, analysis and interpretation of data.

3.2. Universe and Sample
This study was conducted on individuals working in different sectors in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). The economic structure of the TRNC is densely populated with small and medium-sized enterprises, which provided an important data source to examine the experiences of employees in these enterprises. In the study, subgroups were created according to criteria such as sector, enterprise size and demographic characteristics using the stratified sampling method, and random samples were selected from each stratum. A total of 437 participants were reached from enterprises operating in the insurance and bodywork sectors in the regions of Nicosia, Kyrenia and Famagusta, and data were collected using a survey method. This systematic approach provided a comprehensive analysis of the relationship between the perception of organizational dehumanization and counterproductive work behaviors in the context of the TRNC.

3.3. Data Collection Tools
In this study, data were collected using the Counterproductive Work Behavior Scale **and** the Perception of Organizational Dehumanization Scale. was collected using . Counterproductive Work Behavior Scale **was** developed by Spector et al. (2006) and was designed to measure the negative behaviors of employees in the work environment. The scale, which consists of 40 items in total and 5 sub-dimensions (arson, withdrawal, deviation from productivity, stealing/theft, and harming others), was evaluated using a Likert-type rating system between "1 = Never" and "5 = Every Day". In the study conducted by Ekinci (2022), the reliability coefficient (Cronbach Alpha) of the scale was calculated as 0.734 and the scale was found to be reliable.
The Organizational Dehumanization Perception Scale was developed by Mamatoğlu and Topçu (2015) and was designed to measure employees' perceptions of dehumanization. The scale consists of a total of 21 items and 3 sub-dimensions (not being treated as a human being, workplace relations, work conditions). According to the factor analysis results, the overall internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach Alpha) of the scale was determined as 0.92 and the reliability coefficients for the sub-dimensions were determined as 0.89, 0.90 and 0.68, respectively. The Likert-type rating system of the scale was arranged between "1=Never" and "5=Always". These scales, as the basic data collection tools used in the study, allowed for a reliable and valid analysis of the relationship between organizational dehumanization perception and counterproductive work behaviors. The reliability analyses of the scales used in the study were carried out using Cronbach Alpha The Organizational Dehumanization Perception Scale consists of 21 items in total and the Cronbach Alpha value of the scale was calculated as 0.887. This value shows that the scale is highly reliable. **The** Counterproductive Work Behavior Scale consists of 40 items and the Cronbach Alpha value was determined as 0.923. This result shows that the scale has a very high internal consistency. Both scales were found to be suitable in terms of reliability and were used in the study.

3.4. Analysis of Data
The data collected in the study were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 26.0 software. SPSS is a reliable and comprehensive data analysis software widely used in social sciences. According to the normality analysis, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test results show that the p-value (Sig.) is 0.000 for both scales. This result indicates that the data is not normally distributed. However, when the skewness and kurtosis values are examined, it is seen that the distribution of both scales is close to normal distribution. For the Perception of Organizational Dehumanization Scale , the skewness value was calculated as 0.757, the kurtosis value as -0.010; for the Counterproductive Work Behavior Scale , the skewness value was calculated as 0.193 and

the kurtosis value as -0.015. These values are in the range of -1.5 to +1.5 suggested by Tabachnick (2004) and show that the distributions can be considered normal. Since normality tests can show deviations from normality even in small deviations in large samples (n > 50), it can be said that both scales are suitable for parametric analyses when the skewness and kurtosis values are taken into account. First, descriptive statistics were calculated in order to reveal the basic distribution properties of the data. In this context, the general characteristics of the data set were examined by determining the mean, standard deviation, percentage and frequency values. Correlation analysis was conducted to analyze the relationships between variables and the direction and strength of the relationship between organizational dehumanization perception and counterproductive work behaviors were examined. Regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the explanatory nature of this relationship. In order to determine the differences between the sample groups, independent samples t-test was used when the independent variables were categorical and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used when more than one group had to be compared. During all analyses, complete, consistent and appropriate coding of the data set was ensured and the accuracy of the analysis results was assured.

4. FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Tablo 1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants

		n	%
Gender	Male	281	64.3
	Woman	156	35.7
Civil status	Married	279	63.8
	Single	158	36.2
Age	18-24 years old	93	21.3
	25-31 years old	102	23.3
	32-38 years old	68	15.6
	39-45 years old	90	20.6
	45 and Above	84	19.2
Working hours	0-10 years	183	41.9
	11-20 years	92	21.1
	21-30 years	47	10.8
	31 years and above	115	26.3
Education Status	Primary/Secondary Education	57	13.0
	High school	195	44.6
	Licence	123	28.1
	Master's/Doctorate	62	14.2
	Total	437	100.0

When the demographic characteristics of the 437 people who participated in the study were examined, 64.3% of the participants were male (n=281), 35.7% were female (n=156). In terms of marital status, 63.9% of the participants were married (n=279), 36.1% were single (n=158). According to age groups, 21.3% of the participants were between the ages of 18-24 (n=93), 23.3% were between the ages of 25-31 (n=102), 22.4% were between the ages of 32-38 (n=98), 19.2% were between the ages of 39-45 (n=84), and 13.9% were 45 years of age and over (n=60). When the working period is examined, 41.9% of the participants have 0-10 years (n=183), 21.1% have 11-20 years (n=92), 26.3% have 21-30 years (n=115) and 10.7% have 31 years and above (n=47) working experience. When the distribution of educational status is examined, 13.1% of the participants are primary/secondary school graduates (n=57), 44.4% are high school graduates (n=195), 28.3% are bachelor's graduates (n=123) and 14.2% have master's or doctoral level education (n=62).

Tablo 2. the Organizational Dehumanization Perception Scale and Its Sub-Dimensions

	Min.	Max.	Avg.	P.S.
Not being treated as a human being	1.00	4.11	1,6796	0.65598
Workplace Relationships	1.00	4.00	2,3823	0.63981
Working conditions	1.00	4.50	2,0292	0.92269
Perception of organizational dehumanization	1.00	4.00	2.0334	0,64717

the Organizational Dehumanization Perception Scale and its sub-dimensions, the minimum score was 1.00, the maximum score was 4.11, the mean score was 1.6796 and the standard deviation (Sd.) value was 0.65598 in the "Not being treated as a human being" sub-dimension. It was observed that the perceptions of the participants were at a low level in this sub-dimension. The minimum score was 1.00, the maximum score was 4.00, the mean score was 2.3823 and the standard deviation was 0.63981 in the "Workplace Relations" sub-dimension. This sub-dimension has a higher mean compared to the other dimensions and it can be said that workplace relations are more effective in the perception of dehumanization. The minimum score was 1.00, the maximum score was 4.50, the mean score was 2.0292 and the standard deviation was 0.92269 in the "Working conditions" sub-dimension. This dimension shows that there is a moderate level of variability in the participants' perception of working conditions. In general, the minimum score for the Organizational Dehumanization Perception Scale was calculated as 1.00, the maximum score as 4.00, the mean score as 2.0334, and the standard deviation as 0.64177. These values reveal that the participants' perception of organizational dehumanization was generally at a low-medium level and that the perception differed among the sub-dimensions.

Tablo 3. Descriptive Analysis Results of Counterproductive Work Behavior Scale and Its Sub-Dimensions

	Min.	Max.	Avg.	P.S.
Arson	1.00	4.00	1.1342	0.40231
Withdrawal (Abstraction)	1.00	3.38	1,2663	0.42716
Production Diversion	1.00	3.00	1.1430	0.33287
Stealing	1.00	3.00	1.0412	0.18756
Do Not Harm Others	1.00	2.94	1,1879	0.30384
Counterproductive Work Behavior	1.00	3.04	1,1545	0.25509

the Counterproductive Work Behavior Scale and its sub-dimensions, the minimum score for the "Arson" sub-dimension was determined as 1.00, the maximum score as 4.00, the mean score as 1.1342 and the standard deviation (Sd.) value as 0.40231. This result shows that arson behavior is perceived at a very low level. The minimum score for the "Withdrawal (Abstraction)" sub-dimension was calculated as 1.00, the maximum score as 3.38, the mean score as 1.2663 and the standard deviation as 0.42716. It is seen that the behaviors are at a low level in this sub-dimension as well. The minimum score for the "Diversion from Production" sub-dimension was determined as 1.00, the maximum score as 3.00, the mean score as 1.1430 and the standard deviation as 0.32387. These values indicate that the deviation from production behaviors are at a very low level. In the "Stealing" sub-dimension, the minimum score was measured as 1.00, the maximum score as 3.00, the mean score as 1.0412 and the standard deviation as 0.18756. This dimension also shows that stealing behavior is at a low level. In the "Harming Others" sub-dimension, the minimum score was found as 1.00, the maximum score as 2.94, the mean score as 1.1879 and the standard deviation as 0.30384. This result shows that behaviors that harm others also occur rarely. In general, the minimum score for the Counterproductive Work Behavior Scale was calculated as 1.00, the maximum score as 3.04, the mean score as 1.1545 and the standard deviation as 0.25509. These values reveal that the counterproductive work behaviors of the participants were at a low level in all dimensions.

Tablo 4. Counterproductive Work Behavior and Perception of Organizational Dehumanization (Correlation Analysis)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Not being treated as a human being (1)	r	1	,534 **	,711 **	,852 **	0.017	,200 **	,201 **	0.016	,163 **	,166 **
	p.		0,000	0,000	0,000	0.730	0,000	0,000	0.733	0.001	0,000
Workplace relationships (2)	r		1	,650 **	,819 **	0.021	,163 **	,116 *	0.051	,134 **	,131 **
	p.			0,000	0,000	0.671	0.001	0.016	0.291	0.005	0.006
Business conditions (3)	r			1	,930 **	0.063	,218 **	,163 **	-0.007	,180 **	,177 **
	p.				0,000	0.192	0,000	0.001	0.885	0,000	0,000
Perception of organizational dehumanization (4)	r				1	0.047	,227 **	,180 **	0.012	,187 **	,185 **
	p.					0.328	0,000	0,000	0.797	0,000	0,000

			1	,539 **	,387 **	,372 **	,471 **	,764 **
Arson (5)	r		1	,539 **	,387 **	,372 **	,471 **	,764 **
	p.			0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
Withdrawal (Abstraction) (6)	r			1	,547 **	,372 **	,511 **	,824 **
	p.				0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
Production Distortion (7)	r				1	,417 **	,663 **	,786 **
	p.					0,000	0,000	0,000
Çalma (8)	r					1	,438**	,602**
	p.						0,000	0,000
Harm to Others (9)	r						1	,795 **
	p.							0,000
Counterproductive Work Behavior (10)	r							1
	p.							

The correlation analysis results in the table show the relationships between Counterproductive Work Behavior and Perception of Organizational Dehumanization and its sub-dimensions. According to the analysis results, there is a significant and positive relationship between the perception of organizational dehumanization and Counterproductive Work Behavior (r = 0.399, p < 0 .01). This result shows that as the perception of organizational dehumanization increases, counterproductive work behaviors also increase.

When the sub-dimensions are examined, it is seen that the dimension of not being treated as human has a positive and significant relationship with Counter-Productive Work Behavior (r = 0.384, p < 0.01). Similarly , the dimension of workplace relations has a significant and positive relationship with Counter-Productive Work Behavior (r = 0.381, p < 0.01). The dimension of working conditions has a positive relationship with Counter-Productive Work Behavior (r = 0.308, p < 0.01).

There are also significant relationships between the sub-dimensions of counterproductive work behaviors and the dimensions of perceived organizational dehumanization. For example, the dimension of not being treated as human has a positive and significant relationship with the sub-dimensions of arson (r = 0.376, p < 0.01) and withdrawal (isolation) (r = 0.352, p < 0.01). The dimension of workplace relations has a significant positive relationship with the sub-dimensions of withdrawal (isolation) (r = 0.349, p < 0.01) and stealing (r = 0.343, p < 0.01). Similarly, the dimension of working conditions has significant relationships with the sub-dimensions of UCWB, which are harming others (r = 0.308, p < 0.01) and stealing (r = 0.286, p < 0.01).

As a result, it is seen that the perception of organizational dehumanization is generally positively related to the CWB and its sub-dimensions. In particular, it was found that the dimensions of dehumanization and workplace relations showed stronger relationships with different sub-dimensions of CWB. These findings provide an important contribution to understanding the effect of the perception of organizational dehumanization on the counterproductive work behaviors of employees.

Tablo 5. The Effect of Counterproductive Work Behavior on Perception of Organizational Dehumanization (Regression Analysis)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p.
Still	1,492	0.143		10,464	0,000
Counterproductive Work Behavior	0.470	0.121	0.185	3,891	0,000

a. Dependent Variable: Perception of Organizational Dehumanization

F	Shallow.	R	R Square
15,140	,000 [b]	, 185 [a]	0.034

The regression analysis results examine the effect of the Counterproductive Work Behavior variable on the Perception of Organizational Dehumanization. According to the analysis results, the constant coefficient (B = 1.492) is statistically significant (t = 10.464, p < 0.001). This shows that the base level of organizational dehumanization perception is 1.492 when counterproductive work behaviors are zero.

The independent variable, Counterproductive Work Behavior, positively and significantly affects the perception of organizational dehumanization (B = 0.470, t = 3.891, p < 0.001). This means that a one-unit increase in counterproductive work behaviors leads to a 0.470-unit increase in the perception of organizational dehumanization. The standardized coefficient (Beta = 0.185) expresses the magnitude of this effect on a standard scale.

The overall significance of the model was confirmed by the F test results (F = 15.140, p < 0.001). The R^2 value was calculated as 0.034, indicating that counterproductive work behaviors explained 3.4% of the variance in the perception of organizational dehumanization.

In conclusion, the analysis reveals that counterproductive work behaviors have a significant and positive effect on the perception of organizational dehumanization. However, the low R^2 value indicates that this effect is limited and that there may be other factors that affect the perception of organizational dehumanization. These findings emphasize the importance of counterproductive work behaviors on employee perceptions in the context of organizational behavior.

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As a result of the research, the perception of organizational dehumanization And counterproductive work behavior **It was found that there was a significant relationship between** the perception of organizational dehumanization and counterproductive work behaviors. While the participants' perception of organizational dehumanization was generally low-medium, it was seen that counterproductive work behaviors were at low levels in all sub-dimensions. It was found that there was a positive and significant relationship between the perception of organizational dehumanization and counterproductive work behaviors . It was determined that in cases where the perception of organizational dehumanization increased, employees tended to turn to counterproductive work behaviors. In particular, it was seen that the sub-dimensions of organizational dehumanization perception, "not being treated as a human being" and "workplace relations", showed stronger relationships with different sub-dimensions of counterproductive work behaviors. This situation shows that the relationships within the organization and the perceptions of individuals may contribute to the negative work behaviors of employees.

The regression analysis findings revealed that counterproductive work behaviors positively and significantly affect the perception of organizational dehumanization. It was observed that when there was an increase in the counterproductive work behaviors of the employees, there was a significant increase in their perception of organizational dehumanization. However, the low explanatory power of the model indicates that there are other factors affecting the perception of organizational dehumanization.

Based on the study results, in order to reduce the perception of organizational dehumanization and counterproductive work behaviors, workplace relationships should be strengthened first. Teamwork, social activities and regular feedback mechanisms that will increase interaction between employees can make individuals feel more valued in the work environment. In addition, emotional intelligence and perception management training for managers can contribute to reducing employees' perceptions of being excluded or feeling worthless. In addition, organizational policies and practices should be reviewed with the principles of justice and equality in the foreground, and reward systems and career development opportunities that increase employee motivation should be offered in this direction.

Early detection and intervention mechanisms should be developed to prevent counterproductive work behaviors. Regular surveys should be conducted to understand the reasons for such behaviors of employees and action plans should be created based on the data obtained. At the same time, stress management, motivational training and psychological support programs can prevent individuals from engaging in negative work behaviors. Examining other factors affecting the perception of organizational dehumanization in regression analysis will allow for the development of more comprehensive solution strategies. These suggestions will contribute to the creation of a healthier and more productive workplace environment by increasing employee commitment.

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THE ROLE OF THE NURSE IN HOME PREVENTIVE PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES: A STUDY ON ELDERLY INDIVIDUALS IN GÖNYELİ

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ABSTRACT
This study aims to examine the satisfaction levels of individuals aged 55 years and over living in Gönyeli with home preventive health services and the roles of nurses in this process. In the study, which was conducted using quantitative research method, data were collected from 301 participants with a structured questionnaire form. The scale is the Nurse Practitioner Satisfaction Survey developed by Lucie J. Agosta and adapted by Manay (2016). The data were analyzed with the SPSS 26.0 program; normality tests and parametric analyses were applied.
In this study, the participants' overall satisfaction level with nursing services was found to be high. In general, satisfaction sub-dimensions and total scores showed that the participants were quite satisfied with nurses and that there was a low difference in this satisfaction level. There was no significant difference between male and female participants in terms of gender, and both groups showed similar satisfaction levels. In terms of educational status, the satisfaction levels of primary school graduates were higher than the other groups in the General Satisfaction sub-dimension, but no significant difference was found between the other sub-dimensions and total scores. Significant differences were observed between the number of visits to the health center and satisfaction, and participants who applied more frequently had higher scores in both the Planning sub-dimension and the overall satisfaction level. According to the health insurance variable, while individuals without health insurance showed higher satisfaction in the General Satisfaction sub-dimension, no significant difference was found in other sub-dimensions and total scores. In terms of health perception, individuals who felt very healthy showed higher satisfaction than other groups in the Planning sub-dimension; however, no significant difference was found in terms of total score and other sub-dimensions. These results reveal that the participants have a high satisfaction perception with nursing services in general.
Key Words: Home Health Services, Nurse Satisfaction, Public Health, Preventive Health Services, Elderly Individuals.

1. INTRODUCTION
1.1. Problem Status
Today, access to healthcare services for elderly individuals has become a more complex and critical public health issue due to the increase in the aging population, the extension of life expectancy, and the prevalence of chronic diseases worldwide (Yaman and Akdeniz, 2008) . While these demographic changes increase the burden on healthcare systems, they also highlight the needs of elderly individuals for not only medical intervention but also long-term care and support services. Elderly individuals generally need regular and continuous access to healthcare services due to multiple chronic diseases, mobility limitations, and physical/ psychosocial support needs. However, failure to fully meet these needs can lead to a decrease in the quality of life of elderly individuals and aggravation of their health problems. Home healthcare services emerge as an important solution to meet the health needs of elderly individuals (Avcı and Gözüm, 2017) . Home healthcare services provide individuals with quality and continuous care in their own living spaces, facilitate their access to healthcare services, and reduce the need for hospitalization. By supporting the independence of elderly individuals, it contributes positively to their social and psychological well-being (Altuntaş et al., 2010) . In particular, home preventive health services are not limited to managing existing health problems, but also aim to prevent diseases, increase health awareness and provide the necessary conditions for individuals to live a healthy life. These services enable intervention by detecting possible health problems that elderly individuals may encounter at an early stage (Merih et al., 2021) .
The role of nurses in effectively providing preventive health services at home is of critical importance. Nurses are at the center of the professional care required to continuously monitor the health status of elderly individuals, prevent diseases and support treatment processes (Jorm et al., 2010) . At the same time, they fulfill tasks such as raising awareness of individuals and family members through health education, encouraging health behaviors and ensuring that elderly individuals benefit from health services more efficiently. The roles that nurses undertake in various areas such as creating individual care plans, medication management, rehabilitation support and meeting social-emotional needs are directly effective in improving the general health status of elderly individuals. However, despite the widespread use and importance of preventive health services at home, there are still many deficiencies in the effectiveness, accessibility and sustainability of these services (Green et al., 2020) . The limited number of studies conducted especially at the local level makes it difficult to fully understand the needs of elderly individuals and leads to the inability to provide sufficient data for the improvement of services. This situation

creates an important gap both in terms of improving the quality of life of elderly individuals and in terms of more effective planning and implementation of health services (Kim et al., 2014) .

In this context, the role of nurses in home preventive health services needs to be examined in more detail and a comprehensive understanding of how these services meet the health needs of older people needs to be developed. Such an approach will not only allow the evaluation of existing services but also provide a scientific basis for the development of future health policies and practices.

1.2. Purpose of the Research

This study aims to contribute to eliminating deficiencies in this area by examining the satisfaction levels of elderly individuals living in Gönyeli with home preventive health services and the roles of nurses in this process. The study aims to establish a scientific basis for the development of these services by evaluating the impact of nurses in meeting the health needs of elderly individuals.

1.2.1 Hypotheses

H0: Participants' satisfaction level with nurses is low.

H1: Participants' satisfaction level with nurses is high.

H0: The Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale sub-dimensions and total score do not give a significant result regarding the level of satisfaction.

H1: Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale sub-dimensions and total score give significant results regarding the level of satisfaction.

There is no significant relationship between the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and gender.

H1: There is a significant relationship between the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and gender.

There is no significant relationship between the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and educational status.

H2: There is a significant relationship between the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and educational status.

H0: There is no significant relationship between the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and the number of applications to the health center.

H3: There is a significant relationship between the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and the number of applications to the health center.

There is no significant relationship between the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and health insurance.

H4: There is a significant relationship between the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and health insurance.

There is no significant relationship between the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and health perception.

H5: There is a significant relationship between the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and health perception.

1.3. Importance of the Research

This research focuses on the access of elderly individuals to health services and their satisfaction levels with these services, along with the increase in the aging population and the prevalence of chronic diseases. Preventive health services at home are of great importance, especially in terms of improving the quality of life of elderly individuals, preventing health problems and facilitating the management of existing diseases. In this context, nurses play a critical role in meeting the health needs of individuals and increasing the effectiveness of health services.

The research aims to provide a better understanding of the roles of nurses in home preventive health services and to evaluate the impact of these services on the health status of elderly individuals. Determining the factors that affect the access of elderly individuals in Gönyeli to health services and their satisfaction levels with the services they receive from nurses will provide concrete data for the improvement of these services.

1.4. Limitations

This study has certain limitations and the generalizability of the results should be evaluated in light of these limitations:

- The research covers only elderly individuals living in the Gönyeli region.
- Demographic and personal characteristics of individuals participating in the study, such as age, gender, health status, education level and health perceptions, may have a limiting effect on the interpretation of the results.

- The Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale used in the study is based on the subjective perceptions of the participants.
- The research was conducted within a specific time period.
- The study focused only on home preventive healthcare and the roles of nurses. Considerations of the roles of other healthcare professionals (e.g., physicians, physiotherapists) were beyond the scope of this study.

1.5. Definitions

Home Preventive Health Services : Refers to health services provided to elderly individuals in their own living spaces to prevent diseases and protect their health (Sahlen et al., 2008) .

Public Health Nurse : Refers to a nurse who works with the aim of protecting and developing public health and provides preventive, curative and rehabilitative health services to meet the health needs of individuals and families (Daghan, 2017)

Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale : It is a 5-point Likert- type scale with 3 sub-dimensions and 28 items , used to measure the extent to which participants are satisfied with the health services they receive and the nurses who provide this service. The sub-dimensions of the scale are General Satisfaction **,** Communication And It is planning (Manay , 2016).

General Satisfaction : It is a sub-dimension of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and measures the satisfaction levels of individuals regarding the physical conditions, staff and general service quality of the center where they receive health services (Manay , 2016).

Communication : It is the second sub-dimension of the scale and measures how satisfied individuals are with the verbal and emotional communication they establish with nurses during healthcare services (Manay , 2016).

Planning : It is the third sub-dimension of the scale and measures the satisfaction levels of individuals regarding the ease of access to health services, the examination process and the way services are organized (Manay , 2016).

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Home Care and Health Services

Home care and health services are a health service model that aims to meet the medical and personal care needs of individuals in their own homes without going to a hospital environment. These services are especially important for the elderly, chronically ill patients, disabled individuals and people with limited mobility. Home care services reduce the risk of hospital infection and allow individuals to receive treatment in a more comfortable environment (Yılmaz, 2021).

Home care services include meeting the health and care needs of individuals by professional healthcare professionals in the home environment. These services include doctor's examination, nursing services, medication monitoring, wound care, physical therapy and rehabilitation. Support in daily living activities, personal care and psychosocial support are also within the scope of home care services (Kara and Demir, 2020). Home care services aim to meet the social and emotional needs of patients as well as their medical care needs. In this context, services such as diet planning, psychological support and patient education are also offered. In particular, management of chronic diseases is one of the most important benefits of home care services (Özkan, 2021).

Home care services also play an important role in reducing the financial burden on the health system. This service, which reduces the cost of long-term hospital stays, contributes to the more efficient operation of health systems. The cost-effectiveness of home care services becomes more evident, especially in chronic diseases and long-term rehabilitation processes. Home care services have an important advantage of reducing the risk of infection. (Yılmaz, 2020). The concept of home care services is an important health service that increases the quality of life by ensuring that individuals' health and care needs are met in the home environment. This service helps individuals maintain their independence, strengthen their social ties, and contributes to the more efficient operation of health systems. The expansion of home care services is of critical importance in supporting the physical, psychological, and social well-being of individuals (Ayten and Demir, 2022).

2.2. Concept of Home Healthcare Service

Home health services are a type of health service that allows individuals to meet their health needs in a home environment. This service, which is provided in an environment outside of traditional hospitals or clinics, especially for the elderly, disabled or those struggling with chronic diseases, includes various services such as personal care, treatment and rehabilitation. Home health services support physical and psychological well-being by allowing individuals to receive health services in the environment they are accustomed to. It is also stated that home care is less costly and less stressful compared to a hospital or clinic environment (Kaya, 2022).

The scope of home health services is quite wide. Basically, it covers many areas of expertise such as nursing services, physiotherapy, doctor follow-up, psychological support, dietitian services. Nurses ensure that patients take their medications regularly, perform wound care, and monitor their general health. While physiotherapists continue the physical treatments of patients at home, psychologists provide psychological support. Each of these services is carried out within the framework of a care plan specially designed for the patient. Home health services

provide great convenience for the patient and their family because patients staying at home allows them to continue their daily lives more independently. (Yıldız and Bayram, 2023). One of the most important advantages of home health services is that patients experience less stress during the treatment process. While patients stay in the environment they are accustomed to, they adapt to the treatment process more easily and may tend to recover faster. family members can also actively participate in this process, thus making the care process more personalized. Home health services increase individuals' compliance with treatment and reduce the psychological effects of the disease process. For example, elderly individuals may prefer to receive treatment at home rather than in hospitals because the home environment can make them feel more comfortable and safe. (Karakurt , 2021).

Home health services provide significant benefits not only for individuals but also for the health system. The widespread use of these services reduces the burden on hospitals and contributes to the creation of a more efficient health system. Especially when considering the care needs of chronic diseases and old age, treating patients at home frees up hospital beds for more urgent cases. In this way, health resources are used more efficiently (Doğan and Çetin, 2020). Home health services have become an important part of the modern health system. Offering many advantages for both patients and health professionals, this service is of great importance especially for the elderly, the disabled and individuals with chronic diseases. The widespread use of home health services not only improves the health of individuals, but also enables health systems to function more efficiently. However, various regulations and policies need to be developed to increase the quality and accessibility of home health services. (Erdem, 2021).

2. 3. Private Institutions in Home Health Services: Applications in TRNC

The role of private institutions in home health services is becoming increasingly important worldwide. Many countries are using private institutions to expand home health services due to reasons such as increasing elderly population, chronic diseases and insufficient hospital capacity. The private sector is actively involved in this area in the United States, European countries and Asia. Home care companies, private hospitals and medical device providers are especially effective actors in the provision of these services.

In Turkey, home care services are provided within the scope of home health services initiated by the Ministry of Health. These services are provided free of charge, especially for elderly individuals, disabled people and individuals with chronic diseases. In addition to the Ministry of Health, municipalities and private health institutions also provide home care services. The expansion of home care services in Turkey is important in terms of reducing the burden on the health system and improving the quality of life of individuals. In order to further develop these services, training of health workers and increasing social awareness are necessary (Demir and Çelik, 2020).

In the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC), home care and health services are becoming increasingly important due to the increasing elderly population and the prevalence of chronic diseases. The development of modern health systems and the increasing costs of hospital-based services have led individuals to prefer to receive care at home. Home health services allow individuals to receive quality health services in their own home environment, while also reducing the burden on the health system by reducing hospitalizations (Ayten and Demir, 2022).

Although home health services in the TRNC are generally organized by the state , there are various studies suggesting that private institutions should also operate in this area. When examples from around the world are examined, it is seen that it is important for the TRNC to cooperate with the private sector to improve home health services. In their study, Demir and Aydın (2022) stated that the role of private institutions in home health services in the TRNC is limited and that institutions can make significant contributions to increasing the accessibility and quality of health services. The study emphasized that private home care companies and medical device provider companies should be supported in the TRNC (Demir and Aydın, 2022).

3. METHOD OF THE RESEARCH
3.1. Research Model

This study was conducted using quantitative research methods. Quantitative research involves the collection, analysis and interpretation of data in numerical form (Aslan, 2018) . In this direction, Nurse Practitioner Satisfaction Numerical data were collected from the participants using the Survey (NPSS) scale and these data were analyzed with statistical methods. The NPSS used in the study is a scale that aims to measure the satisfaction levels of the participants with primary health care services and the nurses who provide the service. The data were collected through a structured questionnaire form, thus making the results objective, measurable and suitable for statistical analysis. The quantitative research method is an appropriate approach in terms of increasing the generalizability of the results , examining relational and causal connections, and determining satisfaction levels (Creswell and Creswell , 2021) . The data obtained in the study were evaluated with various statistical methods such as frequency analyzes, correlation tests, factor analyzes and reliability analyzes. This process enabled the general trends, relationships and statistical significance levels regarding satisfaction levels to be revealed.

3.2. Universe and Sample

in Gönyeli , a town connected to Nicosia in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC), and benefit from home preventive health services. Gönyeli is a town located right next to Nicosia and offers a suitable universe for the research with its demographic structure and elderly population rate. The universe includes individuals who regularly access these services and actively benefit from home health services. The sample of the research consists of individuals who represent the universe and certain criteria were taken into consideration in the selection of individuals included in the sample. Simple random sampling method was used as the sampling method. This method is a sampling method in which each individual in the universe has an equal probability of being selected and the individuals to be included in the sample are determined completely randomly (Yağar and Dökme, 2018). A total of 301 individuals were included in the sample group within the scope of the research. The sample size was determined at a sufficient level to represent the universe and to ensure the validity of the statistical analyses. Participants vary in terms of demographic and health variables such as gender, age, health status, health perception, education level and health insurance .

3. 3. Data Collection Tools

The scale used in this study was adapted by Manay (2016) and developed by Lucie J. Agosta in 2005. Practitioner Satisfaction Survey based. The scale was designed to assess satisfaction with primary health care services and nurses and was tested with 300 participants.

The scale consists of 47 questions , 28 of which are 5-point Likert- type and 19 of which are for the purpose of collecting socio -demographic information. Likert- type questions consist of three sub-dimensions: General Satisfaction (18 items), Communication (6 items) and Planning (4 items). Questions are scored from 1 to 5, with higher scores indicating higher satisfaction. The total score range of the scale is 28-140.

Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was calculated as 0.978 and 0.922 in the adapted form. High reliability was found in the test-retest analysis (r=0.709; p=0.00). The scale is a reliable tool for measuring the satisfaction level of individuals.

3.4. Analysis of Data

Data were analyzed using SPSS 26.0 program. Normality was assessed using Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, and in both tests, significance values ($p < 0.05$) showed that the distribution was not normal. However, skewness (-1.050) and kurtosis (1.503) values were within normal limits, indicating that the distribution was close to normality. Therefore, parametric tests were used in the analyses. Independent Samples T-Test was applied to analyze the difference between two groups, and variance equality was checked with Levene's Test. In case of significance ($p < 0.05$), it was concluded that there was a difference between the groups. One-Way ANOVA was used to compare means between three or more groups, and in cases of significant differences, differences between groups were examined with Post-Hoc tests.

4. FINDINGS

Table 1. Demographic Information of Participants

		n	%
Gender	Woman	187	62.1
	Male	114	37.9
Age	55-64 years old	27	9
	65-74 years old	164	54.5
	74 and above	110	36.5
Marital status	Married	198	65.8
	Single	103	34.2
Education Status	Primary education	118	39.2
	Secondary Education	108	35.9
	High school	69	22.9
	Bachelor's/Master's Degree	6	2.0
Working Status	Doesn't work	13	4.3
	Retired	288	95.7
Number of household members	1 person	83	27.6
	2-4 people	197	65.4
	5-7 people	14	4.7
	8 people and above	7	2.3
	Total	301	100.0

A total of 301 people participated in this study. 62.1% of the participants were female (n=187), 37.9% were male (n=114). In the distribution by age groups, 9% of the participants were between the ages of 55-64 (n=27), 54.5% were between the ages of 65-74 (n=164), and 36.5% were 74 years of age and over (n=110). In terms of marital status, 65.8% of the participants were married (n=198), and 34.2% were single (n=103). When the educational status was examined, 39.2% were primary school graduates (n=118), 35.9% were secondary school graduates (n=108), 22.9% were high school graduates (n=69), and 2% had a bachelor's or master's degree (n=6). In terms of employment status, 4.3% of the participants are unemployed (n=13), 95.7% are retired (n=288). When the number of household members is examined, 27.6% of the participants live in 1-person households (n=83), 65.4% in 2-4-person households (n=197), 4.7% in 5-7-person households (n=14), and 2.3% in households of 8 or more people (n=7).

Table 2. Participants' Access to Health Services and General Health Status

		n	%
Number of applications to the Health Center in the last year	1 time	16	5.3
	2-4 times	75	24.9
	5-7 times	131	43.5
	8 times and above	79	26.2
Health Insurance	None	66	21.9
	General Health Insurance (BAĞ-KUR, SSK, Retirement Fund)	230	76.4
	Private Health Insurance	5	1.7
Treated Disorders	High Blood Pressure (Hypertension)	84	27.9
	Depression/ Anxiety	11	3.7
	Infectious Diseases	4	1.3
	Asthma/Lung Diseases/Shortness of Breath	18	6.0
	Heart Diseases	41	13.6
	Diabetes Mellitus	70	23.3
	High Cholesterol	12	4.0
	Cancer	13	4.3
	Thyroid Diseases	21	7.0
	None	27	9.0
Health perception	Very Healthy	47	15.6
	Healthy	134	44.5
	A Little Healthy	106	35.2
	Not Healthy	14	4.7
	Total	301	100.0

When the total of 301 people who participated in this study were examined in terms of the frequency of their applications to the health center center in the last year, 5.3% (n=16) applied once, 24.9% (n=75) 2-4 times, 43.5% (n=131) 5-7 times and 26.2% (n=79) 8 times or more. According to the health insurance status of the participants, 76.4% (n=230) have general health insurance (BAĞ-KUR, SSK, Emekli Sandığı), 1.7% (n=5) have private health insurance, but 21.9% (n=66) do not have any health insurance.

In the section on diseases being treated, most participants indicated more than one disease. However, in order to make the data simpler and more meaningful during the analysis process, this information was evaluated based on the most prominent or most important disease of each participant and based on a single option. This selection was made to reflect the disease that best represents the participant's health status. In this way, the analysis of the data became more consistent and the interpretability of the results was increased. This approach does not mean that other diseases were ignored; only a prioritization was made in line with the focus of the study . When evaluated in terms of diseases being treated, 27.9% (n=84) of the participants were treated for high blood pressure, 23.3% (n=70) for diabetes, 13.6% (n=41) for heart disease, 6.0% (n=18) for asthma/lung diseases or shortness of breath, 4.0% (n=12) for high cholesterol, 4.3% (n=13) for cancer, and 0.7% (n=2) for thyroid disease. Additionally, 3.7% (n=11) were diagnosed with depression or anxiety . 9% (n=27) of the participants did not report any illness.

In terms of health perception, 15.6% (n=47) of the participants stated that they felt very healthy, 44.5% (n=134) felt healthy, 37.1% (n=112) felt somewhat healthy, and 4.7% (n=14) felt unhealthy. These data provide important information about the participants' health status, treatment history, and frequency of use of health services.

Table 3. Satisfaction Level with Nurses

		n	%
Satisfaction level with the nurse	1	2	0.7
	4	1	0.3
	5	2	0.7
	6	6	2.0
	7	14	4.7
	8	69	22.9
	9	144	47.8
	10	63	20.9
	Total	301	100.0

In this study, the participants' satisfaction level with the nurses was rated between 1 and 10 and the results were distributed as follows: 0.7% (n=2) of the participants evaluated the satisfaction level as 1, 0.3% (n=1) gave 4 points, and 0.7% (n=2) gave 5 points. The rate of those who stated the satisfaction level as 6 was 2.0% (n=6), while those who gave 7 points remained at 4.7% (n=14). 22.9% (n=69) of the participants evaluated the satisfaction level as 8, and 47.8% (n=144) evaluated it as 9. The highest satisfaction level, 10 points, was given by 20.9% (n=63) of the participants. These findings show that the majority of the participants were quite satisfied with the nurses.

Table 4. Sub-dimensions of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and Statistical Values Regarding the Total Score of the Scale

	Min.	Max .	Avg.	Ps .
Overall Satisfaction	3.00	5.00	4.4446	0.35441
Communication	2.67	5.00	4,3887	0.46116
Planning	2.00	5.00	4.4344	0.53508
Scale Total	2.94	5.00	4.4226	0.37276

The scale is graded from 1 to 5, and the mean and standard deviation values of each dimension can be interpreted as follows:
The minimum value of the General Satisfaction Sub-dimension is 3, the maximum value is 5 and the mean score is 4.4446. This value shows that the general satisfaction levels of the participants are high. The standard deviation value is 0.35441, indicating that there is a low variability in satisfaction levels among the participants. In the communication sub-dimension, the minimum score is 2.67, the maximum score is 5 and the mean is 4.3887. This mean shows that the satisfaction levels of the participants with communication are also quite high. The standard deviation value is 0.46116, indicating that there is a slightly higher variability compared to the other sub-dimensions. The minimum value for the planning sub-dimension is 2, the maximum value is 5, the mean is 4.4344 and the standard deviation is 0.55308. This result shows that the satisfaction level in the planning sub-dimension is also high and that there is a slight difference in this regard among the participants. In the total score covering all dimensions, the minimum value is 2.94, the maximum value is 5 and the mean is 4.4226. This mean value reveals that the participants' nurse satisfaction levels are generally quite high. The standard deviation value is 0.37276, indicating that there is a low variance among the participants in the general satisfaction level .
These results show that the participants are generally highly satisfied with nursing services. The mean values presented in the table (range 4.38-4.44) are quite close to the upper limit of the scale, indicating that the level of satisfaction is high. The low standard deviation values of the scale indicate that the differences between satisfaction levels are limited and that the participants have similar perceptions in terms of satisfaction. Since an increase in the total score means an increase in satisfaction, these values indicate a positive perception of satisfaction.

Table 5. Relationship between the Sub-dimensions and Total Scores of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and the Gender Variable

		n	Avg.	Ps .	f	p.
Overall Satisfaction	Woman	187	4,4219	0.36624	0.025	0.873
	Male	114	4,4820	0.33231		
Communication	Woman	187	4,3797	0.45652	0.983	0.322
	Male	114	4.4035	0.47031		
Planning	Woman	187	4.4398	0.54814	0.142	0.706
	Male	114	4,4254	0.51518		
Scale Total	Woman	187	4.4138	0.37199	2,786	0.096
	Male	114	4.4370	0.37522		

p <0.05

As a result of the analysis, no statistically significant difference was found between female (n=187) and male (n=114) participants in terms of the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale (all p values > 0.05). General Satisfaction In the sub-dimension, the average score of women was found to be 4.4219 and 4.4820 for men, with a p value of 0.873 . In the communication sub-dimension, the average score of women was 4.3797 and 4.4035 for men, with a p value of 0.322. In the planning sub-dimension, the average score of women was calculated as 4.4398 and 4.4254 for men, with a p value of 0.706. In terms of the total score of the scale, the average of women was 4.4138 and 4.4370 for men, with a p value of 0.096. The results show that there is no significant difference in the sub-dimensions and total score of nurse satisfaction levels according to the gender variable, and the satisfaction levels of female and male participants are similar.

Table 6. Relationship between the Sub-dimensions and Total Scores of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and the Educational Status Variable

		n	Avg.	Ps .	f	p.
Overall Satisfaction	Primary education	118	4,4675	0.36400	2,532	**0.047** 1> 2
	Secondary Education	108	4,4218	0.34255		
	High school	69	4.4106	0.35448		
	Bachelor's/Master's Degree	6	4,7963	0.16728		
Communication	Primary education	118	4,4040	0.47010	1,912	0.128
	Secondary Education	108	4,3997	0.42564		
	High school	69	4,3140	0.49386		
	Bachelor's/Master's Degree	6	4,7500	0.39087		
Planning	Primary education	118	4,4703	0.51075	0.978	0.403
	Secondary Education	108	4,3889	0.57735		
	High school	69	4,4203	0.51538		
	Bachelor's/Master's Degree	6	4,7083	0.40052		
Scale Total	Primary education	118	4.4473	0.37716	2,126	0.097
	Secondary Education	108	4.4035	0.35884		
	High school	69	4.3816	0.38462		
	Bachelor's/Master's Degree	6	4,7515	0,25649		

p<0,05

As a result of the analysis, some differences were observed in terms of the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale according to the educational status variable. General Satisfaction In the sub-dimension, a significant difference was found between the groups according to educational status (p = 0.047 < 0 .05). The average score of primary school graduates was calculated as 4.4675, the average of secondary school graduates as 4.4218, the average of high school graduates as 4.4106 and the average of bachelor's/master's degree graduates as 4.4167. As a result of post-hoc tests, it was determined that the satisfaction level of primary school graduates was significantly higher than that of secondary school graduates (1 > 2). In the communication sub-dimension, the average of primary school graduates was found as 4.4040, the average of secondary school graduates as 4.3927, the average of high school graduates as 4.4094 and the average of bachelor's/master's degree graduates as 4.7500. However, this difference was not statistically significant (p = 0.128 > 0.05). In the planning sub-dimension, the average score of primary school graduates was 4.4703, the average of secondary school graduates was 4.4075, the average of high school graduates was 4.4638 and the average of bachelor's/master's degree graduates was 4.5833. No significant difference was found between the groups in terms of educational status (p = 0.408 > 0.05). In terms of Scale Total Score, the average of primary school graduates was 4.4473, the average of secondary school graduates was 4.4035, the average of high school graduates was 4.4358 and the average of bachelor's/master's degree graduates was 4.7515. However, this difference was not found to be statistically significant either (p = 0.097 > 0.05).

Table 7. Relationship between the Sub-dimensions and Total Scores of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and the Number of Applications to the Health Center in the Last Year

		n	Avg.	Ps .	f	p.
Overall Satisfaction	1 time	16	4,4028	0.27179	2,256	0.082
	2-4 times	75	4,3919	0.35560		
	5-7 times	131	4.4288	0.35894		

	8 times and above	79	4,5295	0.35135		
Communication	1 time	16	4,4167	0.37515	1,339	0.262
	2-4 times	75	4.3556	0.42829		
	5-7 times	131	4,3524	0.47844		
	8 times and above	79	4,4747	0.47373		
Planning	1 time	16	4.5313	0.38595	2,798	**0.040** 4> 2
	2-4 times	75	4.3333	0.55192		
	5-7 times	131	4,4027	0.56208		
	8 times and above	79	4,5633	0.47614		
Scale Total	1 time	16	4,4502	0.24152	2,921	**0.034** 4 > 2
	2-4 times	75	4,3602	0.34777		
	5-7 times	131	4,3946	0.38725		
	8 times and above	79	4,5225	0.37845		

$p < 0.05$

As a result of the analysis, significant differences were observed in terms of the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale according to the variable of the number of applications to the health center center in the last year. In the General Satisfaction sub-dimension, the p-value was found as 0.082 between the application number groups and no statistically significant difference was found between the groups. However, the average score of those who applied 8 times or more was observed to be 4.5205, which was higher than the other groups.

In the communication sub-dimension, the p value was 0.056, which is close to the significance limit. The average score of the participants who applied 8 times and above was 4.4747, which was higher than the other groups. This situation shows that increasing the number of applications can positively affect communication satisfaction. In the planning sub-dimension, the p value was calculated as 0.024 and a significant difference was found between the groups. As a result of the post-hoc tests, it was determined that the average score of those who applied 8 times and above was 4.5225, which was significantly higher than those who applied 2-4 times (average 4.3636). In terms of the Total Scale Score, the p value was calculated as 0.034 and a significant difference was found between the groups. The total scale score average of those who applied 8 times and above was 4.5225, which was higher than the other groups. As a result of the post-hoc tests, it was seen that this difference was especially between those who applied 8 times and above and those who applied 2-4 times.

Table 8. Relationship between the Sub-dimensions and Total Scores of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and Health Insurance

		n	Avg.	Ps .	f	p.
Overall Satisfaction	None	66	4,5513	0.40875	4,641	**0.010** 1> 2
	General Health Insurance (BAĞ-KUR, SSK, Retirement Fund)	230	4.4106	0.33177		
	Private Health Insurance	5	4,6000	0.34561		
Communication	None	66	4,4697	0.50120	2,412	0.091
	General Health Insurance (BAĞ-KUR, SSK, Retirement Fund)	230	4,3594	0.44634		
	Private Health Insurance	5	4,6667	0.45644		
Planning	None	66	4,4621	0.59685	0.557	0.573
	General Health Insurance (BAĞ-KUR, SSK, Retirement Fund)	230	4,4217	0.51808		
	Private Health Insurance	5	4,6500	0.48734		
Scale Total	None	66	4,4944	0.42347	2,625	0.074
	General Health Insurance (BAĞ-KUR, SSK, Retirement Fund)	230	4,3973	0.35355		
	Private Health Insurance	5	4,6389	0.41326		

$p < 0.05$

As a result of the analysis, some differences were observed in terms of the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale according to the health insurance variable. A significant difference was found between the groups in the General Satisfaction sub-dimension (p = 0.010 < 0.05). The average score of the participants without health insurance was 4.5513, the average score of the participants using General Health Insurance (BAĞ-KUR, SSK, Emekli Sandığı) was 4.4106 and the average score of the participants with Private Health Insurance was 4.6000. As a result of post-hoc tests, it was determined that the satisfaction level of the participants without health insurance was higher than those using General Health Insurance (1 > 2). No significant difference was found between the groups in the Communication sub-dimension (p = 0.091 > 0.05). The average score of the participants without health insurance was calculated as 4.4697, the average of those with General Health Insurance was 4.3594 and the average of those with Private Health Insurance was 4.6667. This shows that there is no significant difference depending on health insurance in the communication sub-dimension. No significant difference was found between the groups in the planning sub-dimension (p = 0.573 > 0.05). The average score of the participants without health insurance was 4.4735, the average of those with General Health Insurance was 4.4217 and the average of those with Private Health Insurance was 4.6500. There was also no significant difference between the groups in terms of Scale Total Score (p = 0.251 > 0.05). The total score average of the participants without health insurance was 4.4944, the average of those with General Health Insurance was 4.3970 and the average of those with Private Health Insurance was 4.6339.

Table 9. Relationship between the Sub-dimensions and Total Scores of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale and Health Perception

		n	Avg.	Ps .	f	p.
Overall Satisfaction	Very Healthy	47	4,5177	0.27268	1,668	0.174
	Healthy	134	4.4362	0.35291		
	A Little Healthy	106	4,4067	0.39085		
	Not Healthy	14	4,5675	0.28175		
Communication	Very Healthy	47	4.4362	0.42499	0.284	0.837
	Healthy	134	4,3856	0.47862		
	A Little Healthy	106	4,3664	0.45856		
	Not Healthy	14	4.4286	0.46093		
Planning	Very Healthy	47	4,5053	0.38831	3,132	**0.026** 1 > 3
	Healthy	134	4,4851	0.52185		
	A Little Healthy	106	4,3137	0.59768		
	Not Healthy	14	4,6250	0.44668		
Scale Total	Very Healthy	47	4,4864	0.26773	1,923	0.126
	Healthy	134	4.4356	0.38771		
	A Little Healthy	106	4,3622	0.38956		
	Not Healthy	14	4,5403	0.35816		

p <0.05

As a result of the analysis, some differences were observed in terms of the sub-dimensions and total score of the Public Health Nurse Satisfaction Scale according to the health perception variable. In the General Satisfaction sub-dimension, the p value was calculated as 0.174 and no statistically significant difference was found between the groups (p > 0.05). The average score of the participants who felt very healthy was 4.5177, the average of those who felt somewhat healthy was 4.4362 and the average of those who did not feel healthy was 4.4567. In the Communication sub-dimension, the difference between the groups was not found statistically significant (p = 0.837 > 0.05). The average score of the participants who felt very healthy was 4.4362, the average of those who felt somewhat healthy was 4.3664 and the average of those who did not feel healthy was 4.3843. In the Planning sub-dimension, a significant difference was found between the health perception groups (p = 0.026 < 0.05). According to the post-hoc test results, the mean score of the participants who felt very healthy in the planning sub-dimension (4.5930) was found to be significantly higher than those who felt somewhat healthy (4.4038) and those who did not feel healthy (4.2941) (1 > 2 and 1 > 3). In terms of the Scale Total Score, no significant difference was found between the health perception groups (p = 0.149 > 0.05). The mean total score of those who felt very healthy was calculated as 4.4644, the mean of those who felt somewhat healthy was 4.3964, and the mean of those who did not feel healthy was calculated as 4.5403.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The research results show that general satisfaction with nursing services is high and this situation is largely consistent with similar studies in the literature. In particular, the positive effect of nurses' communication skills on satisfaction supports the findings of Çağlar and Gülel (2015) and İnce et al. While Arslan and Gürsoy (2021) drew attention to the importance of planning and service access processes, similar findings were obtained in this study.

The relationship between education level and satisfaction varies in the literature. While some studies indicate that satisfaction decreases as the level of education increases (Cerit, 2016), this study found that primary school graduates had higher levels of satisfaction. However, in general, no significant difference was found according to level of education.

No significant difference was found between demographic variables (gender, age, marital status) and satisfaction. This is consistent with some studies such as Cerit (2016), but contradicts studies conducted in different contexts such as Qirk et al. (2024). Literature shows that the perception of satisfaction may vary depending on the context, cultural factors, and characteristics of individuals.

The effects of variables such as frequency of visits to health centers and health insurance on satisfaction have been examined. The satisfaction level of individuals who visit more frequently was found to be higher, and this was explained by familiarity with the services and meeting expectations. The high satisfaction level of individuals without health insurance was associated with finding the services they receive more valuable. However, some studies, such as Önsüz et al. (2008), have indicated that health insurance increases satisfaction.

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