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CONTENTS

The Changing Role of Strategy and Design: Evidence-Based Investigation toward an Interdisciplinary Approach

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ABSTRACT

Contemporary developments have triggered the emergence of interdisciplinarity, which fosters learning across different areas of expertise. Particularly, the volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity (VUCA) are reshaping perspectives across all management-related areas, from private to public sectors and from strategy to policy level. This article explores the historical developments of strategy and design and how these domains are converging toward an interdisciplinary perspective: design management or strategic design. Over the last 40 years, developments in each domain have posed common questions and established the interdisciplinary intersection of design management, relying on the notion of design culture and proposing alternatives to achieve sustainable competitive advantage. These discussions have extended beyond academia to boardrooms, fostering innovative solutions and becoming focal points for management consulting firms. This article examines how this intersection and interdisciplinarity are shaping management consulting services and empowering firms that act as early adopters of collective, participatory, iterative, and evidence-based design-oriented methodologies.

Keywords: strategic design, design management, strategic design consultancy, dynamic strategic approaches, transient advantage
JEL Code: M10, M21, L21, O31, L10, L22

Introduction

The primary objective of this paper is to conduct a chronological examination of the evolving relationship between strategy and design over the past four decades, focusing on their intricate intersection. Employing a comprehensive analytical approach, this study explores various strategic models to evaluate their contemporary viability in generating and sustaining the competitive advantage. Additionally, this paper investigates the drivers behind the adoption of innovative strategic frameworks, emphasizing customer experiences and innovative problem-solving as central components.

Additionally, this study aims to delve into the pivotal role of design in facilitating innovation and differentiation. This section illustrates the pragmatic applications of design in the spheres of organizational functions and strategic initiatives. This investigation will explore the implications of these advancements for management and design consulting firms. Subsequently, the roles undertaken by both designers and business professionals within the current volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (VUCA) environment will be examined, along with the challenges inherent in achieving a harmonious synergy between strategy and design.

To fulfill these objectives, this paper adopts a structured methodological approach based on content analysis. This analytical technique provides a rigorous framework to scrutinize the intricate interplay between the realms of strategy and design. By systematically dissecting textual and visual data, content analysis facilitates the identification of patterns, thematic developments, and latent insights that shape the evolution of these domains.

The application of content analysis as a methodological lens offers a systematic means of investigating the historical trajectory of strategic and design paradigms. This approach enables a comprehensive exploration of textual artifacts and other relevant materials, providing a rigorous basis for understanding the complex interactions and mutual influences that have contributed to their convergence. Through this methodological lens, this study provides a nuanced and scholarly examination of the evolving relationship between strategy and design, yielding insights that contribute to a deeper appreciation of their synergistic dynamics in contemporary management contexts.

The main aim of this paper is to examine how the connection between strategy and design has evolved over the past forty years, with a focus on their convergence. This study employs a detailed analytical approach to explore various strategic models and assesses their current effectiveness in maintaining competitiveness. Furthermore, this paper seeks to understand why companies are adopting new strategic ideas that prioritize customer satisfaction and innovative problem-solving in response to the rapidly changing business environment.

Another objective is to demonstrate the significance of design in fostering innovation and distinguishing a company in its market. This paper provides practical examples of how design is used in a company's everyday tasks and plans. Additionally, this chapter will discuss how these developments influence firms specializing in management and design consulting. The roles of designers and business professionals in today's VUCA environment will also be explored alongside the challenges they encounter in integrating strategy and design.

This analysis is conducted through a methodological approach centered on content analysis, which provides a thorough understanding of the interplay between strategy and design. By meticulously examining verbal and visual data, this method helps identify emerging patterns and significant themes, thus illustrating the evolution of these fields. This approach not only sheds light on the historical developments of strategy and design but also clarifies how they have increasingly intersected and influenced each other.

1. Strategy and Competitive Advantage

Throughout the evolution of management science, various definitions of strategy have been proposed that are influenced by both historical conditions and contemporary developments. Hofer and Schendel defined strategy toward the 1980s as the alignment of an organization's "internal resources and capabilities with the opportunities and risks in the external environment" (Hofer, 1978). Rumelt later included sustainability in his definition; "strategy is a set of targeted actions that a firm takes to gain and maintain an advantage over its competitors" (Rumelt, 2011).

Henry Mintzberg, a pivotal scholar in strategic management during the evolutionary period between the two definitions above stated that strategy could mean the following:

- "A plan for the future (intended strategy) but also the past (realized strategy)
- A position – the decision to offer certain products in certain markets (external), but also a perspective – a way of doing things (internal)" (Mintzberg H. , 1994).

Michael Porter defines; "Strategy is the creation of a unique and valuable position, involving a different set of activities" (Porter M. E., 1996).

Leadership thinker Michael Watkins:

"A business strategy is a set of guiding principles that, when communicated and adopted in an organization, generates a desired pattern of decision making. A strategy is therefore about how people throughout the organization should make decisions and allocate resources to accomplish key objectives" (Watkins, 2007). These definitions are not alternative approaches to one another but represent different dimensions of the strategy concept. In practice, various strategic approaches are combinations of some or all of these concepts, each weighted differently.

Strategic management is a continuous activity that includes stages of control and evaluation of selected applications, in addition to the components mentioned above (Ergin, 1992). "Strategic management is an integrative field of management that combines analysis, formulation, and application in the pursuit of competitive advantage. To achieve superior performance, companies compete for resources" (Rothaermel, 2017). There are two basic approaches to explain enterprises' performance in strategic management: resource-based and industrial organization models. Contemporary developments have introduced an alternative cluster of thoughts, including the concept of sustainability, which will be further examined in the subsequent chapter following the introduction of these two fundamental approaches.

1.1. Industrial Organization Model

The industrial organization model, which prioritizes industry factors where enterprises operate as the main determinants of performance, dates back to the 1930s. Mason revealed a determinative relationship between industry structure and company performance in his research (Mauri, 1998; Mason, 1939). Fog developed the industry structure-conduct-performance (SCP) model, inspired by Mason's research (Fog, B. & Joe S. Bain, 1959.) According to Bain businesses will regulate their activities according to the conditions of the industry in which they operate, and these regulations determine their market performance (Yozgat, 2013).

The industrial organization model (I/O) is based on an outside-in perspective. This perspective states that a company has more influence from the industry in which it is competing than from the decisions its managers make in their businesses (Bowman, 2001). It is accepted that the performance of a firm is primarily determined by the industry's determinants, such as barriers to market entry, product differentiation, economies of scale, and the degree of concentration of businesses within the industry (Hitt, 2009).

However, many researchers have ignored the fact that different activities of enterprises may affect their performance in the future (eg, Phillips, 1974; Scherer, 1980). In the 1980s, Porter's adaptation of the industry structure- conduct-performance model to the field of strategy served as a bridge and created a link between theories of industrial organization (Thompson & Lockett, 2009; McGahan, 1997; Hoskisson, 1999). This adaptation links business performance entirely to sectoral factors and uses a resource-based approach that largely ignores the impact of industrial factors in explaining performance (Thompson & Lockett, 2009; Priem, 2001; Mosakowski, 1998). Thus, a more comprehensive approach has emerged, addressing why some organizations operating in the same industry and under similar market conditions—the basic question of strategic management studies—are successful while others are not at the same rate.

1.2. From Resource Based to Dynamic Capabilities Approaches

The most widely accepted of the unique resources approach, which is one of the two main approaches to explaining business performance, is RBV[1] (Barney J. , 1991; Wernerfelt, 1984), CBV[2] (Sanchez, 2008; Sanchez & & Heene, 1997), and DCV[3] (Katkalo, 2010; Teece & Pisano, 1997). In fact, all these approaches can be categorized as derivatives or successors of the Resource Based Approach (Houthoofd, 2012).

Although Wernerfelt was the first to use the concept in 1984, the historical background of the principles of the Resource Based Approach can be traced back to the school of Ricardo, which explained how valuable resources that are scarce and immobile can create profit and gain (Ricardo, 1817).

This approach is "based on the concept that businesses consist of a variety of tangible and intangible resources such as assets, processes, skills, knowledge, etc." (Penrose, 1959; Wernerfelt, 1984; Prahalad, 1990; Barney J. , 1991). "When these resources are combined, they create 'Capabilities', some of which, either individually, or in combination, create a set of 'Core Competencies', that provide a sustainable competitive advantage to the firm" (Amabile, R. Conti, Lazenby, & Herron, 1996); Design4Services, 2019).

Not all resources are equal. Rare resources that create a sustainable competitive advantage, which are difficult for rivals to imitate, are particularly valuable. Barney strategically named these resources and capabilities that will create a competitive advantage (Barney J. , 1986). RBV builds this whole structure, which is based on the resources and capabilities of the firms, on two basic assumptions. First, no two companies have the same resources and talent pool, even if they are in the same industry. This is the resource heterogeneity assumption. Penrose defined businesses as the sum of physical and human resources and highlighted the heterogeneity of these resources among businesses (Penrose, 1959).

Second, "resource and capability differences between businesses can be very long-lasting because it is very costly or impossible for competing businesses to develop or supply these resources and capabilities" (Rothaermel, 2017). This assumption assumes resource immobility. In resource-based strategies, the basis of the competitive advantage of an enterprise is the heterogeneity among the resources of the enterprises and the immobility of these resources.

Two assumptions, namely, explaining enterprise resources and capabilities and heterogeneity and immobility of resources, are quite abstract and are not directly explanatory of firms' abilities and shortcomings. However, a framework can be developed based on these definitions and assumptions.

This framework is called the "VRIO" and the framework is built on the questioning of four important elements related to enterprises' activities. These; relates to value, rarity, imperfect imitability, and organization (Barney J. , 1991) . The answers given by enterprises to the evaluations of these elements determine whether the resources and capabilities of that enterprise will lead to superiority or weakness. In the "value" inquiry, it is evaluated whether the resources and capabilities can respond to environmental threats or opportunities are evaluated, and whether they help develop strategies that can eliminate threats or take advantage of opportunities. The assessment of "rarity" questions whether available resources are currently under the control of very few competitive businesses. In the analysis of 'imitability,' it is examined whether the acquisition and development of the said resources by enterprises creates a cost disadvantage for competitors. Some rare resources are legally protected through patents,

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[1] Resource Based View
[2] Competence-Based View
[3] Dynamic Capabilities View

copyrights, trademarks, and other intellectual property rights. Additionally, certain resources are inherently complex to imitate as they evolve and become integrated within the business over time, ultimately becoming distinctive features of the company. If a resource is irreplaceable, it implies that competitors cannot find alternative methods to replicate its advantages. Furthermore, the organizational aspect of the inquiry determines whether there is adequate structure and power within the organization to leverage these resources effectively alongside other policies and procedures (Rothaermel, 2017).

1.3. From "Sustainable Competitive Advantage" to contemporary discussions:

Porter emphasizes "that businesses must have a sustainable competitive advantage in order to outperform their competitors in the long run" (Porter M. E., 1980; Porter M. , 1985). He described two main paths to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage; "*Low cost leadership, which is defined as the ability of the enterprise to produce at the lowest cost compared to all its competitors in the sector*", is one of them. Successful implementation of differentiation strategies, which is defined *as "the ability to offer unique products and services by emphasizing distinctive elements such as innovation, high technological adaptations, ease of use, prestige, quality and trust*", is another way to have a sustainable competitive advantage (Yozgat, 2013).

Porter makes the strong claim that a business runs the risk of being 'stuck in the middle' "when it tries to pursue both low cost and differentiation strategies at the same time" (Porter M. E., 1998). However, this argument does not seem coming from an examination of industry organization, i.e., external factors (Jörgensen, 2008). Instead, the 'stuck in the middle' derives from Porter's analysis of the 'different resources and skills' required to successfully implement total cost leadership: "process engineering skills, low-cost distribution, tight cost control systems" (Porter M. E., 1998). On the other hand, "strong marketing skills, product engineering, strong cooperation with marketing channels, strong coordination between R&D, product development and marketing, ability to attract creative people and qualitative control systems" are also the requirements of differentiation strategies (Porter M. E., 1998).

A different interpretation offered by Peteraf in his highly cited article "The cornerstones of competitive advantage: A resource-based view" suggests that diversification can be described as resource-based, providing a different perspective on Porter's "stuck in the middle" warning (Jörgensen, 2008; Peteraf, 1993).

For RBV, having a VRIO framework inherently creates a sustainable competitive advantage. Maintaining and enhancing these distinguishing features foster sustainability. Barney stated that strategic resources are likely to support a sustainable competitive advantage. (Barney J. , 1991). Organizational culture, e.g., a culture of innovation, is a business resource that is significant in maintaining a competitive advantage and is crucial in adapting to the strategic and competitive environment, enabling the business to reach its potential. It is also recommended that businesses improve their learning abilities to stand out from their competitors.

The average age of the companies in the S&P 500 to decline from more than 60 years in 1958 to less than 20 years today. This has reduced the relevance of tools such as the GE/McKinsey matrix and the BCG Growth-Share matrix, the diagnostic power of which relies on relatively stable industry structures" (Hunsaker, 2020).

The notion of a sustainable competitive advantage is becoming increasingly rare due to factors like digitalization, globalization, and the reduction of entry barriers, leading to a "flat world".

Rita McGrath, a reputable academic who has been responsible for important advances in the field, commented on this new situation:

"Competitors now come from many fronts, barriers to entry have decreased, and your company can face competition from startups, large tech companies, other industries, and even other geographies. The accelerated pace of change in consumer and technical trends makes long-term carefully drawn but out-of-touch strategies obsolete. The traditional approach of building a business around a competitive advantage and then hunkering down to defend it and milk it for profits no longer makes sense" (McGrath R. G., 2013). This is not merely an observation. As McGrath compared the continues (2000-2009) successful companies with their competitors, the major conclusion was: "They are successful, McGrath wrote, because they are exploiting temporary competitive advantages, not sustainable ones" (Kinni, 2014).

"Change is now the norm, not the exception. Uncertainty has replaced predictability", "As we hear for many years that the environment is changing rapidly and so must be the processes relevant to strategy", "On the other hand the environment is not just dynamic also complex" (Hunsaker, 2023 (forthcoming)).

In contemporary discussions on strategy in the new millennium, frameworks and methodologies for strategic management must adapt to the new dynamic conditions. As such, strategic approaches have been developed to address these changes, focusing on recognizing that the duration of the competitive advantage is decreasing, especially in technology-intensive industries. Even industries traditionally considered low-tech have experienced rapid changes due to increased technological utilization, making competitive advantages less durable. Recognizing that product functionality can be easily duplicated, companies are increasingly focusing on delivering exceptional customer experiences and innovative problem-solving, which transform relationships into competitive barriers.

Taking inspiration from previous work by MacMillan, Eisenhardt, Doz, McGrath emphasizes "a transient strategy focuses on the velocity of competitive advantage, instead of building one advantage and defending it. But the world is now changing so quickly that no business can plan for every eventuality" (McGrath R. G., 2013).

Businesses require a portfolio with multiple transient advantages that can be assembled quickly and abandoned immediately.

Key features of this view:

- It is a strategy approach that is more customer-centric than industry-bound.
- There are arenas (a pot of addressable resources) not only in the factor markets (labor, capital etc.), but also for customers and other stakeholders.
- Competition: significant competition from other industries, not your own. Main competition in both kinds of arenas; customer markets and the factor markets.
- You must recognize the "inflection points, trigger points, and signposts" in your market, which are never static. They should help spot changes and tell you if you should alter the course and, eventually, the decision to get in or get out.
- Discovery-driven planning is an integral theory for the body of the "lean startup" movement and a strategic method. Experiments should be conducted before locking in investment. Set up experiments, build options, and test the hypotheses. Test and learn. Running many small experiments will help you not risk all your money on one idea. A carefully constructed set of experiments proves the viability of big investments (McGrath R. G., 1995; Mankins, 2022).
- Asset use is based on flexibility, not optimization. Build flexibility in the form of hedging and options, where the relative value of competing strategies is favored over the absolute value.
- Experimentation important than analysis.
- Instead of long-term (yearly or longer) quarter based or on rolling basis budgeting.

Businesses today must navigate a landscape where strategic approaches that once offered long-term stability are less effective. This dynamic, ever-changing environment necessitates a new kind of strategic thinking—one that is adaptive, evolvable, and able to quickly shift as conditions change.

The next question is how should we choose the best strategic approach under these circumstances?

Those thinkers of new strategies (Rita McGrawth, Steve Blank, Eric Ries, Alex Osterwalder Yves Pigneur, among others) used to be called dynamic strategic thinkers. The adaptive, evolvable, shaping, and transient strategies are similar to the traditional static strategy. These are not merely iterations of traditional strategies but represent fundamentally different frameworks for understanding and responding to the business environment.

The book "Your Strategy Needs a Strategy" by Reeves and the recent publication "Ambidextrous Strategy: Antecedents, Strategic Choices, and Performance" attempt to differentiate and define these modern strategic concepts further. These studies address the significant shifts in how businesses operate and the environments in which they compete, suggesting that traditional strategies of strategic planning may no longer be adequate (Reeves et al., 2019; Zakrzewska-Bielawska, 2021 (Reeves, 2012).

According to them, the environment in which a business operates can significantly influence the type of strategic approach that is most effective. They categorize strategic styles into classical, adaptive, shaping, and visionary, depending on factors such as the predictability and malleability of the environment. For instance, in industries like oil, for which the market conditions are predictable but difficult to change, a classical strategy might be most effective. Conversely, highly unpredictable sectors like fashion, an adaptive strategy may be more appropriate. Where companies can shape their industries, a shaping strategy becomes viable, and in environments that are both predictable and susceptible to change, a visionary strategy can be employed.

After all, a company entering a different phase of its lifecycle may well require a change of strategic direction. Environments for start-ups tend to be malleable and require visionary or shaping strategies. As a business grows and matures, when the environment is less malleable, adaptive or classic styles are often preferred. For companies in a decline, the environment becomes more malleable again, generating opportunities for disruption and rejuvenation through either shaping or visionary strategies (Martin Reeves, 2019).

How should we develop the strategy based on the chosen strategic approach?

Mankins ve Gottfredson propose a new scenario approach in their article (Mankins, 2022). Accordingly, you should define exceptional but reasonable scenarios. The objective of exploring these extreme scenarios is not to pinpoint the most probable outcome but rather to unearth novel and diverse strategies for competition and success across a spectrum of possible futures. Additionally, this approach identifies "no regret" beneficial moves regardless of how events unfold. The scenarios are not viewed as likely but represent the outcomes the company could face, with very different impacts for the company. These are the basis for identifying several no-regret moves by management. The need to concentrate on the consequences rather than the likelihood

of something happening is also the idea of the Black Swan Approach of Taleb. Taleb's ideas on uncertainty have contributed to strategic decision-making (Taleb, 2007).

In fact,we see the roots of this approach in Taleb's BlackSwan. His concepts on uncertainty have revolutionized approaches to strategic decision-making. These ideas underscore the critical importance of prioritizing potential outcomes over the likelihood of an event occurring (Taleb, 2007). As we remarked at the beginning of this section, the only criticism is not on sustainability. In the current dynamic environment, the sources of dynamics are interdependent, and companies are under intense pressure to demonstrate their social legitimacy (Bonabeau, 2002; Hunsaker, 2020). In a broader view, Hunsaker and Knowles define this as a transition from shareholder capitalism to stakeholder capitalism (Hunsaker, The strategy of change, 2023 (forthcoming)). The new motto is; "In dynamic environments, understanding when and how to change is the essence of strategy" (Hunsaker, 2020).

2. Design and design management

Mozota in her latest elaboration on design management remarks; "Design fundamentally is about change as it responds to the external environment to identify opportunities to create new design activities and outcomes" (Buehring & Borja de Mozota, 2021).

Design appeals to all emotions and senses. Therefore, it is one of the important non-price factors preferred for differentiating the products and services offered. Heskett explained that the emergence of design "as a strategic tool goes back to the 1950s, when designers such as Donald Deskey and Raymond Lowey defined design as a high-level planning activity necessary for business competition" (Heskett, 2017; Boztepe, 2016).

Design has become an ever-changing field with unclear boundaries, both as an individual concept and with the concepts associated with design in recent years (Hobday, 2012; Utterback, 2006). For example, innovation theory draws on substantial knowledge from Schumpeter, but there is no equivalent basis for design (Whicher A. H., 2016). This situation creates a serious obstacle to demonstrating the impact and meaning of design at both the micro and macro levels. (Whyte, Bessant, & Neely, 2005; European Commission, 2009).

Icsid[4], which represents 140 organizations from 40 countries and an estimated 150,000 designers, renamed itself: World Design Organization (WDO) in 2017. We can see this change as the organization's effort to become the framework of all design activities, not limited to industrial design. The interesting thing is that Icsid was founded in 1957, made the first industrial design definition in 1959, and went through the updates in the following years, announcing that it gave up on making a definition in the general assembly held in Sicily in 1971 and removed the definition from the organization's "constitution" (World Design Organization, 2019). In its 29th Congress held in Korea in 2015, it redefined industrial design after 44 years. We can say that even the oldest and most widespread international design organization has a constant difficulty in defining design and has given up defining it for a long time, and when redefining "industrial design" in 2015, it actually defines design in the broadest sense as a matter of fact, 15 months after this definition, in January 2017, the organization removed the name "Industrial" from its name and transformed into the World Design Council.

The last industrial design concept determined by the World Design Council (WDO) in October 2015, as mentioned above, is actually a very comprehensive general and up-to-date design definition beyond industrial design: "Industrial Design is a strategic problem-solving process that drives innovation, builds business success, and leads to a better quality of life through innovative products, systems, services, and experiences" (World Design Organization, 2019). When we remove the word industry from this definition, just as the institution that created the definition removed it from its own name, a contemporary and inclusive definition emerges.

The European Union defines design in the Design Policy Monitor report published in 2015 as follows:

"Design is a problem-solving approach that can be used in the private and public sectors to encourage innovation in product, service, or even policy making by putting people first" (Whicher, Swiatek, & Cawood, 2015, s. 6).

While this difficulty in defining the field makes academic studies challenging, it also causes resistance because a clear common perception cannot be created in the fields of managerial and policy-related issues where design is the tool.

Finally, although there are many definitions of design in the historical process, as we have discussed above, it is possible to define it as follows from a management perspective: "Design has been defined as a process that seeks to optimize consumer satisfaction and company profitability through creating performance, form, durability, and value in connection with products, environments, information, and identities" (Kotler & Rath, 1984).

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[4] The International Council of Societies of Industrial Design

2.1. Design Culture

It is helpful to take a short look at design culture to better understand its relevance to strategy in the next section. Although there are many design culture definitions, according to Scaletsky and Costa, there are (at least) 5 common characteristics of these definitions regarding design culture(s) (Scaletsky & Costa, 2019).

The first characteristic is "the capacity to create, imagine future worlds, and project oneself **in time**" describes this; "trying to define what would define **design thought**, it necessarily goes by an imagination that makes a reality possible and that releases itself from analytical thinking details" (Buchanan R. , 2015).

Uncertainty is a characteristic of every design culture. It is related to our incapacity to build models that consider every variable in a world that does not already exist. Buchanan has shown that design problems are problems that mostly appear during the process, and they are not previously clear (Buchanan R. , 2007). Furthermore, if clear in most cases, "problems are poorly defined and poorly structured, as they could be called wicked problems" (Buchanan R. , 1992).

Where uncertainty exists, risk naturally exists. The inevitable part of constructing future worlds is 'risk' in the decision-making. It is the third characteristic of design culture. "The idea of risk in design is closely linked to a 'what if' idea, which is present in design reasoning and assumes several paths are built and then decision-making strategies are sought to decide which paths to follow (or return to). These strategies are based on simulation, modeling, and testing" (Scaletsky & Costa, 2019).

The next characteristic is nonlinearity. This does not merely refer to not following clearly described project paths but also refers to an open process in which many paths can be worked on an identical time. This critical and reflective practice that takes us astray. During decision-making, you take risks and make revisions based on criticism and reflection. Develop new alternatives in a process of continuous learning looks like a disorder, but it is a non-linear characteristic of design culture.

Manzini saw design due to "combining three human gifts: critical sense, creativity and practical sense" work (Manzini, 2015, s. 45). Practical sense is the fifth characteristic of design culture and can be defined as the ability to identify viable ways to make things. Those 5 characteristics are in a very tight relationship and can only be understood as a whole.
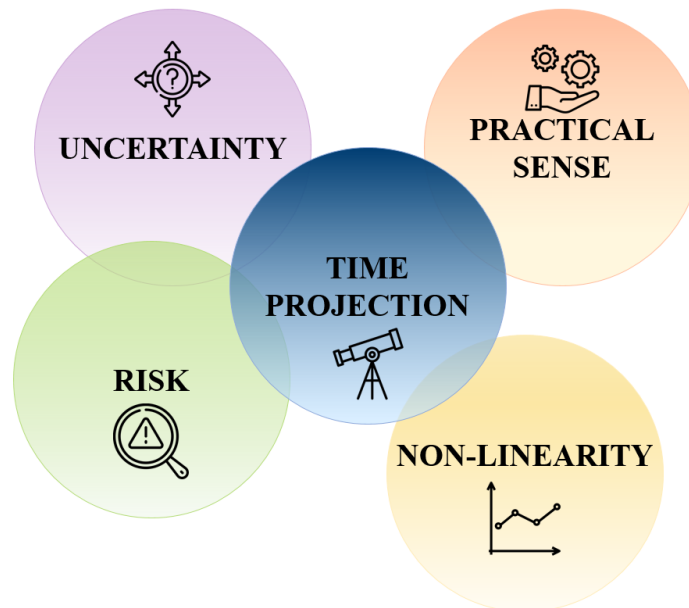
Figure 1. 5 elements of design culture according to (Scaletsky & Costa, 2019)

2.2. Design Management

It is obvious that both the design definition and elements of design culture bear similarities to the previous discussion we followed in the strategy chapter. Due to the changing dynamics in the social sciences, advances in technology, and progress at maker culture, it was inevitable to open up the discussion of design management from the early 90's on, where we have witnessed fundamental discussion points approaching and compensating each other.

When the concept first emerged, it meant the management of the design service provided internally or outsourced in manufacturing companies (Dreyfuss, 1955), (Chung K.W., 1992), whereas a current definition is in the DMI[5] (2019), which underlines a holistic understanding of a managerial system like:

"Design Management encompasses the processes, business decisions and strategies that create effectively designed products, services, organizations, communications, environments, systems and brands that enable innovation and improve our quality of life and ensure corporate success."

At a deeper level, Design Management, in three factors; economic, social/cultural, and environmental—aims to connect design, innovation, technology, management, and customers to gain a competitive advantage (very likely to appeal to any external environmental analysis). It is the art and science of strengthening design to improve collaboration and synergy between 'design' and 'business' to increase the effectiveness of design.

The scope of design management ranges from the tactical management of corporate design functions and design agencies to its strategic use as a driver of corporate success and a competitive differentiator. This scope includes the application of design thinking or design processes to address common business issues.

Mozota & Wolff (De Mozota B. B., 2019) defined the period since 2015 as follows: design management,

- "adds value through strategic conversation value (building skills, framing problems)
- solves design problems related to cultural changes, digital transformation, and design for all
- develops and fuels design skills in every function of the company"

Design leadership helps achieve goals such as making a company sustainable in a globalized context of social well-being.

Also in this article, Mozota underscored the evolution of strategy tools like SWOT or PESTEL as they widened to functional, cultural, esthetic, sensorial, emotional, experiential, and environmental dimensions. This is progress in the relation between design and management, which she defined as "design and management as convergent forces" in 2008.

Another contribution of this article is the recognition of the concept referred to as "silent management." Although designers have and practice project and process management capabilities, they are unlikely to speak of these 'design management' capabilities. Similar to the silent design view that Dumas and Mintzberg they called it 'silent management'; designers manage without knowing.

Strategic Design or Design Strategy - Effectively Positioning Designers as Strategists" by Brown focused on the key factors a (potential) design manager has to master in order to contribute to strategic work (Brown, 2019)

Brown's further contributions in 2019 are the Triple Bottom Line and Strategic Balancing. He defines the Triple Bottom Line as the impact of design in relation to a balance between impacts on people, profit, and the planet. On the other hand " 'Strategic Balancing' represents the strategic considerations (current strategy and competitive positioning) that need to be taken into account by a strategic designer when transitioning the design to its final 'Strategic Design' form." As balancing objective and subjective factors is fundamental to design, and applied to strategy, it could mean leaving less to those vague notions or to chance.

Historically, the progress of alignment between these two disciplines has influenced design management approaches. To track this development, we would like to address the theoretical approaches discussed in both disciplines in a separate chapter, as the interchangeability of terminology remains one of the most challenging factors, as mentioned at the beginning of the chapter.

3. Relationship Between Strategy and Design: Context and Evolution

Although the relationship between design and strategy has been investigated for several years, it has also evolved over time. This evolution stems from both the transformation in the role of design and the progressive advancements in strategic theory. The economic background always bears the perspective of the "value" of design. Scholars like Mozota and Liedtka approached the value of design at the organizational (micro) level, whereas Heskett and Julier elaborated on the macro level.

The academia and a group of researchers who have approached design as a strategic tool and proved that traditional design approaches are inefficient have, most commonly, two different starting points. First, the critics of traditional strategy schools are very weak in times of uncertainty, and the latter strategy is a product of an analytical set on analysis. These criticisms have been shared regardless of the specific role of design in strategic approaches. An important claim of Siegal regarding the nature of development can be traced as follows:

"*For the past 20 years American industry has been run by managers. They are trained in business schools to be numbers-oriented, to minimize risks and to use analytical, detached plans—not insights gained from hands on experience*" (Siegal, 1982).

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[5] Design Management Institute

Following this claim, an important notion of design being fundamentally about change "as it responds to the external environment to identify opportunities to create new design activities and results" is an important statement with the effort of management constantly finding a balance between tightness and looseness and, strategically, between analysis and emotion or intuition (Lorenz, 1994). In her discussion of intangible aspects of strategy, Mozota asserts that while companies may possess a clear mission, a strategic vision, and robust portfolios, they are also complex human systems. Within these systems, the designer's ability to observe, coordinate, visualize, simplify, and synthesize is invaluable. From an external perspective, traditional core services help customers to do things to increase efficiency. Strategic services relate more to the effectiveness of doing the right thing (Weiss, 2002).

Our investigation of strategy in the first chapter started with the development of the concept of the "competitive advantage" starting from early 80's. The exhibit above gives an understanding of the essential keywords around the development of strategy-related theories that can use the 'design' element. This chapter provides a historical understanding of how these key concepts approached each other through several discussions. Very recently, this discussion emerged terminology like 'strategic design', where designers' can influence decisions and provide guidance on issues impacting an organization's long-term sustainability and competitiveness or the use of design to improve and maintain performance in business or efficacy in nonprofit organizations (Micheli P. P., 2018). However, the term 'strategic design' is adopted ambiguously in both empirical and professional literature, with a variety of meanings from utilizing design to distinguish and increase margins by enhancing the perceived value of 'designer goods', to shaping the corporate strategy itself. A parallel discussion on design strategy is a long-term plan for implementing design, particularly at a product, rather than corporate.

3.1. Evolution of Design's Role in Strategy: From Value Creation to Strategic Tool

The combination of both of our key words in this article has a long-standing relationship, and it is keen to follow the historical development of using the combination of both words to open up new perspectives in industrial settings. One of the first pieces of evidence of this historical companionship from a marketing perspective was put by Philip Kotler in 1984 in his work on "Design: A Powerful but Neglected Strategic Tool" and can be considered an example of Zeitgeist :

"What they don't realize is that good design can enhance products, environment, communications, and corporate identity" (Kotler & Rath, 1984).

This early approach bears important marketing and communication notions, including product development as a component of marketing. The proposition has also suggestions like educational programs for the executive level, including raising awareness among strategic decision makers regarding design.

Following the marketing perspective of Kotler in 1987 Mintzberg and Dumas brought the discussion to a strategic level. The work of Dumas on 'silent design' a term on what is design by people who are not designers and are unaware that they are participating in design activities, continues in all organizations studied, even those that have formal design policies and open design activities, whereas Mintzberg, one of the few strategists who understands the potency of design, however, underestimates its power when he only speaks of the correspondence between design 'insight' and the 'intuitive or insightful process' of strategy development (Lorenz, 1994). Among the industrial cases, the most prominent case of a company that for the first time allowed itself to use its designers' 'soft' skills-their insight and intuition—as part of its broader process of 'crafting strategy' is the Ford Motor Company, with its Taurus/Sable project in the early 1980s (Mintzberg H. , 1987).

Later in 1992 R.S. Sisodia carried the scope of design from product to process in his article "Competitive Advantage Through Design". He claimed that the managers of 1980s solved their concerns by creating value for customers. They used the interaction between customers (tangible or intangible). "And this interaction is overwhelmingly driven by two things: product and process design" (Sisodia, 1992). Additionally, Buchanan elucidated in 1992 how the core principle of successful design has transitioned from the creation of tangible artifacts to the development of complex systems (Buchanan R. , 1992).

Later on, Lorenz underlined the significance of strategic use of design and emphasized industrial design and the designer. The participation of the designer from the very beginning of the project is essential, and design as a function is at the intersection of marketing and R&D departments. The importance level of such a design department must be set at the same level for both departments so that the integrator role of design can function smoothly (Lorenz, 1994). This aligns with Henry Mintzberg's concept of "Crafting Strategy," where he underscores the organic development of strategy through day-to-day activities, challenging traditional strategic planning (Table:1). This perspective on design's strategic roles aligns also with Victor Seidel's exploration of design-led strategy consulting, where he identified four key roles: strategy visualizer, core competence prospector, market exploiter, and process provider (Table:1).

Table 1. *40 years of Design & Strategy*

Strategic Theory/Approach	Contribution of Design	Literature	Author	Year	Strategy Literatüre
Cost Leadership	"sources of cost advantage through design's impact on manufacturing and after-sales costs, as well as costs of product development and marketing	Structuring Strategic Design Management: Michael Porter's Value Chain	Mozota	1998	Porter (The Competitive Advantage of Nations, Competitive Advantage); Kotler &Rath (Design: A Powerful but Neglected Strategic Tool)
Differentiaiton	design as a facilitator, differentiator, integrator, transformer and as good business	Design and competitive edge - A model for design management excellence in European SMEs	Mozota	2002	Porter (Competitive Advantage); Hamel & Pralahad (Competing for the Future); Dumas & Mintzberg (Managing the Form, Function and Fit of Design)
	Perception value is building company competitive advantage through differentiation perceived in the market.	The Paradigm Shift in the Design Profession, from Management as a Constraint to Management Science as an Opportunity	Mozota	2008	Kaplan & Norton (The Balanced Scorecard: translating strategy into action)
	design's capacity to contribute to various strategic goals, such as securing niche markets, speeding up diverse product development or developing distinctive identity	The design agenda: a guide to successful design management	Cooper & Press	1995	
Value Chain	decisive competitive advantage throughout the value system, as when design helps by creating interdependencies among a firm and its suppliers and distributors."	Structuring Strategic Design Management Michael Porter's Value Chain	Mozota	1998	Porter (The Competitive Advantage of Nations, Competitive Advantage); Kotler &Rath (Design: A Powerful but Neglected Strategic Tool)
	explaining how design participates in the selection process and continuous improvement process of defining a competitive advantage Defining design as a function within the company structure that modifies processes and innovation management design as a facilitator, differentiator, integrator, transformer and as good business	Design and competitive edge - A model for design management excellence in European SMEs	Mozota	2002	Porter (Competitive Advantage); Hamel & Pralahad (Competing for the Future); Dumas & Mintzberg (Managing the Form, Function and Fit of Design)
	(Industrial) Design as integrator between R&D, Design and Marketing	Harnessing design as a strategic resource	Lorenz	1994	Porter (Competiive Advantage,Competitive Strategy); Kotler (Design: a powerful strategic tool); H.Mintzberg (Crafting strategy); Dumas & H.Mintzberg, (Managing design, designing management)
	"interdisciplinary leveraging of capabilities with design processes and tools as interface helps to make the transition from ideation to implementation. Interdisciplinary team including designer as integrator for **"user desirability"**, **"technical feasibility"**, and **"business viability"**	Developing tangible strategies	Weiss	2002	Hamel (Leading the Revolution. Boston); Porter (Strategy and the Internet)
RBV/DC	design as a facilitator, **differentiator, integrator,** transformer and as good business	Design and competitive edge - A model for design management excellence in European SMEs	Mozota	2002	Porter (Competitive Advantage); Hamel & Pralahad (Competing for the Future); Dumas & Mintzberg (Managing the Form, Function and Fit of Design)
	Design as **unique** core competency (From design as fit to design as resource). Design as an intangible value: Internal skills, process, and knowledge.	Managing Design as a Core Competency - Lessons from Korea	Mozota & Kim	2009	Porter (Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance); Helfat & Peteraf (The Dynamic Resource-Based View: Capability Lifecycles); Prahalad & Hamel (The Core Competence of the Corporation)
	Defensbility (for designer): besides value creation, execution, and scalability, competitors can't easily imitate you	Business Strategy and Design - Can this Marriage Be Saved	Liedtka	2010	
	From design as creator of differentiated products to design as an organizational activity with its own systematic processes, routines and attitude, ingrained into organizations and can be reused. Designer engaged in redefinition of existing strategies to building unique organizational competencies to setting corporate visionby developing future scenarios.	Design Expanding into Strategy - Evidence from Design Consulting Firms	Boztepe	2016	Wernerfelt (A resource-based view of the firm); Simon (Strategy and organizational evolution), (The sciences of the artificial); Porter (Competitive strategy); Mintzberg (The rise and fall of strategic planning); Liedtka,King & Bennett (Solving problems with design thinking); Liedtka (In defense of strategy as design); Kotler &Rath (Design: A Powerful but Neglected Strategic Tool); Barney (Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage); Buchanan (Wicked problems in design thinking)
RBV/DC	The design process is a resource that can be the basis for a company to develop a superior and distinct competitive advantage.	Design Strategic Value Revisited: A Dynamic Theory for Design as Organizational Function	Mozota	2011	Barney (Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage); Mintzberg (Crafting Strategy, Rethinking Strategic Planning. Part II); Dumas & Mintzberg (Managing the Form, Function and Fit of Design),(Managing Design Designing Management); Brown (Design Thinking); Kotler &Rath (Design: A Powerful but Neglected Strategic Tool); Prahalad & Hamel (The Core Competence of the Corporation); Prahalad and Ramaswamy (Co-Opting Customer Competence)
	RBVand DC offered additional frameworkto explore design's strategic contribution.	Design's Voyage to Get a Seat at the Strategy Table	Boztepe	2018	Andrews, K. R. (Directors' responsibility for corporate strategy); Ansoff (Corporate Strategy); Barney (Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage); Dumas & Mintzberg (Managing design/designing management);Eisenhardt & Martin (Dynamic capabilities: What are they?);...
Core Competences	explaining how design participates in the selection process and continuous improvement process of defining a competitive advantage	Managing Design as a Core Competency - Lessons from Korea	Mozota, Kim	2009	Porter (Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance); Helfat & Peteraf (The Dynamic Resource-Based View: Capability Lifecycles); Prahalad & Hamel (The Core Competence of the Corporation)
	Collabrotive strategic work between general maneger and design manager	Managing Design for Competitive Advantage - A Process Approach	Olson, Slater and Cooper	2000	Porter (Competitive Strategy)
	A model for managing design as a core competency. The transition from design as fit to design ascore competency.	Managing Design as a Core Competency - Lessons from Korea	Mozota & Kim	2009	Porter (Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance); Helfat & Peteraf (The Dynamic Resource-Based View: Capability Lifecycles); Prahalad & Hamel (The Core Competence of the Corporation)
Transient Advantage	VUCA (volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity)	Foresight and Design: New Support for Strategic Decision Making	Buehring & Bishop	2020	Hamel & Valikangas (The Quest for Resilience); Buehring, Henning & Liedtka (Embracing Systematic Futures Thinking at the Intersection Of Strategic Planning, Foresight, and Design); Hamel (Leading the Revolution: How to Thrive in Turbulent Times by Making Innovation a Way of Life); Liedtka (Strategic Thinking: Can It Be Taught?, Learning to Use Design Thinking Tools for Successful Innovation)
	To exploit the transit advantege through "presumptive design"	Presumptive design: Design provocations for innovation	Frishberg & Lambdin	2015	Book: McGrath (Transient advantage) (Are you squandering your intelligent failures?)
Balanced Scorecard	provide a systemic view of a design value model and exploratory work for the issuing of the Design Manager Balanced Scorecard but also a dynamic system of relationships between the selected measures. design as a pertinent management tool for corporate knowledge and organization system.	The complex system of creating value through Design:Using the Balanced Scorecard model to develop a system view of design management from a substantial and financial point of view design management from a substantial and financial point of view	Mozota	2005	Kaplan & Norton (The Balanced Scorecard: translating strategy into action);
	customer perspective (design as differentiator); process perspective (design as coordinator); learning perspective (design as transformer); finance perspective (design as good business) not just design but **design management**'s power to create value in companies	Four Powers of Design - A Value Model in Design Management	Mozota	2006	Kaplan & Norton (Linking the Balanced Scorecard to Strategy)

Table 1. *Continued*

Strategic Theory/Approach	Contribution of Design	Literatüre	Author	Year	Strategy Literatüre
General Strategy	crafting strategy: the match between design 'insight' and 'the intuitive or insightful process' of strategy making	Crafting Strategy	Mintzberg	1987	
	Designers contribute to the strategy work on 3 levels: Corporate strategy: what businesses to be in and how to manage the business units Strategic business unit strategy: how to compete with other businesses Functional strategy: how to deploy functional resources Designers have four roles as strategy contributors: strategy visualizer, core competence prospector, market exploiter, design process provider	Moving from design to strategy: the four roles of design-led strategy consulting	Seidel	2000	Mintzberg & Waters, "Of Strategies, Deliberate and Emergent."; Grant (Contemporary Strategy Analysis); Porter (What Is Strategy?); Hamel & Prahalad (Strategic Intent)
	With its focus also to "empower the product development people," it facilitates **emergent strategies** from lower levels in the organization.	Moving from design to strategy: the four roles of design-led strategy consulting	Seidel	2000	Mintzberg & Waters, "Of Strategies, Deliberate and Emergent."; Grant (Contemporary Strategy Analysis); Porter (What Is Strategy?); Hamel & Prahalad (Strategic Intent)
	the problems design and strategy deal with are of similar in nature sophisticated with multiple variables that cannot be resolved with statistical means alone	Design Expanding into Strategy - Evidence from Design Consulting Firms	Boztepe	2016	Wernerfelt (A resource-based view of the firm); Simon (Strategy and organizational evolution), (The sciences of the artificial); Porter (Competitive strategy); Mintzberg (The rise and fall of strategic planning); Liedtka,King & Bennett (Solving problems with design thinking); Liedtka (In defense of strategy as design); Kotler &Rath (Design: A Powerful but Neglected Strategic Tool); Barney (Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage); Buchanan (Wicked problems in design thinking)
	the need for a more organizational theoretical perspective on design management and design as a strategic resource rather than a strict communication perspective	Design Strategic Value Revisited: A Dynamic Theory for Design as Organizational Function	Mozota	2011	Barney (Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage); Mintzberg (Crafting Strategy, Rethinking Strategic Planning. Part II); Dumas & Mintzberg (Managing the Form, Function and Fit of Design),(Managing Design Designing Management); Brown (Design Thinking); Kotler &Rath (Design: A Powerful but Neglected Strategic Tool); Prahalad & Hamel (The Core Competence of the Corporation); Prahalad and Ramaswamy (Co-Opting Customer Competence)
	Triple Bottom Line (the impact of the design in respect to a balance between the impact on people, profit, and the planet) Strategic Balancing represents the strategic considerations (current strategy and competitive positioning) that need to be taken into account by a strategic designer when transitioning the design to its final "Strategic Design" form.	Strategic Design or Design Strategy - Effectively Positioning Designers as Strategists	Brown	2019	Martin (The Design of Business: Why Design Thinking is the Next Competitive Advantage); Esslinger (A Fine Line: How Design Strategies are Shaping the Future of Business)
	It offers a conceptual approach that can help overcome weaknesses in the alignment of vision betweenthe functions of strategy, innovation and foresight, which is the goal of design thinking and its application.	Foresight by design: Supporting strategic innovation with systematic futures thinking	Bühring & Liedtka	2019	Grant (Contemporary Strategy Analysis); Hamel (Leading the Revolution: How to Thrive in Turbulent Times by Making Innovation a Way of Life); Mintzberg (The fall and rise of strategic planning)
	elevating the design in the organization to a more strategic role	Elevating design in the organization	Micheli, Perks and Beverland	2018	Buchanan (Wicked problems in design thinking); di Magio and Powell (The iron cage revisited: Institutional isomorphism and collective rationality in organizational fields.)
General Business	As first of its kind this book builds a strong link between design and business. Key messages of this book are not only relevant to business managers, who must integrate design into their business; but also to design professionals, who must learn to engage with the rest of the	(Book) Design Management: Using Design to Build Brand Value and Corporate Innovation	Mozota	2003	Book refers to several articles/books of (Porter, Pralahad, Mintzberg, Kotler, Liedtka, Hamel, Drucker, de Bono
	IFRS (International Financial Reporting Standards) to measure corporate "intangibles" have created a new valuation framework for companies and a unique opportunity for the design profession and design managers	Managing Design as a Core Competency - Lessons from Korea	Mozota & Kim	2009	Porter (Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance); Helfat & Peteraf (The Dynamic Resource-Based View: CapabilityLifecycles); Prahalad & Hamel (The Core Competence of the Corporation)
General Business	symbiotic relationship between business and design; differences in the core assumptions and decision drivers underlying each approach (business & design)	Business Strategy and Design - Can this Marriage Be Saved	Liedtka	2010	-
	process design	Competitive Advantage Through Design	Sisodia	1992	
	EVA (economic value added)	Design and competitive edge - A model for design management excellence in European SMEs	Mozota	2002	Porter (Competitive Advantage); Hamel & Pralahad (Competing for the Future); Dumas & Mintzberg (Managing the Form, Function and Fit of Design)
	Designers role as process provider falls squarely into the process-consulting domain. e.g. a process to guide development of a new product line	Moving from design to strategy: the four roles of design-led strategy consulting	Seidel	2000	Mintzberg & Waters, "Of Strategies, Deliberate and Emergent."; Grant (Contemporary Strategy Analysis); Porter (WhatIs Strategy?); Hamel & Prahalad (Strategic Intent)
Wicked Problem Solving, Design Thinking	Design mnking, the ability to brokerknowledge and to engage in systems thinking. The Value Model explains the potential of design	The Paradigm Shift in the Design Profession, from Management as a Constraint to Management Science as an Opportunity	Mozota	2008	Kaplan & Norton (The Balanced Scorecard: translating strategy into action)
	Designs shift beyond tangible artefacts toward constructing complex syste	Wicked Problems in Design Thinking	Buchanan	1992	
	the problems design and strategy deal with are of similar in nature sophisticated with multiple variables that cannot be resolved with statistical means alone	Design Expanding into Strategy - Evidence from Design Consulting Firms	Boztepe	2016	Wernerfelt (A resource-based view of the firm); Simon (Strategy and organizational evolution), (The sciences of the artificial); Porter (Competitive strategy); Mintzberg (The rise and fall of strategic planning); Liedtka,King & Bennett (Solving problems with design thinking); Liedtka (In defense of strategy as design); Kotler &Rath (Design: A Powerful but Neglected Strategic Tool); Barney (Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage); Buchanan (Wicked problems in design thinking)
	Linking design tools to strategic challenges	How design thinking opens new frontiers for strategy development	Liedtka & Kaplan	2019	M and G. Hodgkinson, (Making Strategy Hot); Sull and Eisenhardt. (Simple rules: How to thrive in a complex world)

Cooper and Press identified design capabilities to contribute to multiple strategic objectives, such as securing niche markets, accelerating diverse product development, or developing a unique identity (Cooper & Press, 1995). The article Olson, Cooper, and Slater published in 1995 with the name of 'Design Strategy and Competitive Advantage' contributes to the definition of Mintzberg et al. (H. Mintzberg, 1995). Namely, "Design strategy is the effective allocation and coordination of design resources and activities to accomplish a firm's objectives. . . ..design strategy as follows: the effective allocation and coordination of design resources and activities to accomplish a firm's objectives of creating its appropriate public and internal identities, its product offerings, and its environments" (Olson, Slater, & Cooper, 1998).

In **1998, Mozota analyzed** the role of design based on strategic fit from Michael Porter; "Strategic fit advocates the planning of a company's value chain to develop consistency, reinforcement, and optimization of elements. . . ..From a strategic viewpoint, a more careful management of linkages can offer decisive competitive advantage throughout the value system, as when design helps by creating interdependencies among a firm and its suppliers and distributors" (Porter M. , 1985; Mozota, 1998).

It is still a **cost-reduction-based approach**: Cost advantages through design affect the manufacturing and after-sales costs and the costs of product development and marketing. Nowadays, you will interpret, for example, after-sales communications as a critical touching and not as a function that you can reduce your costs.

A survey commissioned by the European Community in the 1990s also showed that business leaders believe that design adds value to their business; At the same time, it became clear that companies still viewed design primarily in terms of product and usability (Joziasse, 2000).

In 2000, Olson et al. updated their contribution of the former article of 1998 on "Design strategy and competitive advantage" with a new article on "Managing Design for Competitive Advantage A Process Approach" and have introduced **core competency** into the design-related discussion and stated " at the heart of any successful competitive strategy lies a set of distinctive competencies that form the basis of a firm's source of sustainable advantage" (Olson, Slater, & Cooper, 2000). The article also states that there are strong collaboration opportunities between design and several other firm functions.

In 2000, Seidel stated that designers contribute to strategy work on 3 levels:

1. "Corporate strategy: what businesses to be in and how to manage the business units
2. Strategic business unit strategy: how to compete with other businesses
3. Functional strategy: how to deploy functional resources" (Seidel, 2000).

His examination shows that designers (design consultants) play four roles as strategic contributors:

1. Strategy visualizer: This role involves developing physical and visual prototypes. Using the design and prototyping process neatly matches the questions of strategic fit and strategic intent. "The prototypes should be manufacturable—if not immediately, then through known manufacturing technology—and therefore address strategic fit." However, they can also explore directions that advance the company's existing core competencies and guide strategic intent.
2. Core competence prospector: Countless connections to the client's organization give designers a unique perspective on what is possible within the organization.
3. Market exploiters: They felt that in addition to design know-how, they also provided valuable marketing insights. The **competence prospector** and **market exploiter** roles aim to give the client a new strategic direction based on an understanding of core competencies and market knowledge, mainly working at the planned ('**intended**') level of the strategy.
4. Design process provider: In contrast to content-related strategy consulting, as in the cases mentioned above, the last role falls directly into the area of process consulting. e.g. a process to control the development of a new product line. With its focus on empowering product development staff, it also facilitates **emerging strategies** at lower levels within the organization.

Weiss discussed in his article in 2002 the role and contribution of the designer as "interdisciplinary leveraging of capabilities with design processes and tools as interface helps to transition from ideation to implementation". This scope brings two separate discussions on innovation—namely, creativity-related and business issues—together under the umbrella of design-based processes and design communication. For the first time, the terms **"'user desirability', 'technical feasibility'** and **'business viability'** are handled **by a transdisciplinary team"** (Weiss, 2002)[6].

As one of the most productive scholars in the design management field, Mozota presented in 2005 her work on the Design Manager Balanced Scorecard (DMBS), which is based on the Balanced Scorecard of Norton & Kaplan. This approach links the substantial value creation of design with the financial value creation for the firm. DMBS provides "a systemic view of a design value model and also a dynamic system of relationships between the selected measures". It is an attempt to go beyond the design integrator role between designers, engineers, and marketing people, the value of design to every employee and all stakeholders (Borja de Mozota B. , 2005).

Later in 2008 de Mozota made her next contribution and explained the evolution of the relationship between management science and design science. She described the initial relationship as constrained and described it as the "design and management as diverging forces". With the evolution of the design discipline from project-based to process-based, which is a key factor in design's contribution to management, she called the new relationship "design and management as convergent forces". The article also emphasizes the capability of design thinking in uncertain environments. The design can be useful to solve contemporary challenges such as complexity, innovation, and social responsibility with the designer's ability to broker knowledge and engage in systems thinking, observation, visualization, and prospecting. (Borja de Mozota B. , 2008).

Parallel to de Mozota's investigation of 'design and management as convergent forces,' after a decade of the introduction of the 'Master in Strategic Design' at Politecnico di Milano in 2008, Dr. Anna Meroni published an article describing the evolution of strategic design. In this context, she discussed strategic design as an approach that includes, among other things, the development of Product Service Systems (PSS). She claims that "a PSS is a mix of products, services, communication and people; when conceived

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[6] *desirability* (or what motivates consumer behavior) demands an understanding of how people interpret and interact with the things, *feasibility* means understanding how the new technologies can be harnessed, *viability* is the aligning with the organization's strategic objectives and competitive positioning

to answer a specific need." Meroni (2008) noted that "the strategic design of Product Service Systems shifts the innovation focus from product or service design to an integrated product-service design strategy, orientated to produce solutions" (Meroni, 2008). To meet these requirements, there is a need for a strategic approach of collaboration with the stakeholders as partners; clients, other firms, public institutions, non-profit organizations, and end users. To generate, provide, and deliver a solution, co-opetition with competitors could also be necessary.

This approach was based on the following strategy definition as follows; "strategy is not a pre-defined program, but a series of successive actions driven by a set of scenarios that could be selected, modified and refined over time, according to environmental responses and inputs" (Meroni, 2008). Continuing her efforts to make the tangible value added more apparent, Mozota brought another dimension to the role and value of design with International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS). "IFRS evaluates the intangibles in the organization's capital, where design is involved through intellectual property or creative human capital or brand or customer relationships" (de Mozota, 2009). This has created a new assessment framework for companies and a distinctive opportunity for the design profession. Model for managing design as a core competency. In this article, de Mozota and Kim define the tools and methods for the transition from "'design as fit' to 'design as core competency'."

As the RBV of a firm's competitive advantage underlines the importance of intangibles, this article emphasizes the value of 'design you cannot see'. "Design you can't see is design as research and knowledge, reinforced by employees' training and empowerment, adequate organizational processes, and technologies that in the end produce competitive market and brand value" (de Mozota, 2011).

3.2. Contribution of Design to Transient Competitive Advantage: A Strategic Framework

As mentioned in the strategy chapter, after the increasing importance of intangibles and uncertainties in the strategic field scholar, models that question the notion of sustainable advantage and shifting the gear toward more provocative notions are challenging the long-established strategy field.

The book "Presumptive design: Design provocations for innovation" in that respect explains in detail the function and contribution of design (in this case the PrD (Presumptive design)) for transient advantage (Frishberg, 2015). In the field of design, as in strategy, new approaches emerge, or some ideas that have been put forward in the past are starting to come to life. PrD is an agile design research method that is a twist on the usual user-centered design approach to identify your audiences' key needs (Lambdin., 2022).

"Transient Advantage has taken agile sensibilities into the boardroom by eliminating a static strategy planning process. In its place, strategy is defined as ongoing and dynamic, responding to rapid cycles of the competitive advantage" (Frishberg, 2015). In the traditional view, strategy focuses on measurable objectives, scope, and differentiators in an organization. As noted in the previous chapter, McGrath's view underlines "such a static definition of strategy no longer serves organizations facing very turbulent market dynamics". A firm must be prepared to successfully ride the waves of a transient competitive advantage (Muneer, 2019).

Frishberg explained; "the Cynefin Framework provides a theoretical context for McGrath's Transient Advantage."

Figure 2. "Snowden's Cynefin framework on decision matrix"

Organizations increasingly encounter scenarios within the "unknown-unknown quadrant," a trend that has intensified recently. Through the PrD perspective, strategists are afforded the opportunity to explore experimental strategies akin to those that might be employed in the future. In environments characterized by "unknown unknowns," the imperative action is to engage actively (Frishberg, 2015). PrD is most effective for situations defined as "unknown unknowns", where the organization must take action

to identify what it does not know. These actions will be experiments that rely on artifacts (prototypes) that drive good stakeholder conversations and illuminate insights.

Viewing through McGrath's framework of Transient Advantage, it becomes essential for organizations to cultivate a vast array of opportunities to adapt swiftly should the external environment undergo significant changes. The concept of generating multiple strategic alternatives is well-established; however, as noted by scholars like Schrage, Ulwick, and others, the essence lies in the ability to efficiently pinpoint viable candidates for survival within targeted markets (Andrews, 1980). At this juncture, PrD excels by pinpointing optimal solutions that address the precise problems identified by customers and markets, achieving this with minimal expense and effort (Frishberg, 2015).

In the intersection of knowledge management, strategy, and design discussion, Turkish scholar Boztepe focused on the work of design consulting firms and identified new and strategic engagements of designers. The generation of alternative ideas, creative thinking, and synthesis characterize the design. Its aims are to redefine existing strategies to create unique organizational competencies to guide the company's direction by developing future scenarios. The strategy development process grounded in user experiences attempts to reduce the risks associated with uncertainty, design's focus on creative thinking has the potential to create opportunities unknown to business and visuals, and prototypes are an integral part of experimental and creative thinking. Boztepe describes the role change after RBV and DC; Design as a single visually differentiated product is easy to imitate and can only bring a short-lived competitive advantage. Therefore, it can be conveniently dismissed as a strategic source. According to Boztepe; "But as design evolves from creator of differentiated products to design as an organizational activity with its own systematic processes, routines and attitude, ingrained into organizations and can be reused then it becomes a strategic resource (Boztepe, Design expanding into strategy: evidence from design consulting firms, 2016)."

The results of the research from Micheli, Perks and Beverland is a good example of how to take design to a strategic level. Six practices have been found to affect the design elevation process; top management support, leadership of the design function, raising awareness of the role and contribution of design, inter-functional coordination, assessment, of design, and formalization of product and service development processes.

Due to its potential to disrupt established norms, design frequently encounters significant resistance (Brown T., 2015). In this article "Elevating design in the organization" the authors described, besides the critical practices, also the potential tensions that should be balanced if design is to be elevated in status. Clear signposts by senior managers, articulation of their unique contribution to the organization's strategic goals by designers, organizational process modifications, and, last but not least, the designers' capacity to work in cross-functional teams as they are fully aware of commercial considerations of the firm build the frame for the potential success of the elevation (Micheli, Perks, & Beverland, 2018).

Liedtka emphasized, "by integrating design practices into strategy development, practitioners can produce both incremental improvement in the performance of today's business model and open opportunities to radically transform it" (Liedtka J. &., 2019). She described five areas where strategy practitioners can benefit from design:

1. How you see opportunity: With integrating Human Centered Design (HCD) in the strategy development process, the process will be (more) customer focused. As the main driver of HCD is the "helping customers get the jobs done" there will be a shift in focus from the organization to the customer. The HCD uses the adjacent possible process through inviting the "uncommon" voices to strategy discussions to discover new insights.

2. Learn through action. The prototyping and experimentation phase: It's a challenging phase because it involves prototyping a novel offering. "It requires going beyond building a minimum viable product to designing and testing a minimum viable business model".

3. Manage a portfolio of bets: As the transitional strategic portfolio management rests on a significant assumption—that organizations actually know the true potential of the individual components of their growth strategies in the current hyper-dynamic environment, knowledge about the true potential is just hypothetical. In today's environment, improving the accuracy of value and risk assessments is more important than estimating market growth and predicting market share. Under these uncertain circumstances, design can offer tools such as The Bring-Build-Buy Map, The potential Value/Risk Grid, Co-creation, and prototyping.

4. Making change happen: According to Liedtka, the scaling phase is the most difficult, which requires the involvement of the rest of the organization in a change process. For the involvement of the whole organization new strategies must be vivid, personally meaningful and compelling to the people who must change their behavior in order to implement them. A strong tool of design and storytelling can help an organization; the designer can translate abstract ideas and high-level prescriptions to a meaningful story for the people.

5. (Radically) The business model is transformed as follows: It is argued that the best use of design thinking is to help strategists imagine, design, prototype, and commercialize entirely new business models to mitigate the threat of disruption.

Rita McGrath posits that the traditional model of sustainable competitive advantages has been supplanted by a paradigm of transient advantages. In this new dynamic, the entrenched structures and systems that were optimized to maximize the benefits of longstanding competitive edges are challenged. These systems are designed for stability and impede the agility required to navigate an ever-shifting landscape of fleeting opportunities. This perspective on the evolving nature of competitive advantages is complemented by Jeanne Liedtka and Saul Kaplan's insights on how design thinking can open new frontiers for strategy development, highlighting its role in enhancing customer-centric approaches and innovative problem-solving (Table:1).

In the book "Managerial decision making: A holistic approach" Foster et al. delineated four essential conditions that organizations must fulfill to navigate the transient competitive landscape (Forrest, 2020). Companies that follow the Transit Advantage strategy move from one wave of competitive advantages to the next without dwelling too long on a wave because it will become exhausted; and they are always looking for the next one that will allow companies to successfully surf waves of temporary competitive advantage by improving their performance. The lifecycle of each competitive wave includes phases of launch, ramp-up, exploitation, and critically, disengagement. During disengagement, organizations strategically divest assets and capabilities that are no longer pertinent, initiating this phase while still earning profits (McGrath R. G., 2013).

To effectively equip a company for these evolutionary waves of transient competitive advantages, it is imperative to adhere to the following steps:

- "Aim at realizing a long-term, unwavering ambition.
- Stabilize relationships.
- Foster strategic agility.
- Make innovation the norm."

3.3. Evidence: The Changing Methodologies of Management Consulting Firms

It is not a new development for management consulting companies to make designs. However, at that time, it seems that they did not attach importance to this issue even in their own practices: "Design-including its 'soft' aspects–was included by McKinsey& Company in its original formulation in of its widely influential 'Business System' 1980 concept, but it tends to be forgotten or omitted when the business system diagram is drawn in practice" (Lorenz, 1994).

An explanation for McKinsey's inability to use design as effectively as it is today comes from Lorenz, based on the definitions of Mintzberg and Dumas (Dumas, 1989). Instead of categorizing strategy as one of McKinsey's 'hard Ss'[7], "it should be placed in a new position, straddling hard and soft. Without that conceptual shift, the value of design is unlikely to be captured by the company" (Lorenz, 1994). As Dumas argues, the 'soft S' of' shared values must involve a broad belief in design as well as aspects of corporate culture that are usually associated with the notion of 'values'. Lorenz also noted that one reason design is typically underutilized is that contrary to the widespread acknowledgment of important marketing principles, no universally accepted description exists of how design can contribute to business outcomes (Lorenz, 1994).

V. Seidel defined the roles of designers in consulting firms in providing strategy consulting services. His studies identified the following strategic roles for designers; "strategy visualizers, core competence prospectors, market exploiters, and design process providers (Seidel, 2000)."

The analysis of strategic design consulting firms shows that designers work across a wide range of activities, from the redefinition of existing strategies to building unique organizational capabilities to setting corporate vision by imagining the future (Boztepe, 2016).

In the 2000s, when uncertainties increased and changes accelerated, traditional design consultancy companies such as IDEO and Ziba attracted the attention of consulting companies specializing in management and strategy consultancy, especially the so-called big five (Joziasse, 2000; Liedtka J., 2010). Management consultancy companies acquired and incorporated design consultancy companies focused on strategy to quickly transfer know-how. "For example, the first strategic design consulting firm, Doblin Group, has become part of Monitor, and then of Deloitte Consulting. Accenture acquired a service design company, and Fjord and McKinsey Company bought Lunar" (Boztepe, 2016).

According to a prospective British survey conducted in 2020, design agencies are seeking models that add value and boost the standing of their industry. They also have to face new competitors—newcomers in their industry—that are strategy consultants (De Mozota B. B., 2019). Boztepe called it "confluence between firms in strategic management consulting and those in design consulting" (Boztepe, 2016). We observe that design-based consultancy companies are increasingly accepted both in companies and the public sector, and they enter into competition with management consultancy companies by providing design training,

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[7] The seven Ss of management. Soft Ss: Style, Skill, Staff, Shared Values, Hard SS:Systems, Strategy and Structure

workshops, and consultancy. While collaborating with institutions like Stanford D-School and Hasso Plattner Institute in Germany, they also perform projects at the corporate, local, and national levels by strengthening their international connections. For example; after kyu of Japanese origin took IDEO in the USA, he incorporated the Istanbul-originated Atölye, and this multinational network was able to cooperate with both the communal institutions and the private sector in different geographies and countries, from the United Arab Emirates to the UK, from Turkey to Qatar. When we look at the projects they have done, we see that they have produced solutions for many needs of the private sector, including strategy development, with different design approaches. Furthermore, in the public sector, they occur in various activities, from designing public services to developing local or national policies.

While we have heard the name of big 5 in the past, especially for the consultancy needs of government and international companies, now we often hear these (next generation)[8] design consultancy companies.

In her 2018 article, Boztepe analyzed how design can deliver a forceful change in strategy formation. According to the results, there are two ways to contribute at the strategy level; "design works its way to strategizing through repeated client engagement and trust building; starting with design of individual, differentiated products, which doesn't change the overall scope of the firm then to develop a high level of ownership and enthusiasm for the ideas developed together with the positive effect of internalizing the design process" (Boztepe, 2018). The culmination of this journey involves engaging with products and services that not only affect the client's strategy but also prompt organizational and social transformations.

The other path is the use of an HCD, a human-centered approach. This approach centers on user research, which delves into user needs, problems, and opportunities. Such research not only facilitates discussions at the strategic level but often acts as a foundation for strategic engagement. By bringing user needs, challenges, and opportunities into sharp relief, user research may initially influence product development but can also necessitate alterations in organizational processes, structures, or overarching strategies. "With the arrival of human-centered design, DCFs added new tools and competencies to their portfolio. DN, in partnership with Elevated ApS, has developed a tool called BreakAway based on Kim and Mauborgne's blue ocean strategy" (Boztepe, 2018) . HCD, which is one of the 5 areas that we explained in the previous section, defined by Liedtka as an area that can be used in strategy practices, has also proven this feature in field studies.

Critical Summary

Ambiguities in the field and concepts

The constant evolution of the design and strategic management fields complicates the understanding of their relationship and thus the creation of synergy, at least in the initial perception phase. Unfortunately, related concepts still lack universally accepted definitions. In recent years, articles have been published attempting to resolve this ambiguity in practice and academia. However, if these concepts were more clearly defined, a broader audience would benefit from the contributions that many studies in the field have made.

Time difference

This study compiled articles written over the last 40 years in the domains of design and strategy. In the same table, you can also find the main strategic resources of the articles. It is observable that the articles were written at any time, regardless of the period during which strategy theories emerged. In short, those who deal with design strategically have benefited from one or more strategic theories during any period, regardless of the period. However, one point still stands out; the field of design often lags behind the strategic field by several years. Approaches that emerged and were discussed in the strategic management domain could only be included in the literature by examining them in the field of design after years. Although it is possible to say that this period has shortened recently, there is still a time shift, and the data are not sufficient to make a definitive comment. Perhaps an example of this can be found in the design-innovation relationship. We see that design-based researchers and writers especially interpreted the adoption of design as an integral section of innovation in the late 90s and the beginning of the new millennium, and in this way, they attracted the attention of both managers and management science, interpreting it as an important step (Weiss, 2002; Kelley, 1999). This is a significant step in terms of bringing design inside the business beyond its traditional function. However, even at that time, there were contributions that design could make to the enterprise, especially at the strategic level, but we see that these only came into play in the following years. The design field often plays the role of follower.

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[8] These consulting companies often refer to their services as next generation: next-generation digital agency next generation creative practice, next generation of diverse creatives and strategists, next-generation learning etc.

VUCA

As de Bono stated in 1992 "Predictive tools are valuable, but only if the future is an extension of the present" (De Bono, 1992). Unfortunately, as described above, the future is more and more uncertain than ever before and it is difficult to define it as an extension of the present. We live in a VUCA[9] world. Such an environment reveals the need for each other to meet today's design and strategy needs, as described in previous sections.

Role of the designer

Although there is a real potential to create serious synergy between these two fields, one obstacle is the missing role of the designer. There is still no agreement on the precise responsibilities of designers who want to offer strategic business advice (2000 Seidel). This has another effect: As the two fields approach each other, more business people approach design, and designers act more hesitantly and remain passive. This situation results in the fact that business people only learn and try to use design methods and tools on a superficial level and cannot (or do not) benefit from the philosophy and culture of design. Parallel to this development, how design can continue to exist as an independent and original field has been a topic of discussion in recent periods.

No matter which strategic approach companies choose, the design will contribute to the relevant strategy at each stage; planning, execution, and review. The integration of the business and design approaches opens up new potential for modifying comprehension, the future, and the tools to benefit it.

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[9] Volatiliy, Uncertainty, Complexity, and Ambiguity

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Evaluating Entrepreneurship through a Resource-Based Multi-Criteria Decision-Making Model

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ABSTRACT

Nowadays, it has become increasingly important for businesses that want to have a sustainable competitive advantage to engage in entrepreneurial activities by using business resources because of changing environmental conditions and increasing competition intensity. This research develops a decision-making model by analyzing the factors influencing entrepreneurial success through a resource-based approach. The resource-based approach to entrepreneurship of Alvarez and Busenitz (2001) is based on financial, social, and human capital factors. According to this approach, financial capital includes initial investments and access to financial resources; social capital includes networks, trust, and shared vision; and human capital includes education and experience. The SWARA method, a multi-criteria decision-making method, was used. Financial, social, and human capital criteria, which are effective for entrepreneurial success, were prioritized because of the answers given by experts using the SWARA method. As a result of the research, it was found that the most important criteria affecting entrepreneurial success with a resource-based approach is experience, followed by shared vision, networks, access to finance, education, initial investment, and trust.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, Multi-Criteria Decision Making, SWARA Method, Resource-Based Approach
JEL Code: M13, M21

INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship is recognized as a driver of economic growth and development (Farayibi, 2015), job creation (Sunday and Miriam, 2015), innovation (Keskin, 2018; Tekin, 2018), and social change (Martin and Osberg, 2007). To mobilize all these driving forces and achieve sustainable success, organizations must evaluate their capital resources. From the resource-based approach to entrepreneurship developed by Alvarez and Busenitz (2001), entrepreneurial success criteria consist of financial, social, and human capital. Accordingly, financial capital, initial investment, and access to finance are critical factors for the sustainable success of a new business venture. Social capital is a multidimensional concept because it has relational and cognitive value (Kwon and Adler, 2014). Social capital consists of three dimensions: cognitive (shared vision), structural (networks), and relational (trust). Human capital, which consists of education and experience, is an important factor in the success of entrepreneurs. Education provides individuals with the knowledge and skills to identify and capitalize on entrepreneurial opportunities, while experience provides individuals with the knowledge and skills to overcome the challenges of starting and growing a business.

It is worth noting that the relationship between organizations' capital resources and entrepreneurial success is complex, and more research is needed to fully understand the factors that contribute to entrepreneurial success. For example, Unger et al. (2010), who examined the relationship between human capital and entrepreneurial success through a meta-analysis method, stated that there is a significant but low relationship between human capital and entrepreneurial success and that future research should examine the mediating effects of human capital on entrepreneurial success.

In this research, the resource-based approach to entrepreneurship is first examined in the theoretical framework section. Then, in the methodology section, the success criteria, which are initial investment, access to finance, networks, trust, shared vision, education, and experience, were prioritized using SWARA, a multi-criteria decision-making method. Lastly, the findings were discussed and suggestions for future research were offered in the conclusion section.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Resource-Based Entrepreneurship: A Study

Entrepreneurship is the process of establishing a business or venture by taking advantage of opportunities from a creative perspective. Entrepreneurship is a multidisciplinary concept in which economics, management, psychology, and sociology are of interest, and theories are developed in various fields. Entrepreneurship theories and approaches are important for developing entrepreneurship. It is also possible to say that the approaches developed on entrepreneurship have become a noteworthy research area in the field of strategic management. Businesses or individuals, who will engage in a new business venture, using a strategic management approach, decide on entrepreneurial activities in line with the resources they have or the power to access potential resources. Access to resources increases the capacity to explore opportunities. Moreover, the sustainability of a new venture is directly proportional to its access to resources (Aldrich and Martinez, 2001). The resource-based approach developed by Alvarez and Busenitz (2001) examines entrepreneurial activities in terms of the resources that businesses possess. According to this approach, *financial, social, and human capital* are important factors affecting entrepreneurial success (Alvarez and Busenitz, 2001).

In a resource-based approach, financial capital is a vital prerequisite for all enterprises of all sizes. Financial capital provides access to more resources to effectively capitalize on entrepreneurial opportunities. Compared with social and human capital resources, financial capital resources are visible. It acts as a buffer against uncontrollable environmental variables such as economic crises and allows the execution of capital-intensive strategies (Cooper, Gimeno-Gascon, and Woo, 1994). According to the resource-based approach, the financial capital factor is analyzed under two headings: initial investment and access to financial resources.

Initial investment (start-up capital) refers to the amount of money required to start a venture. Initial investment is an important driving force, especially in the establishment of small businesses. Small investors who want to take advantage of opportunities in the environment and start a new business venture take action using the initial investment resources. However, some researchers argue that one can start a venture even if one does not have sufficient financial resources (Davidsson and Honig, 2003; Hurst and Lusardi, 2004). Accordingly, although initial investment is an important assurance of the sustainability of a venture, it is not an obstacle to its establishment, and the biggest obstacle is access to financing.

Access to finance refers to the ability of entrepreneurs to obtain financial services such as loans, deposits, and insurance. It is an important factor affecting the sustainable success of an enterprise. It can be obtained through internal and external sources of financing. While internal financing sources consist of retained earnings or capital funds put forward by partners, external financing sources include alternatives such as informal income from family and colleagues, and formal alternatives such as bank loans, leasing, angel investors, and venture capital (Kahraman, Tektas, and Coskun, 2019). Lack of finance hinders enterprise growth and creates liquidity problems (Hughes, 2003). Small businesses in particular cannot develop new goods or services without sufficient capital, nor can they meet the existing demand in the market. Therefore, access to finance, as well as financial literacy, is important for the development, growth, and sustainable success of small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs). Enterprises with high access to finance have high growth prospects (Gómez Mejía, Pereira, and Smida, 2018).

In the resource-based approach, other factors affecting entrepreneurial success are examined in the context of social capital. These are networks, trust, and shared vision. Social capital is a term used to describe how individuals and organizations are connected. In other words, people have access to more social capital, and the larger, more consistent, and deeper their interactions are (Alvani, Nategh, and Farahi, 2007). Woolcock (1998) examined social capital in relation to economic development strategies. He contends that "integration" and "linkages"—two types of extra-community networks—are essential for bottom-up development. In top-down development, relationships between the state and the community—also referred to as "synergy"—as well as institutional coherence, competence, and capacity—also referred to as "institutional integrity"—are important. Thus, without a good reserve of social capital, collective action cannot occur (Onyx and Bullen, 2005).

Networks, which are accepted as a component of social capital, play a role in the design of social capital as well as in the relations of individuals with each other (Öğüt and Erbil, 2009). Collaborations and social networks, which can be established at the individual and organizational levels, offer many advantages. The importance of networks in entrepreneurship is often emphasized (Slotte-Kock and Coviello, 2010). According to the literature, social networks serve as a practical and easily accessible resource that entrepreneurs can leverage to establish new businesses or enhance their existing ventures (Kim and Aldrich, 2005). Moreover, networks not only influence the entrepreneurial process and create new opportunities by internalizing the skills of other actors (Hamel, 1991; Kogut, 1988).

Trust has become a key component in workplace environments at both the employee and organizational levels (Clausen et al., 2019; Ranjay and Sytch, 2008). Organizational members tend to trust each other because they believe that everyone is working toward collective goals and that other members will not be harmed by their own interests (Tsai and Ghoshal, 1998). Woolcock (1998)

argued that trust is fed by a combination of social relations, but it does not exist independently of social relations (Field, 2008). Gulati (1998) stated that trust leads to information exchange and information diffusion and positively affects firms' communication and cooperation with each other.

Shared vision is essential in organizations to inspire employees and give them a feeling of purpose (Tijunaitis et al., 2019). Social capital theory emphasizes the unifying strength of a shared goal. A common vision gives people a reason to care about the organization and demonstrates their connection to it. As a result, a shared vision enhances people's willingness to change their objectives and behaviors to participate in group objectives and behaviors (Leana and Van Buren, 1999). Thus, a shared vision encourages people to use their own goals and activities to contribute to group objectives and actions (Cao et al., 2016; Chang et al., 2012). It is suggested that entrepreneurial vision is positively related to shared vision (Chi-hsiang, 2015) because employees who share the same vision have a common understanding, view, and interpretation of organizational goals, leading to better job performance.

Another critical factor for successful entrepreneurship is human capital. Becker (2009) defined human capital as all types of knowledge, skills, and abilities that people accumulate by investing in education and training that increase their productivity and earning power. In recent years, investments in human capital have been recognized as providing significant returns for individuals, businesses, and societies as a whole. For this reason, the concept of human capital has received increasing attention from both academics and policy makers (Şeşen and Basım, 2012). According to the resource-based approach in the research, the human capital factor refers to educational and experience criteria. In line with the resource-based approach to entrepreneurship, the human capital factor consists of education and experience.

Education is often cited as a key factor in the success of entrepreneurs. The reason for this is that education equips people with the knowledge and abilities needed to recognize and seize entrepreneurial possibilities (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000). Learn how to create a business plan, secure finance, and manage money, for instance, by earning a degree in business administration. These are crucial abilities for business owners. Furthermore, education can provide people with the social networks they need to access materials and data essential for launching and expanding a business (Aldrich and Martinez, 2001). These are frequently emphasized in other studies (Kolstad and Wiig, 2015; Raposo and Paço, 2010) that show a positive association between education and business success. The Global Entrepreneurship Monitoring Report (GEM) (2023) also confirmed a significant positive correlation between educational attainment and entrepreneurial activity.

Experience is another essential component for an entrepreneur's success. Experience, according to Gartner et al. (2016), is the information or skills that a person has acquired because of circumstances in a certain career, business, or industry. Prior entrepreneurial experience has a positive effect on the success of new enterprises, according to Gartner et al. (2016). Carter et al. (1996) reported similar findings, highlighting that business owners had a better chance of success in new businesses. This is primarily because experience gives people the knowledge and skills they need to overcome the challenges involved in starting and growing a firm. For instance, experience can assist employees in better understanding the business they are entering and the legal and regulatory contexts in which they will operate. However, it is important to remember that there may not always be a connection between commercial success and experience. An entrepreneur may benefit from some experience, but too much experience may hinder his or her success. For instance, it was discovered that students without work experience had higher levels of entrepreneurship than students with work experience in a study that examined associate degree students (Keleş et al., 2012). This might be the case because those with more experience are more willing to uphold the status quo than to take risks or pursue novel ideas.

When entrepreneurship and multi-criteria decision-making are scanned together in the literature, it is possible to say that models such as AHP and Fuzzy AHP are used. For example, in the entrepreneurial orientation research conducted by Rezaei et al. (2013), the Fuzzy AHP model was used, with the first criterion being proactive. In Amrita et al. (2018) research, the critical success factors of female entrepreneurship were examined using the Fuzzy AHP model, and the first three criteria were individual, management, and government dimensions. Adebeyi et al. (2019) examined the impact of entrepreneurial orientation on business performance in Nigeria with the AHP (Analytical Hierarchy Process) model and accordingly, the competitiveness aggressiveness criterion was the highest ranked criterion. A review of the literature reveals that few studies have examined entrepreneurial success criteria using the SWARA method. An example of this is Kiraz and Eski (2019), who prioritized 11 personality traits that affect entrepreneurship using the SWARA method. Accordingly, self-confidence, individual risk-taking behavior, and openness to innovation ranked in the top three, followed by locus of control, determination, sociality, creativity, leadership, research spirit, business ethics, and team spirit, respectively. In light of all these evaluations, this research is thought to fill the gap in the literature due to the limited number of studies in which the criteria affecting entrepreneurial success and SWARA method are examined together.

METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH

Since criteria affecting entrepreneurial success are examined in this research, we aim to evaluate these criteria through a multi-criteria decision-making method called SWARA (Step-Wise Assessment Ratio Analysis) by incorporating expert views into the study. The SWARA method is a weighting method developed by Keršuliene et al. (2010). The SWARA method is widely preferred because it requires fewer pairwise comparisons (*n* - 1)thano other multi-criteria decision-making methods (Stanujkic et al., 2015). Another advantage of the method is the ease of application of mathematical operations and the use of expert opinions in the calculation of criteria weights (Keršuliene, Zavadskas and Turskis, 2010: 247; Zolfani and Banihashemi, 2014: 193; Zolfani and Saparauskas, 2013: 410). SWARA is a multi-criterion decision-making (MCDM) method based on qualitative and quantitative data with 6 steps. In this study, in accordance with the SWARA method, 7 criteria related to the problem were scored by 5 decision makers who are experts in their fields, and the results were discussed in light of the findings obtained. The five decision makers selected in this research are senior managers responsible for entrepreneurial activities in the energy, automotive, petroleum, electricity, and inspection sectors, each with at least 10 and more than 10 years of experience in the business they work for.

The SWARA method is implemented as follows.

Step 1: Determine Criteria for Problem- and Decision Makers in the Decision Committee

It is assumed that there are n criteria for the problem (C_j, j=1,2,3...n) and k decision-makers in the decision committee (DM_k, k=1,2,3...n).

In the resource-based approach to entrepreneurship developed by Alvarez and Busenitz (2001), 7 success criteria (C1 initial investment, C2 access to finance, C3 networks, C4 trust, C5 shared vision, C6 education, and C7 experience) were evaluated by decision makers. The research decision committee consists of 5 businesses operating in innovation-oriented industrial and service sectors. The decision-makers on the decision committee in the research are senior-level employees and experts in R&D, innovation, and entrepreneurship in the energy, automotive, petroleum, electricity, and service sectors, and they were selected by convenience sampling method.

Step 2: Determine the Order of Importance of Criteria

The decision committee determines the relative importance level of each criterion.The decision committee ranked the criteria developed from the literature from high to low importance based on their own knowledge and experience.

Step 3: Determine the s_j Coefficient

Once the criteria are arranged in order of importance, each criterion is compared with the next. For example, the decision-makers are asked questions such as "How many percentage (%) more important is criterion 1 than criterion 2?" "How many percentage (%) is criterion 2 more important than criterion 3?". The comparative importance of the average value is then calculated and expressed as s_j. To calculate the comparative importance of the average value, the decision-maker scored these questions between 0 and 1 in multiples of 5 and 5. Therefore, the values that this ratio can take are 0.00, 0.05, 0.10, 0.15, 0.20, 0.25, 0.30, 0.35, 0.40, 0.45, 0.50, 0.55, 0.60, 0.65, 0.70, 0.75, 0.80, 0.85, 0.90, 0.95, and 1.00. A value of 0 indicates that the two criteria have the same importance, while a value of 0.20 indicates that the criterion at the top of the ranking is 20% more important than the next criterion.

Step 4: Determining the k_j Coefficient

The coefficient (k_j) is calculated for each criterion. 1 point is added to the s_j value.

$$k_j = \begin{cases} 1 & j = 1 \\ s_j + 1 & j > 1 \end{cases}$$

Step 5: Determining the q_j Coefficient

The importance vector q_j is calculated for all criteria. The adjusted weight value of the most important criterion is 1.

$$q_j = \begin{cases} 1 & j = 1 \\ \frac{q_j - 1}{k_j} & j > 1 \end{cases}$$

Step 6: Determination of the Relative Weights (w_j) of The Criteria

The final weight of each criterion (w_j) is determined by dividing the criteria weights (q_j) by the sum of the weights of the criteria.

$$w_j = \frac{q_j}{\Sigma_{k=1}^{n} q_k}$$

RESULTS

The evaluation criteria of decision makers are coded as C1, C2, C3, C4, C5, C6, and C7 and are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. *Evaluation Criteria*

Code	Criteria
C1	Initial investment
C2	Access to finance
C3	Networks
C4	Trust
C5	Shared vision
C6	Education
C7	Experience

For the criterion weighting stage, five decision makers (DMs) were interviewed. Decision makers were selected based on their experience in the sector and ability to conduct entrepreneurial activities in their departments. The criteria were ranked from most important to least important by the decision makers, and the relative importance levels (s_j) of the criteria were determined for each decision-maker. The comparison results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. *Results of the SWARA Method for DM1, DM2, DM3, DM4, and DM5*

Order of Importance	DM1 Criteria	s_j	DM2 Criteria	s_j	DM3 Criteria	s_j	DM4 Criteria	s_j	DM5 Criteria	s_j
1	C3	0	C5	0	C1	0	C3	0	C2	0
2	C7	0	C7	0,2	C2	0,2	C7	0	C3	0,25
3	C5	0,2	C6	0,7	C7	0,25	C5	0,3	C6	0,1
4	C6	0,2	C4	0,5	C3	0,3	C2	0,15	C4	0,15
5	C2	0,3	C3	0	C5	0,1	C6	0,3	C1	0,05
6	C1	0,3	C2	0,3	C6	0	C4	0,2	C5	0,05
7	C4	0	C1	0,2	C4	0	C1	0,05	C7	0,05

In the next stage, coefficient (k_j) and new importance vector (q_j) were calculated for the criteria. In the final stage of the method, the criterion weights (w_j) were calculated. In the research, 5 different w_j values were calculated in line with the responses received from 5 decision makers. The relative weights (w_j) of the criteria scored by each decision-maker, as shown in Table 2, and the geometric mean, are shown in Table 3. As shown in Table 3, the results of interviews with experts from 5 different sectors show that experience (C7) is the most important criterion affecting entrepreneurial success in the resource-based approach. After the experience criterion, the criteria in order of importance are as follows: shared vision (C5), networks (C3), access to finance (C2), education (C6), initial investment (C1) and trust (C4).

Table 3. *Combined Criterion Weights*

Order of Importance	Criteria	DM1	DM2	DM3	DM4	DM5	w_j
1	Experience	0,2	0,24	0,19	0,21	0,11	0,177
2	Shared vision	0,17	0,14	0,15	0,16	0,12	0,158
3	Networks	0,2	0,29	0,23	0,21	0,16	0,151
4	Access to finance	0,14	0,1	0,12	0,14	0,2	0,134
5	Education	0,11	0,1	0,11	0,11	0,15	0,128
6	Initial investment	0,08	0,06	0,11	0,06	0,12	0,104
7	Trust	0,08	0,07	0,11	0,09	0,13	0,1

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Because of this research, it was concluded that the most important criterion affecting entrepreneurial success in the resource-based approach is the "experience" criterion with a value of 0.177. In this research, it was found that experience is an important factor in the success of entrepreneurship. Başar (2013) stated that one of the most valuable assets in entrepreneurship is experience. It has been determined that various studies in the entrepreneurship literature, which has a long history, support this finding. For example, Ettl and Welter (2010) argued that individual-level experience and professional background are particularly important elements in learning entrepreneurship. Reuber and Fischer (1999) stated that each prospective entrepreneur enters the start-up process with a "stock of experience" consisting of the individual's past or history accumulated up to that point. Similarly, Zhao et al. (2005) emphasized that previous entrepreneurial experiences play an important role in entrepreneurial intentions. In a study examining university students' interest in entrepreneurship, Wang and Wong (2004) determined that even family business experience influences interest in entrepreneurship (Wang and Wong, 2004). Research on entrepreneurship shows that experience plays an important role in the ability to recognize and act on venture opportunities and organize and manage new ventures (Politis and Gabrielsson, 2005). It has also been observed that enterprises initiated by entrepreneurs with previous start-up experience are more successful than first-time entrepreneurs. *Experience* provides the entrepreneur with a plethora of information and abilities that can be transferred to new endeavors. Experience is studied in the entrepreneurship literature in the context of both human capital and personal traits of the entrepreneur. Prior entrepreneurial experience increases the likelihood of capitalizing on an entrepreneurial opportunity because it reduces the cost of learning (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000). Bird (2019) stated previous work experience in an industry, management, or entrepreneurship as key elements of the experience factor, noting that these tangible experiences provide the entrepreneur with learning opportunities on how to start, manage, nurture, and grow a new venture. However, it is worth emphasizing that which of these experience factors has the greatest impact on entrepreneurial success should be clarified in future research. The value of expertise in corporate entrepreneurship, regardless of field, cannot be emphasized. This is because experienced entrepreneurs can identify new opportunities, generate innovative products and services, and respond rapidly to changing market conditions. Similarly, Harris and Gibson (2008) argued that first-hand experience in entrepreneurship provides a more realistic view of the challenges of starting and sustaining a successful business venture.

The second important criterion in this study was shared vision, which is a social capital criterion. Shared vision refers to creating a common vision with colleagues. Common or shared vision refers to an internal communication process that encourages all members of an organization and all other stakeholders committed to learning (Baker and Sinkula, 1999). The shared vision clarifies what the enterprise aims to achieve and how it intends to achieve it. However, a study on energy businesses concluded that the shared vision criterion is less important for entrepreneurial success than access to finance, networks, trust, education, and experience (Yadav, V.P.R.P. and Pradhan, 2018). Networks were identified as the third most important criterion in this research. Networking involves the development of social networks by entrepreneurial individuals and organizations in conjunction with other actors in the ecosystem. Actively maintaining and developing social relationships is important for current and new enterprises (Davidsson & Honig, 2003). The trust criterion ranked last in the research. Trust refers to the ability of entrepreneurs to develop positive feelings toward customers, the people who will provide resources to the venture, and the knowledge and experience of team members (Mickiewicz and Rebmann, 2020). This research has shown that trust can be built over time and is motivated by other criteria.

The first investment criterion was placed lower in the study's financial capital criteria than the access to capital. According to this ranking, initial investments are not as crucial as access to capital. A certain amount of equity is typically provided as part of a business venture's initial funding, but this initial equity may not be sufficient to continue the venture. The findings of researchers (Aldrich, 1999; Davidsson & Honig, 2003; Hurst & Lusardi, 2004) also imply that a venture might begin without adequate funding. Therefore, even though a large amount of capital is not necessary to launch a business, the entrepreneur's access to financial resources is crucial to the sector's expansion. According to a study, human capital directly affects an entrepreneur's capacity to provide financial capital (Harding, 2002). It is conceivable that experience plays a key role in determining how easy it is to obtain capital. In addition, the ability to access financial capital is linked to critical issues such as the entrepreneur's educational background and business skills (Banerje, Duflo, Glennerste, & Kinnnan, 2015; de Mel, McKenzie, & Woodruff, 2008).

In this study, entrepreneurial success factors were examined using the resource-based approach developed by Alvarez and Busenitz (2001), and success criteria were prioritized using SWARA, a multi-criteria decision-making method. In light of all these evaluations, it has been revealed that financial, social, and human capital resources owned by individuals or businesses that will start new business ventures should be developed. In line with the fact that one of the most important criteria for entrepreneurial success is experience, it can be suggested that individuals or businesses that start new ventures should establish various collaborations and create platforms where they can share experiences to benefit from the experiences of individuals or businesses with previous entrepreneurial experience. The research has been applied in the energy, automotive, petroleum, electricity, and service sectors, and it is recommended to conduct different researches with other multi-criteria decision-making methods in different sectors. Moreover, no research in the literature has examined the most important criteria affecting entrepreneurial success using a resource-

based approach such as the SWARA method. In this sense, it can be recommended to conduct research in which the criteria in this study are examined using different multi-criterion decision-making methods, such as AHP and MACBETH.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Shaken Bases: Impact of Changing Paradigms on Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

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ABSTRACT

The 21st-century business ecosystem is rapidly transitioning from the modern to the postmodern paradigm. This study examines the concepts of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior within the context of the postmodern paradigm. At the same time, the study questions the efficacy and legitimacy of these concepts in addressing contemporary managerial and organizational challenges. This study is based on an exhaustive literature review and a meticulous examination and analysis of previous research on organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior within the framework of shifting paradigms. Adjustments in goals, restructuring of organizational structures, modifications in leadership understanding, and alterations in time perception cause conventional organizational behavior concepts such as organizational commitment and organizational citizenship to be problematized and questioned. The management and organizational approach of the previous century, which claimed rationality, objectivity, and universality, has been superseded by management and organizational approaches prioritizing concepts such as irony, parody, subjectivity, and locality. The concept of organizational commitment, which is a precursor to organizational citizenship behavior, is being replaced by career or professional commitment. Therefore, organizational citizenship behavior is fading away within the postmodern paradigm. Due to delays in grasping this transformation and transition process, administrators persist in defining and applying management policies based on modern paradigms, including their concepts, tools, and techniques.

Keywords: Organizational commitment, Organizational citizenship behavior, Modernism, Postmodernism
JEL Code: M10, M12, and Z13

INTRODUCTION

In the twenty-first century, workplaces have become a more complex environment. The integration of various economies has led to an increase in competitive working conditions (Ocampo et al., 2018). Consequently, the advent of the new economy has resulted in a transformation of organizational structures and management practices. At the same time, employee-organization relationships have also changed, raising questions regarding the optimal integration of career development activities within these evolving dynamics (Weng et al., 2010). As employees become increasingly responsible for managing their careers, businesses are compelled to re-examine the strategies employed to foster organizational commitment among their employees (Ng & Feldman, 2010). In this context, the needs of businesses for employees who go beyond the scope of their defined career duties, develop collaboration, and support colleagues, employers, and customers are increasing daily (Shahin et al., 2014). Therefore, it is necessary to constantly assess employee engagement to overcome managerial problems that may arise and ensure that employees develop a positive work attitude that is essential for optimal organizational performance (Hanaysha, 2016). In this context, it is crucial to interrogate and debate the empirical evidence on organizational commitment and citizenship behavior.

Organizational commitment is one of the most frequently studied forms of psychological bonding between employees and organizations (Ng, 2015). Academics and professionals have been researching the concept of commitment for more than half a century (Singh & Gupta, 2015). This concept stands out in the literature because commitment is accepted as an essential factor that determines employee work behavior (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). Although 21st-century managers continued to focus on employee attitudes and organizational commitment, scholars have identified a need for greater explicitness, cohesion, and accessibility in the organizational commitment literature (Mercurio, 2015). Therefore, there should be more consistency in the definition of organizational commitment (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). However, organizational commitment is often referred to as an antecedent

of organizational citizenship behavior. It has been claimed that engaged employees are more likely to engage in actions that enhance their value and support the organization (Zeinabadi, 2010). Therefore, the concepts of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior, which are critical for managers, constitute two sides of the same coin.

Existing literature proves that organizational citizenship behavior has emerged as a key concern in the service sector (i.e. banks, hotels, hospitals, and academic institutions) and industrial sectors in the 21st century (Ocampo et al., 2018). Because of this focus, when organizational citizenship behavior is expected in the workplace, the organization becomes more attractive to the employee (Bolino et al., 2015). Organizational citizenship behavior refers to employee behaviors that are not part of an individual job description and are not included in the employee contract but benefit organizational performance (Grego-Planer, 2019). Recently, there has been an increasing interest in organizational citizenship in marketing and strategy. However, most studies on organizational citizenship behavior have focused on identifying the factors that affect this behavior, with a particular emphasis on organizational justice and leaders' characteristics (Lee et al., 2013). Nevertheless, there is also body literature that addresses the phenomenon of organizational citizenship fatigue. According to Bolino et al. (2015), the origin of organizational citizenship fatigue can be traced back to research that seeks to elucidate the impact of work becoming an integral part of the person and the subsequent challenges that arise when such work demands are perceived as exceeding one's capacity.

In this context, attempts to resolve 21st-century management and organizational issues through 20th-century concepts have resulted in theoretical gaps and practical failures. Unless the basic prejudices of management and behavioral scientists regarding employee motivation change and, at the same time, the institutional structure does not coincide with the changing judgments, the pervasive inertia behind failure will continue in the eyes of those occupying target positions (Levinson, 2008). Therefore, leaders should take on board the decreasing trend in employees' levels of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (Shahin et al., 2014) and develop new insights concerning the reasons for this decrease. Considering this, this study aims to provide a novel and original perspective on organizational commitment and citizenship behavior by analyzing the concepts of organizational commitment and citizenship within the framework of scientific literature and by presenting a synthesis within the framework of recent understandings of the concepts. First, we will shed light on the concepts in question.

Organizational Commitment

Although organizational commitment has been conceptualized in various ways, it is widely viewed in the organizational behavior literature as an emotional commitment to an organization characterized by sharing values and the desire to maintain membership (Meyer & Allen, 1984). In this context, commitment can be defined as attachment, identification, or loyalty to an entity (Singh & Gupta, 2015). Historically, devotion was a solemn vow of service to God, romantic partners, or other objects important to the self. Since its introduction into management fields in the second half of the 20th century, the term commitment began to focus on the "organization" that is the object of one's service (Solinger et al., 2015). In this regard, organizational commitment is defined as the effect of an employee's identification and participation in a particular organization (Nazir et al., 2016). According to Hanaysha (2016), employees who are committed to an organization tend to exhibit positive attitudes toward corporate goals and values. Furthermore, they are more likely to develop positive work behaviors. Therefore, employee engagement is associated with employee retention, availability, performance, quality of work, and various desirable behavioral outcomes for the organization to succeed. As employees become more committed to their organizations, their retention increases, which reduces operating costs (Liou, 2008). As Dhar (2015) posits, this correlation indicates that employees who are firmly dedicated to an organization can be encouraged to achieve organizational goals without prioritizing personal gain. These explanations demonstrate that organizational commitment encompasses more than mere passive commitment; it also encompasses an employee's aspiration and active engagement in contributing in a more meaningful manner (Rita et al., 2018). For this reason, managers must understand organizational commitment and the relationship between the organization and employees from a holistic perspective.

Various definitions of organizational commitment have been discussed in literature since the concept emerged. The most used approach is the three-dimensional organizational commitment model developed by Meyer et al. (1993). This model includes emotional, normative, and continuance commitment (Ng, 2015; Zeinabadi, 2010). An alternative conceptualization of the concept is the one-dimensional structure in which commitment is conceived as a psychological bond expressed by commitment and responsibility to a goal (Solinger, 2015). Although unidimensional structures exist, it is necessary to explain the dimensions developed by Meyer et al. (1993) to gain comprehensive insight into organizational commitment. The first dimension to be explained here is emotional commitment.

Emotional Commitment

Emotional commitment is defined as an employee's attachment to the organization through emotions, identification with the organization, and participation in the organization (Noordin et al., 2010; Liou, 2008). Therefore, emotional commitment is

conceptualized as a psychological state that characterizes an employee's relationship with the organization (English et al., 2010). In other words, employees with emotional commitment work beyond what is necessary to obtain a specified reward (Vanhala et al., 2016). Employees with strong emotional commitment identify strongly with their organizations, participate in it, and enjoy membership. Therefore, a positive relationship with the organization is established due to the desired work behavior (Filstad, 2011; Noordin et al., 2010). Weng et al. (2010) stated that employees voluntarily stay in an organization because the organization meets employees' career needs. Another dimension of organizational commitment is normative commitment.

Normative Commitment

Normative commitment refers to psychological commitment based on socialization experiences that emphasize the appropriateness of an employee's commitment to the organization or a moral obligation to repay the benefits obtained from the organization (Weng et al., 2010). When employees share goals or values, they are more likely to see fit to obey the authority and norms of the group (Liou, 2008). Therefore, normative commitment requires an employee's commitment to the organization. Employees with high normative commitment remain within an organization due to a sense of obligation (Yousef, 2017; Nazir et al., 2016). According to Grego-Planer (2019), an employee's level of normative commitment may be affected by the rules he accepts and the mutual relationship between the organization and employees. The third dimension of organizational commitment is continuance commitment.

Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment refers to employees' evaluations of whether the costs of leaving the organization are more significant than the costs of staying (Wang et al., 2020; Bahrami et al., 2016). Unlike affective and normative commitment, continuous commitment is based on value maximization and is therefore instrumental. Continuance commitment occurs when employees feel they should stay with an organization because of the benefits that employers provide them (e.g., seniority, schedule flexibility, autonomy, and compensation) or because there are no comparable employment alternatives (Wang et al., 2020). Employees with continuance commitment only perform the minimum required to retain their positions (Liou, 2008). Grego-Planer (2019) asserted that an employee with continuance commitment is less productive and has more complex relationships with colleagues. Herein, a rational approach, rather than a psychological or moral one, forms the foundation for loyalty. The greater the congruence between individual and organizational values and goals, the higher the employee's commitment to the organization (Rita et al., 2018). Another concept discussed in organizational commitment within the framework of the changing business ecosystem is organizational citizenship behavior.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior refers to an extra individual behavior that is informal, not directly or explicitly recognized in the work system, yet can enhance the effectiveness of organizational functions (Organ, 1988). Employees who feel like they are "citizens" of the organization they work for, like citizens of a state, engage in voluntary actions that benefit their colleagues and the organization (Grego-Planer, 2019; Pham et al., 2019). Organizational citizenship behavior is a voluntary act that supports employees' task performance and contributes to maintaining and developing the social and psychological context within the organization (Takeuchi et al., 2015; Rego et al., 2010). In other words, organizational citizenship behavior is informal behavior in which employees act beyond expectations and help promote the welfare of the organization and the security of the individual (Shahin et al., 2014). For this reason, organizational citizenship behavior entails the performance of positive actions that are not explicitly stated in the organization's norms and regulations but come from within the employees' work and functioning.

Organizations and employees benefit from this type of behavior. Such behaviors contribute to the development of social capital and facilitate the smooth functioning of the social mechanisms of an organization. Consistent with these conclusions, empirical studies have found that organizational citizenship behavior is associated with team and organizational effectiveness indicators, such as sales performance, productivity, product quality, and customer satisfaction (Bolino et al., 2015). This finding shows that when employees are satisfied by being treated attentively and given importance for their personal development and progress, they respond by exhibiting positive attitudes and behaviors for the general benefit of the organization (Indahyati & Sintaasih, 2019). According to Boiral and Paille (2012), the concept of organizational citizenship includes cooperation, collaboration, and self-sacrifice, including the maintenance of positive interpersonal relationships, assistance with the fulfillment of new employees' duties, the resolution of interpersonal conflicts, and the recognition of the achievements of others.

In this context, the five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior are altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and courtesy (Kataria et al., 2013). *Altruism* refers to discretionary behaviors aimed at helping other individuals with an

organizational task or problem. *Sportsmanship* means tolerating the discomforts and troubles of organizational life without complaining or turning them into problems. *Civic virtue* is defined as responsible participation in an organization's political processes (e.g., contributing to discussions or participating in organizational activities to support and improve the organization) (Ocampo et al., 2018; Rego et al., 2010). While *conscientiousness* refers to behavior that goes beyond the requirements set by the organization in the work environment, *courtesy* relates to an employee's consideration of how his actions affect others (Shahin et al., 2014). As understood from the dimensions, organizational citizenship behavior emphasizes an intense and meaningful relationship between employees and organizations.

The goal of any organization should be to achieve organizational effectiveness, which can be defined as the maximization of employee work efficiency and commitment, the ability to perform well in difficult times, and maintaining intrinsic motivation (Kataria et al., 2013). Research has revealed that the contribution of organizational citizenship behavior to the smooth and efficient functioning of an organization may depend mainly on voluntary behaviors that are not defined by the organization. These include mutual aid among employees, participation in various non-rewarded organizational activities, personal development efforts, promotion of corporate image and values and constructive suggestions (Boiral and Paille', 2012). Considering that work generally entails collective rather than individual effort, when solidarity and cooperation among teams and employees is required, organizational citizenship behavior comes to the fore. In a highly competitive business environment, employees provide a competitive advantage. Therefore, researchers have investigated the potential of human resource practices to predict organizational citizenship behavior (Ocampo et al., 2018). In this context, the effectiveness of management policies and HR strategies partly depends on how managers understand, comprehend, and evaluate organizational commitment and citizenship behavior. However, the changing paradigm renders the conventional concepts, tools, and techniques used to solve organizational issues inadequate. Therefore, the changing paradigm must be discussed and clarified.

The Transformation from Modernism to Postmodernism

In the last century, businesses have been designed and managed with a logical and mechanical paradigm primarily based on reason and scientific principles (Biberman & Whitty, 1997). This paradigm is defined by modernism, human beings are rational beings, and businesses must be rational organizations. On this rational basis, it is always possible to identify and implement the most effective and efficient methods. Organizations can overcome various managerial difficulties to achieve their goals in this context. In contrast to modernism, which is characterized by the assumption that rational humans can prevail in the struggle with nature and life, postmodernism emphasizes liberation from the natural world and the division of culture into distinct areas rather than struggling with it (Hassard, 1999). In this context, the most effective method for an organization to achieve its goals has been superseded by a series of fragmented, intuitive, relative, local, and subjective approaches. In epistemological terms, postmodernism involves critical questioning of the assumptions and consequences of modernism. Modernism is used to express the ideals of Enlightenment, in which scientific reasoning replaced the baseless theories, speculations, superstitions, and witchcraft of the Middle Ages (the premodern age) (Franklin, 1998). In the postmodern paradigm, the idea of a superior, objective perspective is completely rejected, and the inherent instability of an organization is emphasized (Hassard, 1999). According to Franklin (1998), postmodernism in social sciences first questions and then rejects the objectification of positivism borrowed from physics and other disciplines. For example, modern (i.e. modernist) organizational analysis treats the idea of organization as an abstraction, as if it were "out there, distant from the community that constitutes the entity itself." In contrast, postmodernism adopts a different ontology and forces individuals to explain the world from their perspectives and experiences, not as passive and distant observers but as stakeholders and activists.

Individuals who adopt the modern management paradigm are expected to adhere to a set of rigid attitudes and beliefs regarding their own nature, superiors, and subordinates, as well as a set of behavioral patterns that align with these beliefs. (Biberman & Whitty, 1997). For example, they may do this to strengthen the bonds of goodwill between themselves and their employees, motivate them to work harder, or sometimes because of social norms. The $5 per day minimum wage policy implemented by Henry Ford is well known. Ford's objectives were to reduce absenteeism, avoid losing employees to other businesses, and reduce the risk of strike casualties. Many employers have resorted to similar measures, especially when recruiting and retaining employees is challenging or when employee motivation is critical to business success (Acemoğlu & Johnson, 2023). However, unlike modern industrial societies, where production is the cornerstone, postmodern societies simulate and control social relations (Hassard, 1999). Flexibility, change, and creativity are inherent in this type of social relationship. Uymaz (2012) emphasized that the most important motivation for the postmodern individual in a life characterized by change is the drive to achieve, which includes diverse work experiences shaped by survival instincts rather than leaving permanent traces in an organization through self-actualization.

However, postmodernism focuses on another issue considered essential for the social scientific analysis of management and organization -culture. Although once seen as the periphery of organizational sociology, studies on culture have recently come to the fore recently (Hassard, 1999). In the context of culture, postmodernism emphasizes a transition from universal, uniform, and "correct" normative business approaches to a situation in which each employee builds his or her own culture. This transition

corresponds to a world in which the idea of "organization" is replaced by the idea of "organization." In cases where the process of establishing relationships with people is a priority, there is an understanding in which the modern idea of "organization" is ignored to draw attention to organizational processes that cause constant emergence, growth, disruption, and change in time and space, and probably nothing remains constant other than the name of the organization (Franklin, 1998). In this context, differences are accepted as cultural wealth. An organizational approach has emerged, and an understanding of diversity, pluralism, and inclusion has developed.

A critical component of the modern paradigm is the belief in resource scarcity. This belief has led to a range of personal and organizational practices, such as competition, political manipulation, "padding" budget requests, empire-building, and a lack of trust and cooperation between individuals and units. Additionally, this understanding has led to the belief that the person or organization is separate from other individuals or organizations, and that preserving the self is crucial to survival, even at the cost of the other (Biberman & Whitty, 1997). Postmodernism, on the other hand, moves the origin of the problem of resource scarcity beyond an economic context. It harshly criticizes attempts to confront rational organization in production for continuous and balanced economic growth with creating rationally organized consumption models through consumer culture. This criticism causes individuals to question overworking, consume more, earn too much, and achieve promotion goals. Loyalty to the organization also receives a share of this questioning.

In this context, Ocampo et al. (2018) highlighted the challenges posed by a highly globalized and diversified environment in promoting organizational citizenship behavior among employees. Furthermore, they identify significant concerns for businesses arising from recent changes in workplace order. According to Liou (2008), individuals can devote themselves to their careers despite frequent changes in work and organization. People with this commitment style are intensely and emotionally committed to their careers. They are willing to invest considerable effort in their work, provided it serves to advance their career goals rather than those of the organization. To comprehend the reasons behind employees' "egocentric" attitudes, it is necessary to consider the concepts of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior.

Dynamics of Shaking Bases: A Brief Discussion

The literature indicates that engagement is a dynamic interaction process between individuals and their environment. As employees become more involved in their organization, the nature of their commitment also changes (Liou, 2008). However, with the increasing prevalence of the postmodern paradigm, the concept of organizational commitment evolves toward career commitment. This process has a hindering effect on the realization of organizational citizenship behavior. In this context, a formal consensus has yet to be reached on which organizational citizenship behavior and human resources practices lead to (Ocampo et al., 2018). The reason for these differences of opinion is that the value that the postmodern paradigm attributes to fragmentation, diversity and subjectivity has given a volatile, temporary and superficial nature to the universal work norms advocated by modernism. In the process of transformation in terms of speech, the effects of goals, organizational structure (tools), leadership understanding, and changing perception of time play a critical role.

Impact of Changing Goals

There are two schools of thought regarding the meaning of social capital. One such study is Robert Putnam, who defined social capital as people's voluntary participation in social and civic organizations. The second, developed by Alejandro Portes and Harrison White, focuses on family, education, and labor networks. While Putnam emphasizes willingness to engage, Portes and White discuss the depth and breadth of people's engagement in networks, whether voluntary or involuntary (Sennettt, 2015). In this context, there is a trade-off between individual capacity and degree of involvement in the organization and freedom. While the demand for freedom removes individuals from organizational life, it forces them to produce a new system of values and goals under the pressure of insecurity and an uncertain future. Glasser (1998) posited that the capacity to experience pleasure, positive emotions, and freedom are defining features of humanity, enabling the expression of creativity. Creativity without freedom can cause pain to individuals, whereas creativity is meaningful to individuals when it enables them to express themselves and utilize it for constructive purposes. The postmodern individual requires the freedom to fulfill their needs and express themselves.

In this context, the government is aware of the individuality of each individual and manages the organization and its members by establishing ideal contracts that are tailored to the specific needs of each member. These contracts do not apply to other employees and may have different contents and validity periods depending on the status, age, competence and skills of each member. For example, in the United Kingdom, some organizations attempt to retain their most talented employees by offering them exceptional learning and development opportunities, promotions, and promises of higher wages. These practices result in greater employee differentiation and individualism. French sociologist François Dupuy defined this structure as an "unspoken hierarchy" (Uymaz, 2012). The legitimacy of discrimination and unequal policies is a challenge to eliminating organizations' entropy tendencies. Hence, loyalty in organizational life cannot transcend the romantic discourse that carries the residue of modernism.

Effect of Change in Structure (Tools)

One critical element that regulates social relations in businesses is the organizational structure (Toker et al., 2017). Modern organizations require tools to gain local power, survive, and maintain a dynamic tension between empowerment and disempowerment. Therefore, departments gain power as subunits, simultaneously contributing to their downfall. As a department or function becomes increasingly powerful within itself, the organization becomes lifeless (Hassard, 1999). For this reason, in the postmodern approach, managers began to conceptualize the organization as a network rather than a pyramid. As sociologist Walter Powell notes, "network-type arrangements are more agile than pyramid-shaped hierarchies." Although hierarchy is not subject to fixed rules in these structures, no clear definition of job duties exists because the network constantly changes its structure (Sennettt, 2017). The same is true for the employee self. The self is no longer perceived as a subject to be hidden within layers of secrecy and depth; it is a decentralized network, rather than a mysterious and elusive spirit (Eagleton, 2019). In contrast to traditional pyramid-type organizational structures, modern businesses place little value on seniority, length of service, or loyalty. This shift in value systems has led to a rupture in the relationship between employees and employers (Senett, 2015). This rupture erodes social and legal rights, such as severance pay, job security, and health insurance. However, this loss is attempted to be compensated by the individual by acquiring more free time, more productive use of abilities, and greater autonomy.

The emergence of short-term, contract, and seasonal work accompanies changes in modern institutional structures. Businesses are trying to reduce layers of bureaucracy and become flatter and more flexible organizations (Sennettt, 2017). Suppose a manager expects his employees to do their duties spontaneously, devote themselves to their jobs, be emotionally committed, and keep up with innovations. Corporate bureaucratic structures become self-destructive weapons (Levinson, 2008). This is why the slogan of flexibility dominates today's business world. The underlying approach of this slogan differs from the long-term mentality of the modern era and the interconnection of labor and capital. In the postmodern period, a short-term mentality prevailed, and capital attempted to avoid being tied to labor. The basis of this situation lies in the constant change in the information used by organizations and the market conditions in which they operate (Uymaz, 2012). Hence, the postmodern organization has structural features that reflect the socio-economic philosophies of "flexible specialization" and "post-Fordism" (Hassard, 1999). In this regard, the postmodern approach criticizes rigid hierarchical organizational structures and advocates organizing within networks. This structure, which operates as a flexible and loosely connected network rather than a rigid top-down chain of commands, can weaken social ties. In his analysis of contemporary corporate networks, sociologist Mark Granovetter says that "power of weak ties" has become a dominant force. This assertion can be understood in two ways. First, it highlights that temporary forms of association are more beneficial to individuals than long-term connections. Second, this implies that the enforcement of solid social ties, such as loyalty, is no longer a reliable mechanism. These weak ties are embodied in teamwork, which constantly moves from one task to another and changes its members on the fly (Sennettt, 2017). This fluidity and instability confer a high degree of adaptability to the individual and a necessary openness to innovation. According to Biberman and Whitty (1997), the philosophy of participation adopted in the team model can be expanded to encompass human unity, higher consciousness, and continuous improvement in the 21st century. Thus, in organizational life, the rational "*homo economicus*" of the modern narrative is replaced by "*homo narrans*"[1], which is in search of meaning it can explain.

Scholars who challenged the status quo contributed to the dissemination of the postmodern paradigm within organizational contexts. For example, John Kotter advised young people to work outside organizations because of the weak ties in today's institutions. He recommends consulting instead of getting stuck in long-term jobs. According to the author, remaining loyal to a particular organization means being trapped in an economic structure where "business styles, product designs, competitor data, capital and all kinds of information are shorter-lived." "Employees market themselves better when they know they cannot trust the business," said a consultant who ran a layoff operation at IBM. To cope with today's challenges, non-commitment and superficial collaborations are preferred rather than attitudes based on commitment and merit (Sennettt, 2017). In this context, disconnection and superficiality are seen as the most effective ways to survive in an ever-changing organizational structure.

Effect of Change on Leadership Ideas

In a technologically advanced communication environment, the interactions of leaders and followers are qualitatively different, more complex, and extend beyond the modernist definitions of space and time (Brocato et al., 2011). Therefore, the results of the interaction between leaders and their followers can also be identified as changing paradigm factors. The understanding of leadership in all classical, neoclassical, or modern approaches was male, patient, predictable, based on facts, planned, long-term, leveraging technology, deflationary, structured, based on left-brain rationality, top-down, and contained a culture within an axis with military symmetry. An axis shift has emerged within the postmodern approach. Leadership is inverted, unreal, immoral, impatient, inflationary, selfish, spiritual, irrational, asymmetrical, multipolar in strategy, omnidirectional, multipolar,

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[1] Within the framework of this term, storytelling is believed to be a fundamental feature that distinguishes humans from animals.

omnidirectional, bottom-up, information-laden, fluid, and stubborn. The conclusion that can be drawn from this is that the leadership axis has shifted to a fast-moving, asymmetrical axis. Thus, subordinates began to emulate leader behaviors in a manner analogous to the phenomenon of mirror neurons, which has been demonstrated in neurobiology (Uymaz, 2012). Thus, organizations take on the appearance of a community of leaders. Hence, leaders are subjected to showers of criticism, now and then explicitly and implicitly (Lewis & Malmgren, 2021). Technological advancements and cultural changes have played a role in power transfer from leaders to followers. However, this process is accompanied by disillusionment and global awareness that have profoundly affected individual and collective worldviews through epistemology. In this context, individuals may perceive themselves as critical beings (French, 2016). This new form of relationship, which can be conceptualized as a community of leaders, can also be expressed as a "community of followers" in some structures. In both cases, this process in which power is shared from the leader to followers is a critical development that prevents organizational commitment from being formed.

Within the framework of these developments, developing leadership models that can reliably measure the intercultural, inter-gender, and intergenerational communication biases of an organization/stakeholders seems complicated (Brocato et al., 2011). The fact that the leader's presence and authority are constantly questioned, and critical pressure causes different coping methods. Leaders challenge cold rationalism and claim the universality of the modern paradigm through attitude and behavioral tools such as sarcasm, entertainment, and humor (Lewis & Malmgren, 2021).

Effect of Change in Time Perception

The decline in commitment to the organization can be attributed to the shift from a "long-term" approach, which has been a dominant feature of classical management thought, to a business model based on the slogan "there is no long term" due to the accelerated pace of change in the contemporary global market. The increasing uncertainty and complexity within the framework of the global market order have led to the perception of long-term investments as a source of risk. For this reason, the public sector must consider the potential risks of long-term investments. Different employee perceptions and understandings have developed in the business environment and market order dominated by the postmodern paradigm (Sennettt, 2017). The underlying belief in the futility of long-term planning is that it can lead to significant risks today (Beck, 1992). In this context, the postmodern individual tends to reject the idealized beliefs of traditions and defend realities that change dynamically and are limited by time, space, and perspective (Javanmardi, 2020). Therefore, traditional careers that progress step by step in the corridors of only one or two institutions are disappearing, and it does not seem possible for individuals to progress throughout their working life without changing their skills. Today, a young American with at least two years of college education must be prepared to change jobs and renew basic skills at least 11 times during his or her working life. A manager of ATT states that the slogan "no long term" has begun to change the meaning of work itself (Sennettt, 2017):

> "At ATT, we must promote the fact that the workforce is temporary, even though most temporary workers are inside the building. Projects and workspaces are replacing jobs."

Management guru James Champy says, "People are hungry for change, because the market is now more consumer-focused than ever in history". According to this view, the market is too dynamic to allow a job to be completed in the same way or even to do the same job from one year to the next. Economist Bennet Harrison states that this desire for change is "capital's impatience", that is, the desire to obtain quick returns (Sennettt, 2017). This impatience leads to oppressive working conditions and inequality. The no-long-term approach, which causes individuals to move away from organizational life, forces the organization-employee relationship to seek a new balance on uncertainty. In addition, employees are increasingly moving away from the patience and discipline required for long-term career plans. As Glasser (1998) stated, this distance coincides with the satisfaction of freedom and entertainment, which are the individual's basic needs. The postmodern individual should slow down and enjoy the moment; freedom and entertainment motivate his choices and behaviors.

The "no long-term" principle appears to have the effect of eroding trust, loyalty, and interdependence. A feeling of trust may exist in a formal framework, such as in business agreements or compliance with rules. However, more intense trust experiences often occur informally, such as knowing who to trust when taking on a challenging task. Such social ties need time to develop, and trust can only take root in the cracks and gaps in institutions eventually (Sennett, 2017). However, in contemporary postmodern society, these labor processes are further isolated from individual relationships because of the computer-controlled production structure and distribution networks that cross many national borders (Mirchandani, 2005). This informal relationship network creates a field of possibilities and opportunities in which employees maintain connections with the organization's staff even after leaving the organization.

Conclusion

There is a need to re-empirically test whether organizational commitment and citizenship behavior are antecedents of organizational performance. However, theoretical and methodological difficulties arise in determining and explaining causal relationships between concepts. These difficulties are caused by the fact that the postmodern context still needs to be adequately understood, and sufficient insight has yet to be provided. Changes in goals, organizational structure (tools), leadership understanding, time perception, and the impact of these changes cause employees to show a tendency to decrease their commitment to organizations. The weakening of organizational commitment negatively affects organizational citizenship behavior and transforms this behavior into a utopian form of organizational life. Therefore, managers must deeply understand the evolution of the modern paradigm from which these concepts are derived toward postmodernism. Such an understanding will help them recognize the dysfunction and ineffectiveness of policymaking in building employee commitment and citizenship.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

The Turkish Adaptation of the Green Motivation Scale and The Effect of the Green Organizational Climate on Green Motivation

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ABSTRACT

Today, where the concept of green gains increasing importance, why organizations want to exhibit green behaviors or what motivates them to act green is an important area of research. Looking at the subject at the individual level, examining employees' perceptions about why organizations try to exhibit green behaviors and the effect of different variables on this perception will create different perspectives for the literature. The purpose of this study is to adapt the green motivation (GM) scale developed by Paulraj et al. (2017) to Turkey and to investigate the effect of a green organizational climate (GOC) on GM. For this purpose, data obtained from 375 employees of enterprises operating in different sectors in Konya with environmental policies were analyzed. A two-stage analysis was performed. In the first phase, a Turkish version of the GM scale was created and as a result, a valid and reliable scale consisting of 3 dimensions and 13 items was obtained in accordance with the original. In the second phase, hypothesis tests were conducted and it was understood that GOC had a statistically significant and positive effect on all dimensions of GM (instrumental motives, relational motives, moral motives). It is expected that the findings obtained from this research will provide a new perspective for individual, group, and organizational studies on GM in organizations.

Keywords: Scale adaptation, green organizational climate, green motivation, instrumental motives, relational motives, moral motives.

JEL Code: D23, M19

1. Introduction

Ecological behaviors that begin with environmental knowledge, awareness, and concerns (Errichiello & Drago, 2020, p. 3) are not only evaluated from the perspective of individuals but also cause employees to question the organization's attitudes and behaviors, policies, and practices regarding ecology (Chou, 2014, p. 437). In this context, organizations are increasingly striving for sustainability in terms of climate change and environmental destruction (Flagstad et al., 2020, p. 1). Besides sustainability's social and economic aspects, studies on environmental aspects play an important role for it (De Matos & Clegg, 2013, p. 382) and are becoming increasingly on the agenda. This green agenda, which results in organizations and individuals demonstrating pro-environmental behavior, has been interpreted as embracing changes in the environmental context (Shevchenko et al., 2016, p. 924). In this context, organizations striving to adapt to environmental challenges have become concerned about developing skills such as rapidly adapting to environmental changes, producing innovative solutions, and involving employees in the vision partnership created on green issues (Shevchenko et al., 2016, p. 925). This concern directs businesses to develop green motivating behaviors in their employees. However, increasing the green motivation (GM) of employees is not easy and involves many factors.

There are academic studies in the literature on which elements are associated with employees' GM. These studies that relate to GM include sustainable supply chain applications (Paulraj et al., 2017), green product innovation (Chang, 2019), green environmental policies (Yousaf et al., 2021), green human resources management practices (Ahmed et al., 2021), green organizational behavior (Dijk, 2021; Junsheng et al., 2020), green creative performance (Hu et al., 2022), green transformational leadership (Li et al., 2020), firm performance (Rekik & Bergeron, 2017), green culture (Rizvi & Garg, 2021), and green innovation performance (Sunarjo et al., 2022). As can be seen, although GM is a relatively new concept in the literature, its relationships with different concepts have been the subject of many studies in a short time.

The biggest struggle in stimulating green change in organizations comes from a lack of theory and information on how to create

a green organizational climate (GOC) and how it is reflected in an organization's fabric. Organizational climate (OC) generally penetrates organizational management systems and an environmentally specific climate is assumed to be driven by environmental certifications (Flagstad et al., 2020, p. 3). However, activities such as green education, waste reduction, energy saving, safe recycling, and the development of green sustainable policies, including a proactive attitude toward the environment, are important in terms of both improving individual environmental ethics and greening OC (Shah et al., 2021, p. 5). GOC is a concept whose relationship with many different variables has been the subject of academic research and is highly influential on green contexts. However, the literature lacks research on the relationship between GOC and GM.

In this research, the effect of GOC on GM was investigated based on its dimensions. However, as far as we can see, no scale development or scale adaptation studies have been found in the local literature to measure the concept of GM. For this reason, in this research, the GM scale developed by Paulraj et al. (2017), which was the first subject of various studies in foreign literature, was adapted into Turkish, and then the hypotheses developed regarding the effects of GOC on GM dimensions were tested. Among the reasons for the need for scale adaptation are the increasing international exchange of measurement tools, the fact that many countries use even the tests developed by large companies, allowing international comparisons (Hambleton & De Jong, 2003), and in the case of this study, the scale has been adapted to our culture to be used in research on these issues in our country. It is important because it will fill this gap due to the lack of a scale. Moreover, measuring GM will create an important criterion for evaluating the effectiveness of research and applications conducted in our country.

2. Conceptual Framework

When it comes to organizational climate (OC), which is considered one of the important contextual factors affecting the attitudes and behaviors of employees in the field of organizational behavior (Schneider et al., 2013, p. 361), according to James et al. (2008), it should be understood as the sum of individual opinions and perceptions about the work environment. In addition, the green organizational climate (GOC) is conceptualized as employees' common perceptions regarding environmental policies and applications of the organization (Norton et al., 2014, p. 49; Flagstad et al., 2020) and explains 'the atmosphere created by a series of sustainable development policies' (Zientara & Zamojska, 2016, p. 1). GOC can be defined as the 'environmentally friendly structure of an organization'. In other words, GOC is defined 'for businesses that achieve their sustainability goals by implementing environmentally friendly policies' (Erbaşı, 2023b, p. 255). According to Dumont et al. (2017, p. 1-2), GOC is 'the collective consensus of pro-environmental processes within the organization that reflects the green values and expectations of an organization'. According to Mohammad et al. (2020: 7), who associate GOC with green passion, green passion is a positive feeling for individuals to engage in voluntary activities by taking the environment into account. Participation in environmental practices can inspire green passion when employees are aware of environmental protection and the effects of degradation.

GOC is thought to concentrate on the enforcement of environmental policies and measures and employees can create a common value in corporate greening (Xu et al., 2022, p. 3). 'If employees have a green perception of their organizational environment, their attitudes will have an impact on the green climate' (Norton et al., 2015, p. 119). Many studies (e.g. Kelly et al., 2000; Robertson & Carleton, 2017) revealed that this perception, created especially in the initial stages of an organization's organizational life cycle, significantly affects the future of organizations. In this context, literature has shown sensitivity and special interest in finding the necessary steps to create a sustainable and GOC recently.

The environmental strategy determined by the organization toward being green, and the reflections of this strategy on behavior should be consistent with each other (Flagstad et al., 2020, p. 2). In addition, creating a self-sustaining green practice in an organization calls for embedding it in the general organizational culture/climate (Benn et al., 2015, p. 500). In this context, lack of environmental climate in the organization appears to hinder pro-environmental behavior (Zientara and Zamojska, 2016, p. 7). In other words, when GOC is low in an organization, employees who can regard themselves as environmentally friendly are not valued by the organization (Xu et al., 2022, p. 3).

In the context of *Social Impact Theory* (Brown, 2009), which has its origins in social psychology, the phenomenon of GOC has 'a collective structure as a result of social processes and is similar to the socialization of new members of the organization' (Flagstad et al., 2020, p. 2). Research has found that OC is strong in small units with intense communication types (Schneider et al., 2013, p. 366) and is constantly related to employee behavior (Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009, p. 691; Flagstad et al., 2020). In addition, organizational members' commitment and supportive attitudes are understood to have an important impact on the social responses of organizations' concrete CER practices when faced with institutional pressures. In this context, it has been stated that GOC will attract the pressure of isomorphism to the organization and therefore force it to take action (Gao & Yang, 2022, p. 9). Moreover, in a strong GOC, 'the isomorphism process can be enhanced by incorporating additional elements that support members, such as top manager commitment and support, as well as strategy-oriented elements like resources and competence' (Dumont et al., 2017; Schneider et al., 2013). Consistent with these observations, Chou (2014) stated that OC will influence businesses' green behaviors by improving green competence through communication, training, motivation, and innovation.

Social Information Processing Theory argues that the social environment in which people interact affects personal attitudes within an organization. The environment ensures "the construction of meaning is directly influenced by socially acceptable beliefs, attitudes, and needs, as well as acceptable reasons for action" (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978, p. 227). After conceptualizing the theory, employees often have multiple sources of information in the organization and try to clarify ambiguous information about them through social interaction (Schneider et al., 1998, p. 151). This process of social interaction enhances employees' social learning through their actions and behaviors, encouraging them to participate in environmental protection behaviors such as recycling, saving energy, and promoting environmental protection to others (Khan et al., 2019, p. 4; Liu & Yu, 2023). Robertson and Carleton (2017, p. 198) have said in this subject: 'When employees are faced with the dilemma of balancing economic and environmental goals, green change leaders can help them to clearly understand the organization's environmental values and strategic goals'. Zientara and Zamojska (2016, p. 1142) and Liu and Yu (2023) have also said: 'specifically, in organizational environmental management practices, green transformational leaders communicate environmental values by issuing policy statements, assigning environmental tasks to subordinates, and explaining the reasons for the organization's specific plans'.

According to this perspective, a positively green cultural climate could be conceived between various standards by creating a shared vision within the group (Alt & Spitzeck, 2016, p. 49). Therefore, managers' interest in environmental management policies influences GOC formation (Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009, p. 634). On the other hand, 'organizational commitment is improved when green policies are communicated to all employees and the organization supports good environmental performance. This, in turn, leads to improved environmental behavior within the organization' (Temminck et al., 2015, p. 410). Additionally, Chan et al. (2017) also recommend green messages from senior management to employees that help increase their awareness and enable them to focus on protecting the environment. In this context, management's attitude plays an important role in encouraging employees to act more eco-actively in organizations (Pham et al., 2018, p. 1183). Essentially, through the green psychology of the corporate world, there is a relationship between corporate policy understanding and employees' productive green actions (Norton et al., 2014, p. 52). As a result, for organizations to achieve success in environmental performance, hiring talented candidates who care about OC and sustainability, making the organization constantly attractive, taking the green training and progress of employees seriously, and the presence of effective leaders who have adopted green sustainability as a vision are considered important policies. Therefore, it can be said that green management can be effectively implemented and contribute to green management initiatives and strategies only 'if all members of the organization have the opportunity and space to develop effective green management programs through positive cooperation, commitment, leadership, and warmth, a truly green working group can be created' (Siron et al., 2019, p. 9).

If *Ability-Motivation-Opportunity Theory* is expanded with a green context, it is thought that if employees increase their environmental knowledge and skills by receiving training, this will increase their enthusiasm to take on environmentally friendly tasks. This development has led to the conclusion that an organization will be stronger when it creates green opportunities through GOC (Pham et al., 2018, p. 1184).

According to *Person-Environment Compatibility Theory*, individuals attempt to adapt to their environment to meet the need to belong, to be in control of their lives, and to eliminate uncertainty (Yu, 2013, p. 24). Because of environmental adaptation's effect on individual behavior, 'a GOC can strongly influence the voluntary green behavior of those who consider themselves members of the organization. In other words, a GOC serves as an informative cue that green behaviors are expected and valued by the organization, guiding employees to exhibit green behavior. Furthermore, employees tend to feel a stronger obligation to respond to and comply with the organization's high expectations regarding green behavior. Therefore, employees who perceive GOC are more likely to internalize the organization's green values as part of their self-concept. This motivates employees to exhibit green behaviors in the organization. It is argued that employees who adapt to their organizations are more likely to engage in voluntary green behaviors because they see themselves as insiders of the organization' (Xiao et al., 2020, p. 5).

Institutional Theory, which addresses interactions between organizational systems and the natural environment, debates global social oppression on environmental issues that affect business processes on organizations (Ball & Boehmer-Christiansen, 2017, p. 559). Organizations adopt environmentally friendly policies primarily because of social and legal pressures that are necessary for their survival (Washington and Patterson, 2011, p. 2). Ensuring stability and maximizing profits through green practices according to green motives can be clarified by the three basic green motives mentioned above (Yousaf et al., 2021, p. 3).

On the other hand, *Stakeholder Theory* is another important concept in terms of GM toward sustainability. Green motives are beneficial for sustainability (Yousef et al., 2021, p. 3-4). It is beneficial for organizations to identify practices and systems that lead to sustainable development (Zhihong et al., 2018, p. 1207). Sustainable development is possible through the adoption of green practices. Organizations are under increasing global pressure to adopt sustainable practices, and those that do are making rapid progress toward sustainable development. As a result, there is growing interest in sustainability goals, and the business and economic community are being called upon to develop more sustainable models. Consumers increasingly seek information about the sustainability and environmental impact of products and services. It is important to provide clear and concise information on these aspects to meet their demands (Yousaf et al., 2021, p. 4).

Many internal and external factors affect motivation to be green in organizations. External drivers of organizational greening include stakeholder pressure, competitive pressure, and government requirements (Pham et al, 2019, p. 1175). Similarly, motivations such as meaningfulness, benefit creation, and serving an important purpose are among the important internal driving forces for organizations to exhibit pro-environmental behavior. Additionally, important drivers of pro-environmental behavior are moral obligation and conscientiousness (Norton et al., 2015, p. 104). On the other hand, leaders play a great role in creating a GOC and influencing the entire functioning of an organization. Leaders play a central role in increasing pro-environmental individual and organizational efforts through their support. As a matter of fact, studies have found the relationships between ethical leaders (Saleem et al., 2020), servant leaders (Zafar et al., 2022), charismatic leaders (Tuan, 2019), and green transformative leaders (Wang et al., 2018) and environmentally friendly behaviors to be significant. Organizational members influenced by strong environmental values and expectations in the workplace tend to communicate more and are more committed to environmental sustainability (Das et al., 2020). In addition, the first green actions taken by organizations to create a green climate have a direct and indirect impact on employees, and the frequent interaction between managers and employees is crucial to the development of a green climate. In this context, a superior green strategy is possible with the leader and his followers who support him (Flagstad et al., 2020, p. 20).

Nowadays, oppression from stakeholders has stimulated organizations to deal with green activities (Babiak & Trendafilova, 2011). In fact, if an organization does not engage in green activities, some stakeholders may withdraw their support for the initiative (Freeman, 2010). In this context, internal and external oppression drives environmentalism (Chang, 2019, p. 331). However, various perspectives have been developed in the literature on the elements that encourage organizations to engage in green activities.

According to Aguilera et al. (2007), three fundamental motivations motivate organizations to pursue green activities: instrumental, relational, and moral, thus directing them to create positive social change. 'Self-interest drives *instrumental motives*. Organizations implement green practices to reduce costs by reducing waste in terms of materials and energy. Some engage in environmental protection activities to increase shareholder value or improve their reputation' (Reinhardt et al., 2008). Managers have the power to directly influence an organization's participation in green practices by developing corporate strategies and improving financial performance (Liao & Long, 2018, p. 982). An increasing number of organizations want to follow sustainability guidelines to increase their reputation. It is noticeable that some nations around the world are pursuing unilaterally assertive environmental policies. This effort was mainly a result of green motives (Wirl, 2011, p. 866). For the measurement of instrumental motives, the organization's willingness to engage in green activities to avoid bad publicity, to please the organization's shareholders, and for financial profit reasons come to the fore (Paulraj et al., 2017, p. 251).

Relational motives are related to relationships between actors. This shifts the focus from shareholders to stakeholder interests (Chang, 2019, p. 333). It is difficult to achieve balance in organizations because stakeholders' interests are diverse (Testa et al., 2018, p. 288). Therefore, organizations should build social legitimacy to survive. Legitimacy is a relational motivation based on how an organization's actions are perceived by others. To thrive in a competitive market, organizations must adhere to stakeholder norms (Aguilera et al., 2007; Paulraj et al., 2017). When an organization's stakeholders engage in green practices, the organization should meet its stakeholders' requirements and demands. For the measurement of relational motives, the organization's willingness to engage in green activities to increase its customer base, differentiate itself from others, and meet environmental regulations comes to the fore (Paulraj et al., 2017, p. 251-252).

Finally, *moral motives* concern ethical standards and principles. The integrity of an organization driven by moral principles can go beyond laws and regulations to promote sustainable development. Such organizations may host charitable activities or make voluntary contributions beyond social expectations (Carroll, 1979, p. 498). Moral motives encourage organizations to develop new sustainability practices before their competitors (Chang, 2019, p. 334). For the measurement of moral motives, the organization's willingness to engage in green activities comes to the fore due to reasons such as feeling responsible for the environment, a genuine concern for the environment, senior managers seeing environmental sensitivity as a vital part of the corporate strategy, and being the right thing to do (Paulraj et al., 2017, p. 252).

In recent years, the priorities of the business world have changed with the emergence of various environmental threats (such as pollution, rapid increase in harmful waste), and the focus of attention has become protecting the environment and natural resources. The green motives detailed above form the basis for the implementation of green business strategies. Because of environmental concerns, green business strategies have become mandatory for entrepreneurs influenced by green motives to adopt environmentally safe and sustainable products and services over time. The increasing interest of consumers in environmental sustainability has led managers to adapt business models through the implementation of green practices that support the goal of gaining a competitive advantage and increasing market share., as they attract consumers interested in green sustainability (Yousaf et al., 2021, p. 4-6).

Empirical studies have argued that when employees perceive a stronger GOC, their green behavioral intentions (impulses) and green behaviors are reinforced (Erbaşı, 2022; Norton et al., 2017). In fact, organizations that are environmentally conscious can be

more motivating for employees because they feel they are making a positive impact on society (Jones, 2010, p. 858). Additionally, 'employees are more likely to identify with organizations that reflect a green climate because such organizations are more likely to value their employees. This is because a green climate is often associated with a positive and responsible image, which can enhance the reputation of an organization and increase employee satisfaction (Das et al., 2020, p. 110). However, a lack of psychological empowerment can undermine an employee's competence, meaning, self-determination, and self-confidence. This can make them feel inadequate and less secure and create a perception of a lack of freedom and support within the organization (Kimpah et al., 2017, p. 334). This situation could decrease employee commitment to the organization and have a negative impact on employee motivation to identify with it (Sheldon et al., 2015, p. 358). Based on these assumptions, this research aimed to theorize GOC as an important variable for explaining employees' green motives. In line with the above explanations, the research hypotheses are as follows:

H_1: A green organizational climate affects individuals' instrumental motives.

H_2: A green organizational climate affects individuals' relational motives.

H_3: A green organizational climate affects individuals' moral motivations

3. Method

The criteria sampling method, a purposive sampling method, was used in the research (Patton, 1990; Shaheen et al., 2018, p. 34). Criterion sampling calls for the researcher to set specific criteria that should be followed for participants to participate in the study. This sampling method is highly reliable in terms of quality assurance because the data to be generated will be from reliable sources (Nyimbili & Nyimbili, 2024, p. 97). The criteria for sampling in this research are that businesses where the participants are included should have an environmental policy.

A two-stage research process was conducted in this study. These phases are the scale adaptation and hypothesis testing phases.

In the scale adaptation process, which is *the first stage of the research*, a five-stage process was followed: permission procedures from the author who developed the scale, content and language validity, application of the scale to the sample group and revealing the factor structure, verification of the factor structure, and reliability examination (Erbaşı, 2021, p. 623). In accordance with this order, permission was first obtained from the author electronically to adapt the scale to Turkish. Then, the scale was translated into Turkish. To ensure the linguistic and semantic compatibility of the translated 13-item scale, the evaluations of 5 experts who had at least a doctoral degree in the field of proficiency in both languages were consulted. Using expert opinions, the content validity rates and content validity indexes of each scale item were calculated, and as a result, a scale with content and language validity was obtained. The Selçuk University Social and Human Sciences Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee Report dated 04.04.2023 and decision number 04/77 was received, stating that the resulting scale is appropriate in terms of scientific research and publication ethics. The scale was then applied to 375 employees of businesses operating in different sectors in Konya that also had environmental policies in placeThe reason for choosing different sectors in the study group is that we do not want to impose any sector restrictions on the use of the scale adapted to Turkey in subsequent research. To determine the level of participation, a 5-point Likert scale was used, ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The factor structure of the scale was revealed by applying Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to the data obtained from the study group through SPSS 21. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was applied through the AMOS 21 program to examine the accuracy of the factor structure obtained by EFA. Finally, reliability analyses were conducted.

The second phase of the research is aimed at testing the hypotheses developed to examine the effects of GOCs on GM. Analyses were performed using the data obtained from the sample defined in the first stage of the research. The data obtained were subjected to descriptive and descriptive statistics using the SPSS 21 program, andthe reliability of the scale used was analyzed. To examine the validity of the scale, CFA was applied using the AMOS 21 program. The structural equation model was applied through AMOS 21 to perform hypothesis tests.

The sample participating in the research included 172 women (45.9%) and 203 men (54.1%). 32.0% (120 people) of the participating employees have secondary or high school education, 27.2% (102 people) have associate degree, 23.2% (87 people) had a bachelor's degree, 13.9% (52 people) had primary education, and 3.7% (14 people) had postgraduate education. 54.7% (205 people) of the participants are married and 45.3% (170 people) are single. Employees from 21 different sectors participated in the research: 29.1% (109 people) working in the automotive sector and 14.4% (54 people) working in the textile, ready-made clothing, and leather sectors. The average age of the participants is 34 (min. 22, max. 67, standard deviation 7.23), and the average professional seniority was 11 years (min. 1, max. 52, standard deviation 8.24).

4. Findings

4.1. Findings Regarding Scale Adaptation

Paulraj et al. (2017) developed a scale by drawing on multiple theories and combining supply chain and business ethics literature, claiming that there are instrumental, relational, and moral motives behind a business's participation in sustainable supply chain management practices. They tested five hypothesized relationships in a sample of 259 German supply chain firms. Their research found that relational and moral motives are key drivers and that businesses with high levels of moral obligations tend to perform better than businesses that do not prioritize moral obligations. The scale developed in the research consists of 13 items and 3 factors (5 items instrumental motives, 4 items relational motives, 4 items moral motives).

To adapt the GM scale developed by Paulraj et al. (2017) to Turkish, first, the lowest, highest, mean, standard deviation, kurtosis, and skewness values of the items were examined, and the findings are presented in Table 1. The average values of the items are between 3.0293 and 2.4400, the kurtosis index values are between 1.311 and 1.004, and the skewness index values are between 0.592 and 0.032. The kurtosis and skewness values of each item were within ±3, indicating that the data exhibited normal distribution (Shao, 2002).

Table 1. Minimum, Maximum, Average, Standard Deviation, Kurtosis Index, and Skewness Index Values of Scale Items

Item Number	Minimum Value	Maximum Value	Average Value	Standard Deviation	Kurtosis Index	Skewness Index
GM1	1.00	5.00	2.8533	1.26759	-1.174	0.032
GM2	1.00	5.00	2.7600	1.26702	-1.143	0.269
GM3	1.00	5.00	2.7973	1.17528	-1.004	0.161
GM4	1.00	5.00	3.0293	1.29239	-1.233	-0.062
GM5	1.00	5.00	2.6427	1.34255	-1.150	0.300
GM6	1.00	5.00	2.9173	1.41652	-1.287	0.147
GM7	1.00	5.00	2.7520	1.36802	-1.167	0.291
GM8	1.00	5.00	2.7067	1.26632	-1.015	0.296
GM9	1.00	5.00	2.8000	1.39518	-1.246	0.213
GM10	1.00	5.00	2.6187	1.47571	-1.299	0.391
GM11	1.00	5.00	2.7493	1.45378	-1.311	0.301
GM12	1.00	5.00	2.6933	1.23424	-1.097	0.137
GM13	1.00	5.00	2.4400	1.42025	-1.012	0.592

To determine the suitability of the data determined to be normally distributed for factor analysis, Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett values were examined, and Table 2 presents the findings. Accordingly, the KMO value of the scale was quite high (KMO = .937) and the Bartlett value was significant (χ^2 = 3534.233, df = 78, p = .000).

Table 2. Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett Test Values

		GM Scale
Measure of Sampling Adequacy of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin	**KMO Value**	.937
	Approximate Chi-Square	3534.233
Bartlett Test of Sphericity	**Degree of freedom**	78
	Significance Degree	.000

To determine the level of contribution of each item in the scale to sample adequacy, anti-image correlation coefficients were examined, and the findings are presented in Table 3. Accordingly, the anti-image correlation coefficients of the items in the scale were between .971 and .894 (>.50).

Table 3. Anti-Image Correlation Coefficients of Scale Items

Item Number	The anti-image correlation coefficient
GM1	.937
GM2	.943
GM3	.912
GM4	.965
GM5	.971
GM6	.938
GM7	.918
GM8	.958
GM9	.949
GM10	.907
GM11	.894
GM12	.957
GM13	.957

To examine the correlation values between the scale items, Pearson's correlation coefficients were examined. The correlation values between the items in the scale were determined to be between .558 and .311 and were statistically significant (p <.01) in Table 4.

Table 4. Correlation Values Between Scale Items

Item Number	GM1	GM2	GM3	GM4	GM5	GM6	GM7	GM8	GM9	GM10	GM11	GM12
GM1												
GM2	.617**											
GM3	.657**	.594**										
GM4	.520**	.584**	.527**									
GM5	.486**	.561**	.471**	.495**								
GM6	.501**	.580**	.522**	.488**	.602**							
GM7	.554**	.610**	.551**	.536**	.656**	.755**						
GM8	.531**	.591**	.485**	.476**	.625**	.611**	.745**					
GM9	.451**	.607**	.380**	.497**	.570**	.567**	.665**	.634**				
GM10	.440**	.474**	.379**	.474**	.529**	.516**	.573**	.615**	.658**			
GM11	.441**	.465**	.360**	.447**	.477**	.478**	.536**	.611**	.612**	.589**		
GM12	.419**	.389**	.331**	.358**	.447**	.405**	.493**	.548**	.467**	.670**	.698**	
GM13	.459**	.525**	.449**	.446**	.529**	.466**	.537**	.589**	.600**	.745**	.748**	.596**

*Note: ** Significant at p = 0.01.*

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to examine the suitability of the factor structure of the scale to its original form. Principal component analysis was used to apply a 25° varimax axis rotation. At this stage, a three-factor structure restriction was imposed as in the original scale. The factor variance values of the obtained scale items are presented in Table 5. Accordingly, the common factor variance values of the scale items were between .872 and .578 (>.50); the lowest common factor variance value was determined in the GM4 item with .578, and the highest common factor variance value was determined in the GM11 item with .872.

Table 5. Factor Variances of Scale Items

Item Number	Common factor variance
GM1	.755
GM2	.693
GM3	.780
GM4	.578
GM5	.662
GM6	.740
GM7	.823
GM8	.721
GM9	.691
GM10	.854
GM11	.872
GM12	.692
GM13	.746

The total explained variance values of the scale are presented in Table 6. Accordingly, it was determined that the model patterned under 3 factors in accordance with the original scale explained the total variance by 73.893

Table 6. Total Explained Variance Values

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Eigenvalues After Rotation		
	Total	Variance Percentage	Cumulative Percentage	Total	Variance Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
1	7.518	57.828	57.828	3.482	26.786	26.786
2	1.321	10.161	67.989	3.351	25.780	52.566
3	.768	5.904	73.893	2.773	21.327	73.893

Findings regarding the factor design of the scale are presented in Table 7. Accordingly, 13 items were grouped under 3 factors, the items had acceptable load values (>.40), the highest factor load value was .835 (GM11), and the lowest factor load value was .629 (GM2).

Table 7. Factor patterns of scale

Item Number	Instrumental Motives	Relational Motives	Moral Motives
GM1	.795		
GM2	.629		
GM3	.835		
GM4	.631		
GM5	.700		
GM6		.770	
GM7		.786	
GM8		.663	
GM9		.652	
GM10			.835
GM11			.872
GM12			.784
GM13			.758

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using the AMOS 21 program to test the 3-factor and 13-item structure obtained by EFA. Figure 1 presents the structural model of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) scale. Since the goodness-of-fit index values of the scale were not at the desired level for a few indicators (RMR, AGFI, RMSEA), modification indices were examined. Accordingly, covariance was established between GM3 and GM5, which were determined to have high covariance, between GM6 and GM7, and between GM7 and GM8. As a result, values of χ^2/SD=2.821, RMR=0.073, GFI=0.937, AGFI=0.903, NFI=0.954, RFI=0.939, IFI=0.970, TLI=0.959, CFI=0.969, RMSEA=0.070, and SRMR=0.040 were obtained. Accordingly, all goodness-of-fit values were determined at acceptable levels.
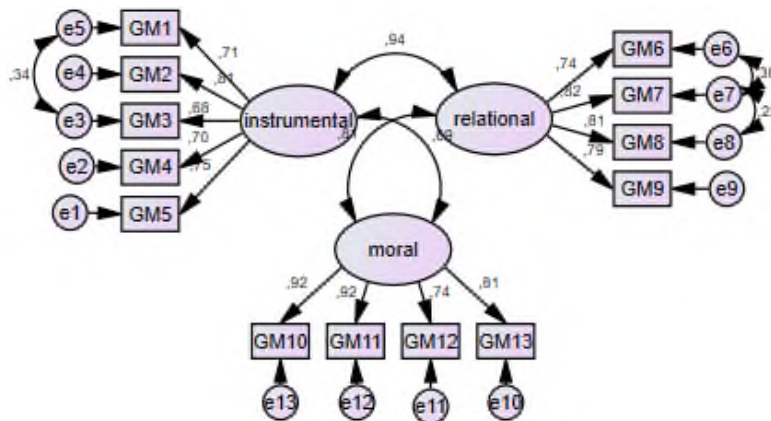

Figure 1. Structural Model for Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Scale Adaptation Data

The interfactor correlation, composite reliability (CR), average explained variance (AVE), and Cronbach's alpha (α) values of the resulting structure were reviewed, and Table 8 presents the findings. It was determined that the correlation values between the factors were between .625 and .784, and the structure was evaluated to have discriminant validity. It was observed that the composite reliability values (CR>.70), average explained variance values (AVE>.50), and Cronbach's alpha values (α>.70) of the factors were above the expected values (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), and it was understood that the scale met the expected reliability criteria.

Table 8. Correlation, CR, and Cronbach's Alpha Values Inter-Factors

Table 8: Correlation, CR, and Cronbach's Alpha Values Inter-Factors					
	Instrumental Motives	**Relational Motives**	**Moral Motives**	**Composite Reliability (CR)**	**Average Variance Explained (AVE)**	**Cronbach's alpha (α)**
Instrumental Motives	1			.843	.522	.859
Relational Motives	.784**	1		.810	.518	.886
Moral Motives	.625**	.708**	1	.886	.661	.912
GM Scale						**.939**

*Note: ** Significant at p = 0.01.*

Corrected item-total correlations of the items in the scale, Cronbach's alpha (α) value in case the item was deleted, and t-test findings according to the lower and upper 27% groups were reviewed. Table 9 shows the findings. With reference to this, the item-total correlation values of the scale items are between r=.796 and r=.615 (r>.30, p<.01). In addition, item discrimination index values differed significantly between the lower and upper 27% groups for all items (p <.01).

Table 9. Corrected Item-Total Correlations and t-Test Results

Item Number	Corrected Item-Total Correlations	If an item was deleted, Cronbach's Alpha (α) values	t-test findings according to the lower and upper 27%
GM1	.656	.936	2.047**
GM2	.720	.934	2.198**
GM3	.615	.937	1.698**
GM4	.633	.936	2.000**
GM5	.705	.934	2.377**
GM6	.709	.934	2.349**
GM7	.796	.931	2.622**
GM8	.780	.932	2.311**
GM9	.740	.933	2.471**
GM10	.769	.932	2.669**
GM11	.745	.933	2.537**
GM12	.638	.936	1.896**
GM13	.738	.933	2.358**

*Note: ** Significant at p = 0.01.*

The GM scale, which was adapted to Turkish and determined to be a valid and reliable scale, was presented as an appendix at the end of the study (Appendix).

4.2. Findings Regarding Hypothesis Testing

In the second stage of the research, three hypotheses were developed to analyze the effect of GOCs on GM. For this purpose, the validity and reliability analyses of the GOC scale developed by Erbaşı (2023a: 74) were conducted. Before the analysis, the kurtosis and skewness values of the data were examined. As a result, we determined that the kurtosis index values of the items were between -1.541 and 1.018, and the skewness index values were between .012 and .371. Accordingly, the kurtosis and skewness values of each item are in the range of ±3, which indicates that the data exhibit a normal distribution (Shao, 2002).

Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett test values were reviewed to determine the suitability of the data determined to be normally distributed for factor analysis. In the analyses, the KMO value of the scale was quite high (KMO = .956) and the

Bartlett value was significant (χ^2 = 6968.621, df = 210, p = .000). The total variance explanation rate was 74.519%. As a result of the CFA conducted to test the structure with 4 factors and 21 items, the goodness of fit index values of the structural model after modification corrections were determined as χ^2/SD=5.093, GFI=0.812, NFI=0.881, IFI=0.902, CFI=0.901, SRMR=0.052. Although some values were seen to be outside the expected values, close values were obtained. In addition, for indices outside the recommended threshold values, deviations due to reasons such as sample size, number of expressions, and model complexity are considered natural for studies in social sciences (Yaşlıoğlu, 2017: 80-82). The model results for the second-level multi-factor confirmatory factor analysis of the GOC scale are presented in Table 10. Accordingly, it is seen that the factor loadings of the items are between 0.888 and 0.508 (>0.40), and all correlation relationships were significant (p<0.05).

Table 10. Model Results of Second-Level Multifactor Confirmatory Factor Analysis of GOC Scale

Factors	Items	Parameter Estimates	Std. Dev.	t	p
Green Economic Climate	1- …	0.808	-	-	-
	2- …	0.885	0.077	10.870	***
	3- …	0.793	0.071	12.418	***
	4- …	0.759	0.071	12.672	***
	5- …	0.508	0.064	13.424	***
	6- …	0.779	0.072	12.530	***
Green Social Climate	7- …	0.714	-	-	-
	8- …	0.576	0.067	14.753	***
	9- …	0.739	0.080	15.477	***
	10- …	0.779	0.077	15.004	***
	11- …	0.888	0.080	16.171	***
Green Digital Climate	12- …	0.821	-	-	-
	13- …	0.861	0.075	13.554	***
	14- …	0.853	0.075	13.286	***
	15- …	0.794	0.069	13.118	***
Green Bureaucratic Climate	16- …	0.690	-	-	-
	17- …	0.856	0.070	11.818	***
	18- …	0.701	0.079	13.054	***
	19- …	0.859	0.082	11.766	***
	20- …	0.738	0.068	12.901	***
	21- …	0.818	0.072	12.332	***

*Note: *p<0.05*

In order to examine the reliability of the scale, Cronbach's alpha values were scanned, and they were above the expected value (α>.70). Additionally, the correlation values between the factors were examined, and a high level of positive correlation was determined among all factors. Findings regarding inter-factor correlation and Cronbach's alpha values are presented in Table 11.

Table 11. Inter-factor Correlation and Cronbach's Alpha Values

|	GEC	GSC	GDC	Cronbach's alpha (α)
Green Economic Climate (GEC)				.888
Green Social Climate (GSC)	.888**			.857
Green Digital Climate (GDC)	.824**	.850**		.900
Green Bureaucratic Climate (GBC)	.858**	.881**	.835**	.901

*Note: ** Significant at p = 0.01.*

In order to examine GOC perception levels and GM levels of the participating employees, average values were observed, and Table 12 presents the findings. Accordingly, the participating employees generally had a medium level of GOC perception ($\bar{x}$=2.8982) and a medium-level of GM ($\bar{x}$=2.7508). When examined in terms of dimensions, the dimension with the highest GOC perception was the green bureaucratic climate ($\bar{x}$=2.9988) and the dimension with the lowest GOC perception was the green digital climate ($\bar{x}$=2.8982). When the averages of the dimensions regarding GM level were examined, it was determined that the highest green motive was instrumental motives ($\bar{x}$=2.8165) and the lowest green motive was moral motives ($\bar{x}$=2.6253).

Table 12. Participants' GOC perceptions and GM Levels

	Minimum Value	Maximum Value	Average Value	Standard Deviation
Green Economic Climate	1	5	2.9220	1.12308
Green Social Climate	1	5	2.8848	1.15354
Green Digital Climate	1	5	2.7284	1.25125
Green Bureaucratic Climate	1	5	2.9988	1.15956
GOC	**1**	**5**	**2.8982**	**1.10155**
Instrumental Motives	1	5	2.8165	1.01499
Relational Motives	1	5	2.7940	1.17647
Moral Motives	1	5	2.6253	1.24395
GM	**1**	**4.92**	**2.7508**	**1.01712**

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was applied to test the hypotheses established to examine the effect of participating employees' GOC perception on GM dimensions. In the model, the independent variable is GOC, and the dependent variables are H1: instrumental motives, H2: Relational motives, and H3: moral motives. The path model showing the effect of GOC on GM dimensions (instrumental, relational and moral) is presented in Figure 2.
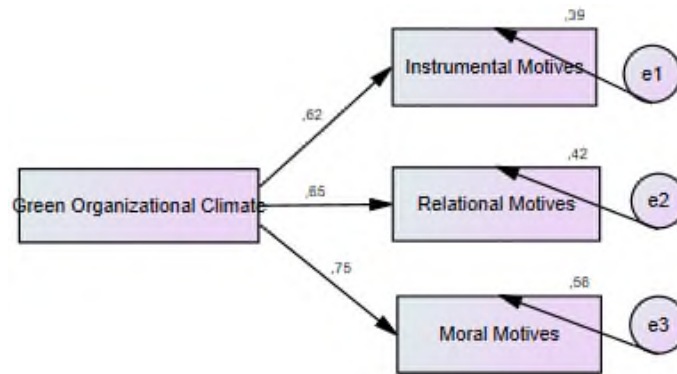
Figure 2. Path Model of the Effect of GOC on GM Dimensions

Findings regarding the effects of GOC on instrumental, relational and moral motives, obtained using the path model presented in Figure 2, are presented in Table 13. Accordingly, it was understood that the independent variable GOC explained the dependent variables, instrumental motives by 38.7%, relational motives by 42.2%, andmoral motives by 55.6%, respectively ($p < 0.05$). With reference to this, the hypotheses (H1, H2, H3) that were created within the scope of the research were accepted.

Table 13. Effect of GOC on GM Dimensions

Effect	R^2	Estimate (β)	Standard Error	t	p	Hypothesis	Result
Green Organizational Climate à Instrumental Motives	0.387	0.622	0.037	15.363	***	H_1	Supported
Green Organizational Climate à Relational Motives	0.422	0.649	0.042	16.514	***	H_2	Supported
Green Organizational Climate à Moral Motives	0.556	0.745	0.039	21.620	***	H_3	Supported

*Note: *p<0.05*

5. Results and Discussion

In the first stage of this research, which was designed in a two-stage structure, the Green Motivation Scale developed by Paulraj et al. (2017) was adapted to Turkish. During the adaptation process, data obtained from 375 employees of businesses operating in different sectors in Konya with environmental policies were analyzed. In conclusion, a valid and reliable GM scale consisting of 3 dimensions and 13 items in accordance with the original was obtained. The dimensions of the scale are labeled as instrumental, relational, and moral, adhering to the use of the original scale. In the resulting scale, the instrumental motives are represented by 5 items. These items explain the motivation of Turkish business organizations to engage in green activities for various reasons, such as the demand and satisfaction of the organization's shareholders, avoiding bad publicity of the organization, and short- and

long-term profit. Relational motives are represented by 4 items in the scale. These items explain the motivation to engage in green activities for relational reasons, such as increasing the customer base, appearing different from competitors, seeing green practices as a fundamental source of sustainable competitive advantage, and being able to comply with legal regulations on this subject. The moral motivations are represented by 4 items in the scale. These items explain the motivation to engage in green activities for moral reasons, such as feeling responsible for the environment and being interested in environmental problems, senior management levels seeing environmental sensitivity as a significant section of the corporate strategy and thinking that engaging in sustainable activities is the right choice.

In the second stage of the research, the effects of GOC on GM dimensions were examined. Eventually, GOC had a statistically significant and positive effect on instrumental motives. Accordingly, the hypothesis H1 (GOC affects individuals' instrumental motives) developed in this study was accepted. It is evaluated that as a green climate is created in organizations, employees take into account the green demands of the organization's shareholders and try to satisfy them more in this regard. They tend to avoid bad publicity for the organization and focus on increasing financial profits. As Institutional Theory and Stakeholder theories suggest, achieving maximum benefit for the stakeholders of an organization is related to how much green policies implemented in businesses motivate employees and how much sustainable development goals can be achieved using these tools. Another finding of the research is that GOC has a statistically significant and positive effect on relational motives. Accordingly, the hypothesis H2 (GOC affects individuals' relational motives) was accepted. It is evaluated that as a green climate is created in organizations, employees increase their efforts to increase the customer base in the business, to make the organization look different from its competitors in terms of the activities they conduct, to have the belief and determination to see green practices as a basic key to sustainable competitive advantage, and to ensure that the business complies with the legal regulations on sustainable activities. This result supports the theories of social impact and social information processing because it is believed that the support for green competencies such as creativity and work motivation of employees increases with the effect of businesses' environmental responsibility activities. In accordance with the Person-Environment Compatibility approach, in situations where social interaction is high, employees' attitudes and behaviors toward activities to protect the environment are reinforced by their social learning, and the characteristics of the organizational leader are also decisive in this regard. Additionally, increased desires to take on environmentally friendly roles in a green context indicate that the organization will be stronger in recognizing green opportunities, as AMO theory accepts. The study also found that a green organizational climate has a statistically significant and positive effect on moral motivation. Accordingly, the hypothesis H_3 (GOC affects individuals' moral motives) developed in this study was accepted. It is evaluated that as a green climate is created in organizations, employees' sense of responsibility toward the environment and their interest in environmental problems increase, senior management levels evaluate their environmental awareness studies as a corporate strategy tool and identify sustainable activities with the truths of life. In addition, the institutionalization of business ethics (conducting business activities within the framework of honesty, trust, respect and justice) by organizations will strengthen employee motivation and ties with the business.

The study has some limitations. In particular, in this research, data were acquired only from employees of businesses operating in different sectors in Konya with environmental policies. Therefore, it is not possible to generalize the findings for Türkiye. The results of the adapted scale should be followed by applying it with sectoral restrictions or with a wider population and sample.

The research findings reveal that businesses and managers who care about the environment and sustainable activities should focus on various instrumental, relational, and moral arguments for increasing employee GM. In addition, GOC practices should be included for the same aim in the GM of employees. In this regard, activities to be carried out to create a green economic climate (GEC), green social climate (GSC), green digital climate (GDC), andgreen bureaucratic climate (GBC) in the organization will be able to increase the GM of employees in all dimensions, including instrumental, relational, and moral.

The GM scale adapted to Turkish can be used in future research to test its relationships with various arguments. In addition, the mediating effects of different variables on the effect of GOC on GM can be evaluated. Additionally, no research examining the effect of GOCs on GM. Comparing the concluding remarks on this study with those of subsequent study this subject may produce meaningful results.

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APPENDIX: Green Motivation Scale Adapted to Turkish

	Lütfen aşağıdaki maddeleri, çalıştığınız kurumu sürdürülebilir faaliyetlerde bulunmaya sevk eden nedenleri düşünerek cevaplayınız. Size uygun gelen tek seçeneği işaretleyiniz. ………………… sürdürülebilir faaliyetlerde bulunuyoruz.	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
	Araçsal Güdüler					
1.	Sürdürülebilirliğin geliştirilmesine yönelik hissedarların talebi nedeniyle	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
2.	Kötü tanıtımdan kaçınmak için	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
3.	Hissedarlarımızı memnun etmek için	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
4.	Kısa vadeli kârlılık için	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
5.	Uzun vadeli kârlılık için	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
	İlişkisel Güdüler					
6.	Müşteri tabanımızı artırmak için	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
7.	Bizi rakiplerimizden farklı kılmak için	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
8.	Sürdürülebilir rekabet avantajı kaynağı olduğu için	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
9.	Öncelikle sürdürülebilirliğe yönelik yasal düzenlemeler nedeniyle	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
	Ahlaki Güdüler					
10.	Çevreye karşı sorumluluk hissettiğimiz için	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
11.	Çevreye olan gerçek ilgimiz nedeniyle	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
12.	Üst yönetim, çevresel duyarlılığı kurumsal stratejinin hayati bir parçası olarak gördüğü için	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
13.	Yapılacak doğru şey bu olduğu için	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)

Review of Articles Published Between 2014 and 2023 on Toxic Leadership Using Bibliometric Analysis: Comparison of DergiPark and Web of Science Databases

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ABSTRACT

This study covers articles on toxic leadership published in DergiPark and Web of Science in the last decade (2014-2023). The aim of this study is to provide information about articles on toxic leadership in the literature, to reveal its limitations, and to determine the differences between articles written on DergiPark and WoS platforms. A review was conducted on DergiPark and WoS, and 44 and 124 articles were found in the DergiPark and 124 articles were found in the WoS. The 168 articles were evaluated according to publication years, number of authors, number of citations, type, related variables, and sample groups. It was observed that there were more publications on the WoS than on the DergiPark, and articles on the WoS were cited more. The study found that the emphasis on toxic leadership is increasing daily. It has been observed that very few studies have examined publications on toxic leadership, and no study has compared DergiPark and WoS platforms. This study is important for observing and evaluating the current state of toxic leadership literature. In addition, it may lead to future studies in the context of related variables.

Keywords: Bibliometric Analysis, Dark Side of Leadership, Leadership, Literature Review, Toxic Leadership
JEL Code: M10, L20

1. Introduction

Human beings, expressed as social being, live their lives in groups or communities. Because of people living in communities, individuals are needed to direct their communities. This necessity has existed since the day people came together and started to live their lives. Based on this, it can be said that individuals who manage communities do not spontaneously emerge but as a requirement of an established way of life. These individuals who manage societies are called leaders (Gündüz and Dedekorkut, 2014).

A leader is defined as a person who unites a community in line with predetermined goals and objectives and who can influence and mobilize the community to achieve these goals and objectives. In this context, leadership can be defined as the process by which an individual influences a community to achieve common goals (Northouse, 2007). As stated in the definitions, the leader mobilizes individuals. What is important here is how he/she performs this action. The way he/she behaves toward his/her followers can determine the type of leader.

Many studies have been conducted by researchers on leadership from the past to the present, and generally, the positive behaviors and characteristics of leaders and positive leadership types have been mentioned. However, in real life, we may encounter leaders with negative leadership characteristics and behaviors within organizations. Toxic leaders, who are among the leaders with these negative characteristics and behaviors and who are also the subject of this study, cause organizational damage that can reach quite large dimensions with their behaviors and destructive characteristics in the organization (Yılmaz, Bakan and Olucak, 2020).

Toxic leaders are frequently encountered within an organization (Zengin, 2019; Akbulut and Yavuz, 2022). In addition, no single definition fully reveals and explains the concept of toxic leadership (Acarbay, 2022). Toxic leaders can be defined as leaders who use the authority and power given to them by the organization on their subordinates, who think their great, belittle their employees,

use their power arbitrarily, give unconditional punishment to subordinates, discourage individuals, etc. (Kant, Skogstad, Torsheim and Einarsen, 2013).

Toxic leadership can be affected by different variables and can influence different variables. When the literature is examined, it is possible to find studies on toxic leadership. In this study, studies conducted in the last 10 years were analyzed to determine the current state of toxic leadership literature and identify deficiencies.

The purpose of this study is to examine and analyze articles on toxic leadership published in DergiPark and Web of Science databases in the last 10 years (2014-2023) with bibliometric analysis method. In the analysis, we examined the distribution of articles by year, number of authors, number of citations, types of articles, distribution of variables associated with toxic leadership, and sample groups.

There is a study analyzing articles published in the WoS database on toxic leadership (Yıldız and Wolff, 2023). In addition, there is also a content analysis of theses and dissertations on toxic leadership written at master's and doctoral levels in Turkey (Ünüvar, 2023). However, no study has compared the DergiPark and WoS databases. For this reason, in this study, articles published in DergiPark and WoS were examined and compared using a bibliometric analysis method.

Bibliometric analysis is an analysis method that allows the study of the literature to be examined by mathematical or statistical analysis according to the distribution of citations, people, subjects, or countries, or the distribution of publication types such as books and articles. It also makes it possible to reveal the interest in a branch of science, or the tendency toward certain topics in that branch of science, the changes in these tendencies, the most cited fields, authors, and publications (Karasözen, Bayram and Zan, 2009).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The concept of leadership, which has been the subject of studies in the literature over the years, has been discussed in various ways by researchers. As a result, models have been created that express that a leader has many characteristics that create a positive effect on his followers. On the other hand, it can also be said that leader models harm those around them. Some leaders can harm the individuals around them with certain thoughts called "Hubris Syndrome" (Koçel, 2014: 676), such as excessive self-confidence, not listening to the people around them, believing that all the decisions they make are correct and forcing these decisions on others, and the need to have all the focus of control on themselves (Yalçınsoy and Işık, 2018). Leaders who have these feelings and thoughts are harmful. Harmful leadership styles have been examined using names such as dark leadership, destructive leadership, petty tyranny, narcissistic leadership, toxic leadership, etc. (İzgüden, Eroymak and Erdem, 2016: 263). In this study, toxic leadership was examined using the leadership styles listed.

The first study published by Conger (1990) suggested that there are leaders who harm the individuals around them and to explain the dark side of leadership. According to this study, three basic qualities of a leader in an organization can cause problems. These qualities can be expressed as strategic vision, impression, and communication management (Conger, 1990).

Leaders can encourage their followers to believe in their vision by integrating the principles they have put forward for businesses in which they operate with their personality structure. In this case, the vision they set may contain mistakes, and if these mistakes are not found in time, they may cause organizational risks. In particular, if the leader adopts an inappropriate attitude toward his followers, he or she can isolate them and drive them away from the business (Selçuk and Akgün, 2022).

This situation has been explained as the dark side of leadership. These explanations do not fully express the reasons for the negative behaviors that leaders apply to their followers. However, it is important because it is the first study on the dark side of leadership. The research conducted after this research by Conger (1990) reduces the gap regarding the dark side of leadership.

The first study to express the negative leadership type was conducted by Ashforth (1994). In this study, the pressure exerted by a leader on followers using his/her power is discussed. Leaders who exhibited this behavior were described as "petty tyrants" (Ashforth, 1994: 755). After expressing the concept of petty tyrannies, Whicker (1996) introduced the concept of toxic leadership into the literature. According to Whicker (1996), leaders who exhibit toxic behaviors are generally incompatible, malicious, and selfish. Toxic leaders are those who harm and deceive their followers. Toxic leadership is defined by Lipman-Blumen (2005) as a leader who uses his knowledge to intimidate his followers. Another definition was proposed by Wilson-Starks (2003). Toxic leadership shows destructive behaviors within the organization and can harm its employees. On the other hand, toxic leaders give rewards such as promotions to individuals who support their actions and adopt their ideas, bringing them to important positions in the organization, while they prevent those who oppose their actions from reaching important positions by depriving them of rewards such as promotions (Wilson-Starks, 2003).

When the general characteristics of toxic leaders are considered, it is explained that they have an arrogant, insatiable and egoistic personality structure (Acarbay, 2022). (Green, 2014) found that toxic leaders exhibit selfish personality traits, fail in ethical

aspects and have an incompetent and neurotic structure. Therefore, organizations can fall into chaos as a result of toxic leaders' decision-making behavior that is solely in their own best interest (Tavanti, 2011). (Reyhanoğlu and Akın, 2016), after analyzing various definitions of toxic leadership, made the following explanations about the characteristics that toxic leaders may have:

- Toxic leaders may speak badly to their subordinates, and the content of such speeches may be insulting.
- Toxic leaders do not care about the well-being of individuals within the organization. They may exhibit behaviors and actions that harm their subordinates.
- The behaviors of toxic leaders affect the employees.
- Toxic leaders can abuse the positions they hold in their organizations. They may abuse their powers of management and control over employees.
- Toxic leaders may have a character that can be described as narcissistic.
- Toxic leaders do not care about the feelings and thoughts of individuals within the organization.
- Toxic leaders can transform the climate of organizations in which they operate into a negative one.
- Toxic leaders generally look out for their individual benefits and prioritize themselves.
- Toxic leaders do not empathize with their subordinates operating within an organization.
- According to toxic leaders, only their own ideas are correct. They do not want subordinates who oppose them within the organization.

METHOD

Bibliometric studies are studies that enable the quantification of various elements of academic publications, analyzing them with the help of statistics and evaluating the quantitative aspects of scientific studies. Bibliometric methods, which enable measurement of the results and effectiveness of scientific studies, offer suggestions for the future by evaluating the publication adequacy of scientific branches in their fields in the light of criteria such as the number of publications, their quality, and the context in which the subject is discussed (Alkan ve Özkaya, 2015). This study examines the publications made in both the Turkey-addressed Dergipark database and the publications made in SSCI-indexed journals in the Web of Science database between 2014 and 2023 in terms of the toxic leadership variable. In this section of the study, first, the purpose of the research, the research questions and sample of the research, and finally, the source of the research, necessary information about the collection and analysis of data are stated.

Purpose of the Study

This study aims to classify and compare articles written on Toxic Leadership in DergiPark and the Web of Science database between 2014 and 2023. The main reason why the purpose of the research was determined in this way is to examine both the publications made in journals addressed in Turkey and to observe whether there is a difference in terms of the field of study by examining the publications made in journals in the SSCI index, which is considered reliable for the field of social sciences. Articles were investigated according to the years of publication, number of authors, number of citations, article type, status of variables associated with toxic leadership, and sample groups.

Research Questions

The following questions were asked for the research:

1. How is the article distribution according to years?
2. How is the article distribution based on the number of authors?
3. How is the article distribution based on the number of citations?
4. What types of articles are there?
5. What is the distribution of the variables related to the toxic leadership variable in the articles?
6. Which sample groups were the research papers focused on?

Sample of the Study

The sample of the study consists of articles in the DergiPark database and SSCI-indexed articles in the Web of Science platform, written on the subject of toxic leadership between 2014 and 2023. Only SSCI-indexed journals on the web of science platform were included in the scope of the research. The reason for this is that the number of journals in the ESCI index is also high, and when they are included in the scope of the research, there is a concern that there will be an imbalance between the data obtained within the scope of Turkey and international literature. In this study, a criterion sampling method, which is a purposive sampling

method, was used to obtain an appropriate sample (Koşar, 2020). Accordingly, the criteria for including the articles in the sample were determined as "being related to the topic of toxic leadership" and "written between 2014 and 2023." Based on the assumption that studies on the concept of toxic leadership, which is a relatively new type of leadership in the field of business administration, have been scarce in previous years, publications made within a 10-year period were included in the scope of the research. In this context, 53 articles meeting these criteria in the DergiPark database and 139 SSCI-indexed articles in the Web of Science database were included in the scope of the research. Although 9 of the articles in the DergiPark database contained a word related to toxic leadership in their title, abstract, or keywords, they were excluded because they were not relevant to this topic. For this reason, it can be concluded that there are 44 articles in the DergiPark database. However, 15 of the 139 articles on the WoS platform were excluded from the sample because they were not related to toxic leadership. As a result, it can be concluded that there are 124 articles on the WoS platform.

Source, Data Collection and Analysis

The data source of this study consisted of articles published in DergiPark and Web of Science between 2014 and 2023 on toxic leadership. In order to find these articles, the year range 2014-2023 was selected from the DergiPark and Web of Science databases. The SSCI index was also selected from the Web of Science database. Finally, to not miss any article, the title, keywords, and abstracts of the articles were scanned many times with Turkish and English words such as "toxic leadership," "toxic leader," and "dark side of leadership." Thus, 44 articles in the DergiPark database and 124 SSCI-indexed articles in the Web of Science database were obtained. The data used in this study are secondary data. In this study, articles were analyzed according to publication years, number of authors, number of citations, and type.

Findings

The findings that emerged because of the analyses conducted for the research questions are given below.
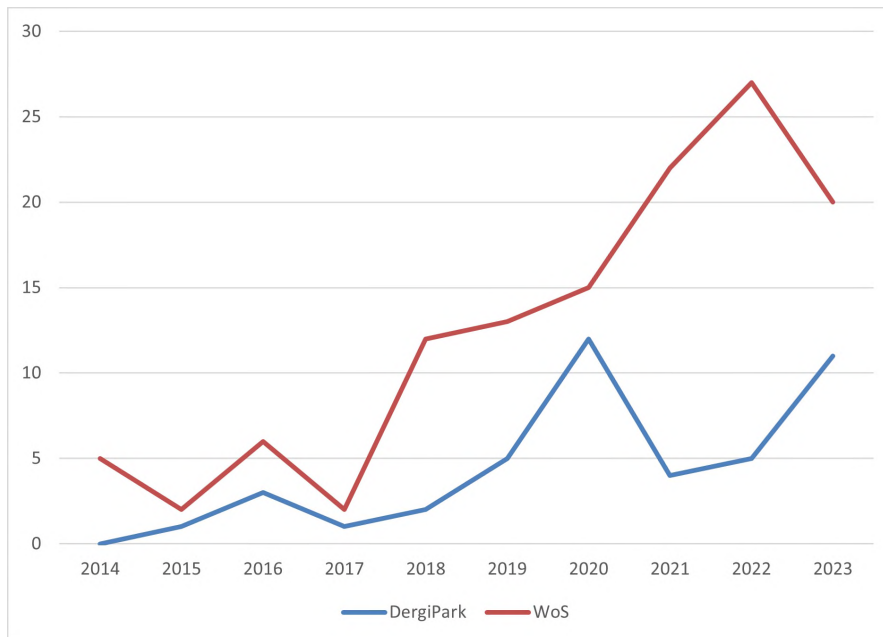
1. What is the distribution of articles by year?

Figure 1. Distribution of Articles by Years

When the 44 articles on toxic leadership published on the DergiPark platform between 2014 and 2023 are analyzed according to year distribution, it can be seen that no article on toxic leadership was published in 2014. In addition, the highest number of publications was in 2020, with 12 articles. An analysis of 124 SSCI-indexed articles published on the Web of Science platform according to year distribution shows that the fewest articles were published in 2015 and 2017. On the other hand, it can be said that most articles (27) were published in 2022. In light of this information, it can be said that toxic leadership has been given more importance in research than in the past, and toxic leadership has maintained and increased its relevance in research. In addition, it is also possible to say that the graph is not linear.

2. How is the article distribution based on the number of authors?
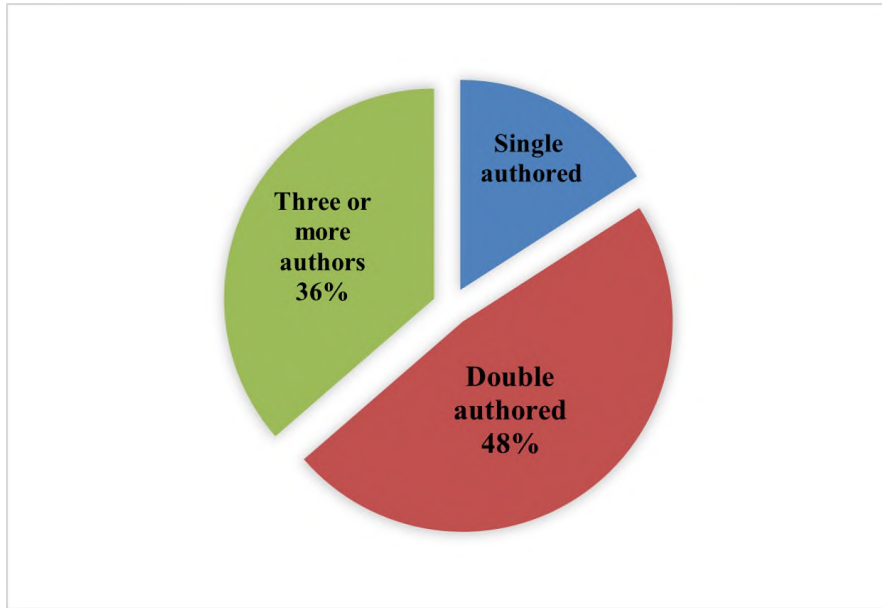

Figure 2. Distribution According to the Number of DergiPark Authors

It was observed that 7 of the 44 articles on the DergiPark platform were single-authored, 21 were double-authored, and 16 were written by three or more authors. From this perspective, 84% of the articles written on the DergiPark platform in Turkey in the last 10 years were written by more than one author.
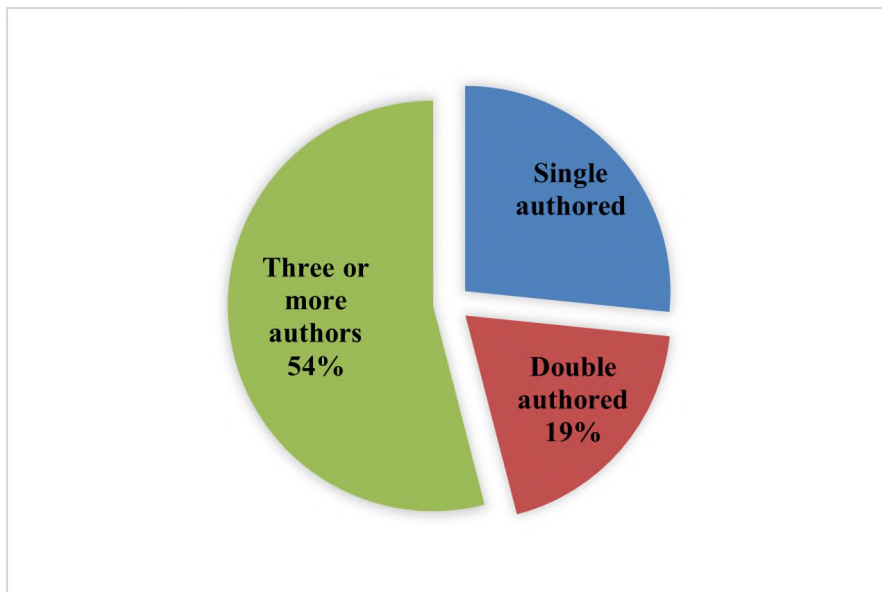

Figure 3. Distribution by Number of WoS Authors

According to the Web of Science platform, 33 of the 124 articles were single-authored, 24 were double-authored, and 67 were written by three or more authors. In light of this information, 73% of the SSCI-indexed articles on toxic leadership on the WoS platform in the last 10 years were written by more than one author.

3. How is the article distribution based on the number of citations?

Examining the number of citations for articles on toxic leadership, the total number of citations for 44 articles in the scope of DergiPark platform was 794, and the total number of citations for 124 SSCI-indexed articles in the WoS platform was 2,408. The number of citations per article in the DergiPark database was found to be 18.04. In contrast, the number of citations per article on the WoS platform was 19.41.

Table 1. Distribution of Articles according to Number of Citations

Year of publication of the Article	Database	Number of Articles	Total Number of Citations	Number of Citations per Article
2014	WoS	5	409	81,8
2015	DergiPark	1	122	122
	WoS	2	72	36
2016	DergiPark	3	145	48,33
	WoS	6	144	24
2017	DergiPark	1	7	7
	WoS	2	23	11,5
2018	DergiPark	2	130	65
	WoS	12	565	47,08
2019	DergiPark	5	110	22
	WoS	13	223	17,15
2020	DergiPark	12	214	17,83
	WoS	15	371	24,73
2021	DergiPark	4	24	6
	WoS	22	356	16,18
2022	DergiPark	5	25	5
	WoS	27	190	7,03
2023	DergiPark	11	17	1,54
	WoS	20	55	2,75
Total	DergiPark	44	794	18,04
	WoS	124	2.408	19,41

Some values stand out when the above table is analyzed. One such case is that 122 citations were given to an article published on the DergiPark platform in 2015. Because this article is a scale-development study, it is not unusual for the number of citations is not unusual. Another remarkable finding is that 130 citations were made to 2 articles published in the DergiPark database in 2018, resulting in 65 citations per article. This value is quite high in terms of the number of citations. It can be argued that 145 citations were made to 3 articles published in 2016 for the DergiPark database; thus, the number of citations per article was 48.33. This is the third highest number of citations per article in the DergiPark database. Finally, a total of 17 citations were made to 11 articles published in 2023 for the DergiPark database. Therefore, the number of citations per article can be expressed as 1.54. This value is the lowest for the DergiPark database in citations per article. This may be because the data were examined on September 11, 2024. For articles published in 2023, the number of citations is expected to be low since approximately one year has passed.

An examination of the articles published in the Web of Science database, it is seen that 5 articles were published in 2014, and the total number of citations was 409. The number of citations per article was thus 81.08. This value is the highest in terms of the number of citations per article on the WoS platform. The fact that 12 articles published in 2018 were cited 565 times in total and thus the number of citations per article was 47.08, is also an important indicator for the proposed WoS platform. Finally, the number of citations per article published in 2023 was 2.75, which is the lowest value obtained on the WoS platform. As previously mentioned, the number of citations in articles published in 2023 is typically low, given that the data were analyzed in 2024.

4. What types of articles are there?

By examining the types of articles written in the DergiPark database, it is seen that 37 articles are research articles. In addition, there are 1 theoretical article, 1 review, 1 conference paper, 1 book review, 3 other types of articles. Of the 124 articles found in the Web of Science database, 120 were expressed as research articles. In addition, 1 article was a review article, 2 as a book review, and 1 as an editorial material. From this perspective, 84.09% of the articles in the DergiPark database and 96.77% of the articles in the WoS platform were research articles.

5. What is the distribution of the variables associated with the toxic leadership variable in the articles?

An examination of the variables used in the articles written on toxic leadership between 2014 and 2023 in the DergiPark database shows that the variable most frequently associated with toxic leadership and modeled is organizational commitment. The number of articles on toxic leadership and organizational commitment was determined to be 6.

This was followed by turnover intention and organizational cynicism,. In addition, the relationships between organizational health, mental well-being, career commitment, task performance, stress, psychological capital, organizational climate, counterproductive

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Figure 4. Distribution by Number of WoS Authors

work behaviors, employee silence, burnout, workplace conflict, impression management, quality of work life, social shirking, workplace gossip, organizational flexibility, and job shaping were also examined. As can be seen, the articles in which the toxic leadership variable was addressed generally discussed negative organizational behavior issues (turnover intention, organizational cynicism, burnout, conflict, etc.). On the other hand, there are also studies on positive organizational behavior (organizational commitment, organizational health, quality of work life, etc.).
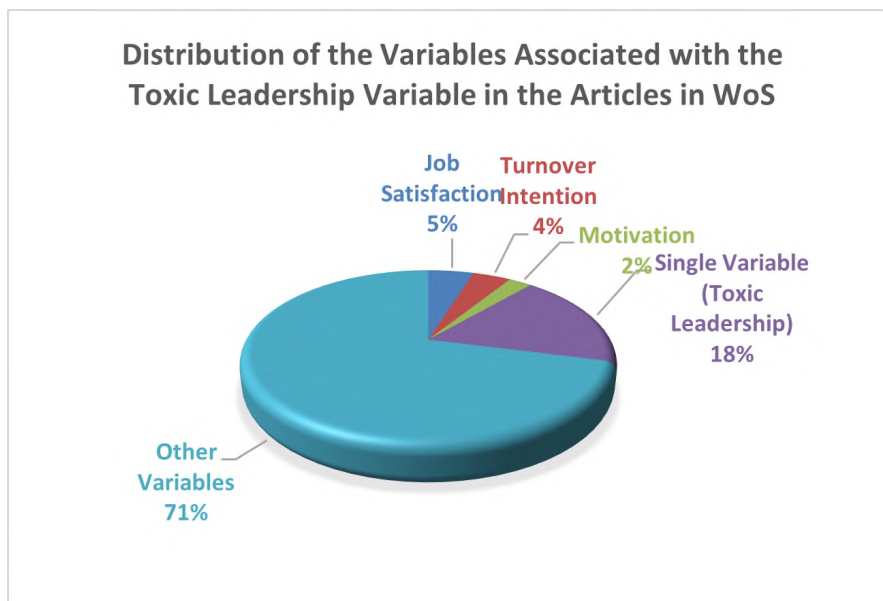

Figure 5. Distribution by Number of WoS Authors

When the variables in the articles published in the Web of Science database are analyzed, the variables most associated with toxic leadership are job satisfaction, turnover intention, and job motivation, respectively. In addition, it is observed that it is associated with variables such as cynicism, emotional exhaustion, job stress, absenteeism, productivity, organizational trust, organizational performance, psychological well-being, project success, self-awareness, employee well-being, group success, group silence, and organizational support. In contrast to the DergiPark platform, toxic leadership is studied with both positive and negative organizational behavior issues of the WoS platform. It can be stated that there is a more stable distribution in terms of linking with positive and negative organizational behavior issues than the DergiPark platform. In contrast, in the DergiPark platform, toxic leadership is highly associated with the organizational commitment variable. However, when SSCI-indexed articles on the Web of Science platform are examined, toxic leadership and organizational commitment variables are not associated.

6. Which sample groups were the research papers focused on?

Considering the sample groups in the articles published in the DergiPark database, it can be stated that there is a tendency toward teachers and school principals (İlhan and Çelebi, 2021), (Ütkiner, Babat, Güven, Pekaz and Ertuğrul, 2023), (Bahadır, 2020). In addition, there is also a study on employees operating in the retailing sector (Canbolat, Çelik and Ulukapı, 2021). Finally, it is possible to say that there are studies focusing on textile (Yılmaz et al., 2020) and health sector employees (Çankaya and Çiftçi, 2020).

Regarding the sample groups in the articles found in WoS, the focus was on education (Herbst and Roux, 2023), (Klahn and Male, 2023), (Alanezi, 2022) and health sector employees (Guo et al., 2022), (Ofei, Poku, Paarima, Barnes and Kwashie, 2023), (Labrague, 2021). In addition, it was also found that there is a study on civil servant candidates (Dobbs and Do, 2019). Lastly, a comprehensive study involving different sectors (Rocha, Dos Santos and Pais, 2023) has also been conducted. Apart from the above-mentioned sample groups, other studies have focused on various sample groups in different countries.

Conclusion

The application of the bibliometric method within a specific field is important in terms of providing ideas to researchers and those working on the subject and determining the current situation. Various interpretations can be made of the findings of this study, which evaluates studies in the Dergipark database covering Turkey and recent toxic leadership studies conducted in an international index and their bibliometric properties. Accordingly, this research covers articles on toxic leadership in the DergiPark and Web of Science databases (SSCI index) between 2014 and 2023. To access all articles written about toxic leadership in the last 10 years, a search was conducted using the keywords toxic leadership, toxic leader, and the dark side of leadership in the title and abstract. As a result, 53 articles were found on the DergiPark platform. 9 of the 53 articles were excluded from the scope because they were not related to toxic leadership. For this reason, 44 articles were included in the scope of the DergiPark research. On the other hand, a search was conducted in WoS with keywords such as toxic leadership and toxic leader, and 139 articles with the SSCI index were reached. Of these articles, 15 were removed from the study because they were not related to toxic leadership. Thus, it can be concluded that there are 124 articles in WoS. Approximately 75 of these articles focused on toxic leadership, while the remaining articles touched on the subject of toxic leadership. Thus, a total of 168 articles were examined in this research.

When the distribution by year is examined, it can be seen that the number of articles published on the Web of Science platform is higher than the number of articles published on the DergiPark platform in all years. In addition, no articles on toxic leadership were published on the DergiPark platform in 2014. 2020 was the year in which the most publications were published on the topic of toxic leadership for the DergiPark platform. On the other hand, the years in which the least publications were made on the topic of toxic leadership on the Web of Science platform were 2015 and 2017. The year with the highest number of publications was 2022. Considering this information, it can be said that more research has been conducted on the subject of toxic leadership today than in the past. When we looked at the distribution of articles according to years, it is observed that the number of studies generally increased over time. The interest in this field also suggests that new leadership models are being researched more. Finally, the difference between the articles published by DergiPark and WoS is high. The reason for this may be that researchers in Turkey tend to focus on positive organizational behavior.

An examination of the distribution of articles published in DergiPark and Web of Science database according to the number of authors revealed that the articles published in DergiPark platform in the last 10 years on toxic leadership generally (84%) had more than one author. In parallel, 73% of the articles on the Web of Science platform were written by more than one author. It can be stated that articles are generally written and published by more than one author for reasons such as the multidisciplinary nature of toxic leadership and the difficulty of managing all article processes alone.

The number of citations per article on the DergiPark platform (18.04) is close to the number of citations per article on the Web of Science platform (19.41). The reason for this situation is the scale-development article on Toxic Leadership published on DergiPark in 2015. The average number of citations per article increased because of the 122 citations received by the individual articles. On the other hand, 409 citations to 5 articles published on the WoS platform in 2014, resulting in 81.08 citations per article, is a value that increases the average value for the WoS platform. Finally, the least cited articles were those published in 2023. The reason for this may be that these data were analyzed in 2024.

When we looked at the article types, it is seen that almost all of the articles published in the DergiPark database (84.09%) are research articles. In addition, there is only 1 review article. Since studies on management and organizational behavior are generally conducted using quantitative research methods in Turkey, it is expected that most scientific publications are research articles. However, on the Web of Science platform, 96.77% of the articles are research articles. As with the DergiPark platform, there is only 1 review article on the WoS platform. It is also believed that the predominance of quantitative studies actually reveals the necessity of more in-depth qualitative studies on this subject.

Considering the variables associated with toxic leadership, the DergiPark platform generally addressed negative organizational behavior issues (burnout, turnover intention, etc.) rather than positive organizational behavior issues. It can be stated that positive organizational issues and negative organizational behavior issues are balanced on the WoS platform. However, in both databases, the proportion of studies that examined the toxic leadership variable alone was considerable.

When the variables used in the articles on the DergiPark and WoS platforms are compared, it is seen that the diversity is higher on the WoS platform. For example, while there is no study on the DergiPark platform in Turkey where toxic leadership and work motivation are associated, there is more than one study on the WoS platform where these two variables are associated. Although there is research on toxic leadership and project success on the WoS platform, there is no research on this topic on the DergiPark platform. The variables associated with toxic leadership on the DergiPark platform are generally organizational behavior issues that have been used in many studies in Turkey. In the WoS platform, unlike the DergiPark platform, current issues such as employee well-being, self-awareness, and emotional exhaustion are considered. On the other hand, while there is no research on the WoS platform linking toxic leadership and organizational commitment variables, there are 6 different studies on this subject on the DergiPark platform. Organizational commitment has a long history. Therefore, the WoS platform focuses on current issues rather than old organizational behavior issues.

Finally, when the sample groups are analyzed, the sample groups of toxic leadership articles in the DergiPark database generally consist of teachers and school principals. Similarly, the WoS platform contains many publications involving education workers. Studies involving health workers are also available on WoS.

This study was designed to reveal the current state of toxic leadership literature and identify its shortcomings. To examine the current literature from this perspective, articles published in the last decade were examined. As stated above, very few studies have examined publications on toxic leadership. Based on this deficiency, this study was conducted. In addition, no study has examined the differences between studies on toxic leadership published in the DergiPark and WoS database. For this reason, it was desirable to examine both databases at the same time for the last 10 years to determine whether there were any differences between the distribution of articles by year, the number of authors, the number of citations, and the variables considered. Therefore, it is important to have information about the articles published on the DergiPark platform on toxic leadership to see the current status of SSCI-indexed toxic leadership articles on the WoS platform and to understand the differences between the platforms. However, due to limitations such as covering the last 10 years and only including SSCI journals on the Web of Science platform, it is not claimed that a comprehensive literature review has not been presented.

Recommendations

It was observed that the number of studies published on the DergiPark platform regarding toxic leadership is less than the WoS platform. For this reason, it is suggested to conduct research on negative leadership types such as toxic leadership and the dark side of leadership on the DergiPark platform.

Considering the types of articles written on toxic leadership, the articles are generally research articles in DergiPark and the WoS platform. Writing different types of articles can contribute to the literature. It is believed that qualitative research conducted with samples such as managers and leaders, especially for a more in-depth examination of a subject related to negative organizational behavior such as toxic leadership, will contribute to the development of the field.

Examining the variables associated with toxic leadership, negative organizational behavior issues were generally studied on the DergiPark platform compared to the WoS platform. It may be recommended to conduct studies in which toxic leadership is associated with positive organizational behavior such as work motivation and employee well-being.

The sample groups of the articles generally comprise employees in the education and health sectors. For this reason, it is recommended to include different sample groups in future studies.

This study used articles published on the DergiPark platform and WoS platform (SSCI indexed) as data. Expanding the scope by year, the database and index may reveal more information about toxic leadership literature.

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