MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION STUDIES
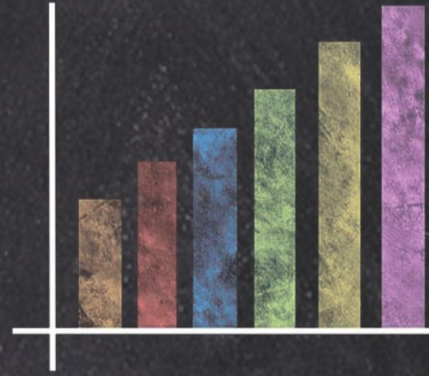
Editor
Yüksel Akay ÜNVAN

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PREFACE

Dear Readers,

We present to you our new book titled "Management and Organization Studies" to be developed in line with your valuable suggestions. The book consists of ten chapters. In today's world, where multidisciplinary approaches are increasingly gaining importance, the book touches upon technological contents such as digital transformation and virtual reality, and on the other hand, different issues related to management and corporate disciplines such as leadership, time management, and strategic planning are carefully discussed. In this respect, we expect that it will make a valuable contribution to the academic literature by providing the reader with an interdisciplinary and multifaceted perspective. We hope to meet you with our new books, with the will of providing you reading pleasure and new information.

Kind Regards.

Prof. Dr. Yüksel Akay UNVAN
Editor

CONTENT

DIMENSIONS OF DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION FOR HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS: CHALLENGES, PROBLEMS AND SOLUTION SUGGESTIONS

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1. Introduction

Coronavirus pandemic (2019) has been a catastrophe and milestone for organizations around the world to start digitalization and digital transformation (DT) initiatives. The perception of DT as consisting only of technological transformation leads to the fact that the desired results cannot be fully achieved. Unfortunately many organizations' DT investments have produced negative returns may be a sign that the challenges and issues involved in this process are not well realized. With the DT, the need for human resources with digital (DIGI) skills is increasing. In higher education institutions (HEIs) that train human resources for all institutions and organizations in countries. For this reason, it is vital to be aware of the difficulties and problems and develop solutions for DT initiatives to be more effective. HEIs that are unable to keep up with DT will lag behind in preparing the workforce who contribute to the nation's sustainability and competitive edge. In this context, in many studies dealing with DT in HE, it is seen that the problems and difficulties experienced

through a DT framework specific to HEIs are not presented in a systematic way. Problems refer to goals or tasks that can be achieved through solutions. The difficulties are the limitations in the implementation of the solutions; people or institutions away from solutions. Based on the need to define the DT dimensions, challenges and problems in HE, this chapter aims to give a new classification to the DT literature in general and to the DT literature in HEIs in particular, and to contribute to the problems and difficulties experienced by these institutions in DT process.

While the number of academic staff, administrative staff and students has increased with the number of HEIs in the world since the 1960s, the interactions of universities within themselves have also become more complex. In reality, according to data from July 2021, India has 5,288 institutions, making it the nation with the most universities worldwide. With 3,216 institutions, the USA is in second place, followed by Indonesia with 2,595 universities (Statista Research Department, 2022). According to the 2022-2023 academic year HE Council data in Turkey, there are 184,566 academic staff and 6,950,142 students in 208 HEIs (Higher Education Council, 2023).

The beginning of DT studies in HE may be associated with a need for governance. The introduction of the "new public administration" approach in the 1980s and its recognition in the world as a key policy brought the issue of HE governance up to date. Inspired by the new public administration approach, HE governance includes "market-based reforms; budget reforms, autonomy, accountability and performance reforms; management techniques" (Yembergenova, 2023). Thus, to improve the HE quality, a series of structural changes have been triggered by private sector practices (such as focusing on performance, reducing costs and increasing competitiveness).This situation has also increased the demands for "social responsibility, quality and efficiency" for HE (Carvalho et al., 2022). Meeting these expectations requires leadership, organizational structure, processes and activities that will enable internal and external stakeholders of HEIs to stay together and interact. The inadequacy of classical management and organizational structures to meet these expectations and the rapid development of technologies that facilitate governance encourage institutions to turn to DT.

The development of online education as an important element of DT in HEIs has been examined in 5 waves (Picciano, 2017):

1. wave: beginning (1993-1999)
2. wave: mainstream (early 2000)

3. wave: MOOC (Massive Open Online Courses) phenomenon (2008-2013)

4. wave: reconciliation of blended and MOOC technologies (2014-2020)

5. wave: maturation (2021-2029)

According to Picciano (2017), there was a great change in HE at the beginning of the third wave of digitalization. The widespread use of mass online education within universities has revolutionized traditional university practices. The spread of these courses outside of university websites has formed the basis for the emergence of "networked education structures" that compete with universities (Picciano, 2017; Prokofiev, 2021).The adoption of technology by HEIs is associated with a paradigm shift where "technology is designed as a complex and interconnected environment enabling DIGI learning" (Carayannis and Morawska-Jancelewicz, 2022). Indeed, at the macro level, DT refers to the changes that organizations and societies have to undergo after adopting new digital technologies (digitech). Solutions to problems facing the world such as environment, climate change, health, food, migration, biodiversity and sustainable development require integration of knowledge areas with an interdisciplinary perspective, beyond social awareness and international political will. This means a change in the educational approach, which includes focusing on the study of problems rather than disciplines (Kaputa et al., 2022).

2. Covid-19 Pandemic: Milestone of Digital Transformation in Higher Education

HE has recently faced a major challenge. With the Covid-19 pandemic, HEIs have faced DIGI education, which brings competition to the DIGI field. In this process, HEIs, who had to use technology to support their teaching and learning processes, developed their awareness and understanding of the necessity of DT (Purcărea, 2021; Aditya et al., 2021). In an environment where organizations share limited resources, geopolitical, economic and pandemic crises increase the value of DT (Husain, 2022).

Until 2019, digitalization efforts were an issue that HEIs handled within their own planning and in harmony with their own pace. Although the pandemic has made DT a priority on the agenda of universities, there is a gap between HE institutions in terms of DIGI development. For example, the technology infrastructure and investment of universities such as Oxford, Harvard, MIT and Stanford, which are considered to have the best quality of education in

the world, are also very solid. During the pandemic process, universities that had previously made a conscious investment in technology had less difficulty, while other universities that were not included in this scope, which made up the majority, tried to reach their students with beginner-level tools, equipment and conditions in terms of digitalization. As a result of the pandemic, HEIs realized how important DT effforts are in order to be sustainable, including in times of crisis. Some quickly began research and work to make up for this gap. However, there have been instances where these positive and well-intentioned efforts have unfortunately failed to reach their goal. It is almost impossible for organizations that do not recognize the DT process, the problems and difficulties that may be experienced, to be effective and successful in this process. HEIs that want to pass this process successfully need to manage DT correctly.

The study plan includes, respectively, "explaining what the concept of DT in HE means, examining what is presented as DT dimensions in HE, presenting a new classification of DT dimensions in HE based on existing information, discussing these dimensions in the context of difficulties and problems, developing conclusion and suggestions".

3. The Concept and Scope of Digital Transformation in Higher Education

A common definition has not been developed for the concept of DT; what is expressed by this concept means more than the adoption of new technologies. This transformation also includes the discovery and use of big data on corporate resources (Tungpantong et al., 2021).Gong and Ribiere (2021) developed a new DT definition by examining 134 DT definitions in the literature. DT is expressed in this definition as "a process of change accompanied by the innovative use of digitech, as well as the strategic leverage of key resources and capabilities, aimed at radically improving an organization and redefining the value proposition for its stakeholders." According to Brook and MacCormack's (2020) study, DT is the highest level of transformation in a HEI. The concept of DT, which is often confused with the concepts of digitization and / or digitalization, is holistically associated with the highest level of maturity that the institution can achieve in digitalization.

HEIs are transforming their business models, processes and practices by adopting digitech. DT in HE is a process that analyzes the needs and demands of stakeholders and provides appropriate education and research services, and aims to develop new, more advanced effective practices and methods compatible with

the HE mission (Alenezi, 2021). DT in HE affects all processes and objectives of teaching, learning, research, support services, management and communication. This change incorporates the advancement of modern foundations, the expanded utilize of advanced media and advances, and the require for understudies and staff to create modern advanced skills (Kaputa et al., 2022). DT can be used to enable employees to focus on strategic tasks, increase job satisfaction and cooperation, and reduce workload. This transformation has been associated with improved HE performance, as it allows automation of processes and encourages innovation (Carvalho et al., 2022).

4. Dimensions of Digital Transformation for Higher Education Institutions

In identifying the challenges and problems related to DT in HE, it will be guiding to first reveal the stages, dimensions and/or elements of the DT process. One of the foremost commonly utilized classifications of the DT process and stages comprises of "digitization, digitalization and DT" (Brook and MacCormack, 2020). It has been suggested that DT factors for HEIs consist of "strategy, process, product / service, people, data, technology" (Tungpantong et al., 2021). Examining the literature to offer a holistic approach to DT in HE, Thai et al. (2021) identified the six most prominent dimensions as "technology, infrastructure, teaching, learning, research". According to Alenezi (2021), digitech can be used to transform the "teaching and pedagogy, DIGI skills creation and curriculum modernization, DT infrastructure and management" dimensions of HE.

According to Aditya et al. (2021) there are nine categories of barriers, including "vision, strategy and policy, resources, leadership, DIGI skills and knowledge, technology, adaptation, resistance to change, state and economy". This classification mostly points to issues related to management and leadership (leadership, strategy, vision, policy, government and economy, resources, technology). Both macro and micro DT research should be conducted in conjunction with strategic management and own strategic planning, vision and policy.In this sense, DT leaders and teams are needed, and the technical and economic environment is taken into account.Then the resources used for DT are procured and allocated. Elements such as DIGI skills and knowledge, adaptation, resistance to change point to obstacles in the field of behavior, learning and organizational behavior associated to the human resources development.

5. A Classification Proposal for Digital Transformation Dimensions in Higher Education Institutions

Based on the different classifications, frameworks and narratives presented in the literature (Brook and MacCormack, 2020; Alenezi, 2021; Tungpantong et al., 2021; Thai et al., 2021; Thuy , 2021; Aditya et al., 2021), it was determined nine dimensions of DT in HEIs : strategy, technology and infrastructure, process, learning and teaching, human resources, data, leadership, efficiency and performance, culture (Figure 1). In this section, these dimensions are explained and related difficulties and problems are addressed.

Figure 1. Digital Transformation Dimensions for HEI (designed by the author)

5.1. Strategy Dimension

DT in HE is promoted globally, regionally and locally. One of the International Association of Universities' key strategic priorities is DT. The European Commission's Digital Education Action Plan (2021-2030) aims to promote DIGI education as a strategic priority for the use of technology in education and the DIGI skills development (Zorica et al., 2021). The DT process of universities is supported and managed by international associations and projects and government programs. For example, the European Union's education development strategy EU 2020 focuses on the new information technologies integration into EU educational institutions. In Russia, with the

"Digital Economy" project, all state universities will implement the "Digital University" model until the end of 2023. "Strategy for Development of the Information Society in the Russian Federation for 2017-2030 " is aimed at creating various technological platforms for distance education (Yu , 2021). In Turkey, "Digital Transformation in Higher Education Project" was signed on February 18, 2019 at Ağrı İbrahim Çeçen University, which took part in the project and hosted the meeting. It was decided to implement this project, which was started in 8 pilot universities, in all universities after the pilot universities (Higher Education Council, 2019).

DT initiatives of HEIs can be successful with strategic practices compatible with changing technologies (Thuy, 2021). As DT is a multi-stage, multi-source, multi- stakeholder, long-term process that requires the support of regulatory agencies, organizations and policies, unfortunately, it is quite difficult to assess whether institutions are ready for the changes necessary for DT (Carayannis and Morawska-Jancelewicz, 2022).

Extensive research on the level of HEIs in DT indicates that institutions do not have sufficient DIGI maturity yet. In 2016, 1,494 business leaders and 265 participants from HEIs were interviewed in the "Microsoft Asia Digital Transformation" survey. 87% of respondents said they believe they need to evolve into a DIGI enterprise to ensure future growth, 23% say they have a full DIGI strategy, 77% either make progress on certain DT initiatives or have limited or no strategy . Research results show that while most education leaders are aware of the urgent need for DT, most educational institutions in Asia are still in their infancy in terms of DT (Microsoft, 2017).

It can be argued that HEIs may experience the following basic problems regarding the DT strategy:

- Low awareness and knowledge of the top management about DT,
- not having a DT strategy,
- having a limited DT strategy,
- incorrect design of the DT strategy,
- disconnected DT strategy from corporate strategies,
- Incorrect or incomplete implementation of the DT strategy.

Alenesis (2021) points out that HEIs tend to focus on very urgent issues, prioritize instant results, and delay critical investments in building time-consuming talents. However, the fact that these institutions do not have the necessary financial tools for digitalization exacerbates this problem. The

solution to the problem can be resorted to the development of a prioritization plan for DIGI investments and a roadmap that can guide corporate DT. In addition to the strategic management activities in HEIs, the inclusion of DT in strategic planning and strategy development for DT can protect the institution from any progress in DT process. In this context, HEIs can take as an example the practices of similar institutions and organizations that have advanced in the DT process both at home and abroad.

Mohamed Hashim (2022) states that the strategic approaches adopted by DT giants such as Google, Facebook and Netflix, innovative, agile and customer-oriented service offerings create various advantages and opportunities. Similarly, he argues that HEIs should develop a cognitive understanding of the sustainable design of DT. Delivering a high-quality educational experience and transforming students to cope with globalizing industry demands is one of the core ideas of the DT strategy. Transforming HEIs also transform their staff and students.

HEIs should establish clear and specific targets for DT in their strategies. A strategic, clear vision that allows corporate DIGI venture efforts to be consolidated will enable the team and stakeholders to be more involved and invested in the DT process. It is vital to have a strong leadership and an expert team that can implement their plans for the transformation process (Kaputa et al., 2022). DT requires strategic assets and the definition of a DIGI strategy spanning the years, as the use of DIGI media does not guarantee higher levels of student engagement and/or success. For a successful DT, key representatives and stakeholders must be identified, solutions and value agreed, and a DT framework should be created that can be used in shaping the HEI (de Araújo Freire, 2021).

Laufer et al. (2021) conducted a research with 85 HE leaders in 24 countries on how they experience DT and how promises and claims regarding access to educational technology, learning outcomes and collaboration are realized in practice. According to this study, HE leaders should go beyond online learning and teaching and develop inclusive and long-term DIGI education visions that emphasize collaboration.

5.2. Technology and Infrastructure Dimension

The Covid-19 pandemic, universities using digitech and involved in the online learning and teaching process adapt more easily; on the contrary, those who resisted this change faced great difficulties in choosing which technologies

to combine and how to use them (Zorica et al., 2021). The development levels of the countries are effective on the use of digitech. Sophisticated structures exist to support the easy application of digitech in HE in developed countries. While students access libraries electronically, much of the university organization and administration is able to work online in efficient, user-friendly ways. However, in developing countries, especially in rural areas, providing students with fast and quality online services is a major challenge, due to insufficient, unreliable internet connection and difficulty in accessing computer equipment. Providing much more online education services during the pandemic period, the necessity for many students to participate in online education, and the diversity of courses have made online education more complex (Noreen and Reid, 2022).

Based on the experiences of the pandemic, it can be argued that HEIs may experience the following basic problems in the technology dimension:

- country, region, city or institution itself,
- difficulty in accessing and financing digitech,
- inability to choose the right digitech suitable for the institution,
- problems of integration into the organizational structure, processes and activities of digitech,
- number of academic and administrative personnel who have the ability to use digitech,
- digitech by internal and external stakeholders,
- neglecting other dimensions of transformation with a focus on technology.

The difficulty of successfully implementing the DT approach in HEIs that are not familiar with change and innovation is due to the need for these institutions to go through the following two important processes (Aditya et al., 2021):

1) changing towards the new educational environment,
2) adoption of technology and its integration into the education system.

There is a need for conceptualization and internalization of DT in HE. Technologies should be able to respond to the demands of rapid technological change in the world and especially appropriate infrastructure should be provided (Thai et al., 2021). Technology change means finding resources and centralizing technology infrastructure. As new technologies will be used as potential differentiators in education and research, they can support HEIs in the

development and application of technology (Thuy, 2021). The establishment of mobile-based AI-supported software, online backup programs, and new technology infrastructure for research and education are seen as a few concrete technology challenges that need to be addressed urgently (Carayannis and Morawska- Jancelewicz, 2022).

The difficulties faced by HEIs regarding DT are mainly due to the use of new technologies to change existing systems, processes, communication channels, and all academic and administrative activities. HEIs are expected to embrace the use of digitech more in their daily activities, as legacy systems can lead to high costs and pressure on the budget. On the other hand, manual forms and methods for both online and on-campus cyber attacks are insufficient and the need for security is increasing (Alenezi, 2021).

Issues such as information technology strategy, DIGI integration, artificial intelligence, campus and information security, student services, accessibility are seen as the driving forces of DT in the education sector (Mabić et al., 2022). Considering the DT process of HEIs as a project management application can play a role in their success. In this sense, sustainable practices specifically in information technologies are directly and realistically linked to project management practices. In this sense, HEIs, like companies, need to develop indicators, practices and tools that will enable them to achieve sustainable performance in social, environmental and economic dimensions (Mohamed Hashim, 2022).

Some existing DT initiatives show that the results achieved despite large investments are not as desired. One of the main reasons for this is the focus on technology rather than driving change. The DT process should be based on internal knowledge rather than external consultants, align with professional goals, understand how the changes will affect the experience of users such as academic and administrative staff, students, and use process management to facilitate change (Husain, 2022).

DIGI solutions in classrooms can be hardware-based or software-based. Hardware solutions can be preferred using devices such as tablets, smartphones or interactive smart boards to create the learning process (Thai et al., 2021). Information technology systems characterized by centralized control and decision making are considered to be more efficient. These systems are an important way to balance the scale and speed of coordinated decision making. There is a need to establish a dynamic, multifaceted regulatory model for DT (Alenezi, 2021).

5.3. Process Dimension

The process dimension includes the basic stages of the HEI, starting from digitization, digitalization and ultimately DT. The DT process of a HEI consists of five sub-levels, as expressed in the study of Brook and MacCormack (2020):

Level 1) digitizing information (digitizing)

Level 2) organizing information (digitizing)

Level 3) automate processes (digitalization)

Level 4) streamlining processes (digitalization)

Level 5) transforming the institution (digital transformation)

It can be argued that HEIs may experience the following basic problems in the process dimension:

- Seeing DT as digitech procurement rather than a multi-stage process,
- the DT process haphazardly rather than with a professional approach, within a strategic plan.
- act as if digitization (level 1 and 2), digitalization (level 3 and 4) and DT (level 5) are synonymous
- only on external consultancy and do not resort to internal information,
- only on internal information, do not seek external consultancy, and involve business blindness.

As DIGI progress in the education sector goes beyond technical changes, HEIs are affected organizationally and structurally as well as curricula (Alenezi , 2021). Taşlıbeyaz and Taşcı's (2021) systematic analysis of DT in HE in national and international literature points out that HEIs are in an intensive work process on making various arrangements in the field of education and administration. In these studies, it was stated that subjects such as "revealing the current situation for DT in HE, improving the infrastructure, developing relevant strategies and taking precautions, digitalization in the field of education and management" were discussed . One of the points that Microsoft (2017) emphasizes when defining what DT means is optimizing institutions. By using big data stores and analytics at the department or faculty level, HEIs can gain important insights into organizational efficiency and student performance. Thus, it is emphasized that with real-time intelligence, it will be possible to meet transparency expectations and regulatory requirements.

5.4. Learning and Teaching Dimension

DT in the global education industry is shaping the future of sustainable education management. In this sense, globalized education radically affects

HEIs in shaping learning, teaching and continuous improvement mechanisms. HEIs are moving away from traditional forms of learning to cope with the challenges of globalization (Mohamed Hashim et al., 2021). It is claimed that learning and teaching in DT includes "creation of DIGI platforms and DIGI educational content, the development of innovative educational methodologies, DIGI literacy and skills, and the rethinking of the teaching management process" (Thai et al., 2021; de Araújo Freire, 2021).

Microsoft (2017) emphasized the transformation of learning while defining what DT means. As education leaders transform learning, access to digitech will enable educators to work with agile, highly automated DIGI processes. It can be argued that HEIs may experience the following basic problems in terms of learning and teaching:

- DIGI learning and teaching systems and technologies,
- staff and students towards new learning and teaching systems,
- countries, regions and institutions , differences in experience,
- curriculum, educational content and resource development issues,
- cooperating,
- The need to renew the student experience.

Online learning activities require appropriate strategic preparation, including supporting academic staff and students to develop positive attitudes towards DT. While HEIs in developed countries have a longer history of experience with DIGI developments in learning systems, developing countries often do not take advantage of these advantages (Noreen and Reid , 2022).

In the DIGI age, in the context of the need for a new, highly skilled workforce with technological skills, curriculum modernization and the creation of DIGI skills in HE are gaining importance (Alenezi, 2021). Research shows that collaboration within and between HEIs is often lower than expected. This finding was replicated for virtual collaboration, where it was argued that "the use of information and communication technologies in the curriculum is still a low priority in internationalization efforts for HEIs." In terms of cooperation between academic staff, the concept of open education can be used. Open education is a set of collaborative practices that include the creation and use of open educational resources as well as pedagogical resources (Laufer et al., 2021).

In addition to digitizing documents and textbooks, DT also includes creating a platform where both face-to-face and online teaching and learning

resources will be shared in the context of educational technology development for personalized education (Thuy, 2021). The use of DIGI educational resources leads to adjustable, autonomous, collaborative and stimulating forms of learning for academic staff and students. However, HEIs are struggling to respond to the needs for creating, publishing and managing an increasing amount of content. This issue can be resolved by contacting vendors who offer technology options for content infrastructure creation (de Araújo Freire , 2021).

The transformation of HE programs towards a personalized education journey in which individuals are adapted according to their goals and preferences causes an increasing need for decision support and information systems (Mikhaylova et al., 2021). Perceiving DT in the context of reshaping the student experience requires a number of changes such as (Mabić et al., 2022):

- establishing partnerships with the industry,
- digitally attracting the students of the future,
- offering different online learning options,
- registering in student information systems via different DIGI devices,
- using technology to monitor student progress and performance,
- executing intervention protocols.

HEIs are under pressure to create pedagogical innovations, leveraging DIGI materials and interactive tools, as well as innovative methodologies to promote greater DIGI connections within the academic community (Carvalho et al., 2022). The use and integration of digitech enables universities to organize the entire value chain; it affects the course portfolio and delivery model (Carayannis and Morawska-Jancelewicz, 2022). DIGI education tools provide new roles for researchers, academic staff and students, and increase collaboration and commitment; it produces more interactive, simulating and engaging methods for teaching and learning (Alenezi, 2021).

5.5. Human Resources Dimension

The human element, which is one of the main actors of the DT process in HE, can be evaluated in separate groups as academic and administrative staff and students.

Adaptation of Students to Digital Transformation

From past to present, HE has been carried out with a controlling and monopolized logic established by HEIs, which mostly controls the information and is not open to external changes and information flow. The skills gap

is expected to increase as HEIs' failure to keep up with the DIGI age and continuing this logic will mean that the effects of DT cannot be adjusted for future demands. This situation is thought to create a major obstacle to DT by making it difficult to find a workforce with DIGI skills, creating a vicious circle in which transformation becomes increasingly difficult (de Araújo Freire, 2021). In other words, although organizations in the public and private sectors want to keep up with DT, they may experience inadequacies due to the increasing skill gap. The way to close the skills gap for DT is for HEIs to produce graduates equipped with DIGI skills by urgently carrying out DT within themselves.

The main task of HEIs is to strengthen the employability skills of students for a particular profession and to prepare them to work in the labor market for the next 30-40 years (Husain , 2022). In the DIGI economy, new highly specialized human resources with DIGI and communication skills are needed. HEIs need to incorporate digitech into their didactic activities, facilitating the acquisition of these skills by students in order to encourage a skilled workforce and innovation. In this context, HEIs also have a responsibility to allow students to use technology in an adaptable, flexible and innovative way, to adopt digitization strategies that promote DIGI skills (de Araújo Freire , 2021).

One of the most commonly expressed problems during the pandemic period was "students' dissatisfaction with online education" (Purcărea, 2021). A very rapid transition from traditional face-to-face teaching and learning to online during the Covid-19 pandemic has caused traditional education-training techniques and tools to be insufficient to meet the needs of the changing student profile. It is claimed that this dissatisfaction is experienced due to the following factors (Noreen and Reid , 2022):

- Inadequate technological infrastructure and DIGI capacity of HEIs,
- inadequacy of academic staff's access to and use of DIGI tools,
- inadequacy of students' access to and use of DIGI tools and equipment,
- DIGI materials and contents,
- poor quality of internet access.

As HEIs become DIGI, student participation and dependency become important, and students demand more from education. It is stated that as students' engagement increases, learning also increases, and HEIs should prepare and present DIGI, interactive and personalized content in order to attract students' attention (Microsoft, 2017). DT provides a transition from a 'teacher-centered' approach to a more interactive 'student-centered' teaching; thus, it is claimed that

it leads to major changes in learning models and pedagogy (Mabić et al., 2022). However **,** it creates new learning potentials and various challenges for HEIs due to the diversification of student profiles in terms of different demographic characteristics such as age, experience, culture, ethnicity, learning styles and speeds (Kaputa et al., 2022). As a matter of fact, online DIGI education continues the differences in education of disadvantaged groups in society (such as students from low-income families, female students, disabled students, students living in rural areas) (Noreen and Reid, 2022).

Adaptation of Academic and Administrative Staff to Digital Transformation

Prokofyev (2021) specifically emphasized the issues related to academic staff when talking about the following difficulties related to the implementation of the complex mission of HE institutions in the context of the digitalization process:

- academic staff on emerging researchers or professional practitioners,
- the fragmentation and hierarchicalization of the academic community,
- loss of creative and critical components from the learning process,
- HEIs into first and second grades and the tendency for this distinction to become "ossified".

The DT process has important implications such as the expansion of DIGI infrastructure, the development of academic staff's ability to use DIGI methods and students' DIGI skills, providing information leadership between academic staff and students, and making pedagogy and curriculum changes. includes difficulties (Kaputa et al., 2022). With the right technology choices, academic staff can engage students in and out of the classroom. On the other hand, employees such as non-teaching administrative staff can adapt to digitech to deliver exceptional student experiences (Microsoft, 2017). Academic staff need support when developing online teaching materials. According to the findings of the study of Noreen and Reid (2022), there are problems for academic staff and students in developing countries such as "access to reliable internet, education, trust in using digitech, previous experience, high quality technical support". This study showed that both groups found the use of online learning difficult in the country where it was applied.

Carayannis and Morawska-Jancelewicz (2022) listed the skills and management challenges that need to be addressed immediately as follows:

- DT,
- re- skilling and skill development,

- DIGI work experience,
- DIGI literacy and DIGI exclusion/inclusion,
- DIGI learning outcomes.

Another challenge is the generation gap between students who are considered natives of digitech and academic staff who have to adapt and learn to use technologies (Alenezi, 2021). Research shows that academic staff and students have difficulty adapting to new teaching methods because they are more familiar with face-to-face teaching and written materials. In this sense, along with the need for academic staff to develop new skills, problems related to attitudes are encountered. Although new technologies offer new possibilities, it is not easy for people to adapt to big changes very quickly. Academic staff and students need to be willing to develop quality online learning materials and work with new approaches (Aydın and Taşçı, 2005; Borotis and Poulymenakou, 2004; Noreen and Reid, 2022).

5.6. Data Dimension

Every interaction in the DIGI world produces data. These data are seen as the main pillar of DT and allow comparative evaluations to be made (Sharma, 2020). On the other hand, the analysis of large amounts of data becomes important. With the use of analytics, modern business challenges related to "data silos, data quality, complexities related to legacy systems/applications, and user expectations" can be overcome (Rehana, 2022) that can hinder successful data initiatives. As a matter of fact, it is emphasized that the future competitive advantage of HE will be determined by their ability to use internal and external information, and that it is important to update HE analytics and big data tools to obtain better information and transform it into "strong business decisions" that create value (de Araújo Freire , 2021).

The increase in the number of academic staff, students and interactions in HEIs requires the management of the huge amount of data that emerges. DT creates an ecosystem or smart campus by combining technology, services and security to bridge the DIGI divide and provide a collaborative , interactive and personalized learning experience (Mabić et al., 2022). In this context, DT causes some difficulties for corporate communication and information technology assets. If HEIs are not managed effectively, they may encounter data problems due to reasons such as "not being able to effectively evaluate the value of information, not being able to control it, and not being able to

trust the information." Business processes need to be designed and planned in accordance with the goals. New technologies should not be used just to support traditional business processes. Conceptual frameworks should be created to design information and communication technology applications in connection with systematic business processes, and the institution should be directed in accordance with targeted strategies (Tungpantong et al., 2021).

5.7. Leadership Dimension

Tungpantong et al. (2021) determined the DIGI leadership factors for the DT of HEIs as "vision, cooperation, leadership, management skills, adaptability , creativity / innovation, DIGI literacy". It operates for the purposes of "improving the learning environment, increasing operational efficiency, increasing technological capacity for research and promoting innovation in education" (Husain, 2022).

The literature highlights the need for an effective leadership style to cope with the constant changes faced by HEIs. Leadership styles are associated with increased performance in HE institutions. There are limited studies that address specific leadership styles in terms of the need for innovation in both research and management. In the articles analyzed in the study of Carvalho et al. (2022), the most studied leadership style was transformational leadership.

The lack of a clear institutional direction, leadership and strategic plan are expressed as institutional obstacles to the use of technology in HEIs. Strong leadership is necessary to overcome barriers to technology adoption and promote belief in effectiveness and commitment among collaborators in improving organizational performance (Carvalho et al., 2022). DT must be managed from above. In this context, it is necessary to communicate the vision well, interact with the institution on a large scale, select processes to realize the vision and strategy, determine key performance indicators to control the development of DT and make the relevant adjustments (de Araújo Freire , 2021).

Collaboration in DT can be evaluated in the context of intra- and inter-institutional relations. Agility and flexibility must be increased to meet rapidly changing needs. DT requires a new approach to how university leaders interact with each other (Thuy , 2021). One of the most important challenges in the DT process is to convey DIGI enthusiasm from the upper level to middle management and operational levels. HEIs need to create a mindset that embraces new technologies and be able to respond (Carayannis and Morawska-Jancelewicz , 2022).

The leadership role in HEIs includes electronic leadership roles of both administrators and academic staff. The capacity of these leaders to think strategically regarding the integration of technology for learning and teaching should be developed (Tungpantong et al., 2021). In another study, people who are referred to as information technology leaders are required to follow innovative practices and manage a complex and changing technology in a way that the HEI can quickly and efficiently adapt to strategic goals within all academic activities. Thus, by creating DIGI environments, preparation for education and flexible change can be achieved (Thuy, 2021).

5.8. Efficiency and Performance Dimension

Universities around the world are being challenged to improve their virtual administrative capacity, efficiency and accountability to meet the demands of various stakeholders. According to Hashim et al. (2021) there is a need to increase the efficiency and performance of activities in HEIs. HEIs operating in low and middle-income countries need to work efficiently, innovate and reduce their costs in order to achieve a better performance. DT can contribute to achieving these goals by saving time, effort and transportation in regions where academic staff and students have a wide geographical distribution (Husain, 2022).

According to a report by MIT Center for Digital Business and Capgemini Consulting (2011), some of the returns on DT investments are as follows (de Araújo Freire, 2021):

* Cost savings, improvements or other efficiencies (eg video conferencing technologies);
* Low-risk and low-cost experiments (eg mobile apps or mobile marketing);
* Strategic core investment, building infrastructure and capabilities for use elsewhere (eg shared DIGI division, collaboration tools, internal knowledge bases);
* Extremely fast and continuously declining performance, profit, etc. investments to respond.

Alenezi (2021) emphasized the difficulty arising from the narrow perspective on the return on investment of HEIs in the context of DT. It has been determined that HEIs often make mistakes in determining the business reason for investment and calculating the return on investment. Business scenarios for core DIGI skills should consider actions that are slow or difficult to quantify.

Examples include saving faculty time and costs through more efficient operations and automation, enrollment, ongoing and on-time graduations resulting from improved student experience. Quick choices often have to be made for HEIs to simplify their operations and better understand students. Therefore, meaningful data is needed to understand the trends and patterns that influence the decisions that will have the greatest impact on the organization as a whole. The most difficult tasks in this process are to evaluate the potentials offered by accessible digitech, rethink all business models and transform operations and practices along the value chain.

For example, in time of the Covid-19 pandemic, many HEIs have turned to creative solutions such as "laptop lending schemes and creating internet hotspots in parking lots" to quickly address the lack of technical resources among their students and staff (Laufer et al., 2021).

5.9. Culture Dimension

Exploring and integrating digitech It is one of the biggest challenges facing today's organizations and, in this sense, HEIs. DT is the integration of not only machines and information technology infrastructure but also people. This transformation requires the rediscovery of the organization's vision, strategy, structure, processes, capabilities and culture (Carayannis and Morawska-Jancelewicz, 2022)

For DT on the cultural side, the HEI must answer the following questions (Thuy, 2021):

- innovation strategic or not? Is it driven by the ambitions of the institution?
- leaders willing to adopt new strategic directions?
- are data and analytics relied upon in the organization of courses / curriculum?
- is there a transition from risk aversion to risk management?
- information technology investments and initiatives fully aligned with the organization's priorities?
- in the organization supported by accountability and data?
- does the institution have special investments and technology applications for DT projects?
- Is there a use of data and analytics to drive the DT process?

DIGI culture should be a culture that is understood and approved by the HEI, and newer working methods should be used. Thus, student-oriented

solutions and services can be offered in the ever-evolving world of technology, competition, behavior and needs (de Araújo Freire, 2021). The primary obstacle faced by HEIs in adapting to DT is adapting to new teaching methods, learning environments and models. Therefore, resistance to DT adoption can become a major hurdle. In this context, small pilot projects can be used to give a clear picture of potential change and to dispel uncertainty or faculty doubts about job security. It is imperative that employees be guided on the positive aspects of technology and reducing their insecurity (Alenezi, 2021).

6. Conclusion

HEIs that want to maintain their existence and gain competitive advantage against the globalization of education and digitalization need to be able to transform digitally and develop business models suitable for the DIGI age. The radical changes in the macro environment accelerate the restructuring of HEIs using digitalization and DT. There are topics that need to be addressed at macro and micro levels in the management of DT in HEIs. In the context of DT dimensions, challenges and problems discussed in this study, the following suggestions have been developed for HEIs and future studies:

● technological infrastructure and DIGI capacity should be measured and developed in the context of standards to be determined,

● DT offices and teams should be established,

● DT is correctly understood by senior management,

● DT should be handled within the framework of corporate strategic management, DT-specific strategies and a DT road map should be created,

● financial support should be received to establish the technological infrastructure,

● DT should not be allowed to remain under the hegemony of certain people or units in the institution,

● Within the scope of Industry 4.0, research and applications on the use of new and disruptive technologies in HE should be disseminated, and the data of these researches should be shared in DIGI environments,

● flexible, inclusive, accessible, and adaptable learning systems should be created that are compatible with digitech such as hybrid learning models,

● smart learning should be encouraged,

● HE stakeholders' needs should be taken into account,

● skills mismatch should be encouraged,

● disciplinary and interdisciplinary studies should be carried out on curriculum improvements compatible with DT,

● cooperation between universities should be increased in DT studies,

● the number and quality of DIGI materials and content should be increased,

● academic staff and students to access and use DIGI tools and DIGI literacy skills should be improved,

● academic staff and students should be supported psychologically in order to adapt to DIGI education,

● smart campus projects should be developed.

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USE OF AUGMENTED AND VIRTUAL REALITY IN THE PRESERVATION AND PROMOTION OF CULTURAL HERITAGE

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1. Introduction

The tourism industry, known for its dynamic nature and constant pursuit of innovation, has recently begun novel digital technologies to enhance the tourist experience. One such case is the robot hotel in Japan, which employs artificial intelligence and robotics. Additionally, there are virtual museums, applications utilising augmented reality (AR) and virtual reality (VR) for tourism, 360-degree videos, and QR codes, among others. New digital technologies are also used effectively in the protection and promotion of cultural heritage (Demirezen, 2019; Dilek, 2020). Numerous scientific investigations have been conducted over time to advance, protect, and transfer cultural heritage assets to subsequent cohorts. The advent of digital technologies, in conjunction with the advancement of mobile technologies and internet infrastructure, has facilitated the migration of cultural heritage assets into the virtual realm through the utilisation of virtual and mixed technologies. Virtual reality (VR) and augmented reality (AR) applications have emerged as powerful tools for enhancing visitor experiences and preserving cultural heritage. These technologies offer immersive and interactive experiences that captivate visitors

and facilitate the transfer of cultural artefacts and sites into the digital realm (Dilek and Dinçer, 2020; Demirezen, 2019; Dilek, 2020; Sürücü and Başer, 2016).

Upon close examination of the existing literature, it becomes evident that there is a dearth of research papers pertaining to the utilisation of augmented reality and virtual reality technologies for the protection and promotion of cultural heritage. It is thought that research is inadequate in addressing augmented reality and virtual reality issues in the context of cultural heritage. This research aims to reveal what kinds of practices exist in the world and Turkiye and to make suggestions for the future.

Given the nascent use of augmented reality (AR) and virtual reality (VR) in the field of tourism within Turkiye, along with the limited number of studies conducted in this domain, particularly pertaining to the protection and promotion of cultural heritage, it is considered imperative to highlight the significance of this research in its potential to enrich the existing body of literature. Considering the growth of AR and VR studies within our country, coupled with the significant attention they have garnered from society, it is believed that the findings of this study hold the potential to enrich the endeavours of individuals seeking to explore and use these technologies within the field of cultural heritage.

2. AR and VR in Cultural Heritage

Reality technology, specifically in the realm of cultural heritage and reality applications, which are the sub-components of this technology, are used in enhancing the presentation of cultural assets showcased in museums, in cultural heritage mobile and virtual museum applications, such as Civilizations AR, and in the reconstruction and restoration processes of cultural heritage assets that may have been lost or deteriorated due to natural disasters, wars, or other factors (Sürücü and Başer, 2016; Li, 2018; Dilek, 2020). Sürücü and Başer (2016), categorised virtual reality applications within the domain of cultural heritage into six distinct categories based on their intended objectives:

- Applications for virtual reconstruction,
- Applications aimed at providing on-site experience and guidance,
- Applications for scientific analysis purposes,
- Applications for virtual restoration purposes,
- Virtual museums,
- Educational games.

2.1. Virtual Reconstruction

Virtual reconstruction employs AR, VR, and MR technologies to analyse historical events such as natural disasters, wars, and unconscious use, and this method effectively safeguards and advances cultural heritage by recreating cultural assets that have been damaged or completely destroyed for various reasons, restoring them to their original state within a virtual environment (Sürücü and Başer, 2016).

2.2. Applications for Guidance Purposes

The utilisation of reality technology in the domain of cultural heritage for guidance purposes can be exemplified by the AcheoGuide and Ancient Pompeii applications. Both applications aim to recreate the historical period and its cultural heritage assets in a virtual environment through virtual reconstruction. Additionally, they cater to the users' guiding requirements by incorporating 3D graphics, visuals, audio, written information, and GPS guidance. The ArcheoGuide platform utilises augmented reality technology to provide visitors with a virtual reconstruction of the ancient city of Olympos while giving users the opportunity to observe athletes engaged in competitive events during the Olympic Games. The application provides users with guidance in the virtual environment through the utilisation of graphics, images, audio information, and GPS technology. The Ancient Pompeii application facilitates the transfer of historical knowledge pertaining to the pre-eruption period of Mount Vesuvius in the city of Pompeii, Italy, and it encompasses both the tangible cultural assets, such as physical structures and artefacts, as well as the intangible cultural heritage, including the stories and experiences of the individuals who resided in that era (Papagiannakis et al., 2005; Sürücü and Başer, 2016; Dilek and Dinçer, 2020).

2.3. Applications for Scientific Analysis Purposes

VR offers a conducive working environment for specialists in the field to authenticate and examine scientific hypotheses pertaining to cultural heritage, which enables the deduction of insights on the initial condition of deteriorated artefacts (Sürücü and Başer, 2016).

In general, the preservation and restoration of historical sites tend to place a primary emphasis on matters pertaining to visual aesthetics. Nevertheless, it is crucial to acknowledge that safeguarding cultural heritage necessitates the

preservation of auditory heritage as well (Karabiber, 2002). The CAHRISMA project (Revitalization and Determination of the Acoustics of Sinan Mosques and Preservation of the Acoustic Heritage) is a research initiative spanning three years that has received funding from the EU. The aim of this project is to analyse the acoustic properties of historical Byzantine churches and mosques constructed by Mimar Sinan (DTU orbit, 2000). Another project conducted concurrently with the CAHRISMA project during the period from 2000 to 2003 is ERATOR (Identification, Evaluation, and Revitalization of the Acoustic Heritage of Ancient Theatres and Odeons project). This project aims to examine the acoustic characteristics of historical theatres and odeons. In the CAHRISMA project, the morning prayer gathering between the religious authority and the mosque community at Sokullu Mosque was simulated using 3D technology, incorporating authentic sound recordings; this allowed for the subsequent acoustic study of the original locations. In another project, an antique theatre was simulated (Karabiber, 2002; Sürücü and Başer, 2016).

2.4. Virtual Restoration

In 1994, Professor Gianfranco Fiaccadori introduced the concept of virtual restoration as a methodology that integrates the approach and objective of virtually intervening in heritage that has suffered damage. In recent times, Sevilla has mostly concentrated on computer-based visualisation in the context of archaeological heritage. According to Sevilla's principles, virtual restoration is defined as the use of a virtual model to reorganise preexisting material in order to visually reconstruct something that existed in the past (Pietroni and Ferdani, 2021). Reality technologies are also used in the process of restoring cultural artefacts that have suffered through property loss and destruction. The colour processes used in sculptures, which hold significant cultural and historical value, have undergone transformations over time. Augmented reality technology was used for the virtual restoration of the proticos of St. Mary's Cathedral in Vitoria (Spain), which had changed colour over time (Peral, Sagasti and Sillaurren, 2005).

3. Use of AR and VR in the Field of Cultural Heritage in the World

The utilisation of augmented reality technology, which falls under the area of reality technologies, has attained widespread adoption due to advancements in mobile and portable device technology. The application of this technology

is widespread and predominantly observed in museum settings. Traditional museums have begun to use augmented reality (AR) technology in museums to draw in more visitors and reach a wider audience because they recognize the importance of this technology and the ease with which it can provide an interactive experience. Users who communicate interactively with cultural heritage assets exhibited in museums with mobile phones and portable devices experience an impressive user experience with animations, games, interactive information in different languages, and 3D images (Dilek and Dinçer, 2020). Numerous investigations pertaining to augmented and virtual reality have been conducted on cultural heritage assets across diverse nations globally. The various applications are categorised and presented under distinct subheadings.

3.1. Metropolitan Museum of Art

Country: United States of America
Technology: Augmented Reality

The Metropolitan Museum of Art, which had to close its doors to visitors during the COVID-19 outbreak, collaborated with the Verizon telecommunications company to create the Met Unframed site, which users can visit with AR technology. On the website that supports 5G technology, users can virtually visit about 50 works of art on display at the Metropolitan Museum of Art. (Metmuseum, 2021).

3.2. Louvre Museum of Art

Country: France
Technology: Virtual Reality

The museum, built in the Louvre Palace in Paris, is one of the largest art museums in the world. Mona Lisa, one of his world-famous paintings, is in the Louvre Museum in Paris. Due to the considerable interest in the painting, visitors were allocated a limited duration of 30 seconds for viewing. The artwork was digitally replicated and integrated into a virtual reality platform utilising virtual reality technology, enabling viewers to engage with the painting at their convenience (Museumnext b, 2021).

3.3. Beijing Palace Museum / Forbidden City

Country: China
Technology: Virtual Reality

The Beijing Palace Museum, commonly known as the Forbidden City, has implemented the use of virtual reality technology to enhance the visitor experience by incorporating it into all aspects of the museum. The museum offers users the opportunity to engage with archaeological artefacts through the use of virtual glasses. In collaboration with many technology companies, including IBM, visitors to the museum can interact with works of art belonging to the Dynasty while walking through certain areas of the Forbidden City, read important explanations and signs along the way with virtual titles, and watch the works of art lining the halls (Madhattertech.ca, 2023).

3.4. The Natural History Museum

Country: England
Technology: Virtual Reality – Augmented Reality
The Natural History Museum serves as a prominent scientific research institution on a global scale, while also holding the distinction of being the preeminent natural history museum in Europe in terms of visitor attendance. London's Natural History Museum, which was closed due to the COVID-19 pandemic, offered a unique virtual tour experience for its visitors. With AR and VR technologies, sections of the museum, such as Hintze Hall, Darwin Centre, and Earth Hall, can be visited virtually (Nhm.ac.uk., 2020).

3.5. National Museum of Natural History of France

Country: France
Technology: Augmented Reality
Endangered and extinct species are exhibited in L'évolution (Evolution Gallery) at the Grande Galerie of the French National Museum of Natural History in Paris. 3D holograms of animals and plants that no longer exist in the world today or are almost extinct can be viewed by users with Microsoft's HoloLens 2 smart glasses. Nearly 7,000 animals, from insects to giant turtles, have been modelled in 3D and can be viewed in real size (Visionfountain, 2022; Mnhn, 2022).

3.6. Cleveland Museum of Art

Country: United States of America
Technology: Augmented Reality
The Cleveland Museum of Art offers its visitors a museum experience enriched with augmented reality with the ArtLens application. The artworks that

were presented in the museum have been digitally transferred to the ArtLens programme. The museum has established a recreational area for its guests, providing them with the opportunity to engage in creating art. The designated gaming space, known as Studio Play, offers visitors the opportunity to engage in creating artwork while simultaneously interacting with the museum's art pieces owing to customised Kinect technology derived from Xbox (Smithsonianmag, 2022).

3.7. National Museum of Sinapore

Country: Singapore
Technology: Virtual Reality – Augmented Reality
The National Museum of Singapore launched the DigiMuse programme in 2017 to use rapidly developing digital technologies in museums. Firstly, a festival was organised where VR and 360-degree films and artworks of local and national artists were exhibited. The event was well-received by the public, and following two successful exhibitions, they expressed a desire to see more digital projects in the museum and provided support for these initiatives. With the DigiMuse project, visitors can watch the works exhibited in the museum with AR, VR, and MR tools and a virtual museum guide (Nhb.gov.sg, 2022).

3.8. Van Gogh Muesum

Country: Holland
Technology: Virutal Reality
The Van Gogh Museum creates a wonderfully immersive experience by animating 200 of Van Gogh's works on the floor and all walls around the visitors through a sound and light show lasting approximately 35 minutes, with a 360-degree digital presentation in an area of 1000 m2 by using 60 projectors. After the show, virtual reality headsets were used for 11 minutes, allowing visitors to virtually watch a day in Van Gogh's life (Exhibitionhub, 2022).

3.9. Victoria and Albert Museum

Country: England
Technology: Virtual Reality
The Victoria and Albert Museum in London held a major Virtual reality event at the museum. In collaboration with HTC Vive Arts and Preloaded Game Studio, the classic children's novel heroes of Alice in Wonderland were transported to the Virtual Reality environment and exhibited virtually in the

museum. Collaborating with HTC Vive Arts and Preloaded Game Studio, the museum used VR for an event for the first time (Museumnext a, 2022).

3.10. The National Museum of Finland

Country: Finland
Technology: Virtual Reality

The National Museum of Finland hosted an exhibition featuring the use of virtual reality technology, wherein visitors had the opportunity to visually observe a painting depicting the Russian Tsar Alexander II inaugurating the Parliament in 1863. The exhibition provided visitors with an exclusive perspective on the Finnish parliament, the legislative institution that was operational between the years 1809 and 1906. In the virtual reality experience, visitors have the opportunity to engage in conversations with the Emperor as well as representatives from other social strata. Additionally, they may choose to explore the Hall of Mirrors, which was once referred to as the Imperial Palace but has since been repurposed as the Presidential Palace. Zoan, the foremost virtual reality studio in Finland, is credited with the development of the aforementioned application (Vi-mm.eu, 2023).

3.11. Smithsonian National Museum of Natural History

Country: United States of America, Washington D.C.
Technology: Virtual Reality

The museum, established in the year 1910, is renowned as one of the most visited natural history museums globally, boasting an extensive collection of 126 million artefacts. The museum offers visitors the chance to engage in the simultaneous utilisation of 360-degree virtual tours and virtual reality applications via its website. The virtual tours offered by the Smithsonian National Museum of Natural History provide visitors the opportunity to explore certain exhibits and areas inside the museum comprehensively, utilising their desktop or mobile device. In addition, visitors are granted the privilege of accessing certain collections and study areas at research stations, along with the opportunity to see former exhibits that are no longer publicly showcased (Naturalhistory.si.edu, 2022).

3.12. British Museum

Country: England
Technology: Virtual Reality – Augmented Reality

The collection housed by the British Museum encompasses a vast expanse of human history and culture, spanning over a period of more than two million

years. The collection receives an annual visitation of about 6 million individuals, encompassing renowned artefacts like as the Rosetta Stone, Parthenon statues, and Egyptian mummies. The British Museum, in collaboration with the Samsung Digital Discovery Centre since 2009, curated the first virtual reality show on August 8–9, 2015. The exhibition aimed to provide visitors with an immersive Bronze Age experience. The virtual reality exhibition garnered significant attention from the youth demographic, with a total of 60,000 young individuals attending the event (Theguardian, 2015).

The British Museum has planned to offer visitors a tablet-based gaming app with augmented reality to help tell the story of some of its most important exhibitions. The programme, which will run on a range of devices belonging to the museum, is intended for use by children aged 7–14 who visit the museum on school trips. With the augmented reality museum application, 30- to 45-minute guided tours will be organised, covering the three most popular galleries of the museum (Parthenon, Roman Empire, and Sutton Hoo archaeological site). The Augmented Reality application not only tells the story of these three popular galleries but also includes mini-games and tasks included in the story. The museum would like to take the opportunity to develop a new programme that will include augmented reality functionality for the first time to help provide an immersive visiting experience for students and teachers. Three separate tours are being considered for 2023, with technology providers being asked to ensure "activities are diversified to be interesting for students" and that the app remains relevant and useful until at least 2024 and ideally until 2027 (Publictechnology, 2022).

3.13. Street Art Museum

Country: Holland
Technology: Virtual Reality

It was founded in 2012 in the Nieuw-West district, where immigrants mostly live in social housing in the capital of the Netherlands, with the idea that a street art museum could change the perception of the neighbourhood and revitalise the local economy. In ten years, approximately 300 works were created by the world's most famous street artists, such as Pez, Bastardilla, Stinkfish, Btoy, Kenor, and Alaniz, but 75 of these works have survived to the present day because they were exhibited on the street. Wanting the works to be permanent, the museum started photographing these works as a way to preserve and archive them, and in 2014, it became one of the first museums to register

with the Google Culture Institute's online platform. The museum noticed virtual reality applications in 2016 and started using them in 2019 (Jingculturecrypto, 2022).

3.14. National Gallery

Country: England
Technology: Virtual Reality – Augmented Reality
The National Gallery, located in London, allows users to track visits to six galleries on its website using VR and AR technology. Galleries can be visited via virtual reality headsets, mobile phones, and computers (Nationalgallery, 2023).

3.15. Art Gallery of Ontario

Country: Canada
Technology: Augmented Reality
Toronto-based digital artist Alex Mayhew created the ReBlink app with his teammates to provide an augmented reality experience that gives visitors the chance to see works from the Art Gallery of Ontario's Canadian and European collections in a whole new way. The application was made to see how visitors would see the paintings today if the paintings in the art gallery were made in the 21st century. With the ReBlink application downloaded to your tablet or mobile phone from the App Store and Android market, the tables come to life, and today's technologies are included in the table (Ago, 2023).

3.16. Pérez Art Museum

Country: United States of America
Technology: Augmented Reality
The Pérez Art Museum (PAMM) has been a pioneer in the movement to bring AR to museums and in December 2017, in partnership with the technology company Cuseum, they launched the first art exhibition using Apple's ARKit. Invasive Species exhibition was the first exhibition to use ARKit (Vi-mm, 2018).

3.17. Städel Museum

Country: Germany
Technology: Virtual Reality
The Städel Museum, in collaboration with Samsung, has developed an application that allows a virtual journey to 1878 within the museum. The Städel Time Machine app is a virtual reality application that provides insight into

what the art museum's architecture and collections were like in 1878 (Zeitreise. staedelmuseum.de, 2023).

3.18. Museo dell'Ara Pacis

Country: Italy
Technology: Virtual Reality – Augmented Reality
Ara Pacis Museum, Italy, offers its visitors the opportunity to experience the Imperial period as a Roman citizen participating in a ritual during the Roman Empire with augmented reality and virtual reality applications. For visitors who participate in the virtual reality tour in groups of 15-20 people, the tour lasts approximately one hour. The virtual reality tour is well-liked by visitors and draws more attention from young people, according to the museum's customer survey. The museum, which successfully combines visitors' experiences with storytelling techniques, offers unforgettable experiences to the audience (Linkedin, 2020). It is a mixed-reality project installed in the historic Ara Pacis Museum in Rome. The project is about one of the most important masterpieces of Roman art, 13 BC. It was developed to increase the visitor's experiential value of the Ara Pacis Monument, built between the 9th and 9th centuries. Its aim is to combine education, entertainment, and heritage appreciation into innovative museum experiences (Trunfio ve Magnelli, 2020).

3.19. Egyptian Museum

Country: Egypt
Technology: Augmented Reality and Hologram
Mixed reality, one of the holographic reality technologies, is used in museums to increase the number of users and to protect and promote cultural heritage. An interactive reality system called Museum Eye was established in the Egyptian Museum in Cairo, allowing users to experience the cultural assets in the museum with Microsoft Hololens, and it was stated that the time spent by visitors interacting with holographic visuals increased four times compared to the time spent by visitors before without the use of technological tools (Hammady and Ma, 2021).

3.20. Cité De L'architecture Et Du Patrimoine Museum

Country: France
Technology: Virutal Reality
The research initiative known as ScanPyramids, initiated in 2015 within the Pyramid of Cheops in Egypt, employed several techniques such as infrared

and thermal imaging, x-ray muography, and 3D modelling software to digitally capture and analyse the internal and external conditions of the pyramid. The analysis revealed the discovery of previously unidentified pyramid portions situated in the central region of the pyramid, which were often inaccessible. In 2017, the Cité de L'architecture et du Patrimoine museum in Paris offered guests the unique opportunity to explore the inaccessible areas of the Kheops Pyramid, which were previously inaccessible, through a 45-minute virtual reality experience facilitated by the ScanParaymd VR programme (Citedelarchitecture, 2022).

4. Use of AR and VR in the Field of Cultural Heritage in Turkiye

The present study identifies and assesses museums in Turkiye that have implemented AR and VR applications. The utilisation of AR and VR applications in museums has commenced, albeit to a restricted extent. The following section provides details regarding museums in our country that use AR and VR applications.

4.1. Museum of Anatolian Civilization

The Ankara Museum of Anatolian Civilization offers a virtual visitation experience through the official website, virtualmuze.gov.tr. Utilising an augmented reality application, visitors are able to explore the museum's exhibits remotely. The Anatolian Civilizations Application allows users to access written and audio content pertaining to the artefacts featured on the platform (Sertalp, 2017; Youtube g, 2014).

4.2. Eti Archaeologıcal Museums

The Eskişehir Archaeology Museum, founded in 1945, serves as the repository for the cultural artefacts of Eskişehir, which were previously housed in the Eskişehir Alaeddin Mosque. Notably, it holds the distinction of being the first privately established museum in our country, made possible with the generous contribution of the Eti Group of Companies (Kültürportalı c, 2022). The Eskişehir Eti Archaeological Museums are equipped with advanced technological features, including a Projection Screen, Geographic Timeline, Etkivision, Chariot Simulator, Digital Book (Interactive Table), Virtual King Tomb Tour (3D Ancient City Modelling), Layered Hologram, Coin Examination Mechanism, and Artefact Examination System (Hallaç and Akbaş, 2017).

4.3. Museum of Troya

In 2018, the Ministry of Culture and Tourism named it the Year of Troy, commemorating the 20th anniversary of the Ancient City of Troy's inclusion in the World Cultural Heritage List in 1998. Additionally, the Çanakkale Museum of Troy was inaugurated this year (Kültürportalı b, 2023). The Museum of Troy is renowned for its extensive incorporation of interactive technology throughout its exhibits. The museum offers a multitude of interactive opportunities to depict the lifestyles of individuals in ancient times; this is achieved through many interactive mediums, including paintings, pictures, sketches, interactive screens, and films, all of which contribute to the narrative framework of the exhibition. (Atay and Yüksel, 2020). Game technologies used to transfer and learn cultural heritage to future generations were also used in the museum; "Maritime Trade Game" and "Restore Game" are two of them. The holographic technique, a key element of augmented reality technology, is used inside the museum setting to virtually animate various themes, including marble beds found in burial chambers and depictions of daily life in Troy; this immersive experience allows visitors to engage with these historical artefacts and gain a deeper understanding of their original context (Diker, 2019).

4.4. Hatay Archeology Museum

The Hatay Archaeology Museum holds significant prominence as a globally renowned institution dedicated to the preservation and exhibition of mosaics. Mosaic artefacts dating back to the Roman period, which were discovered during excavations conducted between 1932 and 1939, are currently displayed across an expansive exhibition space spanning roughly 3,000 square metres (Kültürportalı d, 203). The Hatay Archaeology Museum is recognised as one of the pioneering institutions in Turkiye that has effectively used digital technologies into its operations. The museum included digital puzzles comprising mosaics, 3D animations, and holograms that facilitated visitor interaction (Akkuş and Akkuş, 2017).

4.5. Göbeklitepe Archaeologıcal Sıte

The discovery of Göbeklitepe by German archaeologist Klaus Schmidt in 1994 had a profound impact on human history, occurring 25 years thereafter. The historical significance of Göbeklitepe lies in its archaeological remains, which provide evidence of hunter-gatherer cultures that inhabited the area approximately

11,000 years ago. This makes Göbeklitepe approximately 6,000 years older than Stonehenge and 5,500 years older than the Egyptian Pyramids. A virtual reality documentary with a duration of 10 minutes was produced to explore the region of Göbeklitepe, utilising the works of Klaus Schmidt, Andrew Collins, and Karl Luckert as reference materials. The documentary presents the landscape in a three-dimensional format. Utilising virtual reality technology, individuals are able to embark on virtual tours throughout the temple, unrestricted by temporal constraints (Sonaristanbul, 2023).

4.6. The Roman Bath

The Roman Bath, situated in the vicinity of Ankara Ulus Square and Yıldırım Beyazıt Square, was constructed during the 3rd century under the patronage of Emperor Caracalla. In recent years, a stationary augmented reality platform has been developed and implemented within the Ankara Roman Baths. The ARtur stand, which can be operated by touch, enables visitors to engage with the Roman Baths by selecting from a variety of language options to enhance their learning experience (Sertalp, 2018).

4.7. Zeugma Mosaics Muesum

The museum housing the mosaics discovered from the Ancient City of Zeguma is renowned for its extensive collection and expansive physical dimensions, making it one of the most prominent mosaic museums globally. In addition to the display of mosaics, the exhibition also includes historical artefacts dating back to the Roman period. The museum houses several noteworthy mosaics, including the Gipsy Girl, Oceanus and Tethys Mosaic, Akratos and Euphrosine Mosaic, Achilles Mosaic, and Europhe's Kidnapping Mosaic (Kültürportalı e, 2023). It is possible to visit the museum virtually through http://sanalmuze.gov.tr. Gaziantep Metropolitan Municipality, which started working to move the historical artefacts from the Zeugma Ancient City to the Metaverse Virtual Universe, added the Zeugma House of Dionysus to the Metaverse (Anadolu Agency a, 2022).

4.8. Topkapı Palace Museum

The Topkapi Palace, which was constructed under the patronage of Mehmet the Conqueror in 1478, served as the primary administrative hub for the Ottoman Empire for a span of 380 years. The Topkapı Palace has historically held significance primarily because of the presence of the Sacred

Relics Department. However, as the Yıldız and Dolmabahçe Palaces came into use, the aforementioned department gradually relocated, resulting in a decrease in the palace's importance over time. The 3dmekanlar.com website obtained authorization from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism to provide a comprehensive 360-degree 3D virtual tour of Topkapi Palace. This endeavour involved capturing footage of the palace from 2006 to 2009 (3dmekanlar, 2023). The many sections of the palace can be observed using operating systems such as Windows, Android, and iOS. Numerous digital platforms, such as the 360tr.com Panoramic Turkiye images, fotovizyon360.com websites, and the Department of National Palaces' 360 virtual reality YouTube movie, give users the chance to explore the Topkap Palace Museum using virtual reality headsets. (360tr, 2023; fotometrik360, 2023; Youtube h, 2021). The miniatures depicting the feasts, desserts, and products supplied to the palace kitchen have been digitally animated using augmented reality technology by Arox.net Information Systems (Arox a, 2023).

4.9. Museum Of Seljuk Civilisation

Darüşşifa, which was constructed in 1206 under the patronage of Gevher Nesibe Sultan, the sister of Gıyaseddin Keyhüsrev, a prominent statesman of the Anatolian Seljuk Empire, stands as one of the earliest establishments dedicated to medical education globally. For the first time in the world, a medical school and a hospital were co-located within the same facility, marking a significant milestone in the field (Dündar, Emekli and Şener, 2019). Gevher Nesibe Medical Madrasa and Hospital was converted into a Seljuk Civilization Museum by Kayseri Metropolitan Municipality in 2014. In the museum, which contains ethnographic artifacts from the Seljuk civilization and treatment methods from the Seljuk period, holograms and augmented reality technology were used so that visitors can experience these treatment methods interactively (Selcuklumüzesi, 2014).

4.10. History Comes to Life in 3D Project

With the "History Comes to Life in 3D" project, the 3D modelling of the Ancient City of Bergama, which is a UNESCO World Cultural Heritage site, was transferred to the digital environment in cooperation with Bergama Municipality, Yaşar University and Bilkom, and the ancient city was made available to visitors with augmented reality technology. (Yasar.edu.tr, 2013; tr24, 2013).

4.11. Sakıp Sabancı Museum

Arox.net Information Systems has successfully digitised the entire collection of works in the museum, offering comprehensive information on each piece along with interactive animations. This technological advancement enables visitors to engage with the works through Augmented Reality, facilitating tactile interaction and seamless navigation through the pages of artworks that are otherwise inaccessible to physical touch. The museum also offers a touch game that enables visitors to interact with miniatures within the ancient sites of Istanbul. The Sakıp Sabancı Museum in Turkiye achieved a significant milestone by digitising its entire collection and presenting it to visitors through the utilisation of augmented reality technology (Arox b, 2023).

4.12. Pera Museum

Pera Museum has created the "Augmented Reality and Visual Search" application with the augmented reality company Blippar for world prank day. In practice, a total of four paintings from the museum's collection were employed. The programme provides visitors with access to information regarding the painting, enabling them to immerse themselves within the artwork and capture self-portraits (Anadolu Ajansı b, 2016). The Pera Museum website offers visitors the opportunity to access a selection of artworks housed within the museum on an online platform, utilising a three-dimensional (3D) viewing experience. Online exhibitions that can be accessed include Anatolian Weights and Measures, Coffee Break, Intersecting Worlds, Miniature 2.0, Construction of a Dream, Crystal Clearness, Etel Adnan: The Impossible Homecoming, and Osman Hamdi Bey exhibitions (Peramüzesi, 2021). The Pera Museum website, which supports Virtual Reality, can be visited under the title Meta Quest 2 Virtual Reality.

4.13. Türkiye İş Bank Museum

The Türkiye İş Bankası Museum was inaugurated in 2007, allowing for public access. The museum, which was opened with the aim of transferring the values that reflect the social and economic life since the first years of the Republic to future generations, exhibits banking equipment such as documents, photographs, calculators, and money boxes used since 1924 (isbank a, 2023). Virtual galleries can be visited in 3D on İşbank's website http://issanat.com. İş Sanat, the entity entrusted with overseeing the art and museum initiatives

of the bank, inaugurated its inaugural exhibition in a virtual setting within the metaverse. The exhibition incorporated augmented reality technology to merge digitally exhibited artworks with the physical environment (Anadolu Ajansı c, 2022; İsbank b, 2022).

4.14. Besiktas JK Stadium Tour & Museum

The museum belonging to Beşiktaş Gymnastics Club was opened in Vodafone Park in 2017. The museum showcases the 115-year history of the Beşiktaş sports club, offering interactive experiences through the use of digital technologies such as augmented reality (AR), virtual reality (VR), and 3D video photography. Visitors have the opportunity to explore the achievements of the sports club's renowned players and their championship victories (thebrandage, 2023).

4.15. Üsküdar Hanım Sultanlar Museum

The Üsküdar Hanım Sultanlar Museum, established in 2019 under the auspices of the Üsküdar Municipality, showcases a collection of dolls representing the wives, mothers, and daughters of the Ottoman Sultans; these dolls are shown in their authentic period attire, providing a glimpse into the lives of these influential women (Üsküdar Hanım Sultanlar Müzesi, 2023). The museum offers an AR application that integrates virtual and real elements, allowing visitors to capture photographs of the Ottoman Lady Sultans while donning historically accurate attire (Uluğ, 2020). The website, accessible at http://uskudarhanimsultanlarmuzesi.com, offers an online 3D experience of the site; additionally, it is possible to access the same content using the Meta Quest 2 Virtual Reality platform.

5. Conclusion and Evaluation

This study investigates the utilisation of augmented and virtual reality applications in the domain of cultural heritage, both globally and within Turkiye. The objective is to provide recommendations for future advancements. The findings indicate a notable advancement in augmented and virtual reality initiatives for the preservation and promotion of cultural heritage assets in recent years. These applications are anticipated to serve as a viable alternative, particularly during periods of pandemics or travel restrictions. Moreover, it is observed that Turkiye has witnessed a parallel growth in the development

and implementation of such applications, aligning with global trends. Several assessments and suggestions were conducted regarding this subject in an effort to contribute to the existing literature.aaA

The sustainability of cultural heritage is believed to be enhanced by the transfer of cultural heritage assets to digital platforms, such as virtual reality (VR), augmented reality (AR), and virtual museums. This process involves capturing and integrating these assets into the economic domain, thereby fostering a beneficial impact on the sustainability of cultural heritage assets.

It is thought that the utilisation of virtual reality apps, which provide tourists with an engaging and distinct encounter, will play a role in the advancement and safeguarding of cultural heritage assets. It is thought that there is an increasing interest and awareness among visitors, particularly young individuals, towards cultural heritage assets. This heightened interest and awareness are expected to contribute to the preservation of cultural heritage assets.

Virtual reality applications have the potential to enhance accessibility to cultural heritage items. During the period of the pandemic, where individuals were subjected to restrictions on outdoor mobility, travel was regulated, and life was endangered, there was a notable surge in global and domestic interest in virtual reality technologies. The utilisation of virtual reality applications, including VR, AR, 360-degree virtual tours, and virtual museums, has been noted to enhance accessibility to cultural heritage assets for individuals facing challenges in accessing such assets due to factors such as visitor restrictions, hazardous circumstances, and economic constraints.

Virtual reality technology offers convenient access to information. VR and AR technologies have effectively overcome constraints related to time and space boundaries for their users. The decoupling of time and space has unveiled the ability for individuals under management to effortlessly get information pertaining to cultural heritage assets across various temporal and spatial contexts. This unrestricted access enables them to explore the characteristics of these assets from any location worldwide.

The utilisation of virtual reality applications featuring technologically advanced material has been found to have a positive impact on the overall visitor experience. It has been shown that the contemporary generation, which incorporates technology as an integral aspect of their everyday routines, has exhibited heightened enthusiasm towards cultural heritage assets due to their exposure to various apps. Consequently, there is a growing desire among the new generation for virtual reality applications.

The determination of the status of cultural property assets and the identification of current threats and priorities for protection are essential components of the process of preparing a cultural heritage inventory. The preservation of ancient cities, mediaeval mosques, caravanserais, and other cultural sites is currently under threat. To safeguard and enhance cultural heritage assets, such as the cultural heritage inventory, it is imperative to undertake the digitalization process. This involves the creation of 3D models that accurately represent the original form of these assets, achieved through meticulous efforts in restitution and survey projects. This project aims to implement measures for the digital protection of cultural heritage assets, safeguarding them from potential risks posed by both natural and man-made disasters and acts of destruction.

Managers who hold decision-making authority regarding virtual reality and its various types should receive a diverse range of training. These trainings should encompass an understanding of the extent to which virtual reality is utilised in countries that employ these technologies, as well as the socio-economic advantages associated with their application in safeguarding and advancing tourism and cultural heritage. It is widely believed that these training programmes will play a significant role in expediting the implementation of these technologies within public institutions and local governments.

Information

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READING PRO-ORGANIZATIONAL APPROACHES THROUGH BEHAVIORAL ECONOMICS ASSUMPTIONS*

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1. Introduction

In the field of social sciences, human behavior and the basic motives underlying behavior are a subject that is studied in different disciplines. It is generally accepted as a general principle that human behavior is utility-based and driven by needs. However, in the studies on pro-organizational approaches, which have become widespread in the organizational behavior literature in recent years, it is seen that employee behaviors are tried to be explained with behaviors guided by voluntary and altruistic tendencies, not on a cost-reward, effort-benefit dichotomy and rational basis. These approaches, which are tried to be expressed as if they are for the benefit of the employees, but in fact consist entirely of wishes in favor of the organization, occupy a large place in the organizational behavior literature. The theoretical assumptions regarding these approaches, which explain human behaviors in a way that is detached from the real world and real relationships, and which constantly call on employees to make sacrifices in favor of the organization, do not reflect the working relationships in the real world.

People join organizations not out of commitment or dedication, but out of a desire to gain material and psychological benefits, to be empowered, to build relationships and to develop. Employees join an organization for tangible and intangible reasons such as financial rewards, career development opportunities,

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* This study is derived from the author's doctoral dissertation.

suitable working environment, attractiveness of the job, organizational support and protection of one's dignity in the organizational environment rather than showing commitment or establishing a psychological contract with the organization. Otherwise, organizational commitment with exaggerated concepts such as dedication or commitment is not a sustainable situation. The lack of the motivational factors mentioned here can lead to psychological contract violation, weakening the feelings of organizational commitment and leaving its place to the intention to leave the job. The fact that employees determine organizational attitudes by considering the cost-benefit relationship in the workplace is generally ignored in pro-organizational approaches. As Cappelli (2000: 14) states, when an employee increases his/her organizational benefit, he/she will not hesitate to look for a place where he/she can be rewarded. According to Blau's (1964: 598) social exchange theory, which first comes to mind when it comes to reciprocity, people behave according to whatever they exchange with others, and as long as the parties fulfill their obligations in a fair and mutually beneficial manner, this relationship works; otherwise, no relationship works only on the basis of the self-sacrifice of one of the parties.

When the organizational behavior literature is examined, for example, job satisfaction has an important place in employees' decisions to quit or continue working, job satisfaction, motivation, performance and success, in short, organizational attitudes and behaviors (Freeman, 1978: 135). In the researches on motivation and job satisfaction, the high job satisfaction of the employee and therefore his/her commitment to the organization and his/her job is explained by the satisfaction of his/her economic and psychological needs, while in the pro-organization approaches, employees' behaviors in the organization are tried to be explained on the basis of voluntarism and altruism, which makes the scientific basis of the pro-organization approaches open to question. Experimental psychology considers it as a physical law of psychology that human beings are need-driven beings (Gigerenzer, 2008). Moreover, this is true for all living beings and organisms. Therefore, within the framework of the aforementioned problems, it is important to analyze human behavior in organizations through the assumptions of the discipline of behavioral economics, which is a sub-branch of economics, which is based on how to meet unlimited human needs with limited resources, and examines the human decision process.

The main purpose of this study is to analyze the so-called "pro-organization approaches", which are frequently encountered in the organizational behavior literature in recent years and whose factual and scientific basis needs to be

questioned, through the basic assumptions of behavioral economics. In this way, the basic motivation behind human behavior in organizations, which is considered to be emotional and altruistic in pro-organization approaches, is questioned through alternative theories.

2. Conceptual Framework

2.1. Pro-organizational Approaches

Pro-organizational attitudes are the beyond-the-task/beyond-the-role behaviors that employees show in order to benefit the organization, even though they are not included in their job descriptions. In parallel with the externalization of production with neoliberalization and other developments, pro-organizational approaches are actually concepts used to increase the commitment of employees to the organization in order to prevent the increasing need for competent workforce, the tendency of the competent workforce to earn more and thus the decrease in the sense of belonging.

When the fashionable approaches in the discipline of organizational behavior in recent years are closely examined, it is seen that these are concepts that have been put forward to benefit from the power of the heart in addition to the muscular and mental power of people. The main purpose of these approaches is to utilize all kinds of physical, mental and emotional abilities of human beings, who are biological, psychological and sociological beings, to participate in production. Approaches towards the expectations of extra-role behaviors that employees show in order to benefit the organization, although they are not included in their job descriptions and there is no such instruction from their managers, are expressed as pro-organizational approaches. In this context, there are three elements for a behavior shown in the organizational structure to be included in the scope of pro-organizational approaches. The first one is "being for the benefit of the organization", the second one is "not being included in the job description" and the third one is "not being instructed by the managers".

The common points of the discourses on pro-organizational approaches are as follows (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986: 710- 725; Organ and Ryan, 1995: 775-802; Podsakoff et al., 2000: 513-563):

• Behaviors within the scope of organizational activities that ensure the effective execution of the functional structure of the organization.

• These are the behaviors that are not included in job descriptions, outside of formal roles, cannot be clearly limited, do not require any sanctions in return

when they are not fulfilled, and where employees reveal more than what is expected of them.

- Voluntary behaviors exhibited without being bound to a formal role.

In light of the above definitions, this study examines organizational commitment, organizational citizenship and psychological contract behaviors as the main pro-organization approaches.

Organizational commitment is defined as the situation in which employees do not see a difference between the interests of the organization and their personal interests. Organizational commitment, which is explained as making sacrifices in favor of the organization, being willing to work for the benefit of the organization, and entering into an identity union with the organization, is related to the emotional bond that the employee establishes with the organization (Tutar, 2016:223).

Organizational citizenship behaviors are voluntary and self-sacrificing individual behaviors that are not directly or explicitly defined among the official duties of the employee and that individually promote the functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988:43). Konovsky and Pugh (1994: 656) define organizational citizenship behavior as behaviors that employees voluntarily show outside and above their job descriptions, unrelated to the formal reward mechanism of the organization. As can be understood from this definition, organizational citizenship behavior is voluntary for the benefit of the organization. Organizational citizenship has dimensions such as altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy and sportsmanship. Although it is claimed that organizational citizenship behavior, which is not included in job descriptions, which is outside of formal roles, which cannot be limited by a clear framework and in which employees perform more than what is expected of them, is voluntary, it is thought that in this process, the individual actually constructs his/her own slavery without even being aware of it and is imposed to internally comply with this fiction through organizational citizenship discourse by constantly working on himself/herself. From this perspective, it is revealed that the norms that enable the organization to put pressure on the individual are legitimized under the name of organizational citizenship behavior (Caymaz & Doğan, 2016:5).

Psychological contract refers to the unwritten loyalty debts that the employee and the organization have to fulfill towards each other. Psychological contract refers to the employee's identification with organizational goals and

desire to maintain organizational membership, positive thoughts towards the organization and acting in line with organizational benefit (Coyle-Shapiro & Parzefall, M., 2008:3). In psychological contract, there is a wholehearted adoption of organizational goals and interests. Psychological contract is considered in two dimensions: transactional and relational. Transactional contract refers to fulfillment of job requirements and contractual obligations. These include physical, cognitive and emotional labor required to achieve organizational goals and objectives. Relational contract is the emotional closeness that the employee establishes towards the organization. Social and emotional elements such as support and commitment are within the scope of the relational contract. Here, the individual has established a unity of purpose and goal with the organization and voluntarily makes an extra-duty effort for the benefit of the organization (Robbins, 2012:282). Ignoring the fact that employees and organizations expect some mutual benefits from each other is insufficient to explain human behavior. The concept of psychological contract treats the relationship between the employee and the organization not as a relationship based on mutual benefit, but as a relationship based on the emotional bond between the employee and the organization. Whether such a romantic approach to the bond between the employee and the organization has a real-world counterpart is analyzed through behavioral economics. It is seen that pro-organizational approaches are based on assumptions such as that people prioritize organizational benefit over their own benefit, and that people are kind, loyal and sportsmanlike organizational citizens towards the organization under all circumstances. In this study, these approaches have been subjected to an alternative reading through behavioral economics.

2.2. Main Assumptions of Behavioral Economics

The assumption that economic and other behaviors of human beings are formed through the same mental processes pushes economists to study human behavior by making use of the science of psychology. It is debated whether the assumptions and theories used in economics are appropriate and realistic to explain all human behavior and whether human behavior is the result of mental processes. The approaches developed to properly analyze human behavior are based on certain assumptions about human nature and decision-making. However, the common point agreed upon in all cases is that there is a justification for all human attitudes and behaviors and that this justification can only be explained by a benefit (Demir, 2013).

According to classical economics, human economic decisions are rational in all cases and are shaped by rational expectations. But is the situation really that simple? The rationality of human beings and their behavior has been radically questioned in recent years by "behavioral economics", which has developed new perspectives on these issues. The question of whether human behavior and the reasons behind it are rational, intuitive or emotional, or a mixture of all of these, has gained importance in this context. While classical economic theories proceed from the assumption that human beings are rational beings (homoeconomicus) in all situations, behavioral economics proceeds from the assumption that human rationality is only a limited rationality, even intuitive and emotional (Altman, 2016). Therefore, "behavioral economics" argues that psychological and intuitive aspects have a significant impact on individuals' decisions. The debate on what is the fundamental motive behind human behavior continues within the framework of "rationality", "bounded rationality", " heuristics" and "emotionality".

For example, according to the "framing effect", one of the basic assumptions of behavioral economics, a slight change in the way options are presented can cause people to deviate from rationality, and this is a systematic cognitive fallacy. If people are asked to retire after working for a few more years rather than when they deserve to retire, late retirement can lead to higher salaries. This option can be presented to people in two ways: "You will gain 200 liras a month if you retire later rather than now" or "You will lose 200 liras a month if you retire now rather than later". Since the information given means the same thing, rational individuals are expected to make the same choice no matter how the information is presented. However, it has been observed that when the option is presented in the first way, people retire early by saying "it is okay even if there is no gain of 200 liras", and when it is presented in the second way, they postpone their retirement by saying "no loss". Here, both "loss aversion" and "framing effect", which are the basic assumptions of behavioral economics, are observed. Daniel Kahneman and Amos Tversky made significant contributions to the development of behavioral economics with such psychology experiments (Gürkaynak, 2017). Daniel Kahneman was awarded the Nobel Prize in economics in 2002, despite being a psychologist, for his contributions to the field of economics showing that people are not rational in all situations, and for his studies that improved the scope of economics. Richard Thaler, on the other hand, was awarded the Nobel Prize in 2017 for his contributions to the economics literature with the same approach. In his research, Thaler starts from the assumption that people are boundedly rational, examines the motivation behind their behavior and applies human behavior to the field of economic policy. Thaler analyzes his research

within the framework of the concept of "good decision" of people through changes in the behavioral framework, which he calls "nudging". According to him, "good decision" is relative, but in this context, it is carried into economic terminology as the decision that increases welfare-benefit. Thaler's book "Nudge" is also an enlightening source for people who are not economics experts. The most well-known example of these behavioral nudges in Turkey is the compulsory inclusion of new hires in the private pension system and their ability to opt out at any time. This is essentially the same as rationally opting out of the system and opting in at will; however, people tend not to change the option given to them as the default option (being included in the private pension system). Thaler calls this the "framing effect" (Thaler and Sunstein 2019: 55). Behavioral economics tries to explain the mental tendencies that affect human decision-making, such as the framing effect. Studies in behavioral economics focus on bounded rationality, decision-making mechanisms and preferences.

2.2.1. Bounded Rationality

Bounded rationality is a concept introduced to explain human behavior more realistically in the face of the shortcomings of classical economics' assumption of human rationality. When making choices, people may not always choose the option that provides the highest utility and may make erroneous choices. This is due to many factors such as incomplete information about all options, calculation ability, limited knowledge and experience. The concept of "bounded rationality" was introduced by Herbert Simon in his studies on the decision-making processes of individuals. Simon stated that with this concept, more realistic analyses can be made regarding people's decision-making processes. According to the assumption of bounded rationality, since individuals do not have a perfect memory, perfect calculation ability and unlimited time to have information about all options, they cannot be expected to act rationally and make the most beneficial choice at all times (Simon, 1955:101). Bounded rationality is the understanding that individuals cannot find the optimal solution due to both their cognitive capacities and environmental limits. Simon's limited rationality approach does not reject maximizing utility and minimizing cost; it simply does not find the optimum at all times and in all situations or the extreme approaches of maximization-minimization realistic in explaining human behavior (Corr and Plagnol, 2019: 82). Giving importance to factors such as incomplete information, limited capabilities, complexity, transaction cost, which express the limits of rationality, Simon argues that it would be more realistic to adopt the satisficing principle instead of the optimization-maximization theory.

2.2.2. Prospect Theory

Instead of the "rational choice theory" of mainstream economics, "prospect theory" has been put forward as an alternative theory in behavioral economics. According to this theory, a rational individual makes decisions under uncertainty based on expectations. It is assumed that the individual is risk averse and takes the final output level as a reference when making decisions. Accordingly, individuals may act intuitively and emotionally when making decisions under uncertainty (Ruben and Dumludağ, 2015:44). The individual, who cannot act with full rationality, tends to avoid losses by attributing more meaning to losses in cases of losses and gains at the same rates. Prospect theory states that in the decision-making process, individuals consider the meanings they attach to potential losses and gains rather than the outcomes of decisions (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979: 279).

2.2.3. Framing effect

Frame refers to a permanent and coherent mental structure that simplifies and organizes the complex structure in which the decision maker makes a choice. According to the way the problem and options are presented, the effect of not perceiving some parts of the problem given as a whole on the choice made and the decision made is called the framing effect (Diacon & Hesseldine, 2007: 31). While uncertainty and risk affect the decision-making process of the individual, decisions may vary according to the way the situation is presented and framed as loss and gain. When the outcome is framed as a gain, people tend to keep their guaranteed gains and avoid risk, whereas when the outcome is framed as a loss, the tendency to take risk increases (Türkmen et al., 2012: 7).

2.2.4. Loss Avoidance

In the Prospect Theory, Kahneman and Tversky argued that losses create more intense feelings for people than gains, so not losing is more important than winning. While people tend towards certain gains to avoid losses under risk, they calculate probabilities disproportionately, and the probability of losing is exaggerated compared to the probability of winning at the same rate. People are more sensitive to losses than gains and attach more meaning to them. When individuals have a choice to make, expected losses have a greater impact than equally expected gains (Boyce, 2013: 4). In general, people tend to avoid losses rather than take risks, even if there is the possibility of gaining more.

2.2.5. Mental Accounting

People use various external and internal control mechanisms to deal with self-control problems. For example, setting an alarm clock is an external mechanism we use to control ourselves, while mental accounting is an internal control system. Mental accounting is a system that people use to set and implement budgets. An investor who wins on an investment may take a risk and invest the money in other ventures, or will probably only spend an unexpected amount on luxury consumption, even though the savings are expendable. Mental accounting refers to keeping each account separate at the cognitive level (Thaler and Sunstein, 2019).

2.2.6. Sunk Cost Bias

The sunk cost bias asserts that people pursue unhelpful decisions based on a cost they have already incurred. The sunk cost bias asserts that people act by taking into account their previous experiences in the decision process. That is, people make a decision taking into account irreversible costs (Thaler, 1980:47). This irrational cost calculation refers to the situation where people's cognitive tendencies lead to different preferences in the evaluation process (Döm, 2003). For example, behaviors such as not leaving one's job for years despite being dissatisfied with it, ignoring alternative means of transportation after waiting at the bus stop for a long time, even if there is a possibility of being late, saying "we have waited so long, it will probably come soon", reading a book until a certain page and continuing to read it despite realizing that it is boring are frequently witnessed sunk cost bias.

2.2.7. Reference Dependence

The reference dependence refers to the fact that people take the previous situation as a benchmark for evaluating losses and gains (Kahneman, 2018: 324). People adapt to what they experience and their new status quo becomes their reference point (Camerer, 1999). For example, in order to sell more of its "LaserWriter" printer, IBM produced another printer, the "LaserWriter E", which was less efficient than the first one. In order to emphasize how good the good model is, it would be easier to produce a similar and worse model, explain the value of the first one, get users to reference the bad one, and charge a higher price (Thaler & Sunstein, 2019). Reference commitment is a cognitive tendency that significantly affects people's preferences in the decision process.

2.2.8. Anchoring

Anchoring has the effect that decision makers make erroneous mental calculations due to estimation under the influence of an initially presented value. According to Thaler and Sunstein (2019:40), thanks to the anchoring effect, the more you reasonably ask for, the more you are likely to get. For example, lawyers who sue cigarette companies often receive astronomical damages. This is because they initially managed to convince juries with million-dollar anchoring values. Clever lawyers are able to get the other side to come up with a very large figure, and they are happy to pay half of that figure. Anchoring, which refers to the process of anchoring a number and making predictions according to the calculations based on it, is one of the cognitive fallacies that people fall into when making their decisions.

2.2.9. Ownership Effect

Individuals' preferences depend on their ownership status and this cognitive tendency called "ownership effect" causes the individual to deviate from rationality in the decision process (Nagaj & Žuromskaitė, 2018: 332). For example, in some products, trial promotions are made and individuals are told that they can use the product to examine it for a certain period of time. The aim here is to create a sense of ownership in the individual. As a result of the studies, it has been observed that individuals buy products that they think they own for a while instead of returning the product due to the ownership effect (Ariely, 2019: 141-150).

2.2.10. Status Quo Bias

The situation that human beings have and are in constitutes a status quo. What is meant by the status quo here is that decision units either remain unresponsive or maintain the previous decision. For the individual, the value of something is associated with whether or not they own it. People's attachment to their houses, cars, jobs and belongings also increases over time under the influence of the status quo. When people stick to the status quo option in a decision problem encountered as a hypothetical choice, this is called status quo tendency (Samuelson and Zeckhauser, 1988:8). People resent the situation they are in and the work they do. A rational economic individual is expected to make some inferences and act accordingly in order to change this situation. However,

although this situation is expressed in words many times, no one usually takes action. The reason for this is that people do not want to move from their current situation to a different one. Because moving to a new situation requires extra effort and most people prefer to stay in the current situation to avoid this (Hammond, Keeney and Raiffa, 1998: 49).

2.2.11. Optimism and Overconfidence

Overconfidence misconception is a cognitive misconception that people think that their knowledge and capacities are superior to other people. Due to the overconfidence fallacy, the individual's risk perception differs and therefore makes erroneous assessments. Due to the overconfidence tendency, people believe that their predictions are correct and therefore they may turn to extremely risky options (Pompian, 2006:52). Unrealistic optimism is a very common characteristic in people. Due to overconfidence and over-optimism, people may not perceive risks correctly and may act negligently (Thaler & Sunstein, 2019). For example, smokers are aware of the risks, but many find them exaggerated, and many see their chances of getting lung cancer or heart disease as lower than non-smokers.

3. Method

In the research designed according to the qualitative research method, the case study design was preferred. The qualitative method gives the opportunity to participate as an active subject in the interpretation of events that occur in the ordinary flow of social life (Bilton et al. 2008:447). The case study design is a suitable design for examining situations that occur in real life but over which the researcher has no control over the variables (Creswell, 2016). According to Yin (2003), if the research topic aims to find answers to "how" and "why" questions, it is appropriate to use the case study design. Any type of organizational behavior can be the subject of a case study (Punch, 2016:149). In this study, the case study design was preferred as it was aimed to analyze the behavioral decision-making situation of people in organizations in depth.

In the sample determined according to the purposive sampling technique, attention was paid to the fact that the participants consisted of academicians and employees in managerial positions due to criteria and reasons such as understanding the questions, work experience, and having an idea about the subject. Although there is no exact number in sample size in case studies, data

saturation is an important criterion (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:297). In this context, the sample of the study consists of 9 participants selected according to the purposive sampling technique. The data were collected by interview technique through a semi-structured interview form developed by the researcher. The collected data were analyzed using content analysis technique. In the data analysis, the sentences in the interview notes were written one under the other and the expressions showing similarities and differences were brought together, then "concepts" from descriptive expressions, "codes" from there, "categories" from the similarities between codes, and then "main themes" that can reflect the meaning content were tried to be reached (Creswell, 2016: 180). Since the aim of the study was to contribute to the literature by producing information, the inductive analysis method was utilized (Patton, 2014: 430).

4. Findings

Each participant was marked as P1, P2, P3, P4...Pn and personal information about the participants is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Characteristics of Participants

Participant code	Age	Gender	Duration of employment in the organization	Sector	Position
P1	55	Male	22	Education	Academic
P2	38	Male	13	Manufacturing	Senior Manager
P3	31	Female	5	Manufacturing	Senior Manager
P4	46	Female	20	Education	Academic
P5	37	Male	10	Manufacturing	Senior Manager
P6	53	Female	24	Manufacturing	Senior Manager
P7	44	Male	15	Education	Academic
P8	49	Male	18	Manufacturing	Senior Manager
P9	41	Female	12	Consultancy	Senior Manager

Participants were asked about their views on whether people behave rationally, limited rationally and emotionally when making decisions. Within the framework of this basic question, the participant views on the sub-questions asked in order to analyze the subject in depth and the codes, categories and main themes obtained as a result of content analysis are presented in the tables below.

Table 2: Participant Views about Rationality

Descriptive Expression	Code	Category	Theme
Human beings are rational; they make decisions on matters within the scope of their responsibilities by considering the consequences. He tries to make the closest choice to the truth. In his/her experiences, he/she takes into account his/her own and others' experiences. He makes correct predictions by researching. He tries to make the decision that is beneficial for the moment. (P2) In any case, a decision that serves the rational side of the person is in his or her favor. What benefits the person is also rational. When making a decision, people tend towards what will benefit them. (P5) When people make decisions, they think about their interests and benefits. What else will they think about? Interests and benefits are not necessarily monetary. It can be anything that will benefit (P7) In general, we humans choose what is in our best interest. Everybody looks after his own interest. People pursue their interests. Man acts in his own self-interest based on the information available to him. Human beings are obliged to pursue their interests in order to survive. Human beings are insatiable and always pursue their needs. (P3) People turn to the alternative that satisfies them the most. Human beings are greedy and when it comes to their needs, they want to have that thing if they can afford it. (P2)	Rationality in decisions Benefit from experience Benefit providing Staying alive Human insatiability Human greed	Sensitivity to utility Being rational in choices	*Rationality in decision-making*
No human being is ever satisfied with less good when there is better. Man always looks for the better. Man always and in all situations acts in his own best interest. But whether it is wise or not only becomes clear after the behavior is concluded. Benefit is not necessarily what is wise, but if a person needs to be happy, what is in his/her best interest is what satisfies his/her emotional side. (P5) Everyone always thinks of achieving the best. People act more rationally in material matters (P4). There is reciprocity in the human world. Man is rational because biological factors work accordingly. His body is programmed for it, he avoids pain and seeks benefit. But this benefit can be emotional or monetary. Even though his/her thought is to turn towards what is beneficial, the result of the action may not bring him/her benefit. (P6)	Search for satisfaction Looking out for your benefit Focusing on benefit Seeking what is wise, sensitivity to material matters Pleasure tending	Seeking pleasure, avoiding pain Becoming more rational in financial matters	

According to the answers given by the participants, a significant portion of the participants stated that they act rationally in decision-making processes. The participants stated that they act in accordance with reason when making

decisions, that they are oriented towards the needs and interests of human beings, that they make rational calculations when making decisions, that they make predictions by taking into account their reason and experiences, that they consider their benefits and make choices that will bring benefits to them.

Table 3: Participant Views on Bounded Rationality

Descriptive Expression	Code	Category	Theme
In the decision process, I try to make the closest choice to the truth. I make a decision to save the situation at that moment. This is what is rational for me at that moment. Since information is always limited, we cannot talk about complete rationality. People can only make decisions with limited rationality. (P9) I try to choose what is rational as much as possible, but I can only be limited rational due to life circumstances. With limited rationality, I choose to act according to both my emotions and logic. (P8) Human beings are beings who look out for their benefit in every situation, but they cannot act rationally in every situation. People make decisions in the wisest and least damaging way for the moment (P4). When making decisions, humans cannot know everything, so they make their decisions according to their knowledge. Therefore, humans cannot act in an absolute rational way (P7). Since humans cannot know everything, if the decision they make is boundedly rational, humans are also boundedly rational when evaluating the rightness or wrongness of the decision they make. Therefore, human beings are limited rational in every situation. The rationality and limited rationality or emotionality of human behavior is evaluated with a limited rationality in every situation. Absolute rationality is too big for human beings. (P1)	Close to the right choice Cannot be fully rational Man is always limitedly rational Man always looks out for his own good At that moment, the situation Man cannot know everything Absolute rationality	Man always looks out for his own good Human decisions are boundedly rational One is a pragmatist who does what is necessary for the situation	*Bounded rationality in decisions*
Most of the decisions we make about the unknown side of life seem to us to be in our interest and beneficial at the time, but time will tell whether they are in our favor or against us. (P1) People are smart; they consider both their intellect and emotions when making decisions. (P4) In today's complex world, when everything is changing at every moment, we are not equipped with full information about the markets. (P8) Since human beings act limited to the information at hand, they make their decisions with limited rationality. Instead of saying that human beings are strictly rational or strictly irrational, it is more accurate to say that they are limitedly rational. (P3) To say that human beings are absolutely rational is not very appropriate to the real world. Limited rationality is true because human beings are limited in everything. Man thinks he is intelligent and acts for his benefit within the limits of his knowledge. (P6)	The unknowns of life Time explains everything The rapid change of life Acting on existing knowledge Human beings are full of emotion Man is limited in everything	Life has unknowns The rapid change of life Man is an emotionally limited being	

According to the content analysis, it is understood that the participants are of the opinion that human beings act in a limited rational way when making decisions. Accordingly, statements such as the fact that human beings cannot know everything and have limited information when making decisions, that the time to make a decision is a limited time and the conditions in which the decision is made are effective in human decisions, and that emotions interfere with logic, especially in decisions made under uncertainty and risk, were analyzed and the main theme of "bounded rationality" was reached from all these statements.

Table 4: Participant Views on Human Emotionality

Descriptive Expression	Code	Category	Theme
There are various states of human life, various times. For a person living the last day of his life, rationality or emotionality is more important. It is a great handicap to act emotionally when we should act rationally. In the same way, the time one spends loving one's child is not rational, but is everything rational good? Is loving a child a bad behavior because it wastes time? One of the qualities that makes a human being human is his or her emotional side; this is not a weakness. The inner world of a person without an emotional side is a desert and it is a problem to consider such a person as a human being. (P1)	Rationality and emotionality Being emotional Emotional aspect Emotion control Irrational decision Emotional person Emotional behavior	*Being between emotionality and rationality* *Being emotional at times and rational at others*	*Life is lived between emotionality and rationality*
Man is an emotional being, but it is not right for him to be controlled by his emotions when making decisions. When people experience intense emotions, it is inevitable that they make irrational decisions. A soulless person without emotions is also unthinkable. (P2)			
Even though I know it is not true for me, I am an emotional person. Even if we are rational when we give advice to others, we are usually emotional when we make decisions about ourselves. Human beings are not only intellectuals, they also have hearts and emotions. A person values all beings to the extent of their labor. (P9)			
There has to be a balance of rewards and costs. I will make any sacrifice if I think it is worth it. One appreciates what one pays for. So what is rational for one may be irrational for another. People value what they spend time for, what they sweat for (P8).	The dilemma of reward and price Sacrifice Effort and value Giving meaning to life Frustrated Relative view Man is an imperfect being Enjoying life	*Human behavior is formed in a reward-cost dichotomy.* *The world looks different for everyone from where they are*	
When people are faced with a dilemma, such as loss or gain, their behavior usually follows the rule of attribution. Everything in the world is as meaningful as the meaning we attribute to it. One moment it is worth the world, the next it is worth nothing (P1).			
The emotional side of man limits his action by reason alone. Human beings make mistakes and sometimes very wise decisions can end in disappointment. A decision that one thinks will benefit oneself at that moment may cause regret later. The world looks different from where everyone is. There are as many rational decisions as there are people and as many irrational decisions as there are people. If people acted only with their minds, none of us would make mistakes and life would be perfect. (P4)			
What we call significance is personal and depends on the value we attribute to what is being lost or gained. One should savor the moment without missing it (P6).			

According to the content analysis of the participants' answers, a significant portion of the participants were of the opinion that people behave emotionally when making decisions. Accordingly, the views of the participants that people can be affected by different emotional states when making decisions, that people can act irrationally when they cannot control their emotions when making decisions, and that people's choices can change according to the importance and value they attribute to the subject of preference when making choices are grouped under the main theme of emotionality "life is lived between emotionality and rationality".

Table 5: Different Moods of Human Beings According to Situation

Descriptive Expression	Code	Category	Theme
Is it necessary to be rational, and then is it always in favor of man? In my opinion it is not. For example, a decision that serves the emotional side of a person or a decision that serves the rational side of a person is in his favor. Is a man who doesn't neglect the emotional side of life happier or a man who is always rational? Imagine, for a person living the last day of his life, is rationality or emotionality more important? A mature and virtuous person is one who correctly determines where to act rationally and emotionally. (P1)	Being rational Emotional aspect Being rational and emotional	Balance between being emotional and rational Life is both the satisfaction of emotions and living according to the mind	*Balancing intellect and emotion*
There can be three kinds of people in life: emotional, rational and limited rational. Human beings are a whole with their emotions, intellect and limitations. To define him with a precise definition is, in my opinion, wrong. It is neither good to be very rational nor emotional like me. (K8)	Life is a whole Satisfaction of emotions		
The successful people in life are those who do things that satisfy their emotions and satisfy their logic. One cannot know everything and calculate all possibilities. Some have more foresight, some are more logical, some are more emotional. I think maturity is being able to keep the balance of emotion and logic under control. (P2)	All possibilities Emotion-rational balance		
We are very rational when we give advice to others, but our own reason is not enough for ourselves. Human being is not such a clear being, it is a very complex being with many aspects. Human beings look out for their own benefit, but since they do not know the future, they cannot know whether the behavior is beneficial or not before the result of the behavior is realized. (P9)	Giving advice Human complexity Considering the benefit	Like man, the future is uncertain. One must seize the moment and not miss the present	
Future happiness may be greater, but for a mortal being like man, the important thing is to make the most of the present moment. In my opinion, one should not steal from life today in order to be happy in the future. He should also think about the future, but he should not be so distressed that he misses life today. The future is a possibility, but we are here now. (P5)	Making the most of the present moment Not missing the day		
The man who says, "If I had my present mind, I would not have made this decision" is true only at that time. Tomorrow he will not like his present mind either. Therefore, man is always a limited being. Unless the boundaries of human rationality are defined and framed, it is impossible to determine exactly what is rational. Whether it is emotional states or cognitive processes, in both cases, I don't think humans are very competent in deciding whether a behavior is emotional or rational. (P1)	The future is a possibility The future is uncertain		
People do not have knowledge of absolute reality, so they often act according to their subjective judgments, not the facts. Everyone perceives the world from their own perspective. No one knows what the future holds and the hardship may be in vain. (P8)			

As a result of the questions asked to the participants in order to understand how people behave while making their decisions, a very significant number of the participants' views that people can be rational, limited rational or emotional, as well as their common statements that there can be all three types of people, led to the categories of the dilemma of reason and emotion, preference for comfortable and good life, different emotional states, different intellectual states, moral value judgments, and these were grouped under the main theme of "balancing reason and emotion".

Table 6: Participant Views on Heuristics

Descriptive Expression	Code	Category	Theme
We make decisions to save the situation at the time. We take into account our experience. We make predictions based on our experiences while making decisions. Especially in situations where the loss will be great, one cannot look for the best, one chooses the alternative that will save the situation. (P4)	Saving the situation Experiences Cultural difference Subjectivity in perception Optimum choice Satisfaction with decisions Saving the moment Simple decision Taking risks	Making decisions according to the time and situation / Personality and subjectivity in perception / Behaving differently in simple and difficult decisions	*The determinants of risk and circumstances in decisions*
A decision that is logical and wise to me may seem abnormal to a person from a different culture. Everyone's rationality and irrationality may be different. There are as many different perceptions as there are people in the world. If the simple one meets our needs, if it works at that moment, I don't know which of us would turn to the rational one. (P9)			
If a person makes an evaluation within the framework of logic, he/she should choose the optimum, but in short-term and urgent decisions, he/she chooses what is satisfactory. In case of loss, he acts boldly for the possibility of not losing. (P7)			
When an individual finds an alternative that adequately meets his or her needs, he or she temporarily ends the search process. One temporarily stops the search activity to save the moment. But later, after saving the situation, he/she goes back to looking for something better. (P5)			
Simple decisions can be made on ordinary and everyday issues. We use our minds for complex and vital decisions (P8).			
One does not take risks when it comes to gain, but one can take risks when it comes to loss. (P5)			

When there is a ready option, instead of waiting for something that will happen in the future, we choose what is at hand and we do not risk it. The reason is the human desire to feel safe. (P4) People's risk taking is related to their assets. They should be in search of security and what they have left after losing should be enough for them (P2). People's consumption tendency is affected by the way a product or service is presented. The purpose of the presentation is to make us do what the other party wants. (P3) I am more careful when I spend the money I earned by laboring. This applies not only to money but also to everything that has been worked for and not worked for. (P5) I spend money whichever is the most urgent and important need for me. (P7) Humans act not with facts but with judgments, and it is inevitable that they will act in the way that their judgment shows them to be more correct. Since the pursuit of pleasure is a basic human tendency to escape from suffering, the search for the best is not a phase but a continuous state. When making decisions, people prefer what satisfies them the most. The individual's search never ends. If the meaning of loss is greater for human beings, they avoid behaviors that will cause loss. If the meaning of gain is important, they go after what they see as gain, risking all kinds of losses. Therefore, loss and gain is not an objective situation but a subjective judgment problem. (P1) If you work for the money, you spend it more carefully, but money obtained without labor is more easily spent. (P2) Would there be so much unnecessary consumption if people were not influenced by the way they are presented? In my opinion, the way of presentation affects people a lot. People are more careful when they spend the money that they spend time for, which is the sweat of their brow. Depending on the nature of the expenditure, I can spoil my savings. (P9) If one should prefer what satisfies him in the current circumstances, he does so, but when he sees something better, he goes after it. After a while, what is available will seem inadequate. Or he will see that there is something better. Everyone knows that there is no mercy without hardship, but everyone tries to get things done in the easiest way. It is true that people allocate money for this or that, but when it comes to spending, I spend it where it is needed. (P6)	Risk avoidance Demand for trust Gain-loss Presentation format Importance rating Labor-effort	Reference point Loss aversion Framing Mental accounting	*The determinants of risk and circumstances in decisions*

The participants were asked some questions in order to analyze cognitive tendencies and biases in decision making, which is one of the basic assumptions of behavioral economics. As a result of the content analysis conducted on the statements of the participants, the categories of making decisions according to time and situation, individuality and subjectivity in perception, behaving differently in simple and difficult decisions, reference point, loss aversion, framing and mental accounting were reached and these were grouped under the main theme of "determinism of risk and conditions in decisions".

5. Conclusion

The findings of the study support the criticisms of pro-organizational approaches and show that these approaches can be explained by behavioral economics by subjecting them to an alternative reading. As a result of the content analysis, five themes were reached. These themes are; "rationality in decisions", "limited rationality in decisions", "life is lived between emotionality and rationality", "balancing reason and emotion" and "determinism of risk and conditions in decisions".

When people decide to apply for a job in an organization, to work there, to continue there for many years, they do not decide based on their emotions, but on the satisfaction of their needs and the achievement of their individual goals. This is the case with Epicurus' hedonism, Bentham's utilitarianism, Adam Smith's classical economics, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Blau's social exchange theory, and the bounded rationality and expectancy theories of behavioral economics. From the point of view of behavioral sciences, a behavior continues as long as needs are met, and if the behavior does not have any individual benefit or if it imposes a price on the individual, the desire for the behavior fades after a while. Therefore, the common point of all the theories and assumptions mentioned here is that human beings tend towards their needs and pursue their benefits. The participant views in this study also support the idea that people pursue whatever they need, whether material or immaterial. The participants stated that even if the result of the behavior is not beneficial, the basic motive of the behavior is to tend towards the benefit of human beings, that human beings try to act rationally and that human beings should act rationally in order to survive. Therefore, it can be argued that the contents of approaches such as commitment, loyalty, citizenship, psychological contract mentioned in pro-organizational approaches are not based on scientific concerns, but on wishes in favor of the organization.

Most of the participants think that emotions are a very subjective issue and that everyone's rational or irrational will be different due to emotions. It is seen that pro-organizational attitudes are tried to be explained as the emotional bond between the employee and the organization. Emotions are variable; therefore, attempts to base pro-organizational approaches on such a variable and subjective concept cast a shadow on the scientificity of pro-organizational approaches.

Considering the research results and the basic assumptions of behavioral economics, it is understandable why people continue to work in jobs they are dissatisfied with. It is more realistic to argue that people continue to work even if they are dissatisfied rather than taking the risk of being unemployed, given the living conditions, since it is usually the job they can find under the current conditions, not because of emotional attachment or loyalty to the organization. In this respect, the situation is consistent with the sunk cost fallacy, status quo effect and loss aversion approaches of behavioral economics.

A significant portion of the participants stated that people would avoid losing, would prefer the option that would cause the least loss even if they did not win, and would take risks in order not to lose. This result of the research coincides with loss aversion, which is one of the basic assumptions of behavioral economics. According to pro-organizational approaches, an employee who is attached to his/her organization with a sense of citizenship is someone who shows loyalty to the organization even in adverse situations, strives for the benefit of the organization, and volunteers to stay in the organization by ignoring adversities.

According to the participants, experiences are taken as a reference point in human decision-making. This is in line with one of the most basic assumptions of behavioral economics, "reference loyalty". If the employee's reference point or anchor is an organization with better conditions, the employee will not be satisfied with his/her current organization, and if it is an organization with worse conditions, the employee will be satisfied with his/her current organization. Therefore, in terms of reference commitment and anchoring, it is understood that people do not evaluate organizations based on an emotional attachment.

As a result of the study, although it is not possible to universally verify the assumptions about human beings, considering the need for some simplifications with theories and some presuppositions in order to explain the complex world using the scientific method, it is concluded that the most accurate approach is to accept the assumption that human behavior is based on the assumption that human beings tend to benefit and avoid pain, but what brings benefit or pain

to human beings must be evaluated within its own context. In order to better understand human behavior in organizations and to carry out more effective management activities, managers can be trained on behavioral decision-making in organizations. Behavioral decision strategies in organizations can be developed in all departments of businesses from human resources to marketing.

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A MODEL FOR THE CALCULATION OF GMPH ORIENTED OPTIMUM STORAGE CAPACITY IN CONTAINER PORTS

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1. Introduction

The maritime transportation sector is undergoing significant and ongoing transformations due to the intense rivalry inherent in its industry framework. The increasing demand for maritime transport over the years caused the emergence of new routes. Vessel owners, who want to increase their profitability and reduce their unit costs by transporting a large amount of cargo at once, built larger and higher capacity vessels. Increasing vessel sizes forced the ports to build docks and quays where large vessels can berth and be handled, and forced them to buy new and large cranes.

Far beyond being a shelter to vessels affected by bad weather conditions, ports are now the logistics centers where cargo is transferred from one mode of transport to another, where cargo is stored in the terminal area and value-added services are provided. Changes in maritime transport and logistics in general have also caused radical changes in ports and increased the importance of ports in transportation (Ma, 2021).

The increasing share of container shipping in world trade has led academics to work in this field. There are many studies on container shipping and ports in the literature. Detailed information on port management is available in prominent studies (Steenken et al., 2004; Böse, 2011; Esmer, 2019). Since each country and economic region has different dynamics in terms of ports, regional port features have also been mentioned in some studies. Ports directly affect the country's economy as they are the trade connection points of countries in the global economy in a sense (Çağlar, 2012).

The increasing demand for container shipping and the growth in vessel sizes have revealed the capacity problems in container ports. Congestion occurs in ports, especially during peak periods, which slows down operations and causes vessels to wait longer in the port. In this regard, port storage capacity should be planned in the most accurate way. This study proposes a linear regression model to estimate the optimum yard storage capacity of the ports in order to provide the fastest handling service that can be given to the vessels.

2. Container Port Operations

I Container port operations consist of very complex operations and processes. In general, container terminal operations can be divided in to three main operations. First type of operations occurs at the quay side where the vessels berth, quay cranes load and discharge containers. Quay side operations can be seen as the connection point to the yard operations in a container terminal. As the second type of operations, yard side operations are the operations that include transportation of containers via trailers or straddle carriers, stacking containers via yard cranes and storing containers at the yard area of terminal. Land side operations are the third type of operations where usually the stuffing/ unstuffing of containers accomplishes and which combine the terminal and its hinterland. Although these operations are considered separately from each other, operations taking place in one area of container ports directly affect the speed and performance of operations in other areas (Böse, 2011).

2.1. Port Capacity Measurement

Capacity measurement is an important planning element in container ports. Ports can serve as much as their capacity. As ssen in Figure 1, five sub-types of capacity can be taken into account when calculating the capacity of ports (Oral, 2012; Esmer, 2019).

Theoretical capacity (also called as maximum theoretical capacity) refers to the maximum annual business volume that the port operator can perform with its infrastructure and superstructure equipment. Theoretical capacity is the maximum capacity that the storage yard, in which all the functions specified in the port information forms, are used actively in operational suitability, and that the equipment can produce when it operates at full capacity (Esmer, 2019).

Actual capacity is calculated by taking into account the highest cargo volume that the port has been able to perform in the past years. For example, if a port handled a maximum of 1 million tons of cargo in a month in the past, the port's capacity is considered to be 12 million tons for 1 year (Oral, 2012).
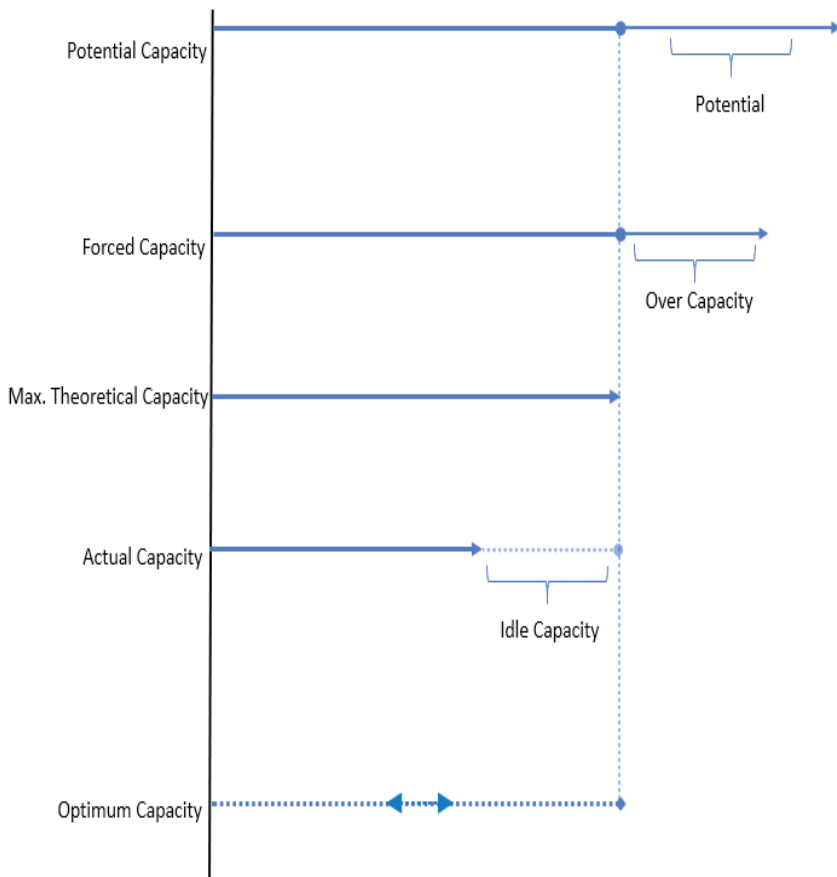
Figure1. Types of Capacity in Ports

Potential capacity is the capacity that the port operator can create by making new infrastructure and superstructure investments and adding additional

capacity to the theoretical capacity. It is not an existing capacity and is generally found in the future projections of port operators. The potential capacity is higher than the theoretical capacity, but to reach this capacity, new investments such as expanding the storage area, new quay/dock construction, purchasing new equipment, increasing the number of personnel are required (Esmer, 2019).

Optimal capacity is generally considered to be the capacity where maximum capacity is combined with maximum utility. Oral and Kişi (2011) defined the optimum capacity for port operations as; optimum capacity in ports is a capacity in which port economy (income, expenses and profitability, etc.) is considered as well as the cargo volume according to the other two capacity calculations (theoretical and current capacities). It is assumed that the port operates at the most efficient point within the optimum capacity. Contrary to optimum capacity, forced capacity is expressed as exceeding the current capacity without prioritizing cost and efficiency (Esmer, 2019).

2.2. Port Performance

All ports need performance metrics to measure and evaluate their profitability and productivity. The performance outputs of the port support the decision-making mechanism of decision makers in many areas such as future planning, detection of deficiencies and malfunctions, directing investments, human resources training. However, measurement systems and analyzes are as important as performance outputs. Although there are popular performance measurement systems for every business line, standardizing performance measurement systems may not always give accurate results. Even for enterprises with the same measurement systems, the evaluation criteria may vary, because performance is the set of systems that measure whether the enterprise works in accordance with the purpose of its establishment. Performance measurement and evaluation systems are based on the field of activity of the port, its close and distant environment, competition conditions, customer requests and demands, physical conditions, infrastructure and superstructure characteristics, financial conditions, political relations, human resources, etc. It can vary based on many different factors (Schwientek et al., 2020). In the literature, the performance of ports is generally evaluated in four areas: Gate performance, yard performance, quay performance and vessel performance.

Port gates are connection points of ports (which are the transition points between the transportation modes) with land transportation. Gate operations are one of the important stages of port operations (Esmer, 2019). Especially in ports

where there is no railway connection, the gate in and gate out of all containers and LCL (Less than Container Load) cargos, except transshipment containers, through the port gate brings the performance of the gate to an important position.

Yard performance is the area where the most energy and time is spent in port operations. Every movement made in vessel operations has at least one counterpart movement in yard operations. Containers unloaded from the vessel are stored in the yard until the customs procedures are completed and loaded onto the transport vehicle or train wagons authorized by the cargo owner. The import cargo passes from the ship at berth to the hinterland via the vessel cargo handling system, the dominant part of the berth system (Ibrahimi, 2009). In yard operations, yard arrangement movements for vessel loading and discharging operations and other services provided to the cargo (such as CFS, reefer, weighing) are called housekeeping. Housekeeping movements can be done in the same yard as the transfer of the container from one row to another (yard shift) or as a yard move between the yards. As the yard occupancy rate increases, the number of housekeeping will also increase as the desired planning cannot be made in the placement of the containers that are discharged on the yard after the gate in and vessel discharging. There is an inverse relationship between housekeeping rate and operational productivity.
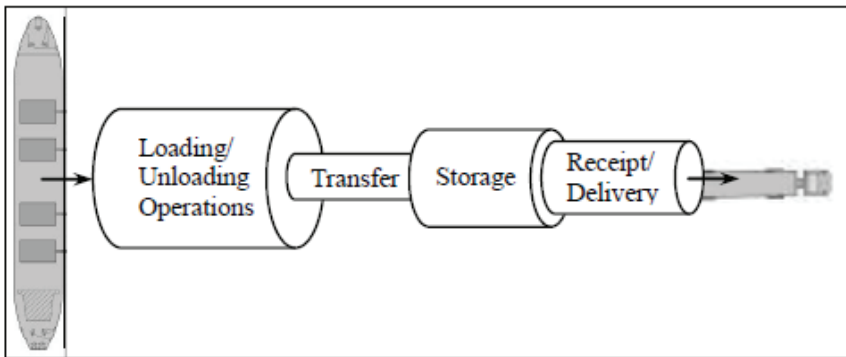
Source: Ibrahimi, K. (2009)
Figure 2. Port Operation Process

Quay performance is the stage where data about the berthing and waiting of the vessel are measured before the vessel operation starts. Productivity at this stage is mostly related to the infrastructure and superstructure investments of the port operator, such as the length and number of quays, the draft, the number of quay cranes. Factors such as the time spent for the maintenance of the quay and cranes, the distance to the waiting area, the customs controls after the vessel

dock, the time taken for the control of the operation plans are the factors affecting the quay performance.

One of the most important service output for container ports is the vessel operation speed. Since vessels make money by carrying cargo at sea, especially during peak demand periods, liner carriers want their vessels to spend very little time in ports. Accordingly, they put pressure on port operators for their vessels to spend less time in ports and make more voyages. Even though vessels lose time in ports outside of the operation time, most of the time they spend in ports is vessel operation, that is, container handling. This makes vessel operation performance the most important performance indicators for port operators and liner carriers (UNCTAD, 2016). Line carriers want to guarantee the service they receive from ports by adding vessel performance requirements to their agreements with port operators.

While determining the optimum points in the general business logic, cost is usually taken as the focal point and the capacity with the lowest unit cost is called the optimum capacity. However, this study focuses on the GMPH (gross movement per hour) produced for the ship while determining the optimum storage capacity. GMPH is one of the most important indicators that are given importance by port operators and line operators, they usually add this item to contract terms. GMPH refers to the number of movements produced by each crane operating in vessel operations in one hour. GMPH is the average moves per hour measured in the total time between the chosen start and finish of crane operations (Drewry, 2014). Hourly movements on vessels may vary depending on container type, operation type, number of cranes working on the vessel, yard occupancy rate, and number of yard equipment working on the vessel. The main purpose of the port operator's operations is to demonstrate a measurable and standard performance. Standardization of measurement is needed for more accurate comparison as ports become part of larger organizations and liner carriers may choose to use new ports.

In GMPH, measurements are made on unit based. The purpose of the terminal operators and line carriers is for the cranes to operate continuously and produce movement during vessel operation, but there may be some downtime during operation. These delays may be due to terminal, liner carrier or weather conditions. While calculating the GMPH, the waiting times in a time zone are not taken into account, but the movement produced in the hour is taken into account. All movements such as loading, discharging, shifting, cover movement that the crane performs within the vessel operation are included in the movement

produced. GMPH calculation in the simplest way is the sum of the movements (loading, discharging, shifting, cover) made by 1 crane in vessel operation within 1 hour.

Ports are areas where many processes interact as complex dynamic logistics system. Therefore, performance indicators are versatile and different dynamics may outweigh for each port. While teu/working hour is an important performance criterion in regions where labor force is high for the enterprise, teu handling per square meter of berth may be a more important performance indicator in regions where infrastructure costs are high (Esmer, 2008; Elferjani, 2015). Likewise, while external trucks truck turn times are a very important performance indicator in very busy and congested ports, this indicator may not be very important in terms of management in ports that are not busy, that is, not congested. However, the common and most important performance indicator for many container terminals today is GMPH.

3. Data and Methodology

The data used in the analyzes were obtained from a port operator operating in Türkiye. In the regression model developed for the estimation of the vessel operation speed, while the GMPH is the dependent variable, yard occupancy rate, the number of containers loaded on the vessel, the number of housekeeping made in the yard for the containers loaded on the vessel, the number of containers entering to the port on daily basis, the number of containers leaving the port on daily basis and the number of containers under CFS operations on daily basis are taken into account as independent variables. Some assumptions in order to analyze the data correctly are as follows:

- Since it is aimed to reveal the effects of other variables on the operation speed, the data of the vessel which is operating one post during the operation were not included in the dataset. Since all the resources of the port operator are working for a single quay crane, the GMPH is higher than the averages in the vessels working with one post.

- Vessels to which made special loadings are not included. Since the project cargo loading and discharging requires great attention and care, a lot of time is lost during the operation. So, as it is thought that project cargo operations negatively affect the vessel operation speed, they are not included in the dataset.

- The data of the vessels berthed at different quays at the same time were evaluated separately.

- The yard occupancy rate represents the instant yard occupancy rate of the port, in percentage terms, at 08:00 a.m. on the day of the vessel operation which is in the same data row.

The SPSS (Statistical Package For Social Sciences for Windows, Release ver. 25.0) package program was used in the statistical analysis of the data. Descriptive statistics such as frequency and percentage of the data were used and analytical comparisons were made. Non-parametric statistics were used in categorical and numerical data. Correlation analysis was used to measure the degree and direction of the linear relationship between the two variables. The significance level of the study was taken as 0.05. It has been determined that there is a significant difference when the p value seen in the tables is less than 0.05, and there is no significant difference between the views of the groups when the p value is greater than 0.05.

The research hypotheses are as follows:

H0a: There is no relationship between yard occupancy and vessel operation speed.

H0b: There is no relationship between the vessel loading variable and the vessel operation speed.

H0c: There is no relationship between vessel housekeeping variable and vessel operation speed.

H0d: There is no relationship between the input variable and the vessel operating speed.

H0e: There is no relationship between the output variable and the vessel operation speed.

H0f: There is no relationship between CFS variable and vessel operation speed.

H0g: The yard occupancy variable is not an effective variable on the vessel's operating speed.

H0h: Vessel loading variable is not an effective variable on vessel operation speed.

H0i: Vessel housekeeping variable is not an effective variable on vessel operation speed.

H0j: Input variable is not an effective variable on vessel operation speed.

H0k: Output variable is not an effective variable on vessel operation speed.

H0m: CFS variable is not an effective variable on vessel operation speed.

4. Results

The mean (average), standard deviation, minimum and maximum values of the variables obtained in this context are shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Average, SD, Minimum and Maximum Values of All Variables

	N	Average	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
GMPH	251	20.075	3.3972	9.0	28.0
Yard Occupancy	251	89.599	8.1890	68.7	110.0
Vessel Loading	251	474.05	391.648	22	1877
Vessel Housekeeping	251	103.25	113.885	0	566
Input	251	349.10	256.617	0	998
Output	251	447.44	289.124	0	1013
CFS	251	139.79	86.332	0	357

The mean (average) vessel operation speed is 20.07, its standard deviation is 3.39, its minimum value is 9.0, and its maximum value is 28. The mean of the yard occupancy variable is 89.59, the mean of the vessel loading variable is 474.05, the mean of the vessel housekeeping variable is 103.25, the mean of the input variable is 349.10, the mean of the output variable is 447.44 and finally the mean of the CFS variable is 139.79. The sample size is 251 for each variable.

Correlation analysis between yard occupancy and other variables, and vessel operation is explained below. Spearman correlation method was preferred because the analysis data showed normal distribution. The relationship between vessel operation speed and yard occupancy rate and other variables are given in Table 2 below.

An inverse (negative) and moderately significant correlation was found between vessel operation speed and occupancy ($P<0.01$). In this context, while an increase is observed in the yard occupancy, there is a decrease in the vessel's operational speed. With the P value less than 0.05 significance level, the H0a hypothesis was rejected, and it was determined that the inverse (negative) relationship between the vessel operation speed and the yard occupancy rate was statistically significant.

Table 2. Relationships Between Vessel Operation Speed and Yard Occupancy and Other Variables, Correlation analysis *p<0.05   **p<0.01

		GMPH	Occupancy	Vessel Loading	Vessel H.keeping	Input	Output	CFS
GMPH	Correlation Coefficient	1	-.565**	0.047	-0.102	-.200**	-.139*	-0.047
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	0	0.46	0.106	0.001	0.028	0.458
	N	251	251	251	251	251	251	251
Occupancy	Correlation Coefficient	-.565**	1	-0.094	0.082	0.049	0.055	0
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000*	.	0.139	0.196	0.441	0.384	0.997
	N	251	251	251	251	251	251	251
Vessel Loading	Correlation Coefficient	0.047	-0.094	1	.843**	0.02	0.015	-0.035
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.46	0.139	.	0	0.754	0.813	0.576
	N	251	251	251	251	251	251	251
Vessel Housekeeping	Correlation Coefficient	-0.102	0.082	.843**	1	0.024	0.028	-0.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.106	0.196	0	.	0.704	0.658	0.885
	N	251	251	251	251	251	251	251
Input	Correlation Coefficient	-.200**	0.049	0.02	0.024	1	.609**	.459**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001*	0.441	0.754	0.704	.	0	0
	N	251	251	251	251	251	251	251
Output	Correlation Coefficient	-.139*	0.055	0.015	0.028	.609**	1	.386**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.028*	0.384	0.813	0.658	0	.	0
	N	251	251	251	251	251	251	251
CFS	Correlation Coefficient	-0.047	0	-0.035	-0.009	.459**	.386**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.458	0.997	0.576	0.885	0	0	.
	N	251	251	251	251	251	251	251

An inverse (negative), weakly significant correlation was found between vessel operation speed and input (P<0.01). In this context, while an increase in input is observed, there is a decrease in vessel operation speed. With the P value less than 0.05, the H0d hypothesis was rejected, and it was determined that the reverse (negative) relationship between the vessel operation speed and the input was statistically significant.

An inverse (negative) and weakly significant correlation was found between vessel operation speed and output (P<0.01). In this context, while an increase is observed in the output, there is a decrease in the vessel operation

speed. With the P value less than 0.05, the H0e hypothesis was rejected, and it was determined that the inverse (negative) relationship between vessel operation speed and output was statistically significant.

A parallel (positive) strong significant relationship was found between vessel loading and vessel housekeeping, which is one of the independent variables (P<0.01). In this context, while an increase is observed in vessel loading, there is also an increase in vessel housekeeping rate. With the P value less than 0.05, it was determined that the parallel (positive) relationship between vessel loading and vessel housekeeping was statistically significant.

When the correlation analyzes between the variables are examined, as the number of containers loaded to the vessel increases, the number of housekeeping for vessel loadings also increases. In addition, it was revealed by the negative correlation between the two variables that the dependent variable GMPH decreased with the increase in the yard occupancy rate.

A data set consisting of 251 samples including instant occupancy of the port area and vessel performances was examined and in the correlation analysis, an inverse correlation relationship was determined between the area occupancy and gross move per hour. As a result of the analysis, it can be said that the hypotheses and common views are supported that the speed of the vessel operation decreases as the yard occupancy increases. Port operations are multi-factor and dynamic operations, each vessel operation and yard situation may not meet the analysis results exactly. However, as a general view, it can be said that the increase in the yard occupancy negatively affects the services to be produced by the port operator, especially the vessel performance.

Regression analysis was applied to determine the variables affecting the vessel operation speed. The dependent variable, the vessel operation speed, which is GMPH is continuous, while the independent variables such as yard occupancy, vessel loading and unloding, vessel housekeeping, input, output and CFS are also continuous.

Table 3. Regression Analysis on Variables Affecting Vessel Operation Speed

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Squared	Standart Error of Estimate	Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F	df1	df2	P value	
1	0.703[a]	0.5	0.48	2.45	0.495	39.7	6	244	0	1.455

Model summary values are shown in the Table 3 above. The R^2 value is 0.50. According to this result, the 50% change in vessel operation speed is explained by the independent variables included in the model.

Table 4. Variance Analysis

	Model	Sum of Squares (SS)	df	Mean Squares (MS)	F	P value
1	Regression	1425.031	6	237.505	39.689	.000[b]
	Errors	1460.146	244	5.984		
	Total	2885.177	250			

In Table 4, the important value to be interpreted is the F statistic, which shows the significance of the model, and the P value, which shows the significance level of this value. When the F value is found to be significant, it is concluded that the model is completely statistically significant (P=0.000; P<0.05).

Table 5 shows the effects of yard occupancy, vessel loading, vessel housekeeping, input, output and CFS variables on vessel operation speed. The model established according to the F test is significant (F=39.689). It is seen that 48% of the change in vessel operation speed (dependent variable) is explained by the independent variable used (Adjusted R^2=0.48).

Table 5. Parameter Estimations

	Model	Non-standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Standard Error	Beta		t Value	P Value
1	(Fixed)	45.090	1.828		24.669	.000
	Yard occupancy	-.272	.020	-.655	-13.677	.000*
	Vessel Loading	.000	.001	.056	.709	.479
	Vessel Housekeeping	-.003	.002	-.088	-1.116	.266
	Input	-.002	.001	-.149	-2.485	.014*
	Output	-.001	.001	-.052	-.900	.369
	CFS	.002	.002	.063	1.212	.227

According to the results of the regression analysis, it was determined that the yard occupancy had a significant effect on the vessel's operation speed (P=0.000; *P<0.05). With the P value less than 0.05, the H0g hypothesis was rejected, and it was determined that the effect of the yard occupancy on the vessel's operational speed was statistically significant. According to the results obtained, it was determined by the minus sign in the beta coefficient that the yard occupancy reduces the vessel's operating speed. It was determined that as the yard occupancy increased, the operation speed of the vessels decreased. The parameter value of the yard occupancy is -0.272.

According to the results of the regression analysis, it was determined that the input (number of containers entering to the port) had a significant effect on the vessel operating speed (P=0.000; *P<0.05). With the P value less than 0.05, the H0j hypothesis was rejected and it was determined that the effect of the input on the vessel's operation speed was statistically significant. According to the results obtained, it has been determined by the minus sign in the beta coefficient that the input reduces the vessel's operational speed. It was determined that the operational speed of the vessels decreased as the input increased. The parameter value of the input is -0.002. As a result of one unit increase in the input, the operational speed of the vessel decreases by 0.002 times.

5. Conclusion and Discussion

The performance and efficiency of ports can directly affect the economic output of regions and countries, since maritime transportation has the largest share among transportation types in global trade and as the ports are the starting and ending points of maritime transportation. In many countries, new port investments and capacity increases are carried out with government policies, and industry and market hinterland are considered in the selection of port location. It was aimed to draw attention to the importance of performance and capacity calculations in ports throughout the study.

Port performance and capacity become much more important, especially during periods of increased demand in maritime transport, when export/import volumes increase rapidly depending on the economic policies of countries, and during periods of disruption and changes in the supply chain.

This study aimed to calculate the optimum storage capacity in which the ports can use the yard equipment and operations most effectively at the focal point of the hourly performance (GMPH) which they aim to produce in vessel operations. Regression and Correlation analyzes were made using the data of a certain time period that belongs to a port operator operating in Turkey and the optimum storage capacity was calculated for the targeted hourly vessel operation performance.

The regression equation resulting from the analysis is as follows:

GMPH = 45.090(Coefficient) - 0,2272 x (Yard Occupancy) +0.00 x (Vessel Loading) – 0.003x (Vessel Housekeeping) – 0,002 x (Input) – 0,001 x (Output) + 0,002 x (CFS)

In the resulting regression equation, when the mean (average) values of the independent variables in the data set are taken, the result is as follows:

GMPH = 45.090 – 0,2272 x 89,59 + 0,00 x 474,05 – 0,003 x 103,24 – 0,002 x 349,09 – 0,001 x 447,43 + 0,002 x 139,78

GMPH = 19,54

The GMPH target of the port operator from which the data set is obtained is determined as 25. The calculation made by considering the averages of the dependent variables in the data set in order to reach the target of 25 GMPH over the regression equation is as follows:

GMPH = 45.090 – 0,2272 x X1 + 0,00 x 474,05 – 0,003 x 103,24 – 0,002 x 349,09 – 0,001 x 447,43 + 0,002 x 139,78

In this case,

25 = 45.090 – 0,2272 x X1 + 0,00 x 474,05 – 0,003 x 103,24 – 0,002 x 349,09 – 0,001 x 447,43 + 0,002 x 139,78

X1 = 69,54.

Considering the arithmetic mean of the independent variables in the data set and the target value of the dependent variable, the port operator needs to work with % 69.54 area occupancy in order to achieve the targeted GMPH. This value can be named as the optimum occupancy rate of the GMPH value targeted for the port operation. It is internationally accepted that a utilisation figure of up to 70% will allow the port to work at maximum efficiency (Drewry, 2014). This statement supports the analysis results. When all these results are considered, it is concluded that the optimum storage capacity focused on GMPH is 69.54% for the port operator used as a sample. The sectoral equivalent of the results of the analysis method used in the research shows that regression analysis can be used to determine the optimum storage capacity focused on GMPH for port operators. So, the model can be used as an important decision support tool for real-life operations in container ports.

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ORGANISATIONAL TRUST AND INFORMATION SHARING IN HOTEL BUSINESSES WITHIN THE FRAMEWORK OF ORGANISATIONAL SOCIAL CAPITAL

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1. Introduction

The concept of social capital, which appears as one of the determining factors in knowledge management and knowledge sharing in organisations, is a very important issue for business managers and all businesses that focus on development and progress in knowledge management (Hoffman et al., 2005: 98). However, with the creation of bridges between different social circles, advantages are provided in accessing valuable resources, qualified information and creative ideas. On the other hand, the relational bridging between different parts of a social network creates unique opportunities for the exchange of information and resources between actors (Benton, 2013: 273).

Thanks to its non-material structural character, social capital can be effective in a micro sense, making the connections and relationships between specific groups and organisations much more specific (Chia, 2014: 44). The mechanisms necessary for the identification and development of organisational resources and capabilities are included in the concept of social capital. In this respect, social capital, which has a multidimensional characteristic, is in a position to produce value in terms of contributing to the development and protection of strategic resources and capabilities both within the firm and through organisational networks (De Wever et al. 2005: 87). Unlike material and human capital, social capital is also characterised as soft capital (Hua et al.,

2021). In this context, social capital is a social interaction network that connects social participants with other individuals or organisations and is characterised by social interaction, mutual normativity and trust (Nenadovic and Epstein, 2016). Personal networks represent relationships with people in an individual's private environment, such as family, relatives and friends, within the scope of common characteristics and interests. Professional networks encompass relationships with partners, employees, suppliers, customers and colleagues, and are related to bridging social capital as it occurs. Relational networks are the relationships an individual has with the associations to which they belong. These relationships may be formal in nature, especially when these groups are governed by rules governing membership entry and behaviour, but may also involve informal interactions. Thus, these relationships may include both bonding and bridging social capital, or strong and weak ties. Institutional networks are relationships with individuals in public or private organisations. These relationships are often non-voluntary in nature and highly regulated (Lee and Hallak, 2020: 2). In addition, it is possible to say that social capital plays a very critical role in terms of information exchange through coordination and communication concepts on the survival, success and high performance of an organisation (Lin et al. 2009: 230). For this reason, in this section where trust and information sharing in hotel businesses are discussed in terms of the value it creates in terms of organisational sense, social capital, dimensions of social capital, organisational social capital issues are discussed from the perspective of trust and information sharing on the basis of social capital in terms of tourism and hotel businesses in terms of the fact that these businesses continue their activities in a wide network.

2. Social Capital

According to Putnam (2000: 19), social capital is "*the connections between individuals, social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness arising from them*". According to social capital researchers, these connections and interactions can be realised at different levels of micro (individual), meso (group) and macro (society) (Putnam, 1993; Coleman, 1988; Portes, 1998). The concept of capital is the means of production used for the production of goods and services in the economic sense (Yazıcı, 1990: 18). The basic idea of social capital is that social communication networks are very valuable. Because communication networks form the basis of social cohesion. Thanks to social cohesion, people have the opportunity to work together with different individuals other than the ones they already know (Field, 2003: 16). On the

other hand, scientists such as Putnam, Bourdieu, Coleman and Hanifan, who have conducted academic studies on social capital, all agree that social capital consists of a number of elements. Even if these elements have shown some changes, they are generally norms, values, trust and social networks. From this point of view, the main point emphasised by social capital is that the relations between individuals express a value in a material sense (Suna, 2018:11). The definitions accepted in the literature on social capital are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Definitions of Social Capital

Author/Year	Definition for Social Capital
Bourdieu, 1985	The sum of the actual or potential resources associated with having a permanent network of more or less institutionalised relationships of mutual recognition or recognition.
Coleman, 1990	Social capital consists of certain aspects of the social structure that are functional and facilitate certain actions of individuals within society.
Fukuyama, 1995	It is the ability of people to work together for common goals in groups and organisations.
Putnam, 1995	It is features of social organisation such as networks, norms and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit.
Nahapiet ve Ghoshal, 1998	It is the sum of the real and potential resources obtained from the network of relationships that an individual or social unit has and embedded through this network. In this context, social capital includes both the network and the assets that can be mobilised through this network.
Fukuyama, 2000	A set of norms shaped around faith tradition, experience and culture that facilitates co-operation.

Source: Compiled by the author.

2.1. Dimensions of Social Capital

The concept of social capital has multidimensional qualities. In terms of business science, the concept of social capital has been addressed in the fields of strategic management (Koka and Prescott 2002), organisational behaviour (Tsai and Ghoshal 1998; Bolino et al., 2002), human resource management (Chen et al., 2011), decision making (Brown and Ashman 1996). In this context, it has been largely analysed in the literature in three dimensions, namely relational, structural and cognitive. According to Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998), social capital consists

of three basic components: structural social capital, which refers to the connections between actors, relational social capital, which refers to the trust between actors, and cognitive social capital, which refers to the level. In this context, relational social capital refers to phenomena created and strengthened through trust, norms, sanctions, respect, friendship and relationships (Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1993b; Uzzi & Gillespie, 2002). Structural social capital refers to the overall pattern of connections in the social system shaped by ownership and personal and business relationships in terms of connectivity, hierarchy and network configuration. (Uzzi, 1997; Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998; Ahuja, 2000; Lefebvre et al, 2016). Cognitive social capital, on the other hand, refers to the shared language and systems of representation, interpretation, vision and meaning shared between parties (Uzzi, 1997; Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998; Tsai and Ghoshal, 1998).

2.1.1. Structural Dimension (Networks and Relationships)

Structural social capital is represented by the overall pattern of connections between network members (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998). In the structural dimension of social capital, there are conceptual foundations where the structure and configuration of the network is most evident. In this context, relationships created purely for friendship can also be used for other commercial purposes. For example, at a basic level, there is a connection between service provider and consumer for the purpose of economic exchange. There may be other links between these two partners, such as joint membership of other groups. Each link, or the length of the relationship and the amount of interaction resulting from it, will have its own structural characteristics. In this context, it can be said that long-lasting and frequent interactions constitute high structural social capital (Jones and Taylor, 2012: 62). Therefore, the structural dimension is related to the configuration of the network of relationships between organisational members in terms of density connectivity and hierarchy and how they are connected (Davenport and Daellenbach 2011:57).

In the context of the structural dimension, three main elements that make up networks can be mentioned. These are actors, mutual relations of actors and the structure formed by relations. Actors are individuals and units, groups and organisations formed by individuals. In this context, networks can also be expressed as communication channels formed by actors with each other. On the other hand, although networks can be shown as a reason for the creation and maintenance of social capital, they can also be seen as a result of social capital due to the ties that occur (Ögüt & Erbil, 2009:19-20).

2.1.2. Relational Dimension (Trust and Norms)

The relational dimension refers to the nature and quality of relationships that develop during interaction and manifest in behavioural attributes such as trustworthiness, shared group norms, obligations and identification (Davenport and Daellenbach 2011:57). The conceptual foundations of relational social capital are based on psychological theories of commitment and attachment. Various measures have been used to represent relational social capital, including the concepts of relationship strength, relational embeddedness, closeness, trust and commitment. Therefore, relationships with high relational social capital can also be described as close, connected or trusting relationships (Jones and Taylor 2012: 61).

According to Fukuyama (1998), the basis of social capital is trust. In this context, trust, which is a concept frequently used in terms of social capital, is also characterised as a necessary condition and starting point of social capital. In addition, it is also of great importance in terms of the fact that economic and social cooperation mechanisms are shaped around the concept of trust and have features that support network relations (Ögüt & Erbil, 2009: 21). On the other hand, Putnam (1993) emphasises that the formation of trust takes place through networks and norms.

2.1.3. Cognitive Dimension (Shared Language and Common Values)

The cognitive dimension relates to shared cognition and includes representations, interpretations and systems of meaning as exhibited in shared vocabulary and narratives (Davenport and Daellenbach 2011:57). Cognitive social capital refers to the extent to which network members share common beliefs, interests, values, languages, norms and meaning systems (Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998). The cognitive dimension of social capital includes resources that provide shared representations, interpretations and systems of meaning between parties. Cognitive social capital is embodied in attributes such as shared representations and shared codes that facilitate communication within a group. This dimension has benefited greatly from cognitive psychology, which focuses on how people process information. It is assumed that individuals use a knowledge structure, a mental template, to give form and meaning to information (Zheng, 2010: 172). Cognitive social capital has its conceptual roots in sociology, where shared codes and common understandings help facilitate collective behaviour (Jones and Taylor, 2012: 62).

3. Organisational Social Capital

According to Nahapiet and Ghosgal (1998: 242), social capital is considered as an important "organisational advantage" for organisations and the importance of organisations for the formation of social capital is summarised under three items. These are:

(1) Social capital facilitates the creation of new intellectual capital.

(2) Organisations as institutional settings are conducive to the development of high levels of social capital.

(3) Through their social capital, firms have an advantage over markets in creating and sharing intellectual capital within certain limits.

Organisational social capital is a firm-level phenomenon. Organisational social capital can improve the social relations of the members of the organisation within the same group or unit and the performance of the group or unit by contributing to the social structure of the organisation in a broad sense. In this context, it contributes to firm performance by creating a sense of high trust and shared vision among the members of the organisation pursuing common strategic goals, as well as benefiting the whole organisation. On the other hand, the essence of organisational social capital is the benefits it provides for creating a strong identity with the firm by creating a common vision among employees and pursuing common missions and goals (Chuang et al., 2013: 679). On the other hand, in terms of management and organisation, it has been emphasised in the studies that organisational social capital is a social unit that benefits both individual members and the social unit as a whole (Bourdieu, 1985; Coleman, 1988). In addition, it has been revealed that organisational social capital facilitates the exchange of resources by encouraging the mobilisation and use of organisational information resources (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998; Subramaniam & Youndt, 2005; Maurer et al., 2011). In addition, organisational social capital is also effective on variables that may affect organisational performance such as job satisfaction (Özdemir, 2008).

The ability of social capital in an organisation to contribute towards building innovation capabilities requires an organisational context in which information and knowledge can flow as freely as possible and which removes vertical and horizontal barriers to encourage employee connections and knowledge exchange with external stakeholders. This organisational context helps the enterprise to create linkages between employees in various functional units and departments such as marketing, operations, infrastructure and R&D. Such linkages serve as channels of communication and influence that allow the

business to recognise, access and interpret its specific knowledge. However, the willingness of external stakeholders such as customers, suppliers, financial institutions and government agencies to form linkages also serves as information channels that can shape managerial views on the environment and expand the available ideas, information and decision alternatives (Donate et al., 2019: 90).

Liu (2013) found in his study that employees who have good relationships with their colleagues in terms of mutual trust, respect and friendship contribute to the development of organisational creativity. In addition, he argues that social capital is an important facilitator in the context of organisational creativity and contributes to the creativity capabilities of businesses. Social capital, defined as the real and potential resources embedded in the relationships between actors, has been used at the organisational level to describe both the collective form and nature of relationships between members of the organisation, as well as the links between the organisation and external stakeholders, competitors. However, both understandings of social capital focus on the nature and strength of relationships and the embedded communication flows of individuals and organisations. Among the advantages attributed to social capital, better group communication; more efficient collective action; improved stocks and use of intellectual capital; and better access to resources are particularly emphasised (Leana and Pil, 2006: 353).

Organisational social capital examines the positive and productive interactions and relationships between members of the organisation for the creation and sharing of knowledge (Tantardini & Krol, 2015: 86). The basis of organisational social capital is the relationships between the stakeholders under the roof of the same organisation. In this context, the relations of employees at all levels of the organisation with each other and the relations of these employees with suppliers and customers are accepted as the basic elements in the formation of organisational social capital. In other words, it is possible to say that organisational social capital has two basic components, namely internal and external (Özdemir, 2008: 82).

3.1. Types of Organisational Social Capital

Social scientists have put forward many definitions of social capital. Although these definitions are generally similar, some important nuances come to the fore. These definitions differ according to whether they focus on the essence, sources or effects of social capital. While the focus on external relations emphasises the so-called bridge forms of social capital, the focus on internal

relations emphasises more relational elements (Adler and Kwon, 2002: 19). In this context, intrinsic and extrinsic social capital are summarised below.

3.1.1. Internal Social Capital

Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) emphasise that endogenous social capital has a three-way structure: structural, relational and cognitive. In this context, the structural aspect of social capital refers to the connections based on the flow of information between actors. It is argued that through these connections based on the flow of information, the organisation gains an advantage in gaining competitive advantage by increasing its ability to assimilate information. Therefore, the whole of intrinsic social capital consists of both the structure and the content of the relationships between actors within a system (Leana and Pil, 2006: 353). In addition, intrinsic social capital can help to explain the competitive success of individuals and firms to a large extent in terms of direct and indirect connections with other actors in social networks (Adler and Kwon, 2002: 19).

In the context of internal social capital, the knowledge belonging to the organisation is particularly emphasised. By transferring and sharing the knowledge and experience of the individuals within the organisation to other employees, it is ensured that new information that will contribute to the increase in organisational effectiveness is created. In the meantime, it is very important to provide a suitable environment in the organisational sense in terms of both protecting the existing knowledge and realising the transfer of knowledge. In this context, there are two situations that reveal the importance of internal social capital for the organisation. The first is the sharing and transfer of individual knowledge that will contribute to the organisation and the second is the creation of an organisational environment in which individual participation is encouraged (Ögüt & Erbil, 2009: 96).

3.2.2. External Social Capital

The distinction between external and internal social capital is largely due to the difference in perspective and unit of analysis. In this context, these two types of capital are not mutually exclusive. For example, the relations between an employee and his/her colleagues in an enterprise are external to the employee but internal to the firm. On the other hand, the behaviour of a collective actor such as an enterprise is directly affected by both its external connections with other firms and institutions and the structure of its internal connections (Adler

and Kwon, 2002: 21). Linkages with external stakeholders can benefit the organisation in various ways. External linkages can provide access to important resource providers such as suppliers and partners. However, external linkages can also be seen as a tool to protect the organisation from harmful or disruptive external influences by increasing predictability in interactions, capturing environmental opportunities and directly managing and influencing resources that may cause uncertainty (Leana and Pil, 2006: 354).

As in internal social capital, the relationships established with actors who are likely to benefit the organisation and the functionality of these relationships are critically important in external social capital. In this context, external social capital is shaped around three components: production-related, environmental-related and marketing-related. These are summarised below (Ögüt and Erbil, 2009: 100-102):

Production-related social capital: This part of external social capital focuses on industrial relations. In this sense, suppliers providing inputs and customers providing outputs constitute production-related social capital.

Environmentally connected social capital: In this context, official institutions and political decision-makers who are not in direct cooperation with organisations but who may have an impact on the activities of the organisation constitute environmentally connected social capital.

Marketing-related social capital: In order to create marketing-related social capital, social capital for customers can be created through the development and implementation of different marketing strategies by organisations.

4. Tourism and Social Capital

In general terms, it is possible to say that social capital consists of three qualities. These can be listed as trust, reciprocity and co-operation. If these three elements are strong within communities, they are generally more likely to benefit from opportunities for economic capacity building and community building (Zahra and McGehee, 2013: 26). In addition, tourism policies are assumed to influence the relationships between policy actors, the capacity of the state to act, the identification of policy instruments and indicators, as well as the definition of potential political problems, all of which have extremely important implications for tourism (Hall, 2011: 437).

Social capital is at the centre of governance. This is very important for tourism, where both governance and social capital are recognised as important components (Nunkoo, 2017:4). However, tourism destinations can be evaluated

as complex networks that include a large number of co-producing actors offering various products and services. For tourists, a destination is an integrated experience or a unit offering a product, and this experience is produced and created by individual actors. The success of individual actors as well as the success of the entire destination depends on the effective coordination and integration of the resources, products and services of individual companies (Haugland et al., 2011: 268). For hotel businesses in a tourism destination, this network of associations created in terms of social capital primarily includes relations with other local companies such as other accommodation companies. However, this network may also include other businesses such as travel agencies, tour operators, cultural companies, entertainment companies, destination management organisations, local associations and the relationships established with these businesses (Sainaghi and Baggio, 2014: 99). When the point reached in the context of social capital is evaluated, international tourism mobilisations directly affect the local community, employees, public authorities, tourists and businesses. This impact is also very important in terms of contributing to the cooperation of sector employees, professional non-governmental organisations and other stakeholders (Polat and Aktaş Polat, 2015: 772).

5. Organisational Social Capital in Hotel Businesses

According to Wernerfelt's (1984), resource-based view theory, a firm's competitive advantage is possible by having unique resources and capabilities. Organisational social capital is a very important concept in terms of ensuring organisational success and contributing to organisational performance (Özdemir, 2008: 81). Moran (2005), in his research on managers, found that the structural dimension of social capital positively affects management performance. However, the relational dimension plays a key role in explaining innovation-oriented tasks such as management performance in product and process innovation for managers. In the tourism industry, the forms of capital that can be used to implement value-creating strategies can be listed as physical elements such as geographical location and financial opportunities, human elements such as competence/innovation, skills, technical knowledge and sales force, and organisational elements including structure and culture, management philosophy, business processes, information technology, cost control systems and human resources systems (Kim et al., 2012: 686). Kim et al. (2016) emphasise that social capital plays important roles in destination marketing in terms of influencing the trust, norms and relational activities of tourism businesses and

contributing to the determination of how the decisions of managers working in tourism businesses organise activities scattered in an uncertain environment. According to the results of the research conducted by Liu and Jiang (2020), intellectual capital in hotel businesses is related to relational capital and organisational capital, while relational capital has an effect on human capital through organisational capital. Lopez-Costa and Munoz-Canavate (2015), in their research on relational social capital in hotel businesses, emphasised the importance of meeting the needs and desires of customers, developing customer loyalty, collecting feedback, brand recognition and maintaining a permanent market orientation. In this context, although relational capital includes elements that are outside the hotel and therefore beyond its control, it is evaluated that the effects of the issues emphasised above within the scope of relational capital on the performance of hotel businesses will be positive in long-term economic crisis situations. In summary, since social capital is a result of collective relations, it depends on the existence of shared norms and values as well as the ability to work towards achieving collective goals. Therefore, the sharing of values that characterise social capital is compatible with the concept of organisational identification, which suggests that social capital and organisational identification complement each other (Davenport and Daellenbach 2011:57).

5.1. Internal Social Capital in Hotel Businesses

In the organisational social capital literature, it has been emphasised that intrinsic social capital includes social resources within the scope of relationships and networks within an organisation (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Leana & Van Buren, 1999). To give an example in terms of hotel businesses, the interaction between the employees working in hotel businesses is related to the degree of coordination, co-operation and trust among these employees. In addition, intrinsic social capital is shared by the members of the organisation. Through intrinsic social capital, orientation towards common goals and common working memory are created. In this context, while the level of trust and reciprocity increases, access to information resources improves and develops. As a result, it contributes to the positive development of the capabilities of hotel businesses (Tang, 2016: 58).

In the context of intrinsic social capital in tourism enterprises, social interactions between employees facilitate the mobilisation of information resources and inform others about the existence and location of relevant information. At the same time, social interactions enable employees to exchange

the knowledge gained through social interactions. On the other hand, it is also possible to say that when employees trust each other, they are more likely to help each other since they are more willing to share. The existence of a managerial environment that enables the establishment of reliable relationships between employees and the sharing of critical information and knowledge is very important in terms of utilising relational resources. Because in this case, responsibilities and goals between managers and employees will not only help determine the exact type and location of knowledge and information, but also support the achievement of desired organisational results (Chowdury et al., 2020: 3275).

5.2. External Social Capital in Hotel Businesses

Touristic destinations can be seen as complex networks of firms with common actors in terms of production. The common characteristic of these networks is the need for coordination and integration of activities provided by interdependent but autonomous actors for the provision of products and services. In this sense, co-production requires actors to have easy access to each other in order to integrate their specialised resources and activities across the boundaries of their enterprises. In this context, networks, local clusters and relationships of linked firms are crucial for co-production. Therefore, it is critical for these enterprises to have access to information through shortcuts to wider networks. In this context, efficient co-production can typically be characterised by linkages that connect and reduce pathways between local clusters and clustered network members (Aarstad et al., 2015: 354).

External social capital encompasses relationships and connections that take place outside the organisation. In this context, hotel businesses can gather information about the tourism sector by accessing resources with the help of external social capital. In this direction, they can harmonise their business models with the conditions of the environment. In this context, hotel businesses can cooperate with the owners of local tourism resources in discussing and formulating marketing strategies to facilitate the promotion and development of regional tourism through external social capital (Chowdury et al., 2020: 3275).

In this context, organisational social capital in tourism enterprises is discussed in the light of organisational trust and information sharing in tourism enterprises, and information on the subject is presented under the aforementioned headings.

5.3. Organisational Trust in Hotel Businesses

The basis of organisational trust is based on Mayer et al.'s (1995) integrative trust model. According to this model, Mayer et al. (1995), revealed that trust consists of three components: benevolence, ability and integrity. In addition, Mayer et al. (1995), define trust as the state of being vulnerable to the manager's actions based on expectations that the manager will perform a certain action that is important for the employee. Employees who have a sense of trust towards the organisation accept the decisions and actions of the organisation. In addition to this, employees develop a positive sense of trust towards the organisation through successful human resources practices carried out by the management to promote quality service delivery and care for the welfare of employees. In this case, it positively affects the increase in performance, trust in the organisation and employees' perceptions of justice, and prevents the occurrence of negative situations such as turnover intention (Öztürk & Karatepe, 2019: 221).

Brien et al. (2012) emphasise that organisational social capital consists of five variables: commitment, communication, trust, influence and social relations. Although trust is potentially an area of organisational social capital that is more difficult to develop and maintain, it also forms the basis of other dimensions such as commitment, social relations, communication and influence (Brien et al., 2012:124). In this context, tourism enterprises should maintain both the quality of the products and services to be offered and the sales and marketing activities in a way that does not deceive tourists in order to prevent the concept of "trust", which is one of the basic elements of social capital, from being damaged in the eyes of tourists. It should not be forgotten by businesses that not offering touristic goods and services to tourists in the way they were previously introduced will have a negative social cost (Polat and Aktaş Polat, 2015: 772). On the other hand, social relations are a necessary condition for the realisation of tourism activities. In this context, it is possible to say that people's need for trust is lower in low-interaction activities and people's need for trust is higher in high-interaction activities. As tourists have a high level of trust in the destinations they visit, they act more comfortably on the one hand and on the other hand, the possibility of encountering possible negativities decreases. In a low trust environment, it may be possible for tourists to be deceived in many issues (Polat & Aktaş Polat, 2016: 402). According to the results of the research conducted by Brien et al. (2012) on organisational social capital in hotel businesses, the results revealed that 'age' and 'length of service' are key factors in developing corporate trust. In addition, according to the

results of the research, the percentage of employees between the ages of 41-50 and the number of full-time employees have a positive effect on the level of organisational trust.

5.4. Information Sharing in Hotel Businesses

Knowledge sharing can be defined as a culture of social interaction involving the exchange of knowledge, experience and skills of employees through the whole department or organisation (Lin, 2007: 315). For businesses, knowledge can be considered as the most important resource in terms of providing competitive advantage as its creation and application offers new opportunities to organisations. Knowledge sharing provides knowledge dissemination by focusing more on the process of knowledge collection, thus contributing to knowledge exchange, application and development of knowledge-based capabilities within the organisation. Knowledge sharing contributes positively to the reduction of production costs, faster completion of R&D projects, improvement of decision-making and coordination, ability to innovate, and increase in sales or revenues from new products and services (Allameh, 2018: 860).

On the other hand, knowledge sharing refers to the process of information exchange between organisational actors such as individuals, groups or organisations. It can be said that inter-organisational knowledge sharing is social in nature and is related to social capital with the effect of including resources as it is embedded in relationships (Lefebvre et al., 2016: 570-571). Social capital can be seen as a resource that facilitates the flow of organisational information. In this sense, social capital has a strong impact on knowledge sharing and exchange in organisations in general. In the related literature, this effect has been emphasised in studies on tourism enterprises (Kim et al. 2013; Tang 2016; Liu and Lee 2015; Kim and Shim, 2018).

Networks facilitate businesses' access to information, resources, markets or technologies. In this context, it is possible to say that businesses have a high potential to acquire knowledge through permanent exchange relationships through the network they are in, and trust is a key element at this point (Inkpen and Tsang, 2005: 146). For organisations, knowledge is very important in terms of contributing to the development of employees and developing new ideas for new applications. However, the development of co-operation on the basis of information sharing can be seen as an opportunity for businesses to strengthen their innovative sides. In this context, it can be said that social capital can support the innovative behaviours of employees in tourism enterprises. Therefore,

social capital on the basis of information sharing can play a stimulating role in terms of mobilising innovation capability in tourism enterprises (Çöp & Topçu, 2019: 35-36). Sorensen (2007), argues that strong individual relationships between employees in organisations in a tourism destination are very important for knowledge transfer. Similarly, Shaw and Williams (2009), valued tourism clusters as vehicles for tacit knowledge transfer and argued that proximity facilitates trust and shared values for effective knowledge sharing through inter-firm links and informal individual relationships.

Knowledge sharing in the tourism sector can be exemplified by a number of practices carried out in accommodation organisations. Marriott International Hotels chain and Ritz-Carlton Hotels chain have used knowledge management practices in organisational analysis. All staff at the Ritz-Carlton have to fill in a guest information card every time they meet a guest. This data is stored for the purpose of determining the needs of the guest. When the guest returns, this information is distributed back to the staff. Thus, each guest receives personalised service and therefore his/her satisfaction increases. Thanks to this system, hotel businesses and other tourism businesses can make significant progress in improving service quality by increasing the knowledge of their employees about customer preferences and adapting their products and services accordingly (Kim et al., 2013: 684). According to the results of the research conducted by Kim and Shim (2018) on social capital, knowledge sharing and innovation in small and medium-sized tourism enterprises, it was determined that social capital structures, including network density of structural capital, relational capital and cognitive capital, positively affect knowledge sharing among small and medium-sized tourism enterprises. In addition, the study emphasised that social capital is critical for increasing the competitiveness of these tourism enterprises and confirmed that knowledge sharing positively affects the performance of tourism enterprises through innovation.

6. Conclusion

Although the effects of the dimensions of social capital on knowledge sharing vary, it has been revealed in the literature that the relational and structural dimensions of social capital have positive effects on innovative and competitive performance (Cappiello et al. 2020; Dai et al. 2015). However, in the relevant literature, the positive effects of the elements of social capital in terms of innovation, service innovation and adaptability to cope with crises in crisis periods in hotel businesses are emphasised (Chowdhury et al, 2019;

Martínez-Pérez et al. 2019; García -Villaverde et al, 2017). On the other hand, relationships established through networks within the scope of social capital can positively affect the innovation capacity of hotel businesses (Huggins & Thompson, 2017; Montañés-Del-Río & Medina-Garrido, 2020). In this context, the positive relationship between social capital and innovation is at the forefront in terms of lower transaction costs, ease of access to information and valuable resources, and shared capacity to identify opportunities and develop continuous innovations through the benefits provided by the collaborative environment (Czernek-Marszalek, 2020). These effects can be analysed separately in each of the three dimensions of social capital. First, more cohesive and dense networks facilitate access to ideas, information, opportunities and technology that serve to foster greater innovation by encouraging co-operation. Second, trust encourages stakeholders to collaborate and share resources, fostering a common pool of creativity and experimentation needed to bring about continuous changes to processes, products and services. Thirdly, the goals shared by network members can lead to innovation by further integrating tourism businesses with each other by contributing to the formation of shared culture and values together with the development of common language and goals that allow businesses to come together (García-Villaverde et al. 2021: 4). From this point of view, it is possible to say that the inclusion of employees and managers of hotel businesses in the network of relationships is very important in terms of both innovation and adaptive behaviour in times of crisis. On the other hand, in the tourism sector, in addition to hotel businesses, all businesses such as suppliers, local-regional institutions, tour operators and travel intermediaries continue their activities in the background of social relations (Elche, et al. 2018; Hollebeek and Could , 2019).

The relational environment within the organisation is of great importance in terms of social capital and the quality of the relationship between group members has a significant impact on the knowledge sharing of members (Han & Hovav, 2016; Van den Hooff & de Winter, 2011). In this context, research has shown that organisations with a well-established network of internal relationships benefit from close interaction through communication flow, resource exchange and, as a natural consequence of this situation, from the high level of performance resulting from increased teamwork (Lee et al., 2015; Chen & Lovvorn, 2011). In addition, creating and developing a knowledge sharing culture in organisations can be considered as a very important factor that improves business performance and increases organisational success. When

knowledge is shared, inexperienced or newly recruited employees can access intellectual resources more easily and effectively and can be more beneficial to organisations in terms of performance. In this respect, in the hospitality sector, where services are produced and consumed at the same time and therefore the margin of error is very small, knowledge management, especially knowledge sharing, is very important to prevent service failures (Swanson et al. 2020: 88).

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STRATEGIC PLANNING AS A FACTOR AFFECTING INSTITUTIONAL PERFORMANCEIN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS: AN APPLICATION AT BAGHDAD UNIVERSITY[1]

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1. Introduction

Higher education institutes (HEIs) are critical to developing countries' scientific advancement. However, due to data availability issues and national institutional limits, as well as the variability of higher education institutions, poor performance, and a drop in their educational level, significant challenges must be overcome (Bonaccorsi, Daraio, Lepori, & Slipersaeter, 2007).

In the 1980s, Philip Kotler conducted a study on the future problems of higher education and the institutional stagnation that will occur, in which he stated that higher education institutions will need to become more deductive and decomposing, as well as develop strategic plans to identify areas of increased student interest and create new programs to replace those that have decreased demand (Kotler & Murphy, 1981). As a result, research methods began to emerge through strategic planning, with an influence related to institutional

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1 Produced from the Master's Thesis completed by Zahraa JASIM MOHAMMED

performance and human resource management in order to develop university institutional performance in a manner appropriate to today's student needs.

The research tools were devised from data collection methods, books were relied on as a primary source, published and unpublished articles, and scientific sources related to strategic planning topics, as well as articles related to institutional performance and human resource management. Reliance on scientific references that have a common relationship between the concepts of strategic planning, institutional performance, and human resources. The citation was taken from publications related to higher education and how to develop institutional performance in universities. A questionnaire was also conducted for employees and administrators, as well as academics working at the University of Baghdad, and their answers were analyzed to reach the research objectives. As a data collection tool, a special closed-type questionnaire was created. The questionnaire is divided into two parts based on the research sample.

2. Strategic Planning Concept

Strategic planning refers to the art of management and leadership in the field of management. Due to its prominence in business organizations and the management of their internal affairs, it has attracted the attention of numerous researchers (Steiner, 2010). Strategy is a term that describes planning, such as creating effective plans and techniques. Putting the strategy into practice and following instructions will help the administration follow the road it has chosen, profit from the surrounding plans, and overcome the obstacles, dangers, and risks to which it is exposed to accomplish its strategic goals (Nowak, 2020). At the organizational level, strategy is the organization's direction. To manage its resources in a changing environment to get a competitive advantage and to meet stakeholder expectations (ElBardissi, Wiegmann, Henrickson, Wadhera, & Sundt III, 2008). It also provides insight into the ideal future shape of the organization (Gagné, 2018). Strategic planning includes the following elements to achieve this form:

1. Insight into the organization's future features.
2. Visualize the organization's future trajectory and direction.
3. Future mission vision for the organization Considers the business and activities in which the organization is involved.

Strategic planning is an important component of strategic management, and the previous definitions state that strategic planning is "a mental and analytical process for selecting the organization's future location based on changes in the

environment and the organization's adaptation to it." As a result of its instability, the environment can be said to be a critical factor for organizations (O'Regan, Sims, & Gallear, 2008).

3. Organizational Performance Concept

Performance is defined as the effective and efficient use of resources to achieve organizational goals (Elena-Iuliana & Maria, 2016). Increased personal initiative alters employees' working conditions and is linked to entrepreneurship success. The ideas of mutual determinism, organizational citizenship behavior, creativity, entrepreneurship, job performance, intrinsic motivation, and self-regulation are all considered as modifications and refinements of personal initiative for good organizational behavior (Frese & Fay, 2001).

Employees are essential to the success of a firm and the quality of its performance. In other words, whether the organization selects its programs and activities in line with the needs of the target groups, and what is the degree of their satisfaction with them. It is represented in the extent of the beneficiaries' and stakeholders' satisfaction with the services provided and the performance of the employees (Ishaq Bhatti, Awan, & Razaq, 2014).

4. Institutional Performance

The concept of efficiency is of great importance within the concept of corporate performance. However, in attempts to assess institutional performance, the efficiency factor has been largely ignored; its relationship to economic notions of productivity and efficiency is examined (Polischuk, 2013). Efficiency and effectiveness are the two primary components of the term "performance," hence an organization is said to be performing when it combines efficiency and effectiveness (Usman, Elsalih, & Koshadh, 2020): Effectiveness serves as a gauge of how well the goals have been accomplished. As a result, it is concerned with the goals set by the organization and the degree to which they are met, in addition to streamlining its internal procedures and getting resources from the environment in which it operates that are referred to as scarce (Altanashat, Al Dubai, & Alhety, 2019).

5. Studies Related to Strategic Planning

Tapinos, Efstathios, Robert G. Dyson, and Maureen Meadows (2005) concluded that one of the four primary criteria that characterize modern

strategic planning practice is performance measurement. The complexity resulting from organizational size and rate of change in the sector that creates variance in the impact of performance measurement in strategic planning is also identified. Performance measurement is increasingly used by large enterprises in dynamically changing situations.

The aim of Chang (2008) was to improve national education systems in a more strategic way. According to the results of study, it was determined that mastering strategic planning concepts and procedures is an enabler, but not sufficient, for dealing with the educational requirements and obstacles that education planners and managers encounter.

Young, Dorothy (2009) discussed the role of strategic planning in business science and questioned the possibility of applying strategic planning in the field of education, and specialized in its application to schools in the city of Winnipeg, to review the strategic planning activities of school departments within the city limits to determine whether these activities are generally compatible with the strategic planning cycle in a way. In general, the study found that strategic planning works well in school districts in Winnipeg.

Cania (2014) used strategic planning for human resources to assess the level of organizational performance of organizations, concluding that it is vital to manage human resources strategically and align its strategy with the organizational strategy.

Dowsett (2020) focused on strategic planning tools and their impact on the institutional performance of some institutions in boosting their worldwide rankings, this study presents the findings of the academic categorization of some international universities. This investigation looks into how classification affects institutions, with a particular focus on their research strategy. The chosen universities show that they are strategic in their approach to influencing and responding to annual rankings announcements. The findings suggest that certain changes in strategic direction can help the university not only improve its market position but also dramatically increase its rating.

6. Studies Related to Institutional Performance

Coffé & Geys (2005) is concerned with institutional performance and the impact of social capital on it in the context of local government. This research found that societies with higher levels of social capital had better institutional performance, and that the scope of experimental work should be expanded to include local government while maintaining the use of objective data to

assess institutional performance. Even after accounting for the different social, economic, and political variables between municipalities, social capital leads to improved financial and institutional management for the government. This is in line with findings from higher levels of government, indicating that even little variations in social capital can have a large impact on democratic government performance.

Çalışkan (2010) provided a summary of the impact of human resource management strategy on institutional performance, where resource management is concerned with establishing a link between the business's general strategic objectives and the human resource strategy and implementation of institutional performance. The findings show that there is a statistical link between increased adoption of human resource strategies and improved business performance.

Owolabi & Makinde (2012) was interested in the implications of strategic planning on institutional performance in university education at Babcock University. It also looked at how this affects management, efficiency, and effectiveness, as institutional organizations require strategic planning. The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between strategic planning and corporate performance. Therefore, the study concluded that strategic planning is useful for organizations in achieving it, setting goals and recommending the need for universities and other corporate institutions to Whether engaging in strategic planning in order to enhance the performance of the company.

Froumin, Kouzminov & Semyonov (2014) summarized the diversity of institutional performance in higher education in Russian universities and ways to develop it. The changes in the structure of the higher education system in Russia were studied, and both the historical context and the current institutional diversity were analyzed. They concluded that the administration increased market-oriented programs to remain financially stable. Oftentimes, this strategy has led to the rapid diversification of universities and institutional performance. The results show that universities are adapting to new institutional conditions so that they can survive in the short term.

7. Purpose and Importance of the Research

The purpose of this study is to introduce new concepts and their experiences in higher education at the University of Baghdad in order to improve institutional performance and create a good example that can be used as a model for achieving the desired institutional growth.

The implementation of educational institutions in Iraq to strategic planning and human resource management in its scientific sense, is an urgent and imperative necessity, due to the importance of the educational sector, especially as it constitutes the main pillar of comprehensive development.

The research importance is limited to three important aspects:

1.Theoretical Importance: It is a good reference for students due to the lack of topics related to strategic planning in universities, as well as opening up horizons for new research in the field of human resource development for higher education institutions. It also represents a unique scientific addition to the impact of strategic planning on institutional performance.

2.Scientific Importance: Basically, the scientific steps that must be followed in the management of the university's strategies are shown, especially the steps of designing the strategies, because they precede every action, but rather control any action or behavior, as well as identifying the impact of the implementation of the strategic management method on the performance of the university.

3.Practical Importance: The stages of human resource development in universities are among the important topics in the field of business, as we hope from this study to organize the relationship between employees and the university, through integration with the university's strategy as well as achieve performance efficiency by reaching the maximum use of human resources efficiently in the university.

8. Methodology

8.1. Hypothesis and Research Problem

The link between strategic planning and the quality of institutional performance has not received sufficient attention at the University of Baghdad. Through survey research, it was found that the process of planning and formulating strategic plans is still placed separately from indicators and standards of quality in performance. It was also noted that Iraqi higher education institutions develop their strategic plans and then develop plans for quality to improve their institutional performance, which indicates a weakness in realizing the importance of the role of strategic planning, and its integration with quality performance and human resource management (Zwain, 2012).

Hence, the research problem emerges that the institutional performance at the University of Baghdad does not reach quality without knowing the strengths and weaknesses in its internal environment, as well as knowing the opportunities

and threats to its external environment. The human resources department is one of the departments that interact most with its internal and external environment. The human element is the basis for building and developing the university, and on this depends its success or failure. Accordingly, the Human Resources Department analyzes the needs of the university and then attracts, selects, appoints, trains develop, compensates, and leads the human resource for business to ensure the achievement of the desired goals (Jasim & Khalifa, 2019).

To achieve the goal of the research and solve the problem, the study is concerned with the role of strategic planning in achieving the quality of institutional performance, and the extent of the link between the strategic planning processes and the components of institutional performance represented by: (mission, goals and objectives, governance and management, institutional scope, institutional resources, and services). A detailed guide for institutional self-assessment criteria must be developed that links planning and quality, as well as setting clear and specific performance standards and indicators that include, all aspects of institutional performance based on careful planning and management of available human resources in proportion to the environment at the University of Baghdad (Al-Harethi, Al-Maamari, & Science, 2018).

To overcome the research problem, some questions were formulated by the researcher:

'What is the role of strategic planning in the quality of institutional performance of human resources at the University of Baghdad'

From it the following questions arise:

What is the quality level of the institutional performance of the University of Baghdad?

What is the relationship of strategic planning to human resource development?

What is the reality of the quality level of strategic planning at Baghdad University?

Is there an impact of strategic planning for human resource development at the University of Baghdad?

What is the level of human resource development at the University of Baghdad?

Are there statistically significant differences in the averages of researchers' responses about the reality of human resources development at the University of Baghdad due to (gender, age, educational qualification, place of work, years of service, job title)?

The study adopted some hypotheses to answer the problem of the study, achieve its objectives, and test its scheme, as noted below:

Hypothesis:

H1: Strategic Planning has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance.

H1a: Strategic Vision has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance.

H1b: Internal and External Environment Analyzing has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance.

H1c: Monitoring has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance.
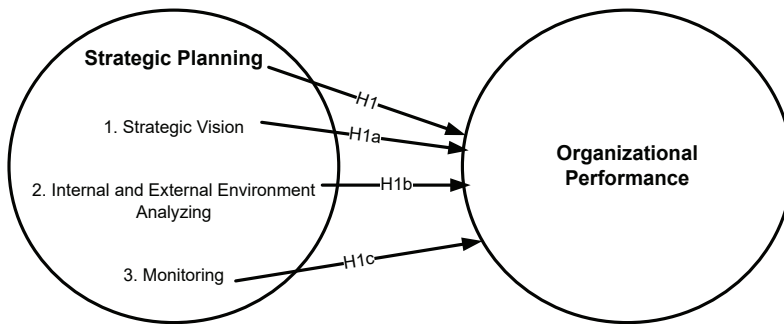
Figure 2. Model of the Research

8.2. Population and Sample Research

The University of Baghdad is the largest Iraqi university, located in the center of Baghdad, the country's capital. In the late 1950s, the Iraqi government developed and funded it. However, the Faculty of Law was founded in 1908, and other faculties followed in the following years, including the Higher Teachers' House, Medicine in 1927, Pharmacy, and Engineering.

Researh population consists of employees are working in supervisory positions in the administration related to planning and human resource development, such as the Department of Planning and Development, the Quality Unit, the Department and Development of Human Resources, the Department of Administrative Affairs at the University of Baghdad, also members of the colleges and departments councils. The target research community consists of administrators and employees at the University of Baghdad. The number is more than 12 thousand employees and teaching staff, The survey form is distributed

to 475 employees. Researcher used Convenience Sampling Technique and received 400 usefull form for analyzes.

8.3. Research Scales and Likert Scale

The questionnaire used to measure the impact of strategic planning on corporate performance in human resources management was adapted from researcher Zaibi (2014). These dimensions have been examined, and many previous studies on this subject have been examined, and on the one hand, the criteria used in these studies have been used for the level of application of these stages of strategic planning. For example, Siam (2010) based his study on the following dimensions. These dimensions are top management support for strategic planning, strategic analysis of external and internal environment, presence of strategic directions (vision, mission and goals), existence of strategic plan, implementation of strategic plan, effectiveness, efficiency, relevance, continuity.

It is Utilized in questionnaires, particularly in the field of statistics. Responses showing the level of support or resistance for a formula are the basis for the scale. The name of the ranking comes from the method of expressing a specific perspective with five options to gauge the degree of agreement and disagreement on a subject.

The variables representing the options are as follows: (1 = Agree, 2 = Strongly Agree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Disagree, 5 = Strongly Disagree).We compute the arithmetic mean (weighted average) by first calculating the range, which equals 5 - 1 = 4. Then we calculate the category length by dividing the range by the number of categories (options) which is 4/5 = 0.8. The first category of arithmetic mean values is from 1 to 1.8 and so on for the rest of the arithmetic averages. As in the following table, which shows how to interpret the values of arithmetic averages.

8.4. Descriptive Statistics Analysis of Demographic Variables

Descriptive Statistics was used to measure strategic planning, which aims to describe, organize, classify, summarize and display strategic planning data in a clear manner in the form of tables. Also, the Descriptive Statistics scale was used to describe and classify organizational performance.

Information on gender, age, academic qualifications, job position, professional experience years of the research participants is given in Table 1.

Table 1: Distribution Table of Demographic Variables

Information		Frequency (F)	Percentage (%)
N=400			
Gender	Female	164	41
	Male	236	59
Age	Less than 30	226	56,5
	31-40	132	33
	41-50	28	7
	More than 51	14	3,5
Academic Qualifications	Diploma	33	8,3
	Bachelor	229	57,3
	Master	117	29,3
	PhD	21	5,3
Job Position	Unprofessional Administrative Work	115	28,7
	Professional Administrative Work	98	24,5
	Employee	166	41,5
	Head Section	21	5,3
Professional Experience Years	Less than 5 years	246	61,5
	6-10 years	69	17,3
	11-15 years	44	11
	16 years and more	41	10,3

8.5. Validity and Reliability Analysis Findings

According to the results of the reliability analysis of the Strategic Planning and Organizational Performance scales, the Cronbach Alpha coefficients were found to be 0,812 and 0,846 respectively. Additionally, as the sub dimensions, strategic vision, internal and external environment, monitoring, employee performance an managerial performans scales, the Cronbach Alpha coefficients were found to be 0,887, 0,881, 0,902, 0,875 and 0,880 in order. In a study, if the Cronbach Alpha coefficients of the scales are between 0,80 and 1,00 the scale is highly reliable (Kalaycı, 2017:405). Based on this information, the scale is highly reliable.

Table 2: Results of Reliability Analysis

Dimensions	Cronbach Alpha
Str. Planning	0,812
Str. Vision	0,887
Int.Ext.Env	0,881
Monitoring	0,902
Org.Perf.	0,846
Employ.Perf.	0,875
Managerial Perf.	0,880

The results of the KMO and Bartlett tests for the research variables are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Strategic Planning Scale KMO and Bartlett Test Findings

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0,830
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1996.037
	Df	190
	Sig.	0.000

The conformity of the research data to the normal distribution was determined according to the Skewness and Kurtosis values. Since the values are between ±1.96 and 0,05 significance level (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), they are suitable for normal distribution.

Varimax rotation method was applied to all factor analysis scales. The values of a variables are measured, and each variable must have one value among the components greater than 0,040 which is described as having a simple compound (Pearson, 2008). As for the variables that are saturated with more than one component that carries a value greater than 0.040, it is a compound variable and must be deleted and re-analyzed.

The KMO measurement value of the questions must be greater than 0,5 to ensure that it belongs to the axis in the questionnaire (Rovai, Baker, & Ponton, 2013). 0,830, it is an acceptable value. We find that the value of sig is less than 0,01 which satisfies the demand. This means that there are interrelationships between the vocabulary of the statistical function, which makes the factor analysis legitimate and feasible.

According to the factor analysis findings, since the factor loads of the 4 expressions (StrPlan19, StrPlan3, StrPlan17, StrPlan8) of the Strategic Planning

scale were below 0,40. So, the expression was excluded from the analysis and reanalyzed. The factor analysis findings obtained are given in the table below.

Table 4: Strategic Planning Explanatory Factor Analysis Findings

	Component		
	1	2	3
Employees are involved in defining the vision and mission of the university.	0,873		
The university relies on joint cooperation between departments and departments to implement plans.	0,862		
The university develops the capabilities of the employees in a way that contributes to the implementation of the plan.	0,541		
Messages for the vision and mission of the university through specialized experts and consultants	0,533		
The administration tries to keep space with the continuous changes in the global environment.	0,508		
There is an annual executive plan that the university seeks to achieve		0,617	
The university has clear standards for follow-up and evaluation		0,604	
The vision and mission of the university are characterized by the future outlook.		0,571	
The university has a written and specific follow-up system		0,551	
The university is keen to implement the plan in accordance with its vision and mission		0,517	
The university has written goals with specific results that it seeks to achieve		0,493	
The management is keen on developing and qualifying employees.		0,464	
The management constantly adopts the strategic planning process		0,441	
The university administration is keen to discuss with employees about work obstacles and ways to develop work		0,437	
The strengths and weaknesses of the action plan are identified			0,915
The university administration studies similar experiences in other countries			0,915
Senior management is interested in holding scientific courses and seminars to develop awareness of the strategic planning process			0,596
Eigenvalue	4,909	1,688	1.430
Ratio of Variance Explained	28,876	9,929	8,41
Mean	1,864	1,852	1,809
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis			
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization			

As a result of this analysis, Strategic Planning consists of 3 dimensions. Dimensions are named as "Strategic Vision (Column 1), Internal and External Environment Analyzing (Column 2), Monitoring (Column 3)". The naming process was carried out by examining the studies using the said scale, adhering to the literature. Explanation percentages of the total variance of the sub-dimensions are also shown in the table above. Strategic Vision explains 28,876% of the total variance. Internal and External Environment Analyzing explains 9.929% of the total variance and Monitoring explains 8.410% of the total variance.

Table 5: Organizational Performance Scale KMO and Bartlett Test Findings

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0,852
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1401,173
	Df	78
	Sig.	0,000

Organizational Performance Scale KMO value was 0,852 and p<0,01 was found to be suitable for factor analysis.

Table 6: Organizational Performance Scale Explanatory Factor Analysis Findings

	Component	
	Emp.Perf.	Manag.Perf.
Staff and trainers shall abide by the rules and procedures of the university	0,807	
Staff and trainers are distinguished for their quick observation and understanding of the university's goals	0,741	
Employees and trainers perform their work efficiently and effectively	0,633	
Staff and trainers have good communication with students	0,601	
Work is carried out according to the required quality standards.	0,54	
Members have the ability to develop their skills in line with the university's goals	0,519	
There is an agreement between the performance level of the employee or the trainer	0,457	
The employee or coach feels a high degree of satisfaction with the work		0,693
The university relies on feedback from the community to meet its needs through its plan		0,676
There is a great degree of compatibility between management and workers		0,645
Employees can keep pace with the specified time schedule, which leads to raising the level of performance		0,59
The university is keen on standards of integrity and transparency when conducting the assessment		0,56
The university relies on a system of incentives and penalties based on results		0,455
Eigenvalue	4,641	1,131
Ratio of Variance Explained	35,703	8,703
Mean	1,8645	1,852
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis	1,93	2,014

According to the results of explanatory factor analysis, Organizational Performance scale consists of 2 dimensions. The dimensions are named as Employee Performance (Column 1) and Managerial Performance (Column 2). The naming process was carried out by adhering to the literature and examining the previous studies. Explanation percentages of the total variance of the sub-dimensions are also shown in the table. Employee Performance explains 35,703

percent of the total variance and Managerial Performance explains 8,703 percent of the total variance.

8.6. Correlation Analysis

The relationships between Strategic Planning and its dimensions (Strategic Vision, Internal and External Environment Analyzing, Monitoring) and Organizational Performance in the research model were revealed by the Pearson Correlation Analysis. These findings are presented in the table below.

According to the correlation analysis findings, there is a significant relationship between Strategic Planning and Organizational Performance at the rate of 60.9% at $p<0.01$ level.

Table 7: Correlation Analysis Results

		Mean	Std. Deviation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	**Str.Plan.**	1,842	0,504	1	0,609**	0,817**	0,804**	0,751**	0,573**	0,524**
2	**Org.Perf.**	1,972	0,624		1	,506**	,555**	,396**	,903**	,899**
3	**Str. Vision**	1,864	0,679			1	,579**	,344**	,481**	,430**
4	**Int. and Ext.Env. Analy**	1,852	0,553				1	,394**	,527**	,472**
5	**Monitoring**	1,8092	0,683					1	,364**	,350**
6	**Emp.Perf.**	1,9302	0,699						1	,623**
7	**Manag. Perf**	2,0142	0,686							1

**p<0,01

According to the Pearson Correlation Analysis findings, significant and expected relations were found between Strategic Planning and Organizational Performance. At the same time, significant relations in the expected direction were found between the sub-dimensions of Strategic Planning and Organizational Performance. All variables are related to each other.

8.7. Results for Testing Research Hypotheses

In the research, Simple Linear Regression Analysis was applied in order to test the hypotheses to determine the effect of strategic planning on organizational performance and the relationships between the variables were determined in terms of direction and severity.

Table 8: Regression Analysis Results on the Effect of
Strategic Planning on Organizational Performance

	Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance			
Independent Variable	β	t	Significance (p)	Result
Strategic Planning	0,754	6,205	0,000**	ACCEPTED (H1)
Model Constant	0,583			
Model F	234,973			
R²	0,371			

**p<0,01

Within the scope of the research, the hypothesis of "H1: Strategic Planning has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance" was tested. According to the results of the analysis, Strategic Planning affects Organizational Performance positively (β=0.754) and significantly (p <0.01). This shows that a one-unit increase in Strategic Planning at the university will increase Organizational Performance by 0,754 units. In line with this information, the H1 hypothesis was accepted.

Table 9: Regression Analysis Results on the Effect of Strategic
Planning's Sub-Dimensions on Organizational Performance

	Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance			
Independent Variables	β	t	Significance (p)	Result
Strategic Vision	0,227	5,054	0,000**	ACCEPTED (H1a)
İnt. Ext. Env. Analyzing	0,386	6,846	0,000**	ACCEPTED (H1b)
Monitoring	0,161	4,062	0,000**	ACCEPTED (H1c)
Model Costant	0,543			
Model F	82,559			
R²	0,385			

**p<0,01

Within the scope of the research, Multiple Regression Analysis was applied to test H1a (Strategic Vision has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance); H1b (Internal and External Environment Analyzing has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance) and H1c (Monitoring has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance).

According to the analysis results;

Strategic Vision affects Organizational Performance positively (β=0.227) and significantly (p<0.01).

Internal and External Environment Analyzing affects Organizational Performance positively (β=0,386) and significantly (p <0.01).

Monitoring affects Organizational Performance has a positive (β=0.161) and significant (p <0.01).

Accordingly, 1(one) unit increase in the Strategic Vision of the university increases Organizational Performance by 0,227 units. 1 (one) unit increase in İnternal and External Environmental Analysis at the university increases Organizational Performance by 0.386 units. An increase of 1 (one) unit in the Monitoring of the employees at the university increases the Organizational Performance by 0.161 units. Therefore, hypotheses H1a, H1b, H1c were accepted.

9. Discussion, Conclusion and Recommaditions

According to the results, the hypothesis "H1: Strategic Planning has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance" was investigated within the scope of the research. According to the findings, Strategic Planning has a positive (=0.754) and significant (p 0.01) impact on Organizational Performance. This means that a one-unit rise in Strategic Planning at the institution will result in a 0.754-unit gain in Organizational Performance. The H1 hypothesis was accepted based on these information.

Multiple Regression Analysis was used within the scope of the research to test H1a (Strategic Vision has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance); H1b (Internal and External Environment Analyzing has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance); and H1c (Monitoring has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance).

According to the findings, Strategic Vision has a positive (=0.227) and significant (p0.01) impact on Organizational Performance. Internal and external environment analysis had a positive (=0,386) and significant (p 0.01) impact on organizational performance. Monitoring has a positive (=0.161) and significant (p 0.01) effect on organizational performance.

As a result, a one-unit rise in the university's Strategic Vision raises organizational performance by 0.227 units. Increases in nternal and external

environmental analysis at the university boost organizational performance by 0.386 units. An increase of 1 (one) unit in personnel monitoring at the institution raises organizational performance by 0.161 unit. As a result, hypotheses H1a, H1b, and H1c were accepted.

The study relied on four axes (the strategic vision of the university, analysis of the internal and external environment, prospective performance, and organizational performance) also main and sub-hypotheses as follows:

Relying on the analysis by (SPSS program) according to the Likert factor, the results showed that the strategic vision indicator for the university's performance is high. The arithmetic mean value was about (0.928) with a weight percentage of about 92%. Thus, we note that some questions received neutral responses. The university has written goals with specific results that it seeks to achieve and that it has a written vision and message, while the rest of the responses are positive. However, it should be noted that the total responses were agreed for this axis as a whole.

The results of (analysis of the internal and external environment) showed absolute agreement as the university is keen to address the internal environment's shortcomings, and the administration is trying to keep pace with the continuous changes in the global environment. We conclude that the university has written goals with specific results that have been reached and the answers are strongly agreed upon.

The results of the (University Performance Monitoring) showed strong agreement. The administration is keen to monitor the performance of the university and adopts the strategic planning process constantly, and is eager to discuss ways to develop work, and in return, some of the answers came with high approval, which is related to the fact that the administration is keen to develop assessment at the university.

On the fourth axis, the university administration has a high organizational performance, and the answers were in agreement with all suggestions regarding staff and teaching staff. There is a compatibility between the performance level of the employee or coach and the performance required of him, and the members can develop their skills.

When looking at the results field in the four axes for all the questions, most of the answers were strongly agree and then agree. We can say that the questionnaire's axes are close to what the employees and administrators aspire to as a target group for the development of institutional performance and human resources within the university.

According to results, Strategic planning has a positive and significant impact on organizational performance. Strategic Vision has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance; Internal and External Environment Analyzing has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance; Monitoring has a significant and positive effect on Organizational Performance.

Looking at the results of the axes (the strategic vision of the university, analysis of the internal and external environment, expected performance, and organizational performance) as well as the main and secondary hypotheses, the conclusions were as follows:

Relying on the analysis of the program (SPSS Program), we note that the answers to the questions in the questionnaire were close to all axes and confined between agree and strongly agree. It was concluded that the University of Baghdad has written goals with specific results that it seeks to achieve, the university is keen to address the shortcomings in the internal environment, and the administration is trying to keep pace with the continuous changes in the global environment. The University of Baghdad enjoys the high organizational performance. It also has a vision and a written message. In addition, the administration is keen to monitor the performance of the university and adopts the strategic planning process constantly, and is keen to discuss ways to develop work. We conclude that the axes of the questionnaire are close to what the employees and administrators aspire to as a target group for the development of institutional performance and human resources within the university.

For the main hypothesis was (the planning strategy have a noticeable impact on the organizational performance of Baghdad University employees and trainers for practical guidance and training), and this means that it does require officials and employees who have experience in the field of strategic planning to have high-performance organizational experience also. It follows from this that there is an effect of strategic planning on job performance and that there is an relationship between them.

For the study. It was concluded about the existence of a significant effect and statistical significance between strategic planning and job performance indicators for employees and trainers at the University of Baghdad for Applied Education and Training. This means that there is a statistically significant correlation between the four indicators of strategic planning and organizational performance so the hypotheses were axcepted. University employees or administrators who have experience in the field of strategic planning are required

to have good experience in analyzing the internal and external environment - supporting senior management - monitoring and evaluating organizational performance.

The strategic planning process should receive the attention it deserves from the University of Baghdad administration. Due to the significance of it in contemporary management, it takes precedence over all other priorities. This is accomplished by providing senior management with strategic planning training.

Along with the administration's deployment of transparent, suitable monitoring and evaluation mechanisms, there is interest in articulating the university's vision and goal and communicating them to all personnel.

Identifying the university's performance indicators and periodically monitoring them to gauge the level of actual institutional performance.

Carefully addressing the issues with the internal environment and attempting to keep up with the ongoing changes in the.

Addressing issues at work and strategies to improve work with employees, using a system of rewards and penalties based on performance.

The requirement to consider community feedback in order to meet its demand.

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TIME MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE OF CHEFS

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1. Introduction

From the past to the present, time has been a crucial concept for human beings. The concept of effectively managing time, which has been crucial since classical management approaches, is gaining even greater significance for both individuals and businesses. Especially in the past three decades, the organizational literature has increasingly recognized the importance of time (Claessens, et al., 2007: 255). Shakirova et al. (2022: 41) stated that in the modern world, in order to achieve goals, such a resource as time must be used correctly, and the correct use of this resource requires working with time management methods. Aeon & Aguinus (2017: 309) emphasize that time management has helped people organize their professional lives for centuries. Srikumar & Arun (2017) contend that efficient and effective time management is a crucial tool for the hospitality industry. They note that time management plays a significant role in the industry. One of the most common complaints from employees and managers alike is a lack of time. Wasting time poses a hindrance to achieving objectives. Ignoring personal time management concerns can lead to additional issues. Likewise, efficient time management can offer solutions to numerous problems. It can be argued that effective time management is key to utilizing time efficiently and achieving one's goals. People may perceive time management techniques as a waste of time. However, the results of employing such techniques may be effective enough to change this perception. Effective

time management can result in various benefits such as increased productivity, reduced stress, personal growth, lower overtime hours, and enhanced motivation. Based on the definitions of "time" and "management," Purehart (2018: 35) asserts that time management is the process of organizing and planning how to allocate and arrange schedules among specific initiatives to maximize efficiency.

As a workplace restaurant serves with a multifaceted setup, where numerous elements function as work implements. Coping with these complexities requires being well organized (Gökdemir, 2005:10-13). The executive chef, sous chefs and department chefs are responsible for managing the kitchen. From menu preparation to ingredient sourcing, the timing of food production, and presentation to customers are critical to the success of the business. At this point, chefs should allocate appropriate time to each leadership role: planning, organizing, leading, coordinating, controlling, and motivating. It is crucial to acquire time management skills in the culinary field, where chefs function as both performers and managers of tasks that entail various responsibilities. Due to its labor-intensive structure, chefs bear responsibility to their superiors, customers, employees and society. Chefs with limited time and multiple tasks may need to use their time as effectively as possible to be successful and efficient. With this information in mind, the study aims to assess the time management practices of chefs. Thus, the study is significant in terms of illustrating how chefs perceive time as valuable.

2. Conceptual Framework

Time is one of the most difficult concepts to define and understand. The concept of time is treated in various ways. Throughout history, philosophers, mathematicians, and physicists have attempted to comprehend the concept of time. In the fifth century, Saint Augustine noted time as a familiar but difficult concept to define in terms of thought and action. Augustine argued that it is only possible to explain time by explaining its relationship to its opposite (Çüçen, 1996). Solon, the great Athenian legislator of the early 6th century BC, personifies time as a judge in the phrase "in the court of time" (Holford-Strevens, 2005). According to Aristotle, time is solely the measurement of motion. Here, motion refers to all forms of change, including qualitative changes. Aristotle also influenced the field of astronomy, which provided the most accurate and practical measurements of time in antiquity. He defined the uniformity of time through the concept of equal time intervals (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2011). According to Lakien (1973: 11), time is

life. It is irreversible and irreplaceable. Mastering and maximizing life requires mastery of time, as wasting time equates to wasting life. Ojo & Olaniyan (2008: 402) identified the essential characteristics of time in their study. Accordingly, time is an invaluable resource and the scarcest resource in the universe. Human beings cannot replace time, accumulate it like money, turn it on and off like a machine, or stockpile it like raw materials. Time passes at a predetermined rate no matter what, and everyone has the same amount of time regardless of their position. As with other scarce resources, time should be managed and used wisely. Physicists also attempt to define the concept of time based on their theories. Işıklı (2015: 101) notes a contrast between the concept of time explained in mathematical models like Newton's fundamental laws of motion, Einstein's equations of general relativity, and Schrödinger's wave equation, which form the foundation of modern physics, and the perception of time based on "common sense" concepts. Alfred North Whitehead, a contemporary philosopher, regarded time as a stream and viewed it as a significant metaphysical phenomenon. Sabuncuoğlu, Paşa, & Kaymaz (2010) posit that time is a precious and irreplaceable resource that is equally available to all, but not utilized in the same manner. According to Drucker, time is scarce and irreplaceable with no elasticity curve; according to McKenzie, it is extremely delicate; according to Lakien, time is life and a fundamental resource (Can, 1997:283; Genç, 2004:357). The Oxford English Dictionary (2023) defines time as "a basic quantity thought to consist of periods or intervals of existence and used to measure their duration". Regardless of how time is characterized, it is important to measure it within the context of human history and manage it efficiently, especially for managers. Therefore, it is crucial to analyze the concept of time management.

A review of the literature reveals that, just like time, there is no single agreed-upon definition of managing time. Claessens et al. (2007: 262) define time management as "behaviors that aim to use time effectively while performing certain goal-oriented activities". According to Srikumar and Arun (2017), time management is "the process of organizing, planning, and mastering how to divide and allocate time among specific activities, or in other words, it refers to handling time effectively so that the appropriate time is allocated to the appropriate work". Agele et al. (2020: 16784) define time management as "the ability to use work time to complete tasks within a planned schedule" without making subjective evaluations. They argue that time management is a holistic process embedded in administrative tasks, functions, and organized

activities. This study defines time management as "the process of efficiently and effectively organizing and controlling time to achieve organizational goals.

The feeling that there is not enough time can be unsettling. In fact, everyone starts the day with the same twenty-four hours. However, time is such a phenomenon that it has no value before and after it is used (Mackenzie, 1989; 13). Using time effectively means increasing the quality of life (Sabuncuoğlu, Paşa, & Kaymaz, 2010:3). Time management was first used in Denmark as a training tool to help busy managers use their time more effectively and it has spread universally. Today, it has become one of the important elements of success especially in professional working life (Akatay, 2003:283). Time is not a concept that can be managed. As the flow of time occurs independently of us, our goal should be to manage ourselves effectively within it. Many individuals express dissatisfaction regarding their time management, but this should not be viewed as a problem. Instead, it suggests that their goals lack clarity, their priorities require better organization, and their time management skills need improvement (Scoot, 1997: 10). Peter Drucker emphasizes the significance of time management with his statement, "Time is the most valuable resource; if it is not managed efficiently, nothing else can be managed" (Can, 1997:283). The objective of time management is to efficiently utilize this limited resource to achieve set goals and objectives (Tunçer, 2011: 220). Effective time management is a crucial contributor to work productivity, resulting in personal and organizational success. In addition, time management-related planned behaviors have a positive impact on both teamwork and individuals (Burt, Weststrate, Brown, & Champion, 2010). However, control, an essential management function, is a crucial component of effective planning. Without proper time management control, time cannot be used efficiently (Taner, 2005). In addition to effectively managing financial, physical, and human resources for organizational effectiveness, it is crucial to plan and utilize time in a strategic manner (Genç, 2004:359).

Time traps are commonly encountered in social relationships, as well as personal and cultural characteristics, which can lead to ineffective time management and time loss. Time traps are also referred to as time thieves (Covey, Merrill and Merrill, 2000). Time traps can arise from personal factors, work-related issues, management practices, and organizational policies. Policies and structures that lead to time traps can have negative effects on the entire organization and reduce overall productivity (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2003). To achieve a practical life plan or goal set, it is essential to first remove personal

obstacles (Scoot, 1997). Many factors consume the time of both managers and employees in the workplace, including social environments such as restaurants. This is a complex issue with numerous contributing elements that can affect productivity and efficiency. These work-related challenges can result in wasted time, making it essential for managers to efficiently manage their own and their subordinates' time. When managers lack effective time management skills, it can create time-related problems for both themselves and their subordinates. Using time effectively means focusing on activities that contribute to one's primary objectives, rather than simply appearing busy. If a task does not contribute to achieving those goals, then it is being done in vain (Tunçer, 2011:223). Managers who face challenges with time management are often hindered by various factors, such as their inability to meet deadlines, the need to address multiple urgent tasks simultaneously, and the pressure they feel due to their lack of skill development, which may impede their ability to produce high-quality work (Sabuncuoğlu, Paşa, & Kaymaz, 2010:9).

Being well-organized requires effectively utilizing all managerial functions. In the restaurant industry, a significant amount of production begins upon immediate demand. Unlike in the service industry, the physical characteristics of the product are crucial. During operations, the chefs are accountable for cooking the food at the desired time, flavor, and quality in adherence to established standards and procedures. Today, individuals have limited time, and restaurant employees must quickly respond to their requests. Time is of utmost importance in the food service industry. Chefs need a lot of time to achieve both organizational and personal goals. In addition, effective time management is a critical skill for maintaining quality and demonstrating creativity in the kitchen. With effective planning, prioritization, and teamwork, time can be used more efficiently, resulting in an enhanced ability to present dishes in the best possible manner.

3. Methodology

The study utilized a qualitative method to gather in-depth data. The research design was determined to be phenomenological. The objective of phenomenological research is to disclose the essence of an individual's experience, specifically their cognitive perception of lived experiences (Merriam, 2013). Phenomenology was preferred as it aligns with the study's purpose. A purposive sample of kitchen chefs was selected using maximum variation sampling. Maximum variability sampling aims to reflect the diversity of individuals who may be involved in the problem being studied to the fullest

extent in a relatively small sample. It attempts to uncover various aspects of the problem by identifying commonalities among the diversity (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). In this direction, a cluster of 12 kitchen chefs from both independent (8) and hotel restaurants (4) of varying customer capacity in Istanbul was examined. Details on the study cluster can be found in Table 1.

Table 1. Study Cluster

Interview No (Coding)	Position	Gender	Experience (Years)	Customers' Capacity	Daily working hours
I1	Head Chef	Male	8 years	30	10
I2	Head Chef	Male	7 years	120	10-11
I3	Head Chef	Male	15 years	40	12
I4	Head Chef	Male	42 years	150	10
I5	Head Chef	Male	25 years	180	10
I6	Head Chef	Male	22 years	110	12
I7	Head Chef	Female	8 years	40	10
I8	Head Chef	Male	20 years	100	8-9
I9	Head Chef	Male	12 years	90	11-12
I10	Head Chef	Male	21 years	280	12
I11	Head Chef	Male	17 years	75	10
I12	Head Chef	Male	9 years	110	10

As a data collection method, in-depth interviews using semi-structured open-ended questions were conducted. Six questions to describe the study cluster and nine questions to describe chefs' perceptions of time management were prepared by the researcher using the literature. The data collection process lasted approximately two months. Data analysis was started simultaneously with the data collection process, and data collection was discontinued when similar data started to be obtained in the interviews.

4. Findings

Content analysis was used to evaluate the data. As a result, head chefs' time management perspectives and practices were addressed in two main areas. These areas are "Approaches to Effective Use of Time" (codes: prior checking, preparation, planning, teamwork, goal setting, standardization, and utilization of tools) versus "Factors Disrupting Effective Use of Time" (external problems, equipment shortages, supply problems, staff shortages, and lack of communication).

I have not conducted any specific research on time management, but I cannot say that I am very unfamiliar with the concept of time management. In business life, we are obliged to use time effectively, such as work planning, division of labor, cooperation with staff (I4).

I did not have any research or training, I learned by experience (I8).

I haven't done much research, but I have some small ideas. For example, I think it is useful to do all the work in a planned and programmed manner and to do it in order (I11).

The chefs seem to struggle with time management in theory, but they apply practical insights gained from experience. The majority of chefs interviewed indicated that they had not received any prior training or research on time management, but were applying some practical knowledge gained from their work experience.

4.1. Approaches to Effective Use of Time

The codes obtained from the content analysis for effective use of time are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Codes for Effective Use of Time

Theme	Codes
Effective Use of Time	Prior Checking
	Preparation
	Planning
	Teamwork
	Standardization
	Goal Setting
	Utilization of Tools

The first time-efficiency practice that comes to mind for all chefs is preparation. The majority of chefs interviewed define preparation as one of the cornerstones of success in the kitchen. For chefs, proper preparation saves time and improves the quality of the food. Sourcing, measuring and organizing ingredients the right way helps make food more delicious and visually appealing. As a preliminary step in preparation, chefs point to prior checking. Some of the chefs mention that a detailed review of the list of materials, personnel, and activities is absolutely necessary before the preparation takes place. Thus, they state that time will be used more effectively.

In the kitchen, especially before the service, making a preliminary preparation and determining what I will do in a planned and programmed way a day in advance ensures that the work I do is both shorter and faster (I7).

I do not do much other than pre-planning, distributing work and creating a timetable; when everyone knows their duties and fulfills them, there is no problem (I12).

I routinely do a preliminary check in the kitchen first, and then I inform the relevant staff about the things that may create obstacles for us during the service, such as running out of ingredients (I1).

It was emphasized in the interviews that as long as the work to be done in the kitchen is planned and there are no developments that would disrupt this planning, the problems for all employees will be minimal. Planning is related to all other codes identified. Effective time management in the kitchen requires planning. According to the chefs, planning is very important in terms of material supply, time management and organization. Creating an effective plan that takes into account every step from meal preparation to presentation is critical to time management. A team that brings together various talents is essential to get things done in an organized and effective manner. Complementing each other's shortcomings and finding solutions to problems with a common mind is important for time management in the multifaceted operations. Good communication, delegation of tasks, respect, empathy and problem-solving skills shape the success of the kitchen team, as noted by the chefs. Working in a harmonized way helps to manage time and to create better products and services.

It is important for us to work harmoniously together, usually when I assign cooks who get along well together to the same shift, their work is completed faster and they produce better quality products (I4).

Communication within the team, getting to know each other well makes the work more effective (I10).

A significant number of restaurants serve a wide variety of foods. While this makes it difficult to establish standards, most chefs consider it a necessity. Although there are many different reasons for the necessity of standardization, it is frequently emphasized by chefs that one of the most important reasons is the efficient use of time. Standardization enables more effective planning by allowing to predict what tasks will take how long in advance. In addition to standardization, setting short-, medium-, and long-term goals for each task to be completed is another important aspect of time management. In particular, chefs with longer experience tend to set goals in advance about the outcome of their work.

We have certain standards for cleanliness, ingredients and food. These standards are important. Because thanks to them, we know more or less which work will take how much time (I5).

Jobs without certain standards take more time than usual. For example, there can be very different demands for banquets, the process changes (I1).

I set clear goals for both the budget and the work that will come out. Monthly, yearly, sometimes five years... This way I can see how far I have come and have a chance to manage my time. I don't leave everything to the last minute as much as possible (I4).

Finally, chefs utilize assistive tools and technology to optimize time management. Chefs reported using smart devices, notebooks, scheduling programs, and other tools to optimize their time management and avoid mistakes caused by forgetfulness. On the other hand, it is asserted that technological tools are highly beneficial for communication purposes. The formation of work groups via smartphones yields the swift exchange of information that would otherwise require significant time through individual communication.

I always carry a notepad, otherwise if you forget something, you normally spend half an hour on a minute's work. There are also whatsapp groups, there is a separate group for each section and a general group for kitchen staff. We can reach everyone instantly (I6).

I always take notes on my tablet. Otherwise it doesn't work, there is too much work. There is no way to keep it in mind. I also plan the work schedule on the tablet, I use reminders. It helps me a lot (I2).

4.2. Factors Disrupting Effective Use of Time

The codes obtained from the content analysis for disrupting effective use of time are shown in Table 2.

Table 3. Codes for Disrupting Effective Use of Time

Theme	Codes
Disrupting Effective Use of Time	External Problems
	Equipment Shortages
	Supply Problems
	Staff Shortages
	Lack Of Communication

One of the primary requirements for chefs to maximize their time and efficiency is thorough anticipation of potential time-wasting obstacles in their work. Chefs highlight external challenges as the factor they possess the least ability to manage. Last-minute changes in demand and unpredictable events can impede effective time management.

Sometimes 5 minutes before the service, all the preparations are finished. The next thing I know, there are other requests on the phone, we can't say no to the guest, the whole planning is disrupted. If we were informed in advance, it would not affect us at all, but such requests steal a lot of our time. (I5)

In the last few years, there have been a lot of untimely requests. We make all the plans, but the guest may think of something at the last minute. We try to respond as much as possible, but it disrupts our work. (I10)

Culinary operations employ various equipment types, particularly in restaurants with diverse menus that require simultaneous use of different equipment. Chefs emphasize that unexpected situations, such as the absence or malfunction of this equipment, negatively affect the effective use of time. Similarly, the supplied products are quite varied. This situation requires versatile collaboration and continuous monitoring. The chefs state that the smallest problem in the supply chain has a domino effect on the entire schedule.

Lack of equipment has been a problem in every place I have worked since I started my career. The work that would normally be done in a short time with the right equipment can take quite a while when you try different ways. (I6)

The lack of equipment and materials is another issue, the lack of them makes our easy work difficult. Therefore, it steals our time (I5)

You talk to the supplier and they give you a time. Most of the time it is delayed, sometimes it comes a day or two later. Always the same excuses, Istanbul traffic, etc... If the supply is not on time, how can the product be on time? (I1)

It is commonly emphasized by chefs that nearly all tasks performed in the kitchen involve teamwork. Chefs noted that both the need for specialization in certain areas and the functioning of the product, even if it is usually a single product, is actually the result of many different employees working together. In this situation, a shortage of staff can significantly disrupt work in any area.

Just like equipment, there is always a lack of personnel. If you don't have a full team, it's hard to work. Sometimes someone gets sick at the last minute, these are normal things, but sometimes you can't really find people to work. For

example, a job that can be done by two people in a very short time takes a lot of time with one person, no matter how experienced they are. (I6)

It is impossible for one person to know everything very well, everyone is good in different areas. If there is a deficit in one area, inevitably everything is affected. We are as strong as the weakest link. Sometimes we have to work with one or two less people, but we finish much later than usual. (I4)

Unclear communication, including vague explanations, misunderstandings, and delayed information can result in tasks being completed inaccurately or incompletely, leading to wasted time. In particular, the chefs say that these situations happen very often. They explain that they have developed some unique methods to avoid these problems. Some of the methods used by the chefs include having employees repeat the instructions given, checking the work to be done at each stage, assigning tasks both verbally and in writing, and having employees take mandatory notes.

"What do I say and what does he understand?" I say this at least three times a day. Each worker must have a pen and notepad. I have them write everything down, and I review it. Otherwise, issues will arise for sure. (I7)

If I am far away, I call them and tell them, and I always write a text message. If it is face to face, I explain the job in detail and then wait for them to repeat it to me, the employees are used to that, they repeat it without me telling them. I also understand how much they understand and correct mistakes. Inevitably there are misunderstandings. The result is, of course, that the work is not done on time. (I8)

Although the chefs have no specific research on time management, there are spontaneous practices that emerge to keep things running smoothly and on time. It appears that there is significant awareness of effective time management and avoiding time traps among chefs at the organizational level. It can be stated that the time management practices implemented by individuals or organizations are effective. It would not be incorrect to state that chefs attain a considerable portion of their managerial success through efficient time management.

5. Conclusion

It is evident that time is a valuable resource and, like all other essential resources, utilizing it effectively can lead to enhanced productivity. For chefs, efficient time management is a crucial skill for organizing processes from food preparation to service, working effectively, and delivering high-quality meals. This skill assists in effectively managing kitchen operations. This study

highlights the significance of time management in the context of culinary operations and reveals the time management attitudes of chefs. One of the study's most significant findings is that chefs have a limited comprehension of time management and are not actively seeking to expand their knowledge in this area. However, it is not possible to definitively state that they have failed in effectively managing their time in practice. Chefs strive to ensure the success of their time management practices by utilizing their acquired experience.

Managing time effectively is crucial for ensuring kitchen staff work efficiently, organize kitchen tasks, and effectively manage food service processes. For chefs, effective time management and success are so interdependent with each other as to be considered as cause and effect. Obodo (2018: 37) asserts that certain professions necessitate administrative proficiency and expertise in organizational protocols. Others necessitate soft skills and an awareness of individuals' requirements, while some require technical and specialized knowledge and the ability to use it. Still, some professions require a combination of all of these. Being a chef in the culinary department requires incorporating various combinations in the work processes. In carrying out these processes, as Srikumar and Arun (2017) state, time management is seen as a key factor in being productive in an efficient and effective manner. For chefs, time management is a key factor for success in the kitchen. All practices implemented by chefs to manage time aim to increase work success. In the simplest terms, the chef's approach to time management is driven by how to make better use of time and how to avoid the factors that prevent me from using time effectively. Chefs must effectively prepare meals and manage their work in an organized manner while working in the fast-paced kitchen environment. Managing hundreds of different ingredients and recipes every day requires efficient use of time while delivering delicious meals. A well planned pre-check and preparation are crucial for the effective use of time in culinary management. In addition, setting standards and goals and developing a positive environment for teamwork ensures effective use of time. Finally, there are benefits to chefs utilizing various tools in an efficient manner. It is important to pay close attention to situations that negatively affect the effective use of time and therefore success in the kitchen. To circumvent these situations, it may prove beneficial to maintain alternative plans at all times. On a personal level, success as a chef involves timely delivery of dishes and the creation of exceptional flavors, without including subjective evaluations unless clearly marked as such. A well-implemented time management can decrease stress, enhance work-life balance, and assist individuals in maintaining a healthier lifestyle.

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CONCEPTUAL VIEW
OF HOLISTIC LEADERSHIP

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1. Introduction

In the twenty-first century, humanity is faced with an environment in which great changes are taking place in all areas and major problems are progressing rapidly. Technological, scientific, and economic progress, globalization, and movement of migration are just some of the areas that are creating complexity and uncertainty in the modern world. These social changes have not only increased the dynamism of life but have inevitably transformed it into a more chaotic and complex environment. These social changes have not only increased the dynamism of life but have inevitably transformed it into a more chaotic and complex environment (Crow, 2006). Solving major problems and overcoming crisis atmospheres can only be possible with the help of the strategies developed by leaders, from past and to present. As stated in the study of Lussier and Achua (2007), leadership has evolved over the past sixty years to solve problems, manage crises, and produce. Leadership, on the way to holistic leadership, has gone through an evolutionary cycle, developing into four main paradigms. The traits are embedded in a behavioral, situational, and integrative (in other words, holistic) situation. Each paradigm shift is an evolutionary consequence of both the strengths and limitations of the previous paradigm. Each leadership theory offers a unique perspective on how leaders can inspire and bring out the best potential in the individuals and groups they lead. In the six decades that leadership theories have evolved, the historical view of leadership, first known as the "Great Man Theory", has reflected two concepts. The first is the instinctive and biological-genetic factors inherent in leadership. The second

concept is that the conditions that trigger leadership behavior are also catalysts that activate those best suited to thrive in leadership positions (Bass & Bass, 2009). In this way, the Great Man Theory fell short over the years, leading to the theories of situation and behavior. In the absence of an empirically validated list of characteristics that determine leadership competence, the number of studies on leadership has increased. However, the shift from the great man theories to behavioral and situational theories has not neglected the contributions of important research on leadership. Situational Leadership Theory explicitly links personality traits and behaviors to situational context as a mechanism for explaining and predicting which leadership styles would work best in different situations (Lussier & Achua, 2007).

Bakan (2013), behavioral leadership theory, on the other hand, focuses on the characteristics and behavior of the leader toward the members of the organization beyond the situation. There are important criteria that determine the behavior of the leader in the organization.

For example, the leader's attitude toward subordinates, the way he/she communicates with subordinates, strategies, and behavioral criteria such as developing a vision, planning, and goal setting, etc. (Koçel, 2005). The main goal of the behavioral approach is the behaviors of the leader in the organization rather than the characteristics of the leader that make them successful (Koçel, 2005; Keçecioğlu, 2003). Leadership is the integration of many components into a holistic structure by bringing them together in a process and interaction that results from these integrative components (Erçetin, 2000). From this perspective, leadership is the realization of individual and group goals and the influencing and directing of attitudes and behaviors in that direction (Koçel, 2011). In many studies, leadership has been examined in terms of both management and leadership competencies, where the direction of the organization, i.e., the organization's roadmap, reveals attitudes and behaviors that affect the people in the organization and the vision it creates. There is no objective definition of leadership in the literature. The success of the leader in the organization is an important criterion for his/her effectiveness. In general, the term leadership is defined in the literature as the skills and abilities that assemble a group of people in the organization in accordance with the goals of the organization and mobilize them in the spirit of the established goals (Bakan et al., 2013). (Best, 2011) and (Bakan et al., 2013) defines holistic leadership as a comprehensive and people-centered approach that is both process and results-oriented. In this definition, stakeholders at all levels of the organization are viewed as

contributing holistically to its successful functioning and as an environment in which the organization serves as an interactive and self-empowering community rather than a top-down hierarchical structure. The holistic leader ensures that responsibility for activities within the organization is shared with the whole. In the "Holistic Leadership Theory", Popper (2004) argues that leadership is a relationship that transcends the characteristics of leaders and followers because conceptualizing leadership as a relationship allows leaders, followers, and circumstances to take an integrative view, thus reducing bias. Demick (2003), on the other hand, argues that holistic leadership is systems-oriented due to the nature of holistic development and defines "factors in the environment" as a system state. This is contextualized in terms of three dimensions that relate to both the person and the environment: bio-physical, psychosocial, and sociocultural context. The characteristics of a holistic system are interactive, involve a process of adaptation, reflect change as a characteristic of transformation, and require synchronization and coordination of operational elements (Best, 2011).

In terms of the systems approach, a holistic leader considers the organization as a whole, taking into account both internal and external factors, and is directly influenced by the systems approach. According to holistic leadership theory, a leader is a person who inspires his or her followers to achieve the organization's goals through organic interaction with them and encourages full participation in decision-making and goals. In light of the explained theories, the purpose of this study is to discuss holistic leadership in the context of organizational gains and outcomes, to examine the relationships between holistic leadership and other modern leadership, and to contribute to the reader and the literature through the literature review method.

2. Literature Review

The word holistic comes from the Greek word *holos*, meaning "entire" or "all." "Holism" is based on a theory that expresses the 'entire' in terms of interactions with far more than the basic parts of the universe. The main idea of holism is to see the 'entire' from the parts. In a holistic system, the parts have specific functions in interaction with each other. While the parts influence the 'entire', the 'entire' can also influence the parts (Jacobsson, 2022). Orlov (2003), defines holistic leadership as a method that focuses on systemic development, where the leader is able to see the following in relation to all factors inside and outside the organization while influencing the environment, resulting in a journey that leads to individual, team, and community transformation. Taggart (2009),

offers a holistic leadership model that he refers to as an "integrated approach to leadership." This model includes components such as organizational teaching, personal mastery, reflection, inquiry, accountability, visionary and strategic action, results orientation, and leadership. Similar to Orlov, Taggart's model addresses the psycho-spiritual triad of personal wellness focused on mind, body, and spirit. In his theory, Sternberg refers to holistic thinking as ignoring and disregarding details that differ from the global system of thinking. However, this is not the case when we consider the holistic style. A holistic leader sees the whole with all the details within a system. He/she not only knows the interactions between the details but can also make a comprehensive judgment based on the relationships. Therefore, holistic leaders can look at the system as a whole instead of just looking at the parts of the system (Arıol, 2009). Holistic-thinking leaders who can see the system as a whole have a number of characteristics (Orlov,2003).

Holistic leaders;

• Appeal to the soul, emotions, and spiritual thoughts of their followers.

• They see the system as a whole to influence their followers in the organization. They use this situation as a method.

• Holistic leaders have the ability to transfer the factors that lead to change in the organization from the individual to the group and to the entire organization.

Holistic leadership consists of four main paradigms (Taggart, 2011b). These four elements are shown in Table 1 and Figure 1.

Figure 1. Four Main Components of Holistic Leadership

Table 1. Four Main Components of Holistic Leadership

DIRECTING	TEACHING	PARTICIPATING	NURTURING
Vision	Reflection & inquiry	Power sharing	Empathy
Strategic	Openness	Collaboration	Communication
Urgency	Sharing	Commitment	Diversity
Mobilize	Stewardship		
	Personal mastery		

Table 1 and Figure 1 show that Holistic Leadership consists of four main components: directing, teaching, participating, and nurturing, respectively.

The first step of a holistic leader in his/her directing role is to set a good vision for the organization. The place where the organization should be in the future is determined by the vision set by the holistic leader. Achieving the vision is possible in the second step with strategies. Strategies are the actions and tactics developed by the leader to achieve the set goals. The holistic leader can achieve the vision with strategies only to the extent that it is important to him/her. The importance dimension requires a sincere effort and is a process that must be managed as a whole.

The teaching role of the holistic leader is to discover, teach, and bring to fruition the potential of subordinates. The organization consists of formal and informal structures. Within these structures, the role of the holistic leader is to create a systematic balance. The holistic leader focuses on creating value by sharing what he/she has learned with subordinates. He/she nourishes the organization intellectually with his/her spirit of sharing and his/her personal expertise.

The holistic leader is a participating character. He/she ensures that the organization acts as a whole through power sharing, collaboration, and commitment.

A holistic leader is a nurturing figure. He/she motivates his/her subordinates to take action through his/her communication with them. He/she is able to understand his/her subordinates with his/her empathy ability and creates a motivating effect with his/her helpful personality. He/she prepares the organization for the future, guides the changes necessary in the process and prepares the employees for the process of adaptation to change.

Closure to other views, ideas and suggestions within the organization means that the path to innovation is blocked. This situation is detrimental to the company because it limits the ability of managers and employees to innovate. On

the contrary, the acquisition and sharing of knowledge is a crucial factor for the future of an organization. Success begins with communication and interaction within the organization. In this case, people learn, and this learning benefits the organization. Personal expertise within the organization is a valuable aspect for development in the interaction between leaders and members. Learning is a good resource for overcoming challenges (Taggart, 2011b).

To demonstrate an effective holistic leadership, the following elements must be present:

* Self-directed communication in the leader-participant relationship,

* The leader's ability to stimulate cognitive skills,

* Collective action with good individual and resource optimization (Best, 2011).

In the light of this information, the dimensions of holistic leadership will be examined in detail in the next section.

3. Dimensions of Holistic Leadership

Holistic leadership has four sub-dimensions: directing (guiding), participating (supporting), teaching, and nurturing. Each dimension in its entirety supports each other in interaction. Understanding these relationships and formulating strategies is possible with special attention. Through the four dimensions, the holistic leader successfully leads the organization and contributes to the achievement of its goals. The four basic sub-dimensions have their own sub-dimensions. Depending on the conditions and circumstances, the holistic leader can use each dimension for the benefit of the organization. In doing so, it is important to meet the needs of the members who follow the leader (Taggart, 2011b).

3.1. Directing (Guiding)

The first dimension of holistic leadership is directing, and in this dimension, the leader should be both visionary and strategic. Being results-oriented in order to mobilize subordinates is one of the most important qualities that a holistic leader should have. The directing element addresses the highest body of an organization. The representatives of the organization can only lead the organization with the directing element. The mid-level managers, on the other hand, ensure the continuation of organizational activities by communicating with the lower-level employees under the directing and guiding element. The directing element is very important for the competitiveness of the organization.

The sub-dimensions of the directing dimension consist of vision, strategy, urgency, mobilize, and results orientation. These sub-dimensional characteristics are important characteristics of a holistic leader (Taggart, 2011b).

Brauckmann and Pashiardis (2011), examined the dimension of directing from a different perspective and expressed the directing element as a "structuring style." They defined this concept as leadership and coordination of the organization.

3.2. Teaching

Another dimension of holistic leadership is teaching. This concept is directly related to teaching and learning organizations. Knowledge derived from teaching has become an important power all over the world. Teaching is the process of passing on to others the knowledge gained through one's own efforts. This dimension has five sub-dimensions: reflection & inquiry, sharing, openness, stewardship, and personal mastery (Taggart, 2011b). Senge (2006), describes learning organizations as a place where people continuously expand their capabilities to achieve the outcomes, they truly desire, where new and comprehensive patterns of thinking are fostered through knowledge, where collective desires are unleashed, and where people continuously learn together. According to Senge, these organizations can be defined by the existence of five different disciplines:

- **Systems Thinking:** It is the ability to perceive holistic patterns of interrelated events in order to produce more effective results.
- **Personal Mastery:** It is the ability to continuously use, develop and enhance one's psychosocial capacity.
- **Mental Models:** They are conscious and subconscious forms of mental imagery used to shape one's understanding of and relationship with the environment.
- **Shared Vision:** It refers to an ideal future state that is collectively rewarded and pursued as a goal.
- **Team Learning:** It refers to participation in collective dialogues that generate deeper insights than can be gained individually.

As mentioned above, the elements and disciplines of the learning organization, in conjunction with holistic development theories, have produced an ever-changing picture of the learning organization. Holistic leadership theory

aims to bring this picture into a more unified focus. Holistic leadership emerges from these principles as a values-based approach to achieving the best results through the collaborative development of all participants in the process at all levels of functional performance.

3.3. Participating

The participating dimension of holistic leadership refers to sharing and participation in leadership. Leaders can show their participating aspects differently depending on the cultures of the organizations and the characteristics of the employees. An inclusive dominance is essential in the realization of projects in the organization. This fully participatory structure also brings a supportive motivation that interact with each other in every aspect of the process (Brauckmann and Pashiardis, 2011).

3.4. Nurturing

Taggart (2011), sees the dimension of nurturing as a very important one. There are many beliefs about educating and nurturing people. In some beliefs, nurturing people is regarded as a task that belongs only to women. Other beliefs are dominated by the idea that the man is a heroic figure and appeals to leadership. However, from a holistic perspective, the nurturing function is a whole and its main task is to educate subordinates with a holistic understanding. A holistic perspective is prevalent in today's modern leadership approaches. The holistic leader recognizes the potential that arises in subordinates after nurturing them and optimizes this potential for the benefit of the organization. The potential not only emerges, but its promotion is one of the main tasks of the holistic leader in the nurturing dimension (Oberer & Erkollar, 2018).

Rogers, Mentowski, and Hart (2006) included several concepts in their studies of holistic leadership theory by focusing on the facilitative subdimensions of holistic leadership. When these concepts are combined, it is imperative to emphasize the need for the following as a holistic leadership theory:

1. An assembly of self-governing participants,

2. Environments that foster the development of metacognitive skills such as reflective thinking and pattern recognition to support the active use of mental models that enable constructive, autonomous decision-making,

3. Leaders who engage participants in ways that respect their autonomy and individual capabilities,

4. A collective approach to developing members' skills that sows the seeds of meaningfulness in the work environment.

4. Modern Leadership Approaches Influenced by Holistic Leadership

Global dynamics have led to changes in leadership theories and styles in the past. Adapting to these dynamics and responding to them in a timely manner requires a holistic perspective. Among modern leadership styles, digital leadership and green transformational leadership use a holistic perspective when approaching events and phenomena (Yücebakan, 2020).

4.1. *The Relationship Between Holistic and Digital Leadership*

Digital leadership is defined as a team-oriented process that deals with innovation in the context of generating and implementing new ideas, acting in an agile manner and being able to establish cross-hierarchical communication (Oberer & Erkollar, 2018).

In another definition, digital leadership is defined as a leadership that increases the prosperity level of its followers and improves their current conditions through the detailed use of technological processes (Miller, 2018). Digital leadership impacts followers in the organization in two sub-dimensions: information and leadership. Abbasov &Tolay, (2021) argues that managers who act as digital leaders should pay attention to what kind of behavior they display toward their subordinates. At the same time, he argues that the use of digital tools is effective perception management in terms of organizational culture, and this situation is associated with the dimension of "leadership." Digital leaders have a holistic mission with the sub-dimension of "teaching" about the risks of technological devices that will strengthen relationships among employees, stakeholders, and organizations, as well as ethical behaviors in technological applications. Digital leaders also draw inspiration from holistic leadership with its participatory aspects. In this sense, a digital leader ensures the coordination of digital transformation processes by involving all employees of the organization in the conditions of digitalization. The digital leader bears a crucial responsibility for the development of digital skills and capabilities (Bozkurt et al., 2021). The holistic leader affects followers by directing, teaching, participating, and at the same time nurturing with the vision he/she presents (Taggart, 2011b). In the studies conducted by Zeike et al. (2019), the digital leader is assessed on two different dimensions. The first is that the leader has a clear vision about the

capabilities and skills of the digital transformation processes while developing digital strategies. The second is that he/she can demonstrate the competencies, skills and behaviors required under digitized working conditions.

4.2. The Relationship between Holistic and Green Transformational Leadership

Green transformative leadership is a type of leadership that ensures that the environmental goals established in the organization are accepted by the employees in the organization, that employees develop environmental awareness, that their environmental performance is maximized, and that they are motivated in creating environmental actions (Kerse et al., 2021). A green, transformational leader is a person who is committed to the environmental mission of the organization (Omarova & Jo, 2022), contributing to the sustainability not only of the organization but also of society (Li et al., 2020). An important role of the green transformational leader is to mobilize the organization's employees around the environmental vision they hold for sustainability (Abbasov & Tolay, 2021). From this point of view, the green transformative leader contributes to a holistic system by creating a holistic policy that involves not only the individual but also society. This situation is similar to the holistic perspective of holistic leaders.

4.3. The Relationship between Holistic and Visionary Leadership

The meaning of the word vision in organizations is a roadmap for what the organization should do to achieve its goals and what direction it should take. The most important characteristic of a vision is that it is realistic and sustainable (Tsui et al., 2006). The two most important elements of the directing process are the vision and the strategies that are developed to achieve the vision (Westley & Mintzberg, 1989). Given the relationship between holistic and visionary leader, the visionary leader is the preparer of an environment that prepares the organization for the future with the vision he or she presents and unites employees around that vision and unlocks their potential. In this environment, the visionary leader serves the whole by interacting with the whole in the organization (Joy, 2018).

Visionary leaders should see the organization as a whole and prepare the organization for the future by considering the following aspects (Hicks, 1999).

- **Different Perspectives on the Future:** A company's employees have a number of different characteristics. Age, gender, culture, and different

perspectives on change are some of them. The visionary leader should be able to look at these differences in an inclusive way and incorporate this process into the vision he/she creates.

- **Future Alternatives:** The future may bring forth differences. There are two important reasons for this situation. The first is the possible future and the second is the future that depends on our decision. The leader is the one who can see and evaluate both in an integrative way.

- **Managing Change:** To be prepared for change, a leader must have the ability to anticipate the future, adaptability, flexibility and innovation.

- **Hope and Fear for the Future:** In shaping the future, two opposing emotions, hope and fear, have a major impact on the decisions made. While fear manifests itself in problem solving and change, hope is about adaptation and motivation for change. Hope enables action to be taken. A leader should be able to see these two contrasting emotions as a whole and manage them well in shaping the future.

- **The Interaction of Past, Present and Future**: In temporal terms, past, present, and future act in sequence with each other. Past, present and future should be well analyzed in vision formation. Acting ensures that the present moment can be better in the future. The vision is formed in the present and exists in the future.

- **Place of Developments in the World**: In the new millennium, the environment, human rights, and personal development have become critical issues at the local and global levels. Leaders must be able to follow the global agenda and have the skills and abilities to manage the emerging issues.

4.4. The Relationship Between Holistic and Strategic Leadership

When strategic leadership is assessed holistically, it relates to all individuals working in the organization. It is particularly evident in the senior and titled teams of the organization. (Boal and Hooijberg 2000) included the members of the board of directors and members such as functional and departmental general managers who are responsible for departments in strategic leadership (Hitt et al. 2007). Hitt and Ireland (1999) defined strategic leadership as a type of leadership that prepares the organization for future change and anticipates the future, drives the vision of the organization, favors a flexible management process to adapt to change, thinks strategically, and can work in a team-oriented manner. In this regard, a strategic leader in a holistic structure draws attention to a vision-oriented and participative aspect.

5. Conclusion

In the last century, the world has changed and transformed greatly. This dynamic situation means that the management activities of organizations must change in order to adapt to the new order.

Dikmen notes that we are experiencing much more technological change today than in the past and that the sphere of influence is multi-dimensional (Dikmen, 2012). Today it can be said that a single leadership style is no longer sufficient, multidimensional leadership types have become more important, and holistic leadership has become important in organizations to see the whole from the part according to the conditions and develop strategies in this direction. A holistic leader is a leader who can motivate followers within conditions by acting in the context of the three states of leader, followers, and conditions, can analyze the organization as an internal and external environment, can have an integrative effect with this aspect, and can lead the organization's journey into change Taggart (2009a). Based on this definition, the holistic leader evaluates the organization as a whole, which is a systems approach, in terms of customers, competitors, technology, and market, which are the external environment of the organization, and employees, corporate culture, management structure, and systems, behaviors, relationships, and dynamics, which are the internal environment. The structure of the holistic leader is essence, service, and spirit. The leader sees this structure as a whole to achieve the goals of the organization. At the core, there is motivation, mastery, and creativity, while the service dimension is about meaning, fulfillment, and legacy. In the spiritual dimension, there is emotional intelligence, appreciative inquiry, and spiritual leadership Dhiman (2017).

Consequently, the holistic leader develops multidimensional, comprehensive strategies for the dynamics of change and transformation in today's world, taking into account many factors to achieve the vision he or she proposes. It is an important type of leadership in the transition from one type of leadership to multidimensional leadership.

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THE EFFECT OF JOB STRESS AND JOB SATISFACTION ON ETHICAL PERCEPTION: A CASE FROM TÜRKİYE

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1. Introduction

Work-related factors such as job satisfaction and stress play a significant role in a variety of personal and professional outcomes. Job stress is acknowledged to reduce work satisfaction and is only intended to produce undesirable work outcomes once it reaches a certain level. Additionally, it has been suggested that job satisfaction and stress have an impact on professionals' perceptions of ethics (Mason, 2010).

In academic literature, one of the research streams in professional ethics focuses on empirical studies on perceptions of police towards professional ethics. However, its relationship with job stress and job satisfaction is rarely studied, and still, there is a literature gap.

In this chapter, in the second part, job stress, job satisfaction, and professional ethics; and in the third part, literature review are summarized.

The fourth part of the chapter focuses on the empirical analysis. The research seeks to evaluate Turkish police officers' professional ethical attitudes with regard to the European Code of Police Ethics and also its relation with job stress and job satisfaction Firstly, the ethical perception of police is assessed with vignette questions. Also, police attitude about the outcomes of

unethical behavior is tested. Secondly, the relationship between job stress and professional ethics and the relationship between job satisfaction and ethical attitudes are tested, respectively. A profession that is highly susceptible to stress is chosen for the research sample. The police sample is chosen because previous studies have shown that the policing field is highly susceptible to stress (Sever and Cinoglu, 2010; Ranta, 2009; Buker and Wiecko, 2007; Crank and Caldero, 1991). Police officers' work and well-being may be negatively impacted by organizational stressors as well as job-related stress. In academic literature, it is claimed that police officers' stress levels, as well as job satisfaction, influence one's ethical consideration. Moreover, the stress that police officers encounter is defined to be beyond high level and can be extraordinary, and in academic literature, It is asserted that stress levels and job satisfaction among police officers have an impact on one's ethical judgment.

The fourth part of the chapter details sample and methodology used in empirical analysis. To analyze the relationship of job stress and job satisfaction with ethical attitudes in a sample of members of the police force in Türkiye, a survey design was used. Stratified random samples of members of the police force (N = 150) were taken.

The scenario (vignette) methodology has been the most widely accepted data collection technique in the literature on ethics in general (Butterfield, Trevin, & Weaver, 2000) and in the field of police ethics in particular (Delice, 2014; Ivkovi, 2005; Ivkovi & Kang, 2012; Jenks, Johnson, & Matthews, 2014; Martin, 1994). In line with literature, we used a 17-item questionnaire and added questions about job satisfaction and level of job stress based on the scenario questions for ethical perspective of police by Martin (1994) and Klockars, Ivkovich, Harver, and Haberfeld (2000). In this context, we examined the professional ethical views of Turkish police officers using the "Ethic Principles for Law Enforcement Agencies" of Türkiye as a source. We added items on job satisfaction and job stress.

To this end, the data collected from 150 Turkish police was analyzed with factor analysis, and results revealed that unethical behaviors fell into three categories: criminal activities, abuse of authority, and excessive use of force.

Regarding the consequences of actions, criminal activities yielded the highest importance, whereas violating surveillance laws yielded the least importance in the factor grouping, for which still there is no

comprehensive legal framework on the limits of the use of CCTVs in Türkiye. For the items 'avoiding patrol' and 'watching excessive force incident', police officers deemed that just on-the-job training was fair enough and there should be no consequences for several unethical behaviors. No statistically significant relation was found between ethical perception and job satisfaction, which shows that employee can act ethically even s/he does not enjoy job satisfaction. Regarding job stress, another noteworthy finding is reached. The officer who felt highly stressed, the perception of unethical behavior decreased. In the light of the findings, policy implications were discussed.

As a contribution to the literature and as the best knowledge of the author, the research fills the gap, as it is the first research done on the issue. The study's conclusions can be useful for managers in all sectors, but particularly for law enforcement agencies. The conclusions may also be used to develop interventions to lessen job stress among staff members, particularly police officers, helping them to create a healthier and more moral workplace.

2. Conceptual Framework

2.1. Job (Occupational) Stress and Job Satisfaction of Police

In physics, the term "stress" describes the relationship between a force and the resistance that opposes it. The term was first used in medicine by experimental medicine specialist Selye (1956) to characterize the "nonspecific response of the body to any demand. "The creator of stress theory, Selye (1956), postulated that excessive stress would result in "general adaptation syndrome," which might produce shock, alarm, and finally weariness. Stress has an impact on the body and the mind. Stress in moderation can be beneficial and even useful in carrying out daily tasks. Problems with physical and mental health can result from excessive stress (who.int). According to Selye (1956), stress is distinct from other physical reactions in that it occurs regardless of whether the instigating impulse is good or negative, despite the fact that stress can be classified as mental, physical, behavioral, or emotional. He referred to good or negative stress as "eustress" and negative stress as "distress." What can be understood from job stress literature is that stress, to a certain degree, may not produce adverse organizational outcomes, but only higher stress levels are undesirable.

Organizational studies scholars have recently focused on the subject of occupational stress (Deschamps, Paganon-Badinier, Marchand, & Merle, 2003). As stipulated by the Job Demands and Resources Model, many different types of job demands and job resources may interact in predicting job stress (Bakker, Demerouti and Verbeke, 2004:89). The aforementioned assertion posits that it cannot just be the perceived discrepancy between demands of the job and the individual's ability to meet the demands. Other factors might interact to create job stress, which can even lead to burnout. Stress and complaint levels were also related to certain aspects of the job (age, gender, and profession) and the institutional setting (trainee presence, institution size, etc.) (Ullrich and FitzGerald, 1990).

Studies have shown that working as a police officer can be very stressful (Sever and Cinoglu, 2010; Ranta, 2009; Buker and Wiecko, 2007; Crank and Caldero, 1991, Gül and Delice, 2011). Certain people are exposed to critical or traumatic events as part of their occupational roles, as in police work (Deschamps, Paganon-Badinier, Marchand, and Merle, 2003). Police officers' work may be negatively impacted by organizational stressors in addition to job-related stress. There are several peculiarities in law enforcement positions that lead to extreme work-related stress. Many factors, including work and task issues, family problems, and, more crucially, economic concerns, can lead to work stress for police officers. (Wijayanti 2020). According to reports from India, police work has historically been among the most demanding and stressful professions in several nations, and as circumstances change, this is becoming increasingly true (Kaur, Chodagiri & Reddi, 2013).

Police officials' sources of stress are divided into two broad categories by Shane (2010): those resulting from the job content, also known as operational stressors, comprise elements of police work that are standard to the profession, such as operational overtime, court overtime, and outside employment. The second source of stress arises from the job context (organizational stressors), which, in essence, is a more significant source of stress because it is more oppressive, unnecessary, and inescapable as characteristics of the organization and human behavior and the relations among personnel in the organization (Shane, 2010:808).

In academic literature, police stress and dissatisfaction have been found to be highly correlated with numerous organizational elements. (Crank & Caldero, 1991; Hart, Wearing, & Headey, 1993), such as problems with supervisors, shift changes, and level of occupational danger. Besides, police

officers' stress levels and job satisfaction have been found to be influenced by numerous individual factors: race (Boke & Nalla, 2009), age, rank and experience (Hoath, Schneider, & Starr, 1998; Miller, Mire, & Kim, 2009). However, for race, age, and gender, there is mixed support in literature. Officers' ethical perception may be impacted by high levels of stress and job dissatisfaction even if the causes of professional stress can vary (Buker & Wiecko, 2007).

The second facet of work life researched in this study is job satisfaction. The definition of job satisfaction is "employees' emotional state regarding the job, considering what they expected and what they actually get out of it" (Cranny et al., 1992). This indicates that the level of expectance of the employee also determines the level of satisfaction beyond the positive and negative feelings experienced at the workplace. Appreciation, colleagues, communication, benefits, work conditions, nature of the job, organization procedures and policies, salaries, opportunities for self-growth, opportunities for promotion, recognition, job security, and supervision are the fundamental factors that lead to job satisfaction (Spector 1997). A worker's level of job satisfaction is determined by a number of factors, including pay, opportunities for career advancement, benefits, rules and regulations, relationships with superiors, work schedules, work-family conflicts, and the job itself (Howard et. al. 2004). Individual members' perceptions of JS are reported to be related to (unethical) behavior (Paolillo and Vitell, 2002). Regarding the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction, Spector (1997), It has been repeatedly demonstrated that increased job stress was associated with decreased job satisfaction, which is crucial for all organizations.

Moreover, the stress that police officers encounter is defined to be beyond a certain level and can be extraordinary, and is argued that an officer's stress levels and job satisfaction influence an officer's ethical consideration (Mason, 2010).

2.2. European Code of Police Ethics and Turkish Code of Police Ethics

By passing years, as the need to understand that policing should evolve to be practiced more professionally, local codes of ethics were created by certain police organizations for their members. In line with the philosophers' opinion that moral rules are local and relative, whereas ethical rules are universal (Cerrah, 2008), Council of Europe (CoE) started the works for a European Code of Police Ethics (ECPE) in 1990. The final version was issued on 19 September

2001 with the contributions of all its members. As a recommendation, Council of Europe underlined that each member state's law enforcement organization should draft its own code of ethics.

2.3. Law Enforcement Agencies and National Police Force in Türkiye

Turkey has historically relied on separate national forces to handle centralized policing. In broad terms, law enforcement agencies are grouped into two as: general and special law enforcement. Turkish National Police (TNP) works as part of general law enforcement together with Turkish Gendarmerie and Coast Guard. In Türkiye, all law enforcement agencies including TNP is affiliated to Ministry of Interior (MoI) and thus managed and funded by MoI. Operational control, however, is actually delegated to the heads of forces. Turkish Police organization has 290.232 personnel as of 2022 (as of February 2022), of 25.720 (8,9%) are women (tuik.gov.tr). Judicial and administrative policing duties are not separated. Recruitment of police and ranking officers comes from different sources.

2.4. Professional Police Ethics in Türkiye

Ethics is a reflection of the concept of morality, and professional ethics is related to an individual core values. As a profession, the primary responsibility of law enforcement agencies is to ensure security, public peace and order by protecting the rights and freedoms of individuals within their jurisdiction. Since police have the right to carry guns, stop, search, ask for identification, apprehend, and use force, it is one of those professions that have the potential to limit civil liberties; policing service must be practiced professionally.

Highly discretionary and coercive in nature, policing frequently takes place in private, away from supervisors, and in front of witnesses who are frequently viewed as unreliable. (Klockars, Ivkovich, Harver, and Haberfeld, 2000). The good and bad practices in this field need to be governed by ethical guidelines.

Professional police ethics refers to the totality of professional principles related to the profession of policing that forces members of the police to behave in determined ways while performing their tasks, restricts their personal tendencies, educates or dismisses officers found incompetent and unprincipled, arranges internal competition of profession and aims to protect ideals of service delivery, and which is established by the profession group (Bal and Eryılmaz, 2002).

In Türkiye, professional police ethic documentation dates back to 1910 (Beren, 2002), and with a modern approach, the document titled "Ethic Principles for Law Enforcement Agencies" was drafted by the Minister with reference to the European Convention on Human Rights, the Constitution, and the Council of Europe's Code of Police Ethics and is in effect since 24.10.2007. This document lists 52 ethical values in policing: to protect the fundamental individual rights and freedoms; to provide security, to ensure public order; to take action to prevent crimes; to fight with crimes, to solve crimes, bring criminals to justice, to help people who are need and those who are in danger.

3. Literature Review

One of the research streams in ethics focuses on empirical studies on perceptions of police towards professional ethics. Researchers have documented that police misconduct exists not just in American law enforcement agencies (Andreescu; Klockars, Ivkovich, Harver, and Haberfeld., 2000; Martin, 1994; Westmarland, 2005) but also in seevral police agencies across the world (Adebayo, 2005; Andreescu et al., 2012; Cerrah, Çevik, Göksu, & Balcioğlu, 2009; Delice, 2014; Ekenvall, 2003; Ivković & Kang, 2012; Käyhkö & Juntunen, 2008; Klockars, Ivkovic, & Haberfeld, 2003; Lobnikar & Meško, 2015; Ortmeier & Meese III, 2009).

In field research, in the ethics literature, the scenario (vignette) methodology has been the most widely used technique for gathering data (Butterfield, Trevin, & Weaver, 2000), and used in many police ethics researches as well (Delice, 2014; Ivković, 2005; Ivković & Kang, 2012; Jenks, Johnson, & Matthews, 2014; Martin, 1994). Cavanagh and Fritzsche (1985) assert that the best approach for examining ethical judgment and ethical intention in ethical decision-making is to use the vignette methodology. In scenario studies, respondents usually provide their ethical opinions about the same sets of vignettes by responding to multiple choice questions. (Hyman and Steiner). By this, the circumstances of the ethical dilemma are explained as identical as possible.

One of the pioneering researches in professional police ethics belongs to Klockars, Ivkovich, Harver, and Haberfeld (2000). In that study, using 11 case scenarios, a sample of 3227 police officers from 30 police agencies across the United States were researched. Findings revealed that the more serious the officers considered behavior to be, the more likely they were to believe that more severe discipline was appropriate.

Before Klockars, Ivkovich, Harver, and Haberfeld (2000), a publication on measuring the attitude towards ethical behavior of police by employing vignettes was done for American Police in Illinois (Martin, 1994). The questions were similar to Klockars, Ivkovich, Harver, and Haberfeld (2000) questionnaire but were not limited to unethical behaviors of personal gain. According to Martin's research (1994), Even though Illinois officers followed a code of ethics as a guide when doing their duties, each department's interpretation of what constituted an unethical act varied.

Adebayo (2005), with using a similar instrument, researched police ethics in Nigeria. The findings showed that age and gender were significant predictors of unethical beliefs; police participants who were older and female tended to be more ethical than those who were younger and male.

Andreescu et al. (2012), compared American and Romanian police officers' perceptions of police corruption using Klockars, Ivkovich, Harver, and Haberfeld (2000) survey. Although the sample did not contain very experienced and high-level police personnel, results showed that Romanian police officers appeared to have a higher tolerance towards police misconduct than their American counterparts.

In a study for Russian police and trainees, Beck and Lee (2002) asked scenario-type questions specific to Russia. Overtly criminal scenarios were morally approved by only a small minority of police officers and trainees. However, serving officers were substantially more likely than trainees to think low-level corrupt behavior is justified by its petty nature.

Ivković and Kang (2012) studied Korean police officers' attitudes towards police misconduct using a 14-item vignette questionnaire. The respondents were mainly non-supervisors attending courses at the undergradute level. According to the findings, excessive force was viewed as significantly less serious police misconduct than corruption, which Korean police officers saw as a serious offense.

Westmarland (2005), collected data similarly by asking 11 scenario-type questions to a sample of 275 American police and analyzed by calculating simple percentages. Findings revealed that most of the officers who took part in the study consider "behavior involving illegal brutality or bending of the rules" to be far worse than "acquisition of goods or money" in order to shield colleagues from legal action.

Jenks et al. (2014) used Klockars, Ivkovich, Harver, and Haberfeld (2000) survey data of police officers in the United States and employed a factor

analysis. The vignettes from the past were found to cluster into two factors: one that represents more serious corrupt behavior, and the other that reflects less serious corrupt behavior. Regarding the studies on the perception of Turkish police towards police ethics, there is a gap in the academic literature due to the nature of the issue and the difficulty in measuring and analyzing the perception. The vast majority of research relies on a limited number of data collected when researchers focused on organizational problems in policing, like in Bedük, Erdemir, & Öz (2005) and Mutlu (2000).

Unethical behavior in police organizations has primarily been blamed on several organizational factors, including underpayment, stressful working conditions, inadequate leadership, poor equipment, and inadequate accommodation. However, there is a need to determine which type of ethical behavior tolerance exists among members of the profession in Türkiye. Some studies, accepting unethical police behavior as a given fact worldwide, including Türkiye, sought the reasons for unethical behavior (Cerrah & Eryilmaz, 2003) but did not focus on the attitudes toward different kinds of unethical behavior.

The noteworthy finding of Bedük et al. (2005), when 150 respondents were asked about the professional problems in Türkiye that must be handled, ethics was found to be the least favored one with the lowest percentage ratio.

Deep-down research on the unethical behaviors of Turkish police began to be a concern only recently. Küçükuysal (2008), in a research on 507 police officers, reported that officers' age and educational level had a statistically significant influence on their perception of integrity. While young officers in the TNP were less likely to approve of the deviant behaviors described in the scenarios, those behaviors were more acceptable to older officers. In addition, results revealed that female and older police participants were likely to be more ethical than their male and younger counterparts were.

According to another recent study in Türkiye (Cerrah et al., 2009), although both are unethical behaviors, when compared to money, gifts were thought to be less bribing. In a more recent study, Delice (2014) examined the attitudes Turkish police officers had toward codes of ethics and the variables influencing these attitudes. Respondents stressed that severe unethical behaviors were seen less frequently but were punished more severely.

Regarding factors affecting the occupational stress of police, one of the studies conducted among French police revealed that police from minority groups, such as aging subjects or police officers, have been reported to experience more significant stress (Deschamps, Paganon-Badinier, Marchand, and Merle, 2003).

Sources of stress are also researched in academic literature. In fact, The population of police officers' experiences stress due to job fatigue as well as private life planning (Deschamps, Paganon-Badinier, Marchand, and Merle, 2003). Findings of research conducted in the Turkish National Police indicate that larger, more centralized police departments may not have the same consequences from a number of police stressors as smaller, local police departments do (Buker & Wiecko, 2007). From this point, in our study, we asked whether the task itself was stressful or not, according to the officer. Some other researchers argue that Personality disorder symptoms and other individual factors may take a backseat to extreme stress and a person's coping mechanisms (McCafferty & McCafferty, 1998) are essential.

A few studies have compared police officers' job-related attitudes and relationship with professional ethics. Otham et al. (2014) investigated the connection between a code of ethics and job satisfaction. The findings demonstrated that police officers' integrity is highly influenced by their work satisfaction and ethical codes. In a recent study, Lee et al. (2022), on a sample of 687 police officers, found that job satisfaction negatively affected unethical behaviors.

However, because of the nature of the problem and the challenges associated with quantifying and evaluating the perception, there is still a gap in the academic literature on the ethical perception of Turkish police. Research on the Turkish police's attitude toward professional policing ethics needs to be studied with valid questionnaires used in international studies. Advanced statistical techniques should be used to examine job stress and job satisfaction in addition to the impact of organizational factors. In order to achieve this goal, in addition to the conceptual section, a study is carried out on the attitude toward professional policing ethics and its correlation with job satisfaction and stress levels. The results are presented in part five. This topic is important not only for managing a large organization like TNP but also for an organization that underwent extensive reform to EU membership to understand the weaknesses or points to be improved.

4. Methodology

4.1. Sample

For this research, 180 self-administered questionnaires were collected from police officers. The survey was voluntary to participate in, and there was no remuneration offer. Forty-two of the questionnaires were unfinished or unfilled at all. Additional questionnaires were distributed to reach 150; the final sample consisted of 150 respondents.

Half of the sample had 0-4 years of tenure in the police force (58 %), whereas 25 % had 6-10 years of experience. Since lower-level police face citizens at front desks and patrols more than senior ones, their attitudes towards police ethics were deliberately examined.

Regarding educational background, the sample comprised 1% of civilian high school graduates, 19% from vocational high school, and 28% from Police Vocational school. 52 % of the sample had undergraduate degrees (31% from faculty, 20% from POMEM, and 1% from Police Academy). Of all the 150 respondents, 10 % of the sample hold a master's degree, and 1% hold a PhD degree. 6 % of the sample were master's students, and 2 % was PhD student.

The research was mostly conducted on police officers who contacted citizens often. 93.3% of the sample were police officers, whereas 6.7% had higher degrees. 70.3% of the sample was married. The mean age of the sample is between 26-30 (52,0%), those between 20-25 ages comprised 23,7%, between 31-35 were 11,7%, between 36-40 were 10,6%, and those over 41 were 2,0%. 28,9% of the sample had no child, whereas 42,8% had one child, 19,7% had two children, and 8,6% had three or more children.

4.2. Questionnaire and the Scales Used

We addressed a number of issues by using a comprehensive questionnaire that allows us to quantify the attitude toward police ethics. The questionnaire was divided into three sections in order to collect information about the perception of police about Professional ethics and the forms of unethical behavior that are most frequently perceived as unethical. The first section presented hypothetical scenarios (vignettes) in which an officer's actions could be perceived as unethical in the context of law enforcement. These represented concrete behaviors that violated principles in the Professional Ethics Code of Turkish Police and the European Code of Police Ethics. Using scenario questions for the ethical perception of police by Martin (1994) and Klockars, Ivkovich, Harver,

and Haberfeld (2000), we employed a questionnaire with 17 questions items. Back-to-back translation was done for questions. However, these scenarios were adapted to Turkish case with wording. The activities used in case scenarios were abuse of authority, negligence of duty, exploiting job autonomy, engaging in criminal activities (bribery, theft, false court testimony), and using excessive force. One example of the vignettes is as follows:

A police officer, without intervening, watches fellow officers use excessive force on a suspect. The suspect is known to have a record of property offenses.

Also, we added a financial amount for questions about bribery after the pilot study to 23 respondents. After the pilot study, following suggestions from respondents, it is understood that police officers evaluated bribery in comparison to its financial return. For this reason, bribery questions are asked with a threshold. 'Bribery over $3000' and 'Bribery in general' worked well. Also, after the pilot study, following suggestions from respondents, a financial cost of complimentary coffee and meals was added to the question sentence.

Each question of vignettes was answered in two ways. First, a seriousness score between 0 and 15 was requested of the respondents. to the vignettes from their perspective about misconduct behavior and then to answer the possible outcome of the unethical behavior to offset the negative outcome of the misconduct in the form of fair punishment alternatives and preserve the legitimate image of the profession. The alternatives presented for the respondents were: A. The misdemeanor deserves no consequence at all. B. The police involved in the incident deserve on-the-job training about this misdemeanor C. The police involved in the incident should be rotated to somewhere else. D. The police involved should be punished according to the exact punishment that Police Discipline By-Law entails E. The police involved in the incident should be urged to resign. The second section of the questionnaire included questions on how stressful they find their work environment and their satisfaction level from work, followed by the last section asking background questions and basic demographic information. However, they are limited to protecting confidentiality to guarantee greater willingness to participate in the survey.

In the questionnaire, following demographic questions, vignette questions were asked. Regarding job stress, respondents were asked whether they feel stressed or not if stressed and at what level. (stress-free, moderately, extremely stressful). Regarding job satisfaction, respondents were asked whether they were satisfied, moderately satisfied, or not satisfied at all.

4.3. Measurement

The questionnaire used to assess police officer's ethical attitudes intended to differentiate attitudes towards abuse of authority, negligence of duty, exploiting job autonomy, engaging in criminal activities (bribery, theft, false court testimony), and use of excessive force. The response format of the scale consisted of points from 0 to 15 (From "not serious at all" to "extremely serious"). High ratings on the scale showed low scores on ethical attitudes.

4.4. Analysis

As George and Mallery (2003) suggested, the Cronbach's Alpha value of the questionnaire, which measures its internal validity, was found to be 0,931, which is excellent for the degree of reliability. All Cronbach's Alpha of the seriousness scores were smaller than 0,931 if the item was deleted. It demonstrated that there was statistical significance for each of the seriousness scores. The most widely recognized reliabilities are those of Cronbach's Alpha coefficient, which is.70 or better (but not much beyond.80) for basic research and between.90 and.95 when important decisions are to be made based on the test scores, according to Nunnally (1978).

Following the assessment of internal validity, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted to determine which factors, and to what extent, are explained by the questionnaire's items. Varimax rotation is applied to simplify the naming and construal of obtained factors. For EFA, the sample was enough, as Nunnally (1978) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommended. To be sure about the sample size, communalities were studied. 13 commonalities were within the range of [0.6, 1], 3 communalities were within the range of [0.5, 0.6] and one communality was within the range of [0.4, 0.5]. MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang, and Hong (1999) stated that a sample size of this size was adequate due to the variety of these communalities.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy index and the Bartlett's sphericity test were used to determine whether the data set was appropriate for EFA. The KMO index was calculated to be 0,906, demonstrating an excellent EFA score as reported by Kaiser (1974). Bartlett's sphericity test was found to have a significance value of 0.000, indicating that it was appropriate for EFA.

After all of these controls, results from EFA were construed and Multidimensional Scaling Analysis (MDSA) was done for additional control and visualization of factors. S-stress value was used for validation of MDSA's

result. Within the range of [0 (Best), 1 (Worst)], the S-stress represents the mapping solution's goodness of fit to the data. The s-Stress value was found to be 0,017, which proved perfect for a measure of goodness of fit in MDSA, as Kruskal (1964) recommended.

Along with these analyses, tests for equality of means were used to look for significant differences between job stress and job satisfaction levels on the seriousness scores of the 17 items. S-stress is a measure of the mapping solution's goodness of fit. Job stress was measured at three levels: no stress (stress-free), moderate stress, and extreme stress. Respondents who were stress-free were ignored since the percentage of stress-free police officers was less than 2% of the sample. Thus, job stress was divided into three levels: Stress-free, moderately stressful, and extremely stressful. Therefore, to investigate differences in the means of job stress levels, a t-test was employed. Job satisfaction was measured at three levels: satisfied, moderately satisfied and not satisfied. Therefore, Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine differences between means of job satisfaction levels.

5. Results and Discussion

EFA, MDSA, t-test, and ANOVA for 17 items were used, and results are expounded upon below. The results of EFA are presented in Table 1 and visualization of factors in Graph 1.

EFA yielded three factors whose eigenvalues were bigger than 1, and they explained 67,4% of total variance. 29,5% of the variance was explained by the first factor. The first factor comprised seven items: Seven items, namely; "Q16. Accepts bribery over $3000", "Q10.Accepts bribery", "Q06.Steals property", "Q15.Consumes alcohol on duty", "Q12.Falsifies arrest report", "Q04.Fails to turn in a suspect who is a relative" and "Q09.False testimony". Therefore, the first factor was entitled "Engaging in Criminal Activities" since it was composed of actions that are explicit violations of Turkish Criminal Law. The Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.935 was found, meeting George and Mallery's (2003) recommendation for an excellent degree of reliability. The mean of seriousness scores of items in the first factor was found 12,4, which was very high. Mode of consequence of items in the first factor was found: "The exact punishment that Police Discipline By-Law entails should be ruled".

20,4% of the variance was explained by the second factor. Five items loaded to the second factor, namely (in order of importance); "Q13.Lies to

cover mistake", "Q07.Speeds when no emergency", "Q17.Sleeps on duty", "Q14.Flashes badge to avoid traffic citation" and "Q11.Avoids patrol". Therefore, the second factor was entitled "Abuse of Authority" in which items are generally accepted as light abuses or unethical behaviors. Cronbach's Alpha value of 0,847 was found to test the second factor's internal validity. This value is suitable for the degree of reliability, as advised by George and Mallery (2003). The mean of seriousness scores of items in the second factor was found 8,1, which was moderate. The mode of consequence of items in the second factor was found as "The police involved in the incident should be trained". The third factor explained 17,6% of the variance. Five items, namely (in order of importance); "Q01.Watches excessive force incident", "Q02.Drops suspect off in dangerous area", "Q08.Covers up excessive use of force", "Q03.Accepts free coffee and meals" and "Q05.Violates surveillance laws" loaded to the third factor. Therefore, the third factor was entitled "Use of Excessive Force." The third factor's Cronbach's Alpha value was found to be 0,794, which is acceptable for the level of reliability as advised by George and Mallery (2003). Mean of seriousness scores of items in the third factor was found 8,8, which was moderate. The mode of consequence of items in the third factor was found: "The exact punishment that Police Discipline By-Law entails should be ruled".

Graph 1. Visualization of Grouping of Factors via MDS
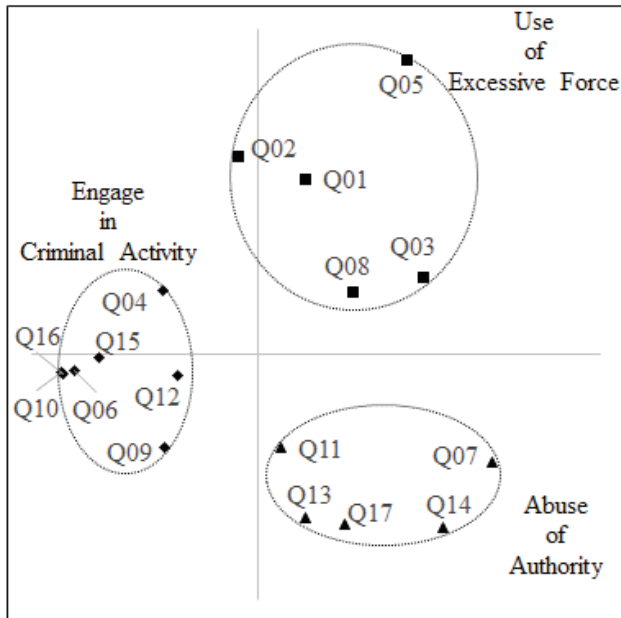
Table 1. Result of Exploratory Factor Analysis and Descriptive Statistics

	Factors			
	1	**2**	**3**	
% of Variance	29,5	20,4	17,6	**Mean**
Cronbach's Alpha of Factor	0,935	0,847	0,794	**of**
Seriousness Score's Mean of Factor	12,4	8,1	8,8	**Serious.**
Consequence's Mode of Factor	D	B	D	**Scores**
Engage in Criminal Activities				
Q16.Accepts bribery over $3000	**0,918**	*0,114*	*0,226*	13,6
Q10.Accepts bribery	**0,902**	*0,147*	*0,269*	13,7
Q06.Steals property	**0,874**	*0,160*	*0,277*	13,3
Q15.Consumes alcohol on duty	**0,790**	*0,206*	*0,275*	12,6
Q12.Falsifies arrest report	**0,664**	*0,365*	*0,103*	10,7
Q04.Fails to turn in a suspect who is a relative	**0,624**	*0,270*	*0,514*	11,8
Q09.False testimony	**0,618**	*0,436*	*0,204*	11,3
Abuse of Authority				
Q13.Lies to cover mistake	*0,272*	**0,773**	*0,202*	9,5
Q07.Speeds when no emergency	*0,020*	**0,765**	*0,320*	6,2
Q17.Sleeps on duty	*0,370*	**0,695**	*0,072*	8,7
Q14.Flashes badge to avoid traffic citation	*0,136*	**0,677**	*0,331*	6,9
Q11.Avoids patrol	*0,497*	**0,603**	*0,038*	9,3
Use of Excessive Force				
Q01.Watches excessive force incident	*0,175*	*0,089*	**0,793**	8,9
Q02.Drops suspect off in dangerous area	*0,362*	*0,065*	**0,656**	9,7
Q08.Covers up excessive use of force	*0,196*	*0,396*	**0,642**	8,8
Q03.Accepts free coffee and meals	*0,129*	*0,487*	**0,610**	8,7
Q05.Violates surveillance laws	*0,241*	*0,279*	**0,541**	8,0

According to the findings, "Use of Excessive Force" was a remarkable factor, and it was grouped out of the first factor, "Engaging in Criminal Activities". Interestingly, accepting free coffee and meals was grouped in "Use of excessive force". A noteworthy finding is that 'violating surveillance laws' had the least importance in the factor group in the third factor.

Regarding the question on job satisfaction, 47 % of the respondents defined themselves as satisfied, 43,7 % as moderately satisfied, whereas 9,3 % defined them as not satisfied. Those who found their jobs extremely stressful were 68,2 %; as moderately stressful as 30,5 %, and stress-free as low as 1,3 %. The result of test for equality of seriousness score's means, separately by stress level and satisfaction level, is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Result of Test for Equality of Seriousness Score's Means, separately by Stress Level and Satisfaction Level

	by Stress Level			by Satisfaction Level			
		Mean of Serious. Score			Mean of Seriousness Score		
	Test's Sig. (t-test)**	Moderately Stress	Extremely Stress	Test's Sig. (ANOVA)	Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Not Satisfied
Engage in Criminal Activities							
Q16.Accepts bribery over $3000	0,029	14,4	13,2	,959	13,6	13,6	13,3
Q10.Accepts bribery	0,092*	14,3	13,4	,933	13,6	13,8	13,7
Q06.Steals property	0,171	13,9	13,0	,904	13,1	13,4	13,4
Q15.Consumes alcohol on duty	0,010	13,7	12,0	,832	12,8	12,4	12,1
Q12.Falsifies arrest report	0,575	11,1	10,6	,848	10,9	10,5	11,0
Q04.Fails to turn in a suspect who is a relative.	0,007	13,0	11,1	,616	12,0	11,4	12,5
Q09.False testimony	0,063*	12,3	10,8	,367	11,8	10,6	11,8
Abuse of Authority							
Q13.Lies to cover mistake	0,109	10,4	8,9	,123	10,0	8,5	10,9
Q07.Speeds when no emergency	0,773	6,4	6,1	,214	6,1	5,8	8,3
Q17.Sleeps on duty	0,033	10,0	8,1	,323	9,1	8,0	9,6
Q14.Flashes badge to avoid traffic citation.	0,165	7,7	6,4	,451	6,9	6,5	8,4
Q11.Avoids patrol	0,677	9,5	9,2	,381	9,7	8,7	9,7

Table 2. continues

	by Stress Level			by Satisfaction Level		
		Mean of Serious. Score			Mean of Seriousness Score	
	Test's Sig. (t-test)**	Moderately Stress	Extremely Stress	Test's Sig. (ANOVA)	Satisfied	Moderately Satisfied	Not Satisfied
Use of Excessive Force							
Q01. Watches excessive force incident	0,387	9,4	8,7	,171	8,5	9,6	7,2
Q02. Drops suspect off in dangerous area	0,019	11,1	9,0	,514	9,2	10,2	9,6
Q08. Covers up excessive use of force	0,249	9,4	8,4	,322	9,4	8,1	8,8
Q03. Accepts free coffee and meals	0,459	9,2	8,4	,883	8,5	8,6	9,4
Q05. Violates surveillance laws	0,533	8,4	7,8	,171	7,9	7,6	10,6

*: Under the condition that significance level of the test was accepted 0,10 instead of 0,05.

**: Relevant test's significance was used according to test's result of equality of variances.

In the "Engaging in Criminal Activities" factor, when stress level increases from moderate stress to extreme stress, the largest significant decrease in seriousness score is observed in "Q04.Fails to turn in a suspect who is a relative", which is followed by "Q15.Consumes alcohol on duty", "Q09.False testimony", "Q16.Accepts bribery over $3000" and "Q10.Accepts bribery". The more the stress level of the officers increases, the less serious they find the unethical behavior.

In "Abuse of Authority", only in one of the questions, "Q17.Sleeps on duty", when the officer feels extremely stressed, the seriousness score significantly decreases. For the remaining questions in this factor, the seriousness score perceived by moderately stressed and extremely stressed police officers were not found to be statistically significant.

In "Use of Excessive Force," the difference between moderately stressful and stressful police is meaningful only in "Q02.Drops suspect off in dangerous area". In this item, when the stress level increases to extremely stressful, the seriousness score perceived for the item decreases dramatically, which is the largest among 17 items. For all of the items, when the stress level that the officer feels increases from moderate stress to extreme stress level, even though the difference was not found to be statistically significant, the item's seriousness score decreases. Those who feel extremely stressed never perceive the items as more serious than less stressed officers. No statistically significant difference was found between job satisfaction levels on seriousness scores of the 17 items.

6. Conclusion

This chapter evaluates ethical perception of a specific profession, and how ethical perception is affected by job stress and job satisfaction. The significance of job stress and job satisfaction, evident in academic literature, can affect ethical perception even unethical behaviors, and its empirical test has been decided quite essential to enrich the chapter. To the best of the author's knowledge, our study is the first to address the gap in the academic literature regarding the ethical perception of Turkish police in relation with job satisfaction and job stress.

The findings revealed that unethical behaviors grouped into three factors, namely "Engaging in criminal activities," "abuse of authority," and "use of excessive force" separately. The first factor's mean seriousness score for the items was found to be 12,4, which is extremely high. This was composed of actions that were explicit violations of Turkish Criminal Law. The mode of

consequence of items in the first factor was found: "The exact punishment that Police Discipline By-Law entails should be ruled", showing that police personnel deemed that each criminal activity should be punished with precisely what is stated in the legal framework.

The second factor was called "Abuse of Authority" in which items are generally accepted as light abuses or unethical behaviors. Mean seriousness scores of items in the second factor was found 8,1; which was moderate. The mode of the consequence of items in the second factor was found as "The police involved in the incident should be trained". In other words, police personnel prefer on-the-job-training for light abuses or unethical behaviors.

The third factor was entitled "Use of Excessive Force," whose mean of seriousness scores of items was found 8,8 (moderate). Mode of consequence of items in the third factor was found: "The exact punishment that Police Discipline By-Law entails should be ruled." It is again noteworthy that police personnel deemed that each abuse of authority should be punished with what is stated in legal framework, similar to criminal activity cases in the first factor.

Another noteworthy finding is that in the third factor, violating surveillance laws had the least importance in the factor group.

Regarding the primary research question—the impact of stress level on police perceptions of ethics—significant conclusions were drawn. For all of the items, when the stress level that the officer feels increases from moderate to extreme stress level, seriousness score of the item decreases, even in case that a statistically significant difference could not be found. Those who feel extremely stressed never perceive the items as more serious than less stressed officers.

Another noteworthy result of the study is that, regarding the difference between job satisfaction levels on seriousness scores of the 17 items, no statistically significant relation was found between ethical perception and job satisfaction.

In essence, professional ethics plays the role as a long-term working primary tool to control the behavior of members of any given profession. It lasts beyond the penal sanctions entailed by law. However, what we see is the existence of a legal framework for specific actions affected the ethical perception of police highly. The consequences for the actions, which are explicitly crimes and thus are grouped as criminal activities, yielded the highest importance, whereas violating surveillance laws yielded the least importance in the factor grouping, for which still there is no comprehensive legal framework on the limits of the use of surveillance cameras.

Another noteworthy result is that police officers perceived that there should be no consequence for speeding when there was no emergency, flashing badges to avoid traffic citations, and accepting free coffees and meals, all of which are culturally not necessarily accepted as abnormal in society. This shows that although some international codes are selected or embedded in the legal framework, the effect of local culture on ethical perceptions of acts should not be ignored especially for those which are actually not criminal activities.

For the item 'Avoiding patrol and watching excessive force incident', the respondents deemed that on-the-job training was fair enough, which is lighter than the existing legal framework entailed. For the rest, the punishment that the Police Discipline by law entails is deemed fair enough. Respondents also favored that the officer should be urged to resign for bribery and stealing property.

Regarding the difference between the job satisfaction levels on the 17 items' seriousness scores, no statistically significant difference was discovered.

The impact of job stress on ethical perception was found to be statistically significant in this study. For all of the items, when the stress level that the officer felt increased from moderate to extreme, the seriousness score of the item decreased, even in case the difference was not statistically significant. In other words, the perception of unethical behavior decreased when the officer felt extremely stressed.

Compared with findings of similar studies in the academic literature, contrary to the UK and core European countries, our research results have grouped excessive use of force differently than criminal activity since the factors loaded as a specific grouping. However, factor groupings were similar to Klockars, Ivkovich, Harver, and Haberfeld (2000). With the exception of one case involving the excessive use of force, all of the corruption case scenarios involve misconduct done for personal benefit.

This topic and results are critical not only for managing a large organization like TNP but also for an organization that underwent extensive reform to EU membership to understand the weaknesses or points to be improved.

Ethical perceptions can be improved through more in number and qualified courses for police training when they were students and also on-the-job training. Above all, the study's conclusions demonstrated how crucial it is to provide interventions to lessen workplace stress in general and among police officers in particular, assisting them in creating a more morally and healthily conducive work environment.

Results of the study should be regarded cautiously due to study limitations. The study's ethical behavior metrics have limitations because they don't evaluate every facet of police integrity, and our findings might not generalize to every member of the Turkish National Police, due to relatively small sample size.

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FROM BULLYING TO CYNICISM IN ORGANIZATIONS: THE CASE OF SYRIAN REFUGEES

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1. Introduction

Work is an important touchstone for the well-being of individuals. However, this situation can change when workplace bullying is in question, where employees are exposed to psychological, physical, and sexual abuse (MacIntosh, Wuest, Gray, & Aldous, 2010: 910). Human beings have the potential to engage in behaviours such as physical violence, verbal abuse, threats of violence, backstabbing, sabotaging, and harassing another person (Tehrani, 2012: 1). If such behaviours lead to effects such as frustration, stress, lethargy, depression in the victim and the employee has difficulty in fulfilling their job responsibilities, the behaviour can be called as bullying (Georgakopoulos & Kelly, 2017: 457).

Negative interpersonal behaviours observed in workplaces called as workplace bullying (Tehrani, 2012: 3). It constitutes repeated hurtful behaviours (physical, verbal, or psychological) and these behaviours include criticism and abasement to create fear, nuisance, or damage to the employee (Akella, 2016: 1). If such behaviours are performed repeatedly or continuously, it can cause discouragement, embarrassment, and anger (Salin, 2019).

The difficulties in the economy and the globalization of markets forces organizations to attract more effective and productive employees to their organizations so they try to create work environments protecting and improving the physiological and psychological health of their employees (Sheehan & Griffiths, 2011: 6). A healthy workplace provides many positive feedbacks

to the organization, but in a workplace where bullying is common can cause significant danger for the workplace health and peace of the victim, witnesses and the organization in general (Georgakopoulos & Kelly, 2017: 450).

Studies on workplace bullying reveals that the perpetrators choose potential targets who have higher levels of neuroticism (Glaso, Matthiesen, Nielsen & Einarsen, 2007), negative affect (Coyne, Chong, Seigne, & Randall, 2003) but lower level of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness (Glaso, Matthiesen, Nielsen & Einarsen, 2007) and self esteem (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001). Generally females are selected as targets and ethnic minority also makes individuals as potential targets at workplaces (Samnani & Singh, 2012: 587).

Syrian refugees, who are an ethnic minority in Turkey, are also widely encountered in business life. Being a minority and not having enough command of language and culture can make them vulnerable to workplace bullying. Perceived bullying can cause some undesirable outcomes. Studies in the literature on workplace bullying is generally focused on some consequences such as job satisfaction (Giorgi, J.M., & Arenas, 2015; Loh, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2010; Rodríguez-Muñoz, Baillien, De-Witte, Moreno-Jiménez & Pastor), job performance (Ashraf & Khan, 2014; Devonish, 2013;), turnover intention (Djurkovic & McCormack, 2008; Hsieh, Wang, & S.C., 2019; Van-Schalkwyk, Els, & Rothmann, 2011), stress (Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2002; Mathisen, Einarsen, & Mykletun, 2011), organizational culture (Rajalakshmi & Gomathi, 2016), mental health (Harb, Rayan, & Al.khashashneh, 2019;Finne, Knardahl, & Lau, 2011; Verkuil, Atasayi, & Molendijk, 2015) and organizational silence (Cheong, 2020; Elçi, Karabay, Alpkan, & Şener, 2014). Organizational cynicism is another concept which was studied with workplace bullying (Apaydın, 2012; Bedük, Eryeşil, & Altınışık, 2017; Godollo & Kashef, 2021; Pelit & Pelit, 2014) but there aren't any studies whose participants are refugees.

The aim of this paper is to fulfill this gap and investigate the relationship between perceived organizational bullying and organizational cynicism. The sample of the research is Syrian emloyees. The findings provide leaders and sector representatives concrete data to take the necessary precautions. Because day by day, organizations feel the need to have programs for their talents' well-being as well as the financial conditions they provide them (Georgakopoulos & Kelly, 2017: 451).

2. Literature Review and Hypotheses

2.1. Workplace Bullying

Leymann (1990) conducted the first study on bullying, and he investigated bullying behaviours in playgrounds. However, it has been found that this

type of behaviour is similarly seen in workplaces. After the study of Leyman (1990), Einarsen, Raknes, and Matthiesen (1994) revealed the fact that many organizations encounter with workplace bullying.

The exposure of employees to repeated negative actions and practices is defined as workplace bullying. Such behaviours disturb the target, and the target has difficulty in self-defence. These behaviours are performed intentionally or unbeware and can cause the target to be humiliated, resentful, and distressed (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf & Cooper, 2003: 15).

Workplace bullying is defined as the perpetration of repetitive and insistent negative actions, against one or more employees, that create a hostile work environment (Akella, 2016). Muharraq, Baker, & Alallah (2022: 2) handle bullying in the workplace in two different categories as horizontal bullying and vertical bullying. Horizontal bullying is exhibited by employees at the same level, while vertical bullying is the directing of mistreatment from superiors to subordinates.

Tehrani (2012; 4) conceptualizes negative behaviours in bullying under four headings. Personal derogation involves humiliating, makes personal criticisms, ridicule, or derogatory comments to harm the target's position. Second is the intimidation which occurs with threats of physical violence or psychological intimidation, abuse of power that creates situations in which the victim cannot defend himself. The third is the work-related bullying, and it shows itself by not sharing information, removal of responsibilities, and excessive workload. The last type of behaviour is social exclusion, and the target is isolated, completely excluded and scapegoated others.

Organizational factors such as leadership, culture, policies, and management style and situational factors, such as reward systems, are essential to determine the antecedents that stimulate bullying (Samnani & Singh, 2012: 587). Bullying in the workplace, if not managed effectively, poses an important psychosocial risk that can lead to undesirable consequences for both individuals, organizations and society (Neall, Li, & Tuckey, 2021: 1). Because people can form an attitude towards the organization they work for, due to the behaviour of other people in the organization (Dean, Brandes, & Dharwadkar, 1998: 345).

The consequences of bullying can also be a source of clinical issues in many areas such as social and labour life (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003: 15). Samnani & Singh (2012: 587) states that the workplace bullying has some consequences on legal costs, psychological well-being, absenteeism, job satisfaction, organizational performance, organizational culture, suicide,

unemployment, team norms, interpersonal relationships. It also causes sleeping, energy, concentration and eating problems, headaches, anxiety, depression (MacIntosh, 2005).

Although organizations take many initiatives to minimize bullying, considering the following points is essential for the success. Firstly, policies should be prepared regarding the awareness of the existence of the problem and that the bullying behaviour is unacceptable, then the problem should be reported, and a mechanism should be established to manage it, and finally, a continuous evaluation should be made. The trainings provided also support the structure, supervision, commitment, and authority needed to make the reformation of the process continuous (Georgakopoulos & Kelly, 2017: 457).

2.2. Organizational Cynicism

Cynicism is an innate and unchangeable personal characteristic that represents negative thoughts related to human behaviour in general but organizational cynicism is negative manner that employees have in consequence of their experiences with the organization they work for. Cynicism causes the thought that their organizations lack honesty for the employees (Johnson & O'Leary-Kelly, 2003). The concept aims to criticize the status-quo and bring the individual to the forefront and is thought to have a partially positive meaning by some but it has turned into a concept that has negative meanings such as pessimism and insecurity (Gün, 2015: 10). It causes anger, despair, disillusionment, humiliation, distrust to organizations, and executives for the employees (Andersson 1996: 1395).

Abraham (2000) stated that the source of organizational cynicism is the perception of incompatibility between the employees' personal values and the values of organization. When personal and organizational values differ, the behaviours of employees will not conform. Since organizational values considered to be more dominant, these values are given priority (Balay, Kaya, & Cülha, 2013: 127).

Organizational cynicism is conceptualized as cognitive, affective and behavioural cynicism subscales by Dean, Brandes & Dharwadkar (1998). Cognitive cynicism reflects employees' belief that the organization lacks integrity. Fairness, trustworthiness, and sincerity are sacrificed for the purpose and such behavior is the norm in organizations (Dean, Brandes, & Dharwadkar, 1998: 345). Affective cynicism involves attitudes of emotional reactions. Cynicism can be felt as well as thought. Cynicism contains strong emotional reactions

such as impudence, rage, nuisance, and embarrassment to the organization (Tutar, Tuzcuoğlu, & Sarkhanov, 2021: 566). The last subscale is the behavioural cynicism and reflects the tendency towards negative and humiliating behaviors. Employees generally use sarcastic humor to describe cynical behavior (Dean, Brandes & Dharwadkar, 1998: 346).

Organizational cynicism causes many significant outputs for the organizations. It has effects on percieved reliability (Akın, 2015; Erarslan, Kaya, & Altindag, 2018:907), organizational citizenship behaviors (Nemr & liu, 2021), organizational silence (Çaylak & Altuntaş, 2017), work alineation (Durrah, 2020; Yıldız & Şaylıkay, 2014), turnover intention (Abugre & Acquaah, 2022; Çiçek, Türkmenoğlu, & Özbilgin, 2021), emotional exhaustion (Naseer, Raja, Syed, & Baig, 2021) and organizational justice (Şamdan & Atanur Başkan, 2019).

2.3. Relationship Between Workplace Bullying and Organizational Cynicism

In literature, the relationship between workplace bullying and organizational cynicism is researched by some studies. Although these studies were carried out in different sectors and in various fields, the results are predominantly similar. Some of the researches in the literature searching the relationship between both variables and their findings are given below.

Apaydın (2012) conducted a research with faculty members from different universities in Turkey to search the workplace bullying and organizational cynicism relationship. Results of her study reveal that workplace bullying occurs from work-related causes and she found out a strong relationship between them.

In the literature, mobbing and bullying can be used interchangeably. The findings of a study carried out by Bedük, Eryeşil, & Altınışık (2017) on faculty members presents significant positive correlation between mobbing and organizational cynicism. Results also reveals the negative beliefs, emotions and the behaviours of academics who exposed to mobbing. A study carried out on hotel employees by Pelit & Pelit (2014) supports the results of the studies mentioned above. Mobbing increases the organizational cynicism.

Ahmad, Islam , & Kaleem (2021) investigated how workplace bullying affects social cynicism by studying with 350 healthcare proffessionals in Pakistan. Results present the positive effect of social cynicism on workplace bullying. Ayık (2022) conducted a survey on 235 teachers to search the relationship between mobbing and organizational cynicism and found positive relationship. Haq, Zia-ud-Din, & Rajvi (2018) studied with 150 textile employees and revealed a strong relation between workplace bullying and organizational cynicism.

Seifolahi & Hassanzade (2020) studied with 317 managers and employees. According to the results of their research, cognitive cynicism and behavioral cynicism have a positive relationship with workplace bullying but emotional cynicism does not significantly affect workplace bullying.

The main purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between the workplace bullying and organizational cynicism.

Hence, it has been hypothesized that;

H1. Workplace bullying and cognitive cynicism are positively associated with each other.

H2. Workplace bullying and affective cynicism are positively associated with each other.

H3. Workplace bullying and behavioural cynicism are positively associated with each other.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Design

In this study, relational screening design, a quantitative research design, was used. Data of the research was acquired by using simple random sampling technique. The analysis of the data were conducted by descriptive and statistical techniques. IBM SPSS 22 package program was used. The relationship between workplace bullying and organizational cynicism was examined by Pearson Correlation and statistical significance was defined as $p < .05$.

3.2. Participants and Sampling

Data used for the research was acquired from Syrian employees working in Adıyaman. The research was carried out with a total of 283 participants composed of 93 females and 190 males refugees. Participants are also employees in various sectors including textile, catering and cleaning services. Participants were selected randomly and the participation was voluntary. As the research involves human participants, a formal approval from the Social and Human Sciences Ethics Committee of Adıyaman University was obtained (30.06.2022). The frequencies and percentages related to the demographic characteristics of a total of 283 Syrian employees who contributed to the research are shown in Table 1. The demographic characteristics of participants include the distribution by gender, age, marital status, working years and graduation.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Demographic Characteristics		n	%
Gender	Female	93	32,9
	Male	190	67,1
	Total	283	100
Age	18-21	30	10,6
	22-25	55	19,4
	26-29	56	19,8
	30-33	54	19,1
	34-37	42	14,8
	38-41	21	7,4
	41-44	10	3.5
	45 and more	15	5,3
	Total	283	100
Marital Status	Married	199	70,3
	Single	84	29,7
	Total	283	100
Working Years	Less than 1 year	84	29,7
	1-2 year/s	83	29,3
	3-4 years	67	23,7
	5 years and more	49	17,3
	Total	283	100
Graduation	Primary School	86	30,4
	High School	121	42,8
	Associate degree	36	12,7
	Bachelor's Degree	35	12,4
	Postgraduate	5	1,8
	Total	283	100

Considering the distributions of the variables in the table, it is seen that male participants are more than female participants. In addition, a striking point in the age variable is that the percentage of employees between the ages of 22-25 (19,4%), 26-29 (19,8%), and 30-33 (19,1%) is very close to each other. The age range of 34-37 (14,8%) comes after the stated ones. The percentage of married participants (70,3%) differs significantly compared to singles (29,7%). Another point that draws attention in the participant profiles is that those whose working year is less than 1 year (29,7%) and in the range of 1-2 years (29,3%) have the highest percentage and they are followed by 3-4 years (23,7). Participants are predominantly high school graduates (42,8%).

3.3. Data Collection

Data was collected by a questionnaire. The questionnaire has two measures. The first measure is "Negative Acts Ouestionnaire-NAQ" and is used for the measuring of workplace bullying. It was originally developed by Einarsen and Raknes (1997), revised by Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelears (2009) and adapted Turkish by Öcel (2011). It has 22 items and a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never been made) to 5 (at least once every day) was used. The Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient of the scale is 0.865 for this research. The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient obtained as a result of the reliability analysis is higher than 0.7 indicates that the reliability is acceptable (Pallant, 2011). Construct validity of the scale was tested by explanatory factor analysis. The efficiency of sample size tested by Kaiser-Meyer–Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett Sphericity Tests and the KMO value was found as 0.902. It can be said that the sample size is excellent for this study, since 0.800 and above is considered as excellent (Şencan, 2005) . The findings received from Bartlett Test, the p value was found as 0.000 (p< 0.05), shows the suitability of data set for the factor analysis.

The second measure used for the research is "Organizational Cynicism Scale". It was originally developed by Brandes, Dharwadkar and Dean (1999) and adapted Turkish by Kalağan (2009). The scale has three subscales. These subscales are cognitive, affective and behavioral cynicism. Cognitive cynicism consists of five items, behavioral cynicism consists of four items and affective cynicism has four items (Kasalak & Güneri, 2017: 42). According to the results of the reliability test, the Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient of the scale is 0.796. Explanatory factor analysis was conducted to test the validity of the scale. Results of Kaiser-Meyer–Olkin (KMO) is 0, 787

and Bartlett Sphericity Tests is 0.000 (p< 0.05). In the light of thsese results it is possible to say the data is convenient for factor analysis same as workplace bullying scale.

4. Results

The main aim of this study is to test the realtionship between the workplace bullying and organizational cynicism. Before the fundamental analysis, the normality assumption of the data was tested. Skewness and Kurtosis values were examined. In addition, histograms and q-q plot values were examined. The results obtained showed that the data were distributed normally.

Organizational cynicism has three subscales. The tests of the hypotheses developed for the relationship of each subscales with workplace bullying were carried out with the Pearson Correlation. The relationship between the workplace bullying and cognitive, affective, behavioural cynicism of the participants were analyzed. The results are shown in Table 2, Table 3 and Table 4.

Table 2: The Correlation between Workplace Bullying and Cognitive Cynicism

		Workplace Bullying	Cognitive Cynicism
Workplace Bullying	Pearson Correlation	1	0,387**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000*
Cognitive Cynicism	Pearson Correlation	0,387**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000*	

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 2 shows the significant relationship between workplace bullying and cognitive cynicism variables (p < 0.05). This relationship is moderately positive. According to these results, it can be stated that as the level of workplace bullying increases, cognitive cynicism also increases or, on the contrary, as the level of workplace bullying decreases, cognitive cynicism levels of the individuals also decrease (r= 0.387). Based on the findings mentioned above "H1: Workplace bullying and cognitive cynicism are positively associated with each other" is supported.

Table 3: The Correlation between Workplace Bullying and Affective Cynicism

		Workplace Bullying	Affective Cynicism
Workplace Bullying	Pearson Correlation	1	0,365**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000*
Affective Cynicism	Pearson Correlation	0,365**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000*	

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 3 shows the significant relationship between workplace bullying and affective cynicism ($p < 0.05$). This relationship is positive. The findings show that as workplace bullying increases, affective cynicism also increases or, on the contrary, workplace bullying decreases, affective cynicism levels of the individuals also decrease ($r = 0.365$). Based on the findings mentioned above "H2: Workplace bullying and affective cynicism are positively associated with each other" is supported.

Table 4: The Correlation between Workplace Bullying and Behavioural Cynicism

		Workplace Bullying	Behavioural Cynicism
Workplace Bullying	Pearson Correlation	1	0,387**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000*
Behavioural Cynicism	Pearson Correlation	0,387**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000*	

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Results gathered from the Correlation test reveal that workplace bullying, and behavioural cynicism are positively and significantly correlated to each other ($p < 0.05$/ $r = 0,387$) as seen in Table 4. Thus, "H3; Workplace bullying and behavioural cynicism are positively associated with each other" is supported.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between workplace bullying and organizational cynicism. The result demonstrates that

workplace bullying is positively and significantly correlates all subscales of organizational cynicism. The results of the research highlight the fact that when workplace bullying is high organizational cynicism is also high with its all dimensions or when workplace bullying is low organizational cynicism is low. According to these results, all hypotheses of the study were supported.

It is possible to come across with studies on organizational cynicism and workplace bullying relationship in the literature, but in this study, the relationship between the two variables is discussed through the example of refugees. This is the aspect that makes the study different from other studies.

The findings of this study which was conducted on Syrian refugees, who take place in working life in a different culture, should be taken into account by many sector representatives and executives. It is an undeniable fact that negative attitudes will disturb every person and should be prevented. However, this study reveals that the situation has not changed and the same results have been encountered when it comes to refugees. Because almost all of the studies examining the relationship between workplace bullying and cynicism in the literature have found significant and positive relationships between the two variables (Ahmad, Islam , & Kaleem, 2021; Apaydın, 2012; Ayık, 2022; Bedük, Eryeşil, & Altınışık, 2017; Cemaloğlu, Kalkan, Dağlı, & Çilek , 2014; Dimgba, Ikon, & Onwuchekwa, 2022; Haq, Zia-ud-Din, & Rajvi, 2018; Pelit & Pelit, 2014; Tekin & Özdemir, 2018). The results of this study conducted with refugees support previous studies. Different from the studies mentioned above Gül & Ağıröz, (2011) found a significant and positive relationship between workplace bullying and affective cynicism, one of the subscales of organizational cynicism, in parallel with this study, but they could not find such a relationship between cognitive and behavioural cynicism.

The results of our study and the studies in the literature on bullying are essential for the sector representatives to take necessary precautions before the consequences harm the employees with their negative effects. Because if there is bullying in an organization, its impacts spread as bullying imposes its effects and affects the corporate culture of the organization (Georgakopoulos, Cook, & Kent, 2011). Bullying is a problem arising from the organizational culture and the system. This can be minimized if organizations aim to address the entire system to combat workplace bullying effectively. Working in a safe environment is the right of all employees (Georgakopoulos & Kelly, 2017: 457) and providing such an environment should be one of the primary missions of the executives of organizations.

In addition to the stated results, this study also has some limitations. The first of these limitations is studying with a small sample size. Studying with more Syrian refugees or including refugees from different nationalities make the results more generalizable. The fact that the study was carried out under pandemic conditions caused certain disruptions in the processes and caused the number of samples to remain at a limited level.

In this study, the sample was chosen from many different sectors, not just one sector. This situation is another limitation of the study at the point of not being able to give more specific and clear information to the sector representatives. In the next studies, studying with refugees operating in a certain sector can be beneficial and may provide specific results to the representatives of that sector.

There is a high probability that workplace bullying is associated with many other variables as well as cynicism. For this reason, it will be supportive and enlightening to study the relationship between these variables and workplace bullying, in terms of presenting the concrete effects of this negative situation. In order to minimize workplace bullying and to support the psychological well-being of employees, these results will add a great wealth to both the literature and practices in organizations.

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