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## Emotional Labor of Flight Attendants: The Role of Occupational Interest, Happiness at Work and Job Crafting<sup>1</sup>

Melike Mehveş PAMUK<sup>2</sup> 

Akın MARŞAP<sup>3</sup> 

### Abstract

Emotional labor, which involves managing individual's emotions and expressions to meet the emotional demands of a job, is a key concept across numerous industries. This is particularly true in the airline industry, where flight attendants are required to maintain a calm and authentic demeanor even in stressful situations due to their constant interactions with passengers. This study focuses on the emotional labor experienced by flight attendants in the airline sector, examining the factors that influence it, including occupational interest, happiness at work, and job crafting. The goal is to statistically analyze the relationships among these variables. For this purpose, a quantitative research methodology was employed. A sample of 395 flight attendants was selected through convenience sampling. Data was collected via online surveys and analyzed using SPSS and AMOS software. Hypothesis testing through structural equation modeling revealed strong, positive relationships between occupational interest, happiness at work, job crafting, and emotional labor. Additionally, the findings indicate that job crafting plays a significant mediating role in the relationship between occupational interest, happiness at work, and emotional labor. The findings obtained within the framework of an original research model, along with the evaluations made based on these findings, are expected to contribute to the literature and the industry.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Airline, Cabin Crew, Passenger Transportation

### Kabin Memurlarının Duygusal Emeği: Mesleki İlgi, İşte Mutluluk ve İş Becerikliliğinin Rolü

#### Öz

Duygusal emek, yani bir bireyin işin duygusal gereksinimlerini karşılamak için duygularını ve ifadelerini yönetme süreci, birçok sektörde önemli bir kavramdır. Bu durum, özellikle yolcularla sürekli etkileşimde bulunan kabin memurlardan beklendiği için hava yolu sektöründe daha belirgindir. Kabin memurlarının, zorlu durumlarda bile sakin ve samimi bir tavır sergileme gerekliliği, duygusal emeğin kritik rolünü vurgulamaktadır. Bu çalışma, hava yolu sektöründeki kabin memurları tarafından deneyimlenen duygusal emeği ele almaktadır. Duygusal emeğin öncülleri olarak mesleki ilgi, işte mutluluk ve iş becerikliliği değişkenleri incelenmektedir. Çalışmanın amacı, bu değişkenler arasındaki ilişkileri istatistiksel olarak incelemektir. Bu hedeflere ulaşmak için nicel araştırma yöntemi kullanılmıştır. 395 kabin memurundan oluşan bir örneklem, kolayda örnekleme yöntemi ile seçilmiş ve veriler çevrimiçi anketler aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Veriler SPSS ve AMOS yazılımları kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Yapısal denklem yapılan hipotez testleri, mesleki ilgi, işte mutluluk, iş becerikliliği ve duygusal emek arasında önemli ve pozitif ilişkiler olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, iş becerikliliğinin mesleki ilgi, işyeri mutluluğu ve duygusal emek arasındaki ilişkide önemli bir aracılık rolüne sahip olduğu bulunmuştur. Özgün bir araştırma modeli çerçevesinde elde edilen bu bulgular ve bulgular çerçevesinde yapılan değerlendirmelerin literatüre ve sektöre dönük katkılar sunması beklenmektedir.

**Keywords:** Hava Yolu, Kabin Ekibi, Yolcu Taşımacılığı

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<sup>1</sup> This study was produced from the doctoral dissertation of the first author titled "Professional interest, happiness at work, job crafting and emotional labor: A research in civil aviation".

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## 1. Introduction

In the context of the airline sector, providing passengers with differentiated services is imperative for survival and gaining a competitive edge. While offering high flight safety, flight diversity, frequency, and a range of tariffs and pricing options is crucial, the interaction between passengers and employees during flights is particularly significant. Cabin crew services during flights are considered a vital element that plays an essential role in the reputation of airline companies (Lee et al., 2014, p.410-411). Similar to other business management contexts, in the airline sector, people-both employees and customers (passengers)-constitute one of the most valuable assets. Therefore, the points of contact between passengers and employees are of critical importance for airlines. These interactions are particularly concentrated during cabin services provided by cabin crew.

Cabin crew members are referred to as frontline service providers (Yuan, 2005). As part of the flight team, cabin crew members interact with passengers more frequently and for more extended periods compared to their counterparts in other departments. In this regard, cabin crew serve as a bridge between passengers and the airline, representing the organization and acting as its public face (Chang & Chiu, 2009, p.305). For this reason, the relationships between cabin crew members and passengers are of paramount importance for airline companies, both in delivering exemplary services to passengers and in achieving passenger satisfaction. Cabin crew members are not only responsible for implementing safety procedures but also for addressing passengers' needs with a warm smile and courteous demeanor. These services include baggage assistance, help with boarding and disembarkation, and overall responsiveness to various inquiries and requests. Beyond these tasks, however, their work entails a considerable degree of emotional labor.

Approximately forty years ago, Hochschild (1983) proposed that service sector had introduced a new form of labor (which is now named as emotional labor) and highlighted the necessity for employees to manage their emotions and expressions to contribute to the organization's profitability. Since this groundbreaking study, emotional labor has garnered significant attention from researchers and practitioners (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; cited by Yang & Chen, 2021, p.479). Emotional labor, defined as the process of managing someone's emotions and expressions to meet the emotional demands of a job, has become a focal point of interest across various sectors. In particular, the airline sector stands out as an environment where emotional labor plays a crucial role, as

cabin crew members are required to maintain a genuine and composed demeanor even in challenging situations.

Recent studies on the emotional labor of cabin crew members have made significant strides in understanding and improving working conditions in the sector. In this sense, it is essential to comprehend the emotional labor of cabin crew members and the factors influencing its formation. Among these factors are concepts such as occupational (vocational) interest, happiness at work, and job competence. Occupational interest refers to an individual's enthusiasm for a specific profession or field of work, while happiness at work represents the satisfaction and contentment an employee derives from their work environment. Job competence, on the other side, reflects employee's ability to perform a specific task effectively. Despite the existing literature on occupational interest, happiness at work, and job competence, there appears to be a gap in understanding how these factors collectively influence the emotional labor experiences of cabin crew members.

Although prior studies have analyzed these variables in various contexts, little is known about how they interact with one another. In a critically important field such as air transportation, empirically establishing the antecedents of emotional labor is a necessity. The theoretical model proposed in this research introduces a different perspective by being rooted in existing knowledge and theoretical foundations while also presenting a novel approach to the relationship patterns among the variables. Specifically, no previous study in the literature appears to have examined these variables together in the context of civil aviation. Therefore, the findings and evaluations obtained in this study are expected to gain significant insights.

This study aims to statistically determine the effects of occupational interest, happiness at work, and job competence on emotional labor. Furthermore, the study aims to explore whether job competence have a mediator in the relationship between occupational interest and happiness at work, particularly in relation to emotional labor. Specifically, it seeks to examine how employees' perceptions of their abilities and effectiveness in their roles may influence the connection between their intrinsic interest in their work and their happiness in the workplace, while also considering the impact of emotional labor in shaping this dynamic. This mediation could provide valuable insights into how job competence might enhance or attenuate the effects of occupational interest on happiness at work, especially in environments that demand significant emotional regulation.

## 2. Conceptual Framework

### 2.1. Occupational Interest

Professions significantly influence individuals' social standing, lifestyles, attitudes, thoughts, goals, values, psychological, and physiological well-being, essentially affecting all areas of life. Thus, choosing a career is one of the most major decisions in the life (İnan, 2006, p.1), as the chosen profession will shape an individual's daily routines, relationships, and overall lifestyle. Identifying individuals' interests in a particular profession is crucial for ensuring alignment with the requirements of the job and their physical and psychological well-being (Yeşilyaprak, 2016, p.53). According to Kuzgun (2009, p.42), when individuals engage in certain activities voluntarily without any external pressure or reward, and derive satisfaction from these activities, it is a clear indication that they are "interested" in such activities (Cited by Çalışkan & Harmancı, 2014, p.184-190). Yılmaz (2011, p.11) defines vocational interest as "the degree of liking and inclination an individual demonstrates toward a particular profession, professional field, or activities associated with a profession." Similarly, Çetinkaya Uslusoy and Öngör (2021, p.2) describe vocational interest as a positive attitude, tendency, or selectivity toward the service area or qualities of a specific profession. It can be considered as an acceptable state of mind that directs an individual toward a set of activities and eventually toward a profession (Bennett, 2012, p.3-4).

Occupational interest is strongly associated with sustained attention, curiosity, and a consistent willingness to engage in an area of interest, even when it is complex or confusing (Turner & Silvia, 2006; Silvia, 2008). Thus, interests act as an internal motivator that influences the direction, intensity, and perseverance of human actions, while also shaping the acquisition of knowledge and effectiveness in completing tasks (Su and Nye, 2017). Occupational interest, resulting in satisfaction derived from a professional activity, leads to a repeated orientation toward that activity, sustained engagement, and willingness to meet its requirements (Kadı & Selçuk, 2012, p.27). It is noted that individuals who demonstrate vocational interest are more likely to develop in their work environment, whereas a mismatch between the individual and the profession may lead to dissatisfaction, reluctance, instability, and inefficiency (Holland, 1996, p.397 cited by Çetin et al., 2015, p.27).

## **2.2. Happiness at Work**

The concept of happiness generally represents a phenomenon that almost all individuals strive to achieve in various domains of life. From this perspective, happiness is not only a personal sense of inner peace but also a significant factor contributing to success in work and life. However, from an organizational standpoint, happiness at work has not traditionally been a widely used term in academic research on employee experiences (Fisher, 2010; cited by Stankevičiūtė et al., 2021, p.6). Nevertheless, as studies begin to explore the structure of happiness at work, it has recently been positioned as a higher-level construct (Fisher, 2010; Moccia, 2016; Salas-Vallina et al., 2017; Díaz Pincheira & Carrasco Garcés, 2018; Salas-Vallina & Alegre, 2018; Stankevičiūtė et al., 2021). In recent times, the notion of happiness at work has gained growing significance, particularly in management and human resource management studies within the business field. Although various constructs focus on positive attitudes, there remains a notable gap in the literature for a holistic measure of individual happiness (Salas-Vallina & Alegre, 2018, p.1). Fisher (2010, p.385) defines happiness at work as positive feeling towards the job, its characteristics, and the organization holistically. Organizationally, happiness can result from the workplace environment, practices, or policies. In other words, the conditions and resources offered by a workplace can significantly influence an employee's happiness or unhappiness. Moreover, happiness and job satisfaction are distinct psychological states, satisfaction can be considered the goal, while happiness may be the means to achieve it (Rao et al., 2017, p.28).

One fundamental reason for researching employee happiness is the thesis that “a happy employee is a productive employee” (Wright, 2006; Kiran & Khurram, 2018, p.1011). Organizationally, employee happiness leads to higher productivity, profitability, performance, commitment, and teamwork, while on the employee's side, it aids in focus at work (Gupta, 2012). Employee happiness is positively related to favorable organizational and employee outcomes and significantly associated with organizational performance, commitment, and survival (Grant et al., 2007). Since happy employees are generally more engaged with the work and profession, employee happiness or well-being is considered one of the most critical aspects of any organization (Othman et al., 2018, p.863). Therefore, happiness at work is vital not only for employees' individual well-being but also for organizational success. Specifically, in the case of cabin crew working under challenging conditions, happiness at work could be seen as a variable that enables

employees to exhibit job crafting and emotional labor with intrinsic motivation in the context of demanding conditions, situational factors, and passenger interactions.

### ***2.3. Job Crafting***

In the literature, “job crafting,” originates from the term “craft,” which denotes skill, mastery, or artistry. Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), who bring this concept into the literature, defined job crafting as “an alternative job design technique,” explaining it as “a process where employees consciously and voluntarily modify and expand the physical-cognitive borders of the work and tasks to enhance their job proficiency and motivation” (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p.179; cited by Güner, 2021, p.11).

Job crafting refers to the process where employees take the initiative to redesign their work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2013) describe it as “an informal approach used by employees to adjust their work activities to better align with their personal preferences and values.” Through job crafting, employees have the opportunity to modify various aspects of their tasks to better suit their desires, skills, and interests (Berg et al., 2008). Those who engage in job crafting behaviors may seek out new and varied tasks to break free from the routine of their work, ultimately improving the match between job features and their individual needs, and capabilities (Berg et al., 2008; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). This proactive approach allows employees to create a work environment that is more engaging and aligned with their interests, which can lead to increased job satisfaction and enhanced well-being. By taking initiative in modifying their tasks, employees also gain a sense of control and autonomy. Such changes can foster a greater sense of purpose and motivation, contributing to overall job performance and career growth.

Job crafting includes reshaping the physical or cognitive limits of work tasks, relational limits within the workplace, or both. Altering task limits involves modifying the type or number of actions in which the individual engages, whereas changing cognitive task boundaries entails perceiving the work as a unified whole rather than a collection of distinct tasks. By modifying any of these elements, employees can redesign their jobs (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p.179-180). Through job crafting, employees can adapt their work to create a personalized role, fulfilling tasks in their unique manner and gaining a sense of control on the job they are doing (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p.187).

The requirement for personal control is one of the fundamental human drives (Adler, 1930, p.398). Therefore, having control over certain aspects of one's work can be considered a basic human requirement (Braverman, 1974; Rogers, 1995). Employees with job crafting tendencies can create new opportunities to master their roles and modify various aspects of their tasks, even in low-autonomy positions, by taking control of or reframing work-related factors (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p.182). Individuals effective at shaping their work environments are more likely to lead fulfilling lives when they feel they have greater control over their surroundings (Petrou et al., 2012, p.1135). From this perspective, the concept of job crafting may be regarded as a tool that enables individuals with high professional interest and satisfaction in their roles, who derive happiness from their work environments, to navigate challenging, demanding work settings. In this respect, professional interest and happiness at work are critical factors.

#### **2.4. Emotional Labor**

Emotional labor, introduced by Hochschild (1983, p.328), is defined as “the management of emotions to create an observable facial and bodily display within a work environment.” Hochschild (1983) highlighted how flight attendants manage “fake” smiles and exhibit specific emotions and behaviors as part of their emotional labor. According to Hochschild, service representatives engage in emotional labor when expressing socially desired emotions as part of their job roles. In this context, emotional labor refers to the behaviors required in environments where employees are expected to demonstrate empathy, sympathy, or other emotions (Humphrey et al., 2008, p.152).

Emotional labor refers to the process of expressing emotions that are deemed appropriate in a given situation, even if these emotions do not match one's true feelings. It involves following display rules, which may require suppressing genuine emotions or expressing emotions that are not genuinely felt (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993, p.90). Morris and Feldman (1996) describe emotional labor as the effort, planning, and control required to show the emotions desired by an organization during interpersonal exchanges. Similarly, emotional labor has been characterized as the regulation of emotions and behaviors within a service environment to meet organizational expectations, rules, and objectives (Kaya & Serçeoğlu, 2013, p.315). This requires adherence to display rules, which can involve either faking emotions that are not genuinely experienced or suppressing emotions that are deemed inappropriate (Kart, 2011, p.221). Emotional labor includes managing emotional expressions through facial gestures and body language

(Hochschild, 1983, p.7). Since employees might not always feel the emotions they are expected to show (for instance, feeling irritated while needing to appear friendly), they use emotional labor strategies to regulate the emotions and expressions in accordance with these display standards (Hochschild, 1983; Grandey, 2003; cited by Gabriel et al., 2015, p.864).

Emotional labor can be carried out in two distinct ways: surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting includes employees putting on a facade by pretending to feel the expected emotion, even though it does not reflect their true emotional state. This method requires employees to outwardly express the emotion through behaviors like facial expressions, tone of talking, and body language, without actually experiencing those feelings. For instance, an employee may force a smile or speak in a friendly tone, even when they are feeling frustrated or upset. On the other hand, deep acting involves a more internal approach. In this strategy, employees make an effort to align their genuine feelings with the emotion they are expected to display (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

Emotional labor takes a key role in numerous service-based professions where employees interact directly with customers (Gabriel et al., 2015, p.863). Research on professions that require emotional labor has identified three prominent characteristics of these occupational groups. The first is that employees engaged in emotional labor communicate with customers face-to-face and/or verbally. The second is that workers in these professions are required to influence the emotions of the other party. The third common characteristic is that employers have control over employees' emotional activities (Wharton, 1993; Polatçı & Özyer, 2015, p.134). It is particularly prevalent among employees in high-contact service sectors, such as flight attendants, waitstaff, call center agents, and sales and marketing professionals (Karaman, 2017, p.36). Given that Hochschild's (1983) theory is based on flight attendants, airlines can be regarded as a prime example of such professions.

On the other side, the antecedents of emotional labor include factors such as workplace roles and expectations, working conditions, and workplace culture. Employees' goals related to their workplace roles can influence their emotional labor (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Similarly, workplace recognition and rewards positively impact emotional labor (Hochschild, 1983). Additionally, factors like employees' degree of workplace engagement (Grandey, 2003), perceived organizational justice, and organizational support influence emotional labor (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Person-



job fit, employees' interest and willingness toward their work, satisfaction, or happiness significantly determine whether they find their jobs stressful or fulfilling, which, in turn, impacts their emotional labor (Kristof-Brown and Guay, 2011). Flight attendants are required to perform this type of labor under challenging working conditions in demanding environments at high altitudes. Such a work setting necessitates that flight attendants demonstrate job crafting skills to navigate these conditions effectively.

### **3. Method**

#### ***3.1. Theoretical Rationale, Model, and Hypotheses of the Study***

An individual's commitment and involvement in their occupation and duties serve as a significant indicator of their overall health and well-being (Mäkikangas, 2018), and are linked to various organizational outcomes (Bakker and Albrecht, 2018). Employees who exhibit higher levels of engagement are more likely to stay within their organization, thus reducing the costs associated with recruitment and retention, particularly in competitive labor markets (Amabile and Kramer, 2011; Crawford et al., 2010). Furthermore, this concept is closely related to the idea of job crafting, as job crafting inherently involves self-directed alterations within the scope of one's job responsibilities, aimed at improving the alignment between the individual and their work (Wrzesniewski and Dutton, 2001; Tims et al., 2012).

Occupational interest is recognized as a personal trait that employees can use to guide their efforts in job crafting (Wrzesniewski et al., 2002; Berg et al., 2013; Kooij, 2017). In this light, individuals can enhance their job engagement by aligning their profession and tasks with their preferences, interests, motivations, and passions (Bakker et al., 2016; Kuijpers et al., 2020). Therefore, the connection between occupational interest and job crafting becomes a key area of interest.

A well-established framework for understanding job crafting is the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model, developed by Demerouti et al. (2001) and further refined by Bakker and Demerouti (2014). This model offers a comprehensive way to categorize and assess the various characteristics of a job, dividing them into two essential components: job demands and job resources. Job demands encompass the aspects of a job that require significant physical or mental effort from employees. These demands can be either short-term or ongoing, and they are generally associated with negative outcomes like stress, fatigue, and burnout if not managed effectively (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Examples

of job demands include high workloads, time pressure, emotional demands, and cognitive tasks that require sustained concentration. If these demands are not balanced with resources, employees may experience strain and diminished well-being, which can negatively impact their performance and engagement. On the other hand, job resources refer to the aspects of the work environment that help employees meet their goals, grow professionally, and handle job demands more effectively. By balancing these two elements, organizations can optimize employee well-being, job satisfaction, and productivity (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Building on the JD-R model, Tims and Bakker (2010) introduced the concept of job crafting as the changes that employees make at the level of job demands and/or job resources (Plomp et al., 2016). Within this framework, individuals are driven to maintain their existing resources while actively seeking new ones. Job crafting, according to this approach, revolves around the idea of resource investment, where employees purposefully engage in actions that safeguard their resources, and acquire additional resources. Essentially, this means that employees utilize their existing resources to prevent depletion, enhance their capacity to cope with job demands, and further enrich their personal and professional well-being by acquiring new resources. This process helps individuals to more effectively match their work with their skills and requirements, leading to increased job satisfaction, enhanced motivation, and improved overall performance. Following this conceptualization, it is anticipated that different forms of employee well-being, such as occupational interest and happiness at work, will predict job crafting behaviors (Hakanen et al., 2018). Nonetheless, there is a notable gap in the literature concerning studies that explore the relationship between these two variables. Hence, this study seeks to investigate this relationship, leading to the formulation of the these hypotheses:

**H<sub>1</sub>.** There is a significant relationship between occupational interest and job crafting.

**H<sub>2</sub>.** There is a significant relationship between happiness at work and job crafting.

The way employees feel at work can influence their behavior and, over time, affect various outcomes. Understanding the potential consequences of different forms of employee well-being is considered crucial for both theoretical and practical purposes (Hakanen et al., 2018). Employees' goals related to their tasks can affect their emotional labor (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995). Similarly, the appreciation and rewards employees receive at work can positively influence their emotional labor (Hochschild, 1983).

Additionally, factors such as employees' level of participation at work (Grandey, 2003), perception of organizational justice, and sense of organizational support also influence employees' emotional labor (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995). These factors influence employees' emotional labor. While researchers acknowledge that employees sometimes face stressful encounters, emotional labor performance has also been found to be intrinsically linked to the most rewarding and enjoyable aspects of the job. For these employees, emotional labor is seen as an enjoyable, exciting, and rewarding part of their work. Consequently, many individuals seek jobs with high emotional labor demands, with some being willing to undergo long and expensive training programs to secure these positions.

Although Hochschild (1983) based the theory on flight attendants, most of the people view the role of flight attendants as a dream job. Even today, as in the late 1970's and early 1980's when Hochschild conducted her research, flight attendants are associated with a glamorous image. As in the past, airlines today enjoy a reputation as desirable workplaces. For all types of work, person-job fit, an one's interest in and willingness toward the job or profession, satisfaction, and happiness are major determinants of whether they perceive their work as stressful or satisfying and profitable for personal well being (Kristof-Brown and Guay, 2011). In roles that involve emotional labor, both positive and negative emotions can play a crucial role and serve as important factors influencing emotional labor (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Humphrey et al., 2015). For instance,' Grandey's (2000) study revealed that employees' emotional attachment to their work increased their levels of emotional labor. This study suggests that occupational interest enhances individuals' tendencies to display emotional labor. Similarly, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) found that employees with higher occupational interest in their work were more willing to display emotional labor and therefore exerted higher levels of emotional labor.

These findings form the basis for considering a meaningful relationship between occupational interest and emotional labor. From this perspective, the following hypotheses have been developed regarding the relationships between occupational interest, happiness at work, and emotional labor:

**H3.** There is a significant relationship between occupational interest and emotional labor.

**H4.** There is a significant relationship between happiness at work and emotional labor.

Current definitions of job crafting, which mainly view it as a process where employees modify job demands and job resources to improve psychological well being (e.g., Tims et al., 2012), can also be understood as a strategy through which employees adjust their jobs to better align with their personal resources, thus enhancing job fit (Wrzesniewski et al., 2013; Kooij, 2017). For example, Van Katwyk et al. (2000) demonstrated that employees with high job crafting abilities better manage stressful situations requiring emotional labor and display more positive emotional responses. Brotheridge and Lee (2003) also found that employees with high job crafting skills effectively managed emotional labor and had better emotional experiences at work. Similarly, empirical evidence by Hülshager et al. (2013) revealed that employees with high levels of job crafting effectively manage emotional labor. However, there remains a limited body of research on this relationship. To address this gap, these hypothesis is put forward:

**H<sub>5</sub>.** There is a significant relationship between job crafting and emotional labor.

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) identified three key motivational factors that drive employees to engage in job crafting. First, employees may alter their jobs to sustain their interest and motivation in their tasks. Second, since work is a major component of many individuals' self-concept, employees are driven to reshape their work to safeguard and improve their self-image and overall satisfaction. Lastly, modifying certain aspects of work can enhance social interactions within the workplace (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

The level of satisfaction employees derive from their profession and job may be related to job crafting because changes in an employee's satisfaction level could prompt them to engage in job crafting to elevate their satisfaction to at least a threshold level. Another scenario involves using job crafting to ensure that happiness levels remain high or above the threshold while maintaining the tasks, attitudes, and behaviors required by the job (Bowling, 2012). The second scenario represents a particularly valuable application of job crafting (Kirkendall, 2013).

Employees prioritize or undertake extra responsibilities that fulfill their needs for enhancing their work while performing prescribed duties, thus becoming motivated (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Intrinsically motivated individuals are thought to exert more effort and energy into their work, including tasks with likely positive performance outcomes (Tims et al., 2012; Bakker et al., 2016). Employees who develop their motivation, skills, and competencies (increased structural job resources) and voluntarily

undertake extra tasks (e.g., emotional labor) are likely to demonstrate higher task performance than others (Weseler & Niessen, 2016). Different forms of employee well-being are recognized for their ability to predict both job crafting behaviors and other organizational behaviors (Hakanen et al., 2018). However, there is no study in the literature linking occupational interest, happiness at work, and emotional labor, while examining the mediating role of job crafting. Based on the assumption that factors such as occupational interest and happiness influence employees' demonstration of extra roles or efforts such as emotional labor through job crafting, these hypotheses are put forward to investigate the mediating role of job crafting variable:

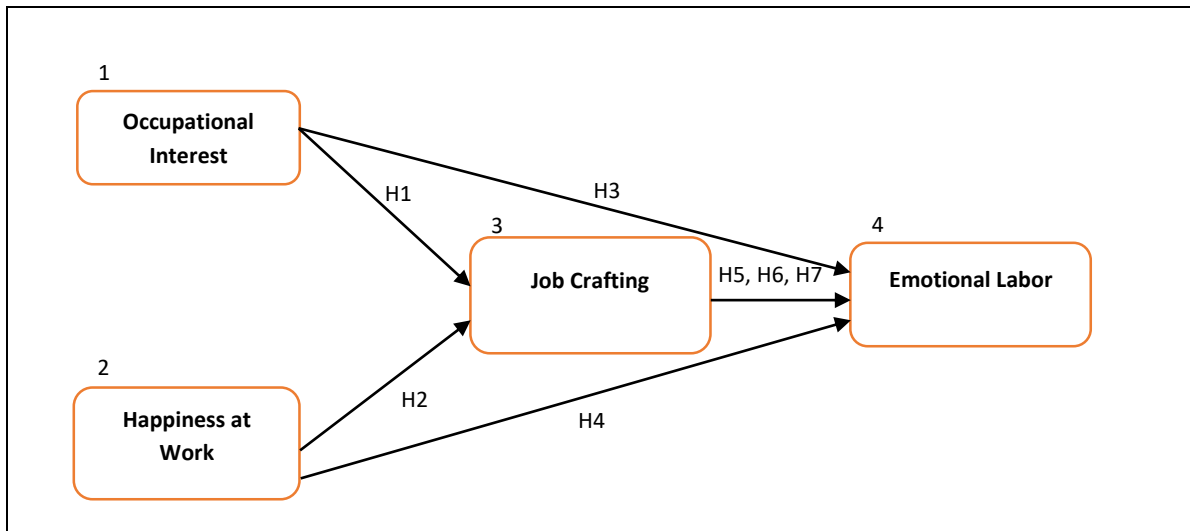
**H<sub>6</sub>.** Job crafting mediates the relationship between occupational interest and emotional labor.

**H<sub>7</sub>.** Job crafting mediates the relationship between happiness at work and emotional labor.

This study adopts a correlational research approach, which aims to identify the presence of mediation role between two or more variables (Karasar, 2011), and represents the relationships and hypotheses among the variables examined in the research model.

**Figure 1.**

*Research Model, Variables and Hypotheses*



As seen in Figure 1, occupational interest and happiness at work are the independent variables of the study, while emotional labor is the dependent variable. Job crafting serves as a dependent variable for occupational interest and happiness at work, while acting as an independent variable in relation to emotional labor.

### ***3.2. Universe and Sample***

The population of the study consists of all actively employed cabin crew members in the civil aviation sector. However, since it is not feasible to reach all cabin crew members, and the exact number of individuals constituting the population is unknown, a sampling method was employed. Among the sampling methods, the non-probability convenience sampling method was selected due to its suitability for the study's purpose and accessibility to the target audience. Accordingly, it was planned to collect data from a minimum of 384 participants, a sample size deemed sufficient to represent large and unknown populations in the social sciences with 0.95 reliability and a 5% margin of error (Sekaran, 2003). The survey forms were collected from voluntary participants upon obtaining informed consent. Following the acquisition of necessary scale permissions and ethics committee approval, an online survey was conducted between November 1, 2022, and March 15, 2023. A total of 395 completed survey forms were accessed, forming the dataset for the study.

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

The data collection method of the study is questionnaire, which falls within the scope of quantitative research. The questionnaire includes sections on participants' demographic and professional characteristics, along with four scales designed to measure the research variables. All scales were treated as unidimensional. The Occupational Interest Scale, developed by Kaysi (2021), has a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .95. The original scale comprises 19 items. However, some items were excluded from this study as they were deemed likely to cause multicollinearity issues due to their similarity with the items in the Job Crafting and Happiness at Work scales. Additionally, certain items considered inappropriate for the cabin crew sample (e.g., "I use software related to my profession") were excluded. Consequently, the scale used in this study consisted of 14 items. The Happiness at Work Scale, developed by Polatçı and Ünüvar (2021), has a reliability coefficient of .92 and consists of 8 items. The Job Crafting Scale was originally developed by Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2013) and adapted into Turkish by Kerse (2017), who conducted its validity and reliability analysis. The scale has a reliability coefficient of .91, indicating a high level of reliability. In the study, no distinction was made between dimensions, and 12 items under the Task Crafting and Cognitive Crafting dimensions were used. The Emotional Labor Scale, developed by Pala and Sürgevil (2016), includes three dimensions: Surface Acting, Deep Acting, and Suppression of Emotions. Two items under

the Deep Acting dimension were excluded due to their low reliability compared to other dimensions and the absence of dimensional focus in this study. In total, the study encompassed 44 items across all scales. Details of the scales are given in Table 1.

**Table 1.**

*Scales of the Study*

Scale	Item	$\alpha$	Source
Occupational Interest	14	0.95	Kaysi (2021)
Happiness at Work	8	0.92	Polatçı & Ünüvar (2021)
Job Crafting	12	0.91	Slemp & Vella-Brodrick (2013); Kerse (2017)
Emotional Labor	10	0.77-0.68	Pala & Sürgevil (2016)
<b>Total</b>	<b>44</b>		

The study was deemed ethically appropriate by the Ethics Committee of Istanbul Aydın University with the decision dated June 23, 2022, and numbered 2022/11.

### **3.4. Analysis of Data**

The data were processed using SPSS and AMOS softwares. To assess the reliability and normality of the scales, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were examined for each scale. Skewness-Kurtosis coefficients were examined to evaluate the normal distribution to decide whether to apply parametric or non-parametric analysis methods before conducting further analyses. Correlation analyses were carried out to assess the direction and strength of the relationships between the variables examined in the study. Following this, path analyses were conducted using structural equation modeling within the AMOS software, which allowed for an investigation into the relationships and explanatory power among the variables, thus testing the research hypotheses.

## **4. Findings**

Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the research scales used to measure the variables of occupational interest, happiness at work, job crafting, and emotional labor were calculated. To determine the assumption of normal distribution, skewness and kurtosis values were examined. The results obtained are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2.**

*Reliability, Normal Distribution and Descriptive Values of Scales*

Scale	Item	Mean	S.D.	$\alpha$	Skewness	Kurtosis
Occupational Interest	14	4.125	0.608	0.950	-0.252	0.232
Happiness at Work	8	3.585	0.798	0.907	-0.441	-0.077
Job Crafting	12	4.073	0.688	0.973	-0.628	0.857
Emotional Labor	10	3.956	0.745	0.940	-0.793	1.059

According to Table 2, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for occupational interest, happiness at work, job crafting, and emotional labor are 0.950, 0.907, 0.973, and 0.940,



In this context, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) values were also calculated to test the suitability of the scale structures for factor analysis. The KMO coefficients were found to be 0.90 or higher, while the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant at  $p = 0.000$ , with a chi-square value of 15642.899. These results suggest that the data are sufficient for measurement within the sample (Sarmiento & Costa, 2017).

**Figure 2.**  
*Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Research Model*



As shown in Figure 2, the CFA results for the integrated theoretical model suggests that all the coefficients exhibit statistical significance, meaning that each relationship within the model is robust and reliably contributes to explaining the observed outcomes. Observed variables are appropriately loaded onto their latent variables based on the factor loadings. This indicates a strong and meaningful connection between the variables, supporting the validity of the proposed framework. Detailed CFA results are presented in Table 3.

**Table 3.**  
*CFA Results and Goodness of Fit of the Research Model*

Latent Variable	Observed Variable	$\beta$	Std. Error	t	p
<b>Occupational Interest</b>	OCCINT14	0.736	-	-	-
	OCCINT13	0.714	0.067	14.37	***
	OCCINT12	0.792	0.052	16.07	***
	OCCINT11	0.794	0.054	16.12	***
	OCCINT10	0.775	0.056	15.69	***
	OCCINT9	0.768	0.062	15.54	***
	OCCINT8	0.821	0.064	16.72	***
	OCCINT7	0.732	0.068	14.75	***
	OCCINT6	0.766	0.057	15.50	***
	OCCINT5	0.819	0.062	16.68	***
	OCCINT4	0.739	0.065	14.90	***
	OCCINT3	0.683	0.066	13.69	***
<b>Happiness at work</b>	OCCINT2	0.777	0.064	15.74	***
	OCCINT1	0.740	0.061	14.93	***
	WORKHAP8	0.804	-	-	-
	WORKHAP7	0.875	0.054	19.61	***
	WORKHAP6	0.782	0.056	16.96	***
	WORKHAP5	0.736	0.055	15.66	***
	WORKHAP4	0.653	0.064	13.56	***
	WORKHAP3	0.669	0.057	13.98	***
<b>Job Crafting</b>	WORKHAP2	0.685	0.065	14.36	***
	WORKHAP1	0.647	0.065	13.39	***
	JOBCRA12	0.837	-	-	-
	JOBCRA11	0.891	0.048	23.59	***
	JOBCRA10	0.779	0.055	18.88	***
	JOBCRA9	0.907	0.045	24.39	***
	JOBCRA8	0.814	0.050	20.23	***
	JOBCRA7	0.906	0.042	24.35	***
	JOBCRA6	0.921	0.043	25.11	***
	JOBCRA5	0.927	0.044	25.41	***
<b>Emotional Labor</b>	JOBCRA4	0.912	0.044	24.65	***
	JOBCRA3	0.878	0.046	22.98	***
	JOBCRA2	0.797	0.057	19.57	***
	JOBCRA1	0.791	0.054	19.32	***
	EMOLAB1	0.819	-	-	-
	EMOLAB2	0.753	0.061	17.10	***
	EMOLAB3	0.829	0.053	19.67	***
	EMOLAB4	0.831	0.054	19.73	***
	EMOLAB5	0.744	0.062	16.84	***
	EMOLAB6	0.788	0.062	18.25	***
	EMOLAB7	0.767	0.063	17.56	***
	EMOLAB8	0.749	0.061	17.00	***
	EMOLAB9	0.778	0.054	17.92	***
	EMOLAB10	0.776	0.054	17.86	***

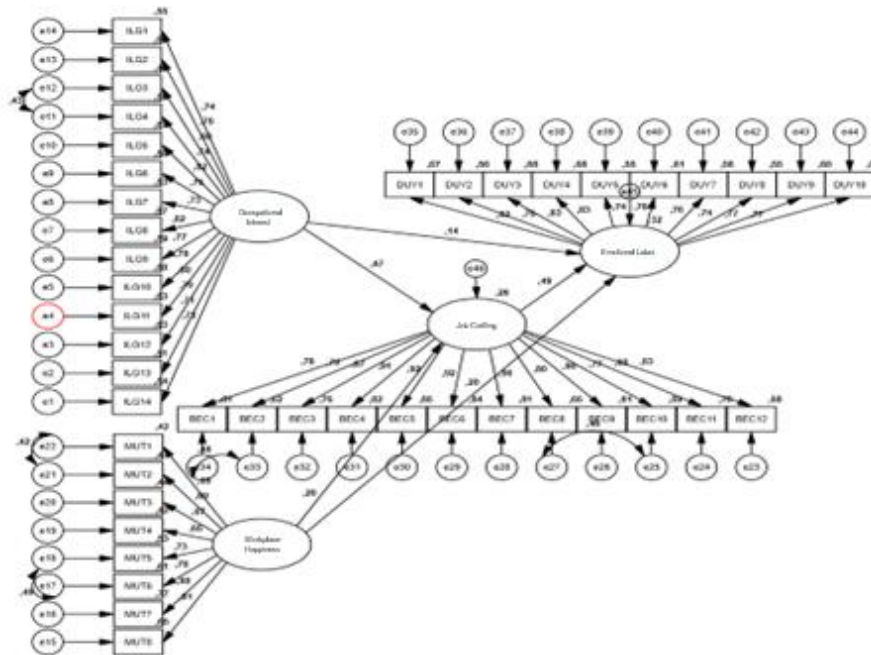
Goodness of Fit	Cut-off Points	Achieved Value	Results
CMIN/ DF	$0 \leq \chi^2 / \leq 5$ DF	2.364	Good fit.
GFI	$0.80 \leq GFI \leq 1$	0.805	Good fit.
AGFI	$0.80 \leq AGFI \leq 1$	0.783	Acceptable.
NFI	$0.90 \leq IFI \leq 1$	0.871	Acceptable.
RFI	$0.90 \leq RFI \leq 1$	0.863	Acceptable.
IFI	$0.90 \leq IFI \leq 1$	0.921	Good fit.
TLI	$0.90 \leq TLI \leq 1$	0.916	Good fit.
CFI	$0.90 \leq CFI \leq 1$	0.921	Good fit.
RMSEA	$0 < RMSEA \leq .08$	0.059	Good fit.

\* **Reference sources for goodness of fit cut-off points:** Bentler, 1980; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Schermelleh-Engel & Moosbrugger, 2003; Marsh et al., 2006; Byrne, 2012; İlhan & Çetin, 2014; Kline, 2015

The findings reveal that all observed variables are significantly ( $p < 0.001$ ) associated with their latent variables. The z-values obtained are both high and significant. The highest beta coefficients are 0.736 for occupational interest, 0.804 for happiness at work, 0.837 for job crafting, and 0.819 for emotional labor. Regarding goodness-of-fit indices, the obtained coefficients meet the recommended thresholds. However, the AGFI, NFI, and RFI values are slightly below the cutoffs but remain close enough to be considered within acceptable tolerance ranges (Schreiber et al., 2006; Hair et al., 2014; İlhan & Çetin, 2014; Kline, 2015). Overall, these results suggest that the model and data exhibit a satisfactory level of goodness of fit. Based on the final CFA results, the structural model of the research is shown in Figure 3.

**Figure 3.**

*Structural Model of the Research*



The values and goodness-of-fit indices for the structural model, which tests the research hypotheses, are presented in Table 4.

**Table 4.**  
*Coefficients of the Structural Model*

Pattern	Std. Regression Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p
Occupational Interest– Job Crafting	.470	.052	8.907	**
Happiness at Work – Job Crafting	.202	.036	4.229	**
Job Crafting– Emotional Labor	.491	.064	8.569	**
Occupational Interest– Emotional Labor	.138	.057	2.649	.008*
Happiness at Work– Emotional Labor	.204	.034	4.603	.026*
Goodness of Fit	Cut-off Points	Achieved Value	Results	
<b>CMIN/DF*</b>	$0 \leq \chi^2 / \leq 5 \text{ DF}$	2.455	Good fit.	
<b>GFI*</b>	$0.80 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1$	0.800	Good fit.	
<b>AGFI*</b>	$0.80 \leq \text{AGFI} \leq 1$	0.776	Acceptable.	
<b>NFI*</b>	$0.90 \leq \text{IFI} \leq 1$	0.866	Acceptable.	
<b>RFI*</b>	$0.90 \leq \text{RFI} \leq 1$	0.857	Acceptable.	
<b>IFI*</b>	$0.90 \leq \text{IFI} \leq 1$	0.916	Good fit.	
<b>TLI*</b>	$0.90 \leq \text{TLI} \leq 1$	0.910	Good fit.	
<b>CFI*</b>	$0.90 \leq \text{CFI} \leq 1$	0.915	Good fit.	
<b>RMSEA*</b>	$0 < \text{RMSEA} \leq .08$	0.061	Good fit.	

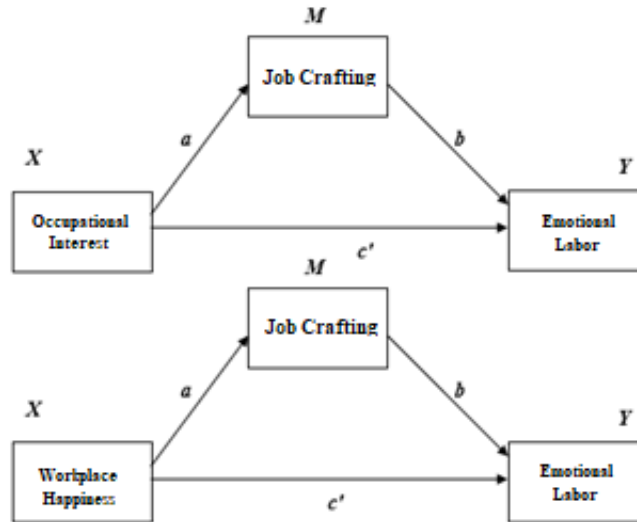
The findings indicate that the relationships within the structural model are statistically significant, and the model demonstrates an acceptable level of fit. Occupational interest has a positive and strong effect on job crafting ( $\beta=0.470$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). Similarly, happiness at work has a positive and significant effect on job crafting ( $\beta=0.202$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). Job crafting significantly affects emotional labor ( $\beta=0.491$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). Moreover, occupational interest has a significant but weaker effect on emotional labor ( $\beta=0.138$ ,  $p=0.008$ ). Finally, happiness at work also has a significant effect on emotional labor ( $\beta=0.204$ ,  $p=0.026$ ). Collectively, these results demonstrate that occupational interest and happiness at work influence job crafting and emotional labor and that these variables are interrelated. As a result of the analyses, the hypotheses **H<sub>1</sub>**, **H<sub>2</sub>**, **H<sub>3</sub>**, **H<sub>4</sub>**, and **H<sub>5</sub>** were found to be supported, indicating that the proposed relationships between the variables were statistically significant. This suggests that the evidence collected from the data aligns with the theoretical assumptions outlined in these hypotheses, thereby validating the expected patterns and associations. The support for these hypotheses strengthens the overall framework of the study, providing a more comprehensive understanding of how the variables interact and influence each other within the context of the research.

On the other side, the research hypotheses **H<sub>6</sub>** and **H<sub>7</sub>** pertain to the mediating role of job crafting in the relationships between the variables of occupational interest, happiness at work, and emotional labor. Based on the proposed structure, mediation models were established to first examine the mediating role of job crafting in the relationship between occupational interest and emotional labor, followed by the mediating effect of job crafting

in the relationship between happiness at work and emotional labor. A representative model based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) causal steps approach is shown in Figure 4.

**Figure 4.**

*Model Established Regarding the Mediator Role*



In line with the causal steps approach, the mediation effect was verified using bootstrapping techniques. The bootstrapping test was conducted in the AMOS program with 5.000 resamples and a 95% confidence interval. The results of the direct and indirect effects are presented in Table 5.

**Table 5.**

*Testing the Mediating Effect Using the Bootstrapping Method*

	Job Crafting			Emotional Labor		
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Std. Error	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Std. Error
Occupational Interest (path c)				.451	.343	.061
Occupational Interest (path a)	.548	.290	.055			
Job Crafting (path b)				.548		.057
Occupational Interest (path c')				.151		.060
Indirect Effect			.300 (.048 - .371)	p=.000		
Happiness at Work (path c)				.029	.330	.043
Happiness at Work (path a)	.398	.159	.041			
Happiness at Work (path b)				.614		.060
Happiness at Work (path c')				.218		.041
Indirect Effect			.218 (.040 - .303)	p=.000		

For the mediation role of job crafting in the relationship between occupational interest and emotional labor, the indirect effect was calculated as  $\beta=0.300$ ,  $p=0.000$ . For the mediation effect of job crafting in the relationship between Happiness at work and emotional labor, the indirect effect was calculated as  $\beta=0.218$ ,  $p=0.000$ . Both indirect effects were found to be significant. Thus, these results indicate that the job crafting

variable has a mediating effect in both models. Accordingly, the research hypotheses H6 and H7, which address the mediation effect, are supported.

## **5. Discussion and Conclusion**

This study investigated the complex interaction between emotional labor experienced by cabin crew in the airline industry and key variables such as occupational interest, happiness at work, and job crafting within a statistical context.

The findings from testing the research hypotheses revealed a substantial and positive correlation between occupational interest and job crafting, highlighting the influence of an individual's passion for their work on their ability to reshape and adjust their job roles. Additionally, the results demonstrated a significant and positive association between occupational interest and emotional labor, suggesting that employees with a strong connection to their work are more likely to engage in emotional regulation to meet job requirements. These relationships underscore the importance of aligning personal interests with work-related tasks, as it not only affects job crafting behaviors but also influences the emotional dynamics at play in professional settings. This findings suggests that as occupational interest increases, both job crafting and emotional labor also increase, moving in a linear direction and enable the inference that individuals genuinely interested in their profession may be more willing to engage in emotional labor to fulfill job requirements. The results indicate that individuals with higher levels of occupational interest are likely to experience greater alignment between job crafting and emotional labor, contributing to their overall job satisfaction and well-being.

A significant and positive relationship was also identified between happiness at work and job crafting. This suggests that an increase in happiness at work is associated with a rise in job crafting. Thus, happier employees may achieve more favorable organizational outcomes, such as higher levels of job crafting. Similarly, a positive and significant relationship exists between happiness at work and emotional labor, suggesting that as happiness at work increases, emotional labor tends to rise. These results underscore the importance of employee happiness in influencing job crafting and emotional labor levels. Providing a positive and supportive work environment, fostering work-life balance, rewarding employees, and offering skill development opportunities could enhance happiness at work and, consequently, contribute to increased job crafting and emotional

labor. Organizations prioritizing employee happiness and well-being are likely to benefit from higher levels of job crafting and emotional labor.

A positive and significant relationship was identified between job crafting and emotional labor, suggesting that the application of job crafting can enhance emotional labor in the workplace. This finding supports the results of a limited number of studies in the literature (Kim & Lee, 2017; Yang et al., 2022) that examined the relationship between job crafting and emotional labor and identified linear relationships. This positive relationship implies that employees who engage in greater levels of job crafting may experience higher levels of emotional labor. Considering that job crafting involves the ability to adapt tasks effectively, solve problems, and innovate within the work context, its positive relationship with emotional labor indicates that employees with a higher capacity for job crafting may also display higher emotional labor proficiency.

Analyses regarding the mediating role of job crafting in the relationships between occupational interest, happiness at work, and emotional labor revealed that job crafting serves as a significant mediator in both models. This indicates that the effects of occupational interest and happiness at work on emotional labor can occur through job crafting. Given that occupational interest refers to the tendency to gravitate toward a profession or activity due to the satisfaction or fulfillment derived from it and the contentment experienced while fulfilling professional requirements (Çalışkan & Harmanç, 2014), it can be anticipated that cabin crew members with high occupational interest levels are more likely to exhibit job crafting and engage in emotional labor.

When these results are evaluated in light of the relevant literature, it is possible to argue that happiness at work, defined as a state in which employees feel generally satisfied with their workplace, experience positive emotions and thoughts more frequently, and perceive their work life as adding value to them (Hyun et al., 2013), can act as a variable that facilitates job crafting and emotional labor in the demanding conditions, situational factors, and passenger interactions characteristic of the cabin crew profession. Job crafting essentially involves self-initiated changes that individuals make to improve the alignment between themselves and their jobs (Tims et al., 2012; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Van Katwyk et al. (2000) found that employees with high levels of job crafting are better equipped to handle stressful situations requiring emotional labor and exhibit more positive emotional responses. Similarly, Brotheridge and Lee (2003) demonstrated that employees with high job crafting levels manage emotional labor more effectively and have better



emotional experiences at work. Hülshager et al. (2013) provided empirical evidence showing that employees with high job crafting levels can manage emotional labor more efficiently. To meet organizational demands and requirements, employees are often expected to display emotions dictated by their employers based on emotional labor (Jeon, 2015). Cabin crew members, in particular, are required to do so under challenging conditions during high-altitude flights. Such a working environment necessitates job crafting on the part of cabin crew members, linking these variables from this perspective.

No specific findings directly addressing the relationships between occupational interest, happiness at work, job crafting, and emotional labor were encountered in the literature. However, studies investigating the relationships between occupational interest and variables such as emotional labor and job satisfaction have identified positive correlations (Psilopanagioti et al., 2012; Hur et al., 2015; Çelik & Topsakal, 2016; Wen et al., 2019; Lee & Jang, 2020; Kocakula, 2021). Similarly, studies exploring the relationship between job crafting and these variables have identified positive correlations (De Beer et al., 2016; Kerse, 2019; Ceylan & Nazari, 2020; Rachmawati et al., 2022; Yıldırım, 2023).

Based on the findings it is essential for airline management to implement programs and initiatives fostering and sustaining occupational interest. Additionally, practices addressing the well-being, work-life balance, and satisfaction of cabin crew members, along with providing appropriate resources and support, should be adopted. This is because employees who are engaged with their profession and derive happiness from their work are more likely to manage job crafting and emotional labor effectively, leading to positive organizational outcomes.

From an industry perspective, it is crucial for businesses in this field to consider the scope of emotional labor expected of cabin crew and its long-term impacts on their health. It is vital for businesses to offer incentives and opportunities to enhance employees' occupational interest and motivation. For instance, sustainable career development programs and training opportunities could be provided. Although the airline industry already offers extensive programs and opportunities in this regard, reviewing them for potential improvements could be beneficial. On the other hand, a positive workplace atmosphere can help employees manage emotional labor more effectively and improve their job crafting.

This study has provided significant insights through its proposed model and findings. However, like all research, it has certain limitations. First, the study's context is

limited to the civil aviation sector and cabin crew working within this industry. Furthermore, the study was conducted using a sampling method and a total of 395 participants' surveys were evaluated. Consequently, the findings and evaluations made are generalizable within this sample framework. Future research involving more comprehensive and diverse sampling structures and sizes could contribute significantly to the discussion of findings and the literature by providing results that could be generalized to a broader population.

Future research efforts could investigate similar variables in various sectors and cultural contexts. The findings could contribute to a broader understanding of how these findings can be translated into universally applicable principles, shedding light on potentially universal insights. Longitudinal studies could provide deeper insights into how such perceptions and experiences develop over time in terms of demographic and occupational characteristics.

Additionally, conducting in-depth research on the work durations, rhythms, and experiences of cabin crew members across different airlines could enable the discussion of similar and divergent findings. Examining the experiences of cabin crew members working for various airlines comparatively could provide opportunities to explore different findings. In this respect, employing qualitative research approaches, such as conducting focus group discussions and in-depth interviews, could be highly beneficial for gaining a more comprehensive understanding of the topic. These methods would allow for the exploration of nuanced perspectives and provide richer, more detailed insights into the complexities of the relationships between occupational interest, job crafting, and emotional labor. By capturing individuals' experiences and interpretations, qualitative research could uncover underlying factors and motivations that are not easily revealed through quantitative analysis alone. This could enhance the overall depth of knowledge on the subject, offering a broader view of how these variables interact in real-world settings.

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## Rethinking the "Conflictive Member" in Organizations: A Proposal for a Model of How Conflict Initiates

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### Abstract

In this theoretical article, the concept of the "Conflictive Member" and its relationship with the initiation of conflict in organizations are reviewed. A narrative review of the "Conflictive Member" has been conducted, and articles addressing its definitions and descriptions have been selected. It has been observed that authors approach the phenomenon with similar definitions but different terms. The terms "Difficult People" and "Bad Apple" are commonly used, and the lack of reference to previous studies makes it difficult to establish a consistent theoretical framework. A new definition has been proposed; its scope and the individuals who should be included have been discussed. Additionally, the concept of Organizational Disruptive Behavior is introduced to understand the phenomenon better. Although few studies address the problem of how conflict begins, a valuable model describing the initiation of conflict has been identified, serving as a starting point. Based on this, the Conflict Rigidity Model is proposed to describe how a conflict begins in organizational contexts. The main contribution lies in the inclusion of diverse individuals under the concept of a "Conflictive Member", beyond those with personality-related issues.

**Keywords:** Conflictive Member, Difficult People, Bad Apple, Toxic Member, Dysfunctional Member, Intragroup Conflict, Workplace Conflict

## Örgütlerdeki "Çatışmacı Üye"yi Yeniden Düşünmek: Çatışmanın Nasıl Başladığına Dair Bir Model Önerisi

### Öz

Bu teorik makalede, "Çatışmacı Üye" kavramı ve örgütlerde çatışmanın başlamasıyla olan ilişkisi incelenmektedir. "Çatışmacı Üye" üzerine bir anlatsal inceleme yapılmış ve bu olguya ilişkin tanımları ve açıklamaları ele alan makaleler seçilmiştir. Yazarların benzer tanımlarla ancak farklı terimler kullanarak bu olguyu ele aldığı gözlemlenmiştir; "Zor İnsanlar" ve "Kötü Elma" terimleri yaygın olarak kullanılmaktadır ve önceki çalışmalara atıfta bulunulmaması, tutarlı bir teorik çerçevenin oluşturulmasını zorlaştırmaktadır. Yeni bir tanım önerilmiş olup, kapsamı ve hangi bireylerin dahil edileceği tartışılmıştır. Ayrıca, olguyu daha iyi anlamak için Örgütsel Bozucu Davranış kavramı tanıtılmıştır. Çatışmanın nasıl başladığı sorunu ele alan çalışmalar az olsa da, çatışmanın başlangıcını tanımlayan değerli bir model tespit edilmiş ve bu bir başlangıç noktası olarak kullanılmıştır. Buna dayanarak, örgütsel bağlamlarda çatışmanın nasıl başladığını tanımlamak için Çatışma Katılık Modeli önerilmiştir. Ana katkı, kişilikle ilgili sorunları olanların ötesinde, çeşitli bireylerin "Çatışmacı Üye" kavramı altında dahil edilmesinde yatmaktadır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Çatışmacı Üye, Zor İnsanlar, Kötü Elma, Toksik Üye, İşlevsiz Üye, Grup İçi Çatışma, İş Çatışması

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## 1. Introduction

The management of individuals whose behaviors negatively affect group dynamics in work environments has been addressed from multiple approaches. Still, critical gaps persist that limit a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon. This study is focused on three fundamental problems that have hindered theoretical and practical advancement in the area:

- The lack of a standardized term and definition to refer to conflictive individuals in Organizational Psychology. The diversity of terminology complicates the development of a shared theoretical framework. Accordingly, in section 2, the various existing terms will be examined, and in section 7, a new definition will be proposed.
- The absence of models explaining how conflict episodes begin. Existing literature has predominantly focused on conflict management or resolution, overlooking how individual behaviors can escalate into conflict episodes. This issue is addressed in section 6, along with the presentation of the Conflict Rigidity Model, developed specifically to address this gap.
- The reductionist view that attributes conflicts solely to personality. To overcome this limitation, the relationship between the concept of the "Difficult People" and Personality Disorders will be examined. The core of the proposed new definition for conflictive individuals will be explained, and the types of people who may fall under this definition will be analyzed. The key contribution at this point lies in demonstrating the diversity of individuals that can be included in the definition, beyond mere personality issues, which will be presented in section 7.

In summary, the contribution of this work lies in a new definition aimed at unifying different perspectives within Psychology, the proposal of a model that offers a specific understanding of how an individual may exhibit behaviors that trigger a workplace conflict episode, and, finally, the demonstration of the diversity of individuals who can be classified as conflictive.

## 2. The Different Terms: From the Difficult People to the Bad Apple

The concept of the "Difficult People" in the workplace and organizational context began to gain prominence when Robert M. Bramson published his book *Coping with Difficult People* (1981). In it, he described Difficult People as individuals with habitual

problematic behaviors that affect most people they interact with. While organizational psychology manuals credit this author and his classification of complex individuals, few attempts have been made to systematize this classification academically (Raynes, 2001).

This book appears to have been strongly impactful. Since Bramson's first book in 1981, numerous books have been published with very similar titles, such as *How to Deal with...* or *Dealing with...* (Brinkman & Kirschner, 1994; Cava, 1990; Diehm, 1992; Friedman, 1994; Keating, 1984; Littauer, 1984; Markham, 1993; Solomon, 1990; Weiss, 1987). A similar approach to Bramson's can be found in all these books, consisting of classifications and descriptions of conflictive workers, often based on work experiences without significant methodological rigor, and they seem to be aimed at a more popular audience, outside of academia. The Bramson's influence is recognized by Brinkman and Kirschner (1994) and Lilley (2002) in their books. Lately, in this type of literature (Glass, 2002; Handzel, 2022) the term "Difficult Personalities" can be found, which seems to be more appropriate since most of them offer classifications based on personality traits. These books with very similar titles are still being published lately (Hasson, 2025; Horn, 2024).

On the other hand, a small academic research line emerged in parallel, citing Bramson's work and using the same term and definition within the conflict resolution literature (Monroe et al., 1989; Monroe et al., 1993; Raynes, 2001; Rifkind & Harper, 1994). In this context, the goal was to provide ideas on how to deal with "Difficult Employees" or "Difficult Subordinates", now with methodological concerns. However, this line of research was short-lived and seems to have been forgotten.

The phenomenon resurfaced in the context of small group studies, teams, or work teams, but now using terms like "Dysfunctional Member", "Provokers", "Toxic Member", and the most commonly used, "Bad Apples" (Bradley, 2008; Felps et al., 2006; Keyton, 1999; Tyler, 2004). In these studies, we can find simple definitions such as "the member who causes dysfunction in the team", and others that, while using different terms, have a similar meaning to Bramson's: "individuals who chronically exhibit behaviors that asymmetrically harm the group's functioning". This line criticizes certain approaches that address the phenomenon from the perspective of the five personality factors (Sandy et al., 2014) and suggests focusing on "negative behavior" to understand dysfunction. This line does not reference Bramson's work, the *Dealing with...* type books, or related studies, and

uses other terms, suggesting that they either ignore or prefer not to be associated with that literature.

Finally, the phenomenon reappears in the context of intragroup conflict studies. Research on intragroup conflict has traditionally been overshadowed by the robust theoretical framework of intergroup conflict, which has been studied from Social and Group Psychology, while intragroup conflict, as well as teams and small groups mentioned earlier, have been addressed from Organizational and Work Psychology.

In the last two decades, intragroup conflict has sparked significant interest. Much of this literature has focused on distinguishing types of intragroup conflict and studying the positive and negative effects of conflict on the group and its performance (Greer & Dannals, 2017; Zhang et al., 2023). As it progressed, some authors (Korsgaard et al., 2008; Krueger et al., 2022; Shah et al., 2020) have drawn attention to the need for a more dynamic view of intragroup conflict, as opposed to a static, shared, and uniform one. In this regard, there have been several advances, notably by Shah et al. (2020), who contributed by distinguishing how conflict originates, proposed four types of origins. Conflict can arise at four different levels: at the level of the entire or almost the entire team, at a subgroup level, at a dyadic level, and an individual level. The last level is of particular interest, as it refers to when a specific member is the source of conflicts, where Shah et al. Reference the "Bad Apple" research, bridging intragroup conflict studies with the previously mentioned team studies.

### ***2.1. Summary:***

In summary, the terms used in the literature are: Difficult People (Bramson, 1981; Brinkman & Kirschner, 1994), Difficult Subordinates (Monroe et al., 1989; Monroe et al., 1993), Difficult Employees (Raynes, 2001), Dysfunctional Member (Keyton, 1999), Provokers (Keyton, 1999), Toxic Member (Felps et al., 2006), and Bad Apple (Bradley, 2008; Felps et al., 2006; Tyler, 2004). To these, we can add that pseudoscience has its own perspective, using terms such as Psychic Vampire and Emotional Vampire (Bernstein, 2001).

### ***2.2. Clarification:***

In the context of workplace conflicts, this work focuses on the conflictive individual and their behaviors, but in no way intends to deny the existence of other phenomena attributable to other group members, such as discrimination and prejudice toward a group

member. We acknowledge the reality of these phenomena and appreciate the literature on them, but they are not the focus of this work.

### **3. The Perspective of Clinical Psychology and Psychopathology**

When reviewing examples of Difficult People (DP), it is impossible not to ask the following question: Are DP, in reality, Personality Disorders in workplace contexts? This is because practically all the examples, descriptions, and explanations found in this literature point to one cause: "personality". Therefore, let us review the concept of Personality Disorder, which comes from the subdisciplines of Psychopathology and Clinical Psychology and is defined as "an enduring pattern of inner experience and behavior that deviates markedly from the expectations of the individual's culture" (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013, p. 645).

Let us consider the characteristics of Personality Disorders according to Amparo Belloch and her *Treatise* (2010):

- **It is omnipresent:** It manifests in most situations and contexts, encompassing a wide range of behaviors, feelings, and experiences.
- **It is not the result of a specific situation or life event** but spans most of the individual's life cycle.
- **It is inflexible and rigid.**
- **It hinders the acquisition of new skills and behaviors**, especially in the realm of social relationships: it impairs the individual's development.
- **It makes the individual fragile and vulnerable to new situations** requiring change.
- **It does not align with what would be expected for that individual**, considering their sociocultural context.
- **It causes distress and suffering to the individual or those around them:** it creates interference in various areas (social, familial, occupational, etc.).
- **It is egosyntonic**, and awareness of illness or abnormality is minimal or nonexistent.

These eight characteristics have implications for workplace contexts. If we take a person who is rigid, struggles to adapt, has difficulty acquiring new skills, causes distress to those around them, and place them in a work group, the result is clearly a DP.

In summary, yes, we are talking about the same phenomenon from two different subdisciplines and in different contexts. However, despite the fact that the descriptions and examples of DP and Personality Disorders are very similar, it is surprising that each subdiscipline describes its phenomenon without mentioning the contributions of the other.

The idea that a rigid personality leads to interpersonal problems can be traced back to the author Karen Horney, who explicitly discussed this in her writings on what she called "Neurotic Personalities" (Horney, 1937), an older concept that predates and is somewhat similar to both the concept of Personality Disorders and DP.

However, it is important to note that the literature on DP has only provided examples that are essentially Personality Disorders, but depending on how we define a DP, other types of individuals could also fall into this category, a point that will be elaborated in section 7.

### ***3.1. In summary:***

- A Personality Disorder in a workplace/organizational context is a DP.
- The examples provided by the DP literature are almost all Personality Disorders.
- Not all DP have Personality Disorders, there are other types of people.

## **4. The Dynamics of how a Person with a Personality Disorder Generates Discomfort in others and becomes a Difficult Person**

If we read the DSM-5 (APA, 2013, p. 645), we will find the following initial description: "An enduring pattern of inner experience and behavior that deviates markedly from the expectations of the individual's culture". This might lead us to think that engaging in behavior very foreign to one's culture is the reason for the discomfort in others. While this is correct, it offers a simplistic view of the phenomenon. It might make us think of behaviors that are generally maladjusted in almost any context, such as "aggression". However, there are behaviors that are not so obviously maladjusted because they depend on the context or a very specific group, and these behaviors can be more subtle.

A more comprehensive perspective emerges when we examine the characteristics of the disorder. The DSM and manuals describe the symptoms but do not explicitly explain how these symptoms interact with each other; it is somewhat implicit, and someone with little experience might overlook it.



We are dealing with a person who has a rigid, inflexible personality that does not adapt to contexts. In the long term, this leads to limited development of personality and certain skills, and in the short term, it means that when entering a new group, such as at work, the necessary adjustments are not made. Typically, a job requires behavioral adjustments, especially when interacting with others. For example, a typical job might require one type of behavior with the boss, another with colleagues, and yet another with clients, three different types of interactions. Therefore, the individual in question, by not adjusting their behavior, will eventually engage in conduct that does not align with the expected interaction. In DSM terms, this behavior does not meet the expectations of others, such as treating the boss like a colleague. This behavior will stand out from the perspective of other group members. This behavior, which according to the DSM "deviates from the individual's culture," is what interests us and, therefore, deserves a more specific name.

Psychology has long used a term for this type of behavior: Disruptive Behavior, a term widely used in Educational Psychology and Psychopathology, which we should borrow for Organizational Psychology.

#### **4.1. Summary:**

- A rigid and inflexible personality implies poor adaptation to social interactions, which ultimately generates conflict.
- In contrast to the above, while a rigid personality may not adapt well to social interactions requiring adjustments, it is possible that a specific type of personality might be exactly what is needed in a particular situation and achieve a good fit momentarily.

#### **5. Disruptive Behavior**

Disruptive Behavior (DB) does not have a standardized definition; it varies depending on the theoretical context. In the educational context, it is often defined as the behavior of a student that interrupts and hinders the teaching-learning process (Saco-Lorenzo et al., 2022). In psychopathological contexts, it is usually defined as "behaviors that threaten or intimidate others or violate social norms" (American Psychological Association, 2018). Neither of these definitions is very useful for our purposes, so, in the context of work organizations, teams, and small groups, we will define it in a simple version as: **behavior that draws attention and provokes discomfort in other group members**; and in a more developed form: **behavior that draws attention, provokes discomfort in others, and is negatively evaluated as inappropriate, something that should not occur in that context.**

We propose that DB has three characteristics:

**1. Emotionally:** It provokes discomfort in others, potentially escalating to anger. However, we should also note that it can cause surprise and/or confusion, especially when it occurs for the first time.

**2. Perceptually:** It breaks the context, so it can be understood as a gestalt, a figure that stands out against a background or a figure that breaks a pattern. DB clearly differs from the expected behavior in the group context, making it stand out due to its unusual or inappropriate nature for the situation.

**3. Cognitively:** It is negatively evaluated by others; it is interpreted as something that should not happen in that context. This level is crucial for understanding the phenomenon, as it is here where the interpretation that occurs according to the context plays a relevant role. It is at this point that, on a theoretical level, we can intersect with the lines of research from Attribution Theory within Social Psychology.

Due to the diversity of DB, this definition aims to be as generic as possible. It does not refer to whether it breaks any norms or interrupts any group process; the essential aspect is **causing discomfort to others**. To be more specific, we propose calling it **Group Disruptive Behavior (GDB)** or **Organizational Disruptive Behavior (ODB)** depending on the focus. The generality of the definition and the use of a more specific term are intended to standardize research, improve article searches, and enable future studies to begin classifying and naming types of DB more specifically.

### **5.1. Summary:**

- DB is context-dependent.
- DB is that which draws attention and provokes discomfort in others.
- DB can generate conflicts.
- DB, in its initial manifestations, can cause confusion and surprise when the observer does not know how to interpret the behavior they have observed.

## **6. The Model of Conflictive Rigidity: Disruptive Behavior Generating Conflict**

Having defined the above, we can revisit the dynamics of how discomfort and conflict are generated. Here, we present this new model on the initiation of conflicts, which consists of three steps:

### **A. Manifestation of DB:**

The rigidity of personality implies a failure to adjust to certain work situations, which will eventually lead to the manifestation of one or more previously defined DB. This is also referred to in conflict models involving children as "The Antecedent" (Shantz, 1987) and in primatology as "Provocative Behaviors" (Gaviria, 1996).

### **B. Resistance/Opposition:**

Someone takes the initiative to oppose the DB directly. Since someone might oppose the DB the first time it occurs, or perhaps the second or third time, we will not say that DB creates conflict outright, but rather that DB has the "potential" to create conflicts. Opposition makes the incompatibility of interests public and explicit, and prior to this, there is only latent conflict. But what motivates a person to take the initiative to oppose a DB? Why does it seem easier for some people than for others? What variables influence whether the group's resistance occurs earlier or later? These are questions that future research must clarify.

### **C. Reaction to Resistance:**

Reactions to resistance can be grouped into three categories:

**1. Direct Resistance:** A response in which the individual directly confronts the opponent and resists changing.

**2. Evasive and/or Ambiguous Responses:** A response that avoids direct confrontation and ignores the requested change. Ambiguous responses, being unclear or undefined, are difficult to interpret. These responses can also function as distractions.

**3. Pseudo-Adaptations:** Responses in which an attempt is made to adjust or resolve the conflict using deceptive or superficial tactics that do not imply a real change in the DB. Pseudo-adaptations can serve to appease the opponent temporarily but have negative long-term effects. Pseudo-adaptations can be subdivided into two types:

- **Illusory Adaptation:** Promises or solutions that will be implemented in the future but are false or will not occur (for example: "I'll pay you tomorrow").
- **Reactive Distortion:** Manipulation of the perception of past or present events to avoid responsibility (for example: "It wasn't me").

**4. Yielding to Opposition:** A fourth type of response to opposition could be yielding to the opposition and not manifesting the DB again. However, this would be a functional and adaptive solution outside the model, as it would not imply conflict.

It is worth mentioning that the reaction to opposition can, in turn, become a new DB that generates discomfort, new oppositions, and could even overshadow the original DB.

By proposing this model, it becomes clear that the DP not only generates discomfort or stress, as its definition suggests, but also generates conflicts, which further exacerbate the group's discomfort. This is why we will propose the term "Conflictive Member" in the section 7 to make it more evident that the discomfort brings conflicts and that the individual belongs to a group/organization.

### ***6.1. Where Does the Conflictive Rigidity Model Come From?***

The idea that a rigid personality affects interpersonal relationships comes from two sources. On one hand, this idea is implicit in the symptom characterizations of personality disorders. On the other hand, we have traced it back to Karen Horney's writings on "Neurotic Personality" (1937). We have rescued this idea from clinical psychology and psychopathology, giving it a more explicit and specific form, naming the model, providing updated terms, and grounding it in definitions for precision.

Additionally, the model has been complemented with a conflict model from Primatology and Developmental Psychology (Eisenberg & Garvey, 1981; Gaviria, 1996; Shantz, 1987), used in research on children's dyadic conflicts, discourse analysis of their arguments, and the development of interpersonal skills. Particularly, we must mention the studies by Maynard Alan (1985) on children's arguments as a precedent.

Although there is extensive literature on conflict, both within and outside Organizational Psychology, it has not been useful for describing how a conflict episode begins. Maynard (1985) already pointed out that research has focused more on the development and resolution of conflicts rather than their initiation. In the organizational context, within the study of intragroup conflict, several authors (Korsgaard et al., 2008; Krueger et al., 2022; Shah et al., 2020) have drawn attention to the need for a more dynamic view of conflict, as opposed to a static, shared, and uniform one. In this regard, there are two important contributions:

- Korsgaard et al. (2008) provided a multilevel view of the phenomenon, distinguishing a team level, a dyadic level, and an individual level to explain how conflict can emerge from lower levels, noting a lack of understanding of how the individual and dyadic levels affect conflict.
- Shah et al. (2020) expanded on Korsgaard et al.'s ideas, proposing that intragroup conflict can have four types of origins: at the level of the entire or almost the entire team, at the subgroup level, at the dyadic level, and at the individual level. They specified that the individual level is what they call "Bad Apples", describing them as toxic members who create conflictive relationships.

Despite these contributions, none provide specific descriptions, steps, or examples of how conflicts begin. However, the much older literature on conflict in children (Eisenberg & Garvey, 1981; Gaviria, 1996; Maynard, 1985; Shantz, 1987) does so and even offers several examples with real episodes.

This is why the model used in children has been chosen as a starting point, as it specifically details how conflict originates. Moreover, it is used in the context of dyadic conflicts that occur within a group. Perhaps the reason for its specificity lies in its application to children, where the phenomenon manifests in a more simplified way, making it ideal as a starting point for understanding the phenomenon in adults before delving into its complexity. The first two steps are practically the same, differing only in the third step that we propose.

### ***6.2. When Does the Conflict Begin? The Two-step and Three-step Theorists***

In the literature on conflicts between children that we have referenced (Eisenberg & Garvey, 1981; Gaviria, 1996; Maynard, 1985; Shantz, 1987), there is a debate about whether a conflict begins at step two or only at step three. Some authors (Maynard, 1985; Shantz, 1987) argue that resistance to a DB is not enough, as the individual might yield to the opposition, and therefore, they include the third step as a requirement to speak of a conflict. However, this debate focuses on interpersonal conflicts between two individuals who are not necessarily conflictive, while our interest lies in the conflictive individual, where resistance to change is part of their characteristics, as DB is habitual. Therefore, for us, this debate is not as relevant, which is why we have spoken in terms of "how" the conflict begins rather than "when".

This is just a glimpse of how conflict literature contributes to the literature on conflictive individuals, as we have analyzed the immediate effect or the initiation of conflict

but have not yet explored its long-term development. What is interesting is that we are dealing with a phenomenon whose understanding requires cross-disciplinary contributions from various research lines.

Having explained the model, the following questions arise:

- Is the Rigidity Model applicable to all personality disorders?
- Can we use it as a basis for other psychological disorders?
- Can we use it as a basis for other conflictive individuals?
- Are there other conflictive individuals?

## 7. A Proposed Definition of "Conflictive Member", and what Types of Individuals can fall under this Definition

In this section, we propose a new term and its definition, then explore which types of individuals may fall under this definition. We will provide a brief list of individuals who can exhibit DB, extending beyond those with personality-related difficulties.

Since we are complementing ideas from different subdisciplines, we have attempted to offer standardized terms and definitions. While DP does not seem like a bad term, we suggest using **Conflictive Member** (CM) for Organizational Psychology. We propose the following definition of a CM, in its simple version: **A member with disruptive behaviors.** And a more developed version: **A member who habitually exhibits disruptive behaviors, generates conflicts, and provokes negative attitudes in others directed toward him.** This definition does not aim to change the original meaning of Bramson (1981) or the "Bad Apple" literature (Bradley, 2008; Felps et al., 2006; Keyton, 1999; Tyler, 2004), but rather to use more specific terms, widely used in psychology, such as DB, conflict, and attitude, making it more explicit that the phenomenon can be understood with contributions from other research lines within our discipline.

As we mentioned earlier, if we look at the descriptions of these individuals in the literature, we will only find types that fit the profile of personality disorders. However, considering both Bramson's definition (1981) and the one proposed here, various types of people fall under this definition. Essentially, anyone who habitually exhibits DB can be included. So, what other individuals might fit this definition? We will mention some types, always remembering that DB depends on the context.

- **Individuals with social skill difficulties**, such as those with Autism Spectrum Disorder. Some work environments require a level of socialization that may be challenging for them. Other highly dynamic jobs may conflict with their tendency toward routine and structure. This should not surprise us, since inflexible adherence to routines (Abufhele Milad, 2019) is a symptom similar to the rigidity seen in personality disorders.

- **Individuals with intellectual disabilities**. In the literature on workplace inclusion of people with disabilities, it is emphasized that capabilities must be assessed for optimal job assignment, along with the implementation of necessary workplace adaptations (Jariot Garcia et al., 2020; Paz-Maldonado & Silva-Peña, 2020; Rosselló Ramón & Verger Gelabert, 2008) to ensure successful integration. We propose that when this integration fails, this can be understood in terms of the emergence of job performance deficits, and when these deficits manifest as observable behaviors, their interpretation by group members may qualify them as DB. Additionally, the concept of Challenging Behaviors is well-established in research on intellectual disability and workplace inclusion (Bowring et al., 2016; Bowring et al., 2019). Although no standardized definition has been established, Challenging Behaviors typically includes self-injurious, aggressive, and stereotyped behaviors. We also argue that depending on how these behaviors are interpreted by other group members, they may fall under the definition of DB.

- **Previously well-adapted individuals who begin to manifest a disorder**, as in neurocognitive disorders or schizophrenia, it is not uncommon to come across stories where a person who was once well-adjusted and had no difficulties at work begins to experience symptoms of a disorder they did not previously have. In some cases, the disorder is evident, while in others, it is progressive. Symptoms of a neurocognitive disorder can affect attention, language, perceptual-motor skills, or social cognition, impacting activities of daily living (APA, 2013, p. 602).

These are just three types of individuals with difficulties that can fit the definition of a CM. This is not an exhaustive or exclusive list. In these three categories, the essential points are the following: according to how the behavior/symptoms are interpreted by others, what causes are attributed to them, and how they affect others, we can consider them DB. These examples might lead the reader to think that practically any individual with a psychological disorder is, at their core, a CM, but this is not the case. According to the DSM-5 definition, psychological disorders "...are usually associated with significant distress or disability in social, occupational, or other important activities" (APA, 2013, p. 20). This



means that the occupational area is not always affected. We suggest that when the affected domain involves work life (or group life), and this is manifested through observable behaviors, these behaviors may qualify as DB depending on their impact on other members.

Additionally, we can also include individuals without any psychological disorder, such as those struggling to adapt to a new group context due to cultural differences. An acculturation process may require changes in personality/culture that can be challenging to implement. This can occur because the individual comes from a different culture, country, region, or even a different generational background.

Here we proposed a brief list of types of difficulties that can lead to the manifestation of DB:

- Difficulties related to personality.
- Difficulties related to social skills.
- Difficulties related to intelligence or cognitive processes.
- Difficulties related to the manifestation of a new psychological disorder in a previously adapted individual, such as in dementia or schizophrenia.
- Difficulties related to impulsivity issues.
- Other difficulties related to cultural adaptation processes.

This list is neither exhaustive nor exclusive, as it is reasonable to assume that various types of difficulties can lead to the manifestation of DB. This work seeks to highlight the diversity of individuals who exhibit DB in the workplace, who are often erroneously generalized as difficult personalities. Understanding this diversity is useful for research and practice, as different difficulties likely imply different types of disruptions, different prejudices to address, and different strategies to employ. Each of these individuals has one or more psychological areas or functions affected, but could we speak of a common affected function in such diverse individuals?

### **8. The Cause of Conflicts: The Ability to Adapt to the Group**

Throughout the literature, there has been little debate about the causes of the conflictive nature of these individuals. As we have mentioned, most point to the individual's personality as the cause, while others understand it as a problem of communication styles and self-esteem (Raynes, 2001). Regardless of the perspective from which we approach these phenomena, we must always include the behaviors that cause discomfort. But what lies

behind these behaviors? We need an explanatory concept that underlies DB and can encompass all the conflictive individuals mentioned earlier, a concept that goes beyond just personality and DB. The concept we seek answers the question: What do all these individuals have in common? What causes someone to exhibit DB?

We propose that these individuals have an impaired ability, which we will call the **ability to adapt to the group** or, in the case of someone new to the group, the ability to integrate into the group. At its core, this is the classic ability to learn, but applied to a specific context. We proposed that this ability includes:

- Fulfilling your role at work.
- Making social adjustments.

This distinction already helps us differentiate between types of DB, we suggest:

- Work-related DB, such as failing to deliver a report on time.
- Social DB, such as not greeting others.

In conclusion, we argue that this ability involves both observing the group and adjusting to what is observed. And the psychological disorders or difficulties mentioned affect this ability, and ultimately, having this ability impaired is what makes someone a CM through the habitual manifestation of DB.

From this proposal, we argue that the following questions emerge. Considering the diversity of groups and the diversity of DB manifestations, is it possible to measure this ability? If so, how? Or, at the very least, how can we measure some aspect of it?

### **9. Proposal for a Small Classification of Conflictive Members**

We will propose a brief, more generic classification, considering the diversity of these individuals to be more cautious. This classification represents a simplification of how this ability might function, imagining one type of individual whose adaptation ability is moderately affected and another whose ability is highly affected.

- **Preliminary Conflictive Member:** When we become aware of a workplace conflict, these individuals are preliminarily classified as CM because there is insufficient information about their behavior, background, and motivations. New information should clarify whether they are indeed a CM or not. If confirmed, we should be able to classify them as either a Contextual or Chronic CM.

- **Contextual or Situational Conflictive Member:** These individuals are conflictive in specific contexts or situations. Their behavior can vary significantly depending on the circumstances, which must be considered when choosing strategies to deal with them. For example, let's imagine an individual who exhibits DB, such as sexual harassment, when working with women, but can work professionally and adaptively with male colleagues. They represent an intermediate level in this still-theoretical group adaptation ability.
- **Chronic Conflictive Member:** These are individuals whose ability to adapt to the group is highly impaired, to the point where they struggle to adapt to almost any group, regardless of the context or circumstances. Most examples provided by the *Dealing with...* literature (Bramson, 1981; Brinkman & Kirschner, 1994) seem to describe chronic CM, who appear to have difficulties related to personality due to rigidity.

## 10. Conclusion and Discussion

In this work, we have examined the concept of CM, explored the terms and definitions used in the literature for this phenomenon, and have proposed the term CM, along with a new definition: a member who habitually exhibits DB, generates conflicts, and provokes negative attitudes in others directed toward him. We have examined the scope of this definition and what types of individuals would fit it. We consider that, in this regard, the most important contribution of this work is to show that the concept CM can include a wide range of diverse individuals, beyond those with personality-related issues, which will help improve the strategic approach when addressing these issues.

The term ODB has also been proposed, along with its definition: behavior that draws attention and provokes discomfort in other group members. This concept has been defined and characterized because of its essential role in the CM definition. We believe future research should propose classifications of ODB and develop tools to measure or detect these behaviors. This would facilitate the selection or development of specific workplace integration strategies appropriate for the specific type of ODB.

In the future, it would be useful for a model to integrate, on the one hand, the CM with their ODB and, on the other hand, the prejudices and discrimination of a group toward a worker, for more comprehensive conflict descriptions.

At a more explanatory level, it has been proposed that a CM has impaired the ability to adapt to the group, which would involve the ability to observe the group and adjust to what is observed. From this proposal emerges the question: how could this be measured?

To understand how a CM relates to conflict, the Conflictive Rigidity Model has been proposed, which details how a conflict episode begins. Future research should investigate whether the proposed model is useful for describing the initiation of conflicts episodes, to which individuals it is applicable, whether it is useful for personality difficulties, and whether it can be applied to other types of difficulties/disorders.

Finally, we want to mention that this work has made an effort to theoretically connect different lines of research that are currently fragmented, to enrich the understanding of the studied phenomenon, offering a more appropriate framework for its comprehension and for future work.

We must not lose sight of the ultimate goal of this type of contributions: how to integrate individuals with difficulties into work contexts, how to prevent and manage intragroup conflicts, and, most importantly, how to deal with a CM. Although these problems have not been addressed here in detail, this work seeks to contribute to this direction by providing the current theoretical landscape, definitions, and terms, and presenting the Conflictive Rigidity Model, which we hope will serve as a basis for addressing these issues and as an introduction to the phenomenon.

**Ethics Approval:** This study does not require any ethics committee approval.

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## The Effect of Organizational Silence on Burnout: A Meta-Analysis Approach<sup>1</sup>

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### Abstract

This study was conducted by meta-analysis method to examine the effect of organisational silence on burnout. In the study, 3111 studies were accessed as a result of searching the 'OpenAlex' and 'scholar.google' databases with the keywords 'silence' and 'burnout' in the period covering the years 2020-2025. The 15 studies that met the inclusion and exclusion criteria were analysed with a total sample size of 3869. The analyses were performed using CMA 3.0 (Comprehensive Meta Analysis 3.0) software.  $Q$  and  $I^2$  test results showed that there was a high level of variance (heterogeneity) among the analysed studies ( $Q = 488.70$ ,  $I^2 = 97.13$ ). Therefore, meta-analysis was performed using a random effect model. According to the findings, it was determined that there was a positive and significant relationship between organisational silence and burnout ( $r = 0.635$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). In the analyses performed with Fisher's Z transformation, it was seen that confidence intervals supported this relationship. Egger's test, Duval and Tweedie's cut and add test, Begg and Mazumdar rank correlation were used for bias analysis and it was concluded that there was no publication bias. Funnel Plot analyses also show that the risk of bias is low.

**Keywords:** Organizational silence, burnout, meta-analysis.

### Örgütsel Sessizliğin Tükenmişlik Üzerindeki Etkisi: Bir Meta Analiz Yaklaşımı

#### Öz

Bu çalışma, örgütsel sessizliğin tükenmişlik üzerindeki etkisini incelemek amacıyla meta-analiz yöntemiyle gerçekleştirilmiştir. Çalışmada, "OpenAlex" ve "scholar.google" veri tabanlarında 2020-2025 yıllarını kapsayan dönemde "silence" ve "burnout" anahtar kelimeleriyle yapılan taramalar sonucunda 3111 çalışmaya ulaşılmıştır. Belirlenen dahil etme ve hariç tutma kriterlerine uygun 15 çalışma, toplam 3869 örneklem ile analiz edilmiştir. Analizler, CMA 3.0 (Comprehensive Meta Analysis 3.0) yazılımı kullanılarak gerçekleştirilmiştir.  $Q$  ve  $I^2$  test sonuçları, incelenen çalışmalar arasında yüksek düzeyde varyans (heterojenlik) olduğunu göstermiştir ( $Q = 488,70$ ,  $I^2 = 97,13$ ). Bu nedenle, rassal etkili model kullanılarak meta-analiz gerçekleştirilmiştir. Elde edilen bulgulara göre örgütsel sessizlik ile tükenmişlik arasında pozitif yönlü ve anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu tespit edilmiştir ( $r = 0,635$ ,  $p < 0,05$ ). Fisher's Z dönüşümü ile yapılan analizlerde, güven aralıklarının bu ilişkiyi desteklediği görülmüştür. Yanlılık analizi için Egger testi, Duval ve Tweedie'nin kes ve ekle testi, Begg ve Mazumdar sıralama korelasyonu gibi yöntemlerden yararlanılmış ve yayın yanlılığının olmadığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Funnel Plot analizleri de yanlılık riskinin düşük olduğunu göstermektedir.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Örgütsel sessizlik, tükenmişlik, meta analiz.

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## **1. Introduction**

In today's work environments, organizational silence and burnout are among the important factors affecting employee productivity and job satisfaction. Burnout is a syndrome that occurs as a result of individuals being exposed to long-term stress and pressure, characterized by emotional exhaustion, desensitization, and a decrease in the sense of personal accomplishment (Maslach et al., 1997). In particular, intense work tempo and excessive workload cause employees to experience burnout and, as a result, physical, psychological, and professional negativities. When the literature is examined, there are empirical findings that burnout has negative effects on physical health (heart diseases, musculoskeletal pain, chronic fatigue, headache) (Salvagioni et al., 2017), can lead to structural and functional changes in the brain, cause irregularities in cortisol levels and increased inflammation (Bayes et al., 2021), can trigger mental health problems such as depression and anxiety (Koutsimani et al., 2019), and also leads to organizational outcomes such as decreased performance and increased absenteeism (Salvagioni et al., 2017). Organizational silence is defined as individuals avoiding expressing their thoughts, concerns, or feedback for various reasons (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). It is known that organizational silence has negative effects on error detection, organizational learning, and effectiveness in institutions (Vakola & Bouradas, 2005). In addition, it has been associated with important variables for the organization, such as employee productivity, organizational commitment, and intention to leave (Yağar & Dökme Yağar, 2023). Many studies examining the relationship between organizational silence and burnout reveal that there is a positive relationship between these two variables (Akin & Ulusoy, 2016; Al-Rousan & Omoush, 2018; Haraisa, 2021; Harmanci Seren et al., 2018; Knoll et al., 2019). One of the main determinants of this relationship is the stress level. Morrison & Milliken (2000) suggest that employees' stress levels increase over time when they remain silent. At the same time, considering that stress is one of the most important causes of burnout, it can be concluded that organizational silence is an important antecedent that triggers burnout.

Although there are several individual studies in the literature examining the impact of organizational silence on burnout, most of these studies are limited to specific sectors or countries, and there is no comprehensive meta-analysis that statistically combines the findings across studies. The lack of a meta-analytic synthesis makes it difficult to draw generalizable conclusions about the strength and consistency of the relationship between organizational silence and burnout. Therefore, this study aims to fill this gap by conducting

a comprehensive meta-analysis to systematically evaluate the impact of organizational silence on burnout and provide a holistic perspective supported by quantitative evidence.

## **2. Conceptual Framework**

### **2.1. *Burnout Syndrome***

Maslach & Jackson (1981) define burnout as the physical, mental, and emotional exhaustion of an individual due to prolonged work stress and pressure. The authors define burnout as consisting of three basic dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and decreased personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion is the loss of energy and decreased motivation for work by an individual due to constant stress. Depersonalization is the employee's loss of interest in the work environment and colleagues, loss of empathy, and weakening of the emotional bond to the job. The decrease in personal accomplishment is associated with the individual developing a negative perception of work performance, loss of sense of competence, and dissatisfaction with the job.

The effects of burnout have been widely studied at the individual and organizational levels. At the individual level, burnout is associated with various physical and mental health problems such as chronic fatigue, sleep disorders, anxiety, depression, and decreased cognitive functions. It can seriously reduce the individual's overall quality of life (Faisal et al., 2024). At the organizational level, high levels of burnout reduce job satisfaction and organizational commitment, leading to a toxic work environment characterized by low morale and high employee turnover (Demir, 2009; Kang, 2019). Especially in the health, education, and service sectors, burnout directly affects not only the well-being of employees but also the quality of service provided (Ainger et al., 2024; Scheepers et al., 2023). From an economic perspective, burnout results in additional costs such as increased recruitment and training costs due to turnover, poor performance, and loss of productivity (Nonnis et al., 2023).

### **2.2. *Organizational Silence***

Organizational silence is defined as a collective phenomenon in which employees avoid sharing their ideas, concerns, or observations for various reasons (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Pinder & Harlos (2001) explain organizational silence as individuals avoiding communicating their emotional, cognitive, and behavioral views about events within the organization to authorized persons. This silence is affected by the organizational structure and leadership approach, as well as the personal preferences of individuals. The

tendency of employees to remain silent increases especially in environments where feedback mechanisms are weak or where a punitive management approach prevails.

Dyne et al. (2003) examined silence in three dimensions: acquiescent silence, where employees remain passive because they think their ideas will not be taken into consideration; defensive silence, where individuals remain silent in order to protect their own positions; and prosocial silence, where individuals avoid sharing information in order to protect the organization or their colleagues. Knoll et al. (2019) added the concept of opportunistic silence and suggested that individuals may consciously remain silent to gain personal benefit or advantage. It is observed that employees prefer not to share valuable information, especially in environments where competition is high.

Individual, organizational, and cultural factors play a role in the emergence of organizational silence. At the individual level, personality traits, lack of self-confidence, and risk perception can increase the tendency to remain silent (Detert & Burris, 2007). At the organizational level, authoritarian leadership, low organizational justice and inadequate communication mechanisms can cause employees to remain silent (Edmondson, 1999; Wang & Hsieh, 2013).

### **3. Method**

The effect of organizational silence on burnout can occur both directly and through other psychological phenomena. Employees' silence can increase emotional exhaustion as it creates a sense of helplessness and loss of control in the workplace (Knoll & van Dick, 2013). Especially in organizations where leadership support is lacking, as the culture of silence becomes widespread, employees feel more emotionally pressured (Vakola & Bouradas, 2005). Organizational silence triggers burnout by creating a lack of psychological safety not only at the individual level but also at the organizational level (Edmondson, 1999). Studies show that emotional exhaustion and desensitization are higher in workplaces where employees do not trust management and are reluctant to voice their opinions (Haraisa, 2021). When employees consistently avoid giving feedback, they feel they are losing their influence over work processes, which can result in decreased personal accomplishment (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

#### **3.1. Data Analysis**

The analyses of the study were carried out with CMA 3.0 software. In order to determine the effect of innovation and flexibility capacity on sustainability, the evaluation

was made according to the results of the pooled correlation coefficient and Fisher's Z transformation, Z statistics, and p values. The significance level in the analyses was accepted as 0.05 ( $p < 0.05$ ).  $Q$  and  $I^2$  statistics are used to decide which fixed effect or random models to use by testing homogeneity. Heterogeneity was decided by considering that the  $Q$  statistic was greater than the degree of freedom and the  $I^2$  statistic was  $>75$  (CMA, 2024a: 116).  $Q$  and  $I^2$  statistics were used only and solely to determine the heterogeneity situation (CMA, 2024a: 80). In the bias analysis of the obtained results, Egger's regression intercept, Duval and Tweedie's cut and add test, Begg and Mazumdar rank correlation, Rosenthal's classic missing-safe N and Orwin's missing-safe N tests were used. The Egger test suggests evaluating the same bias using precision to estimate the standardized effect. When the t value of the Egger statistic is lower than the critical t value ( $p > 0.05$ ), it is understood that there is no publication bias (CMA, 2024b: 92).

Funnel Plot, which is used to reveal potentially missing studies and determine the effect of these studies on the meta-analysis, is 0. The difference between the values observed in Duval and Tweedie's cut and add test and the corrected values obtained to correct the effect of publication bias and the absence of the number of missing studies (0) indicates that potentially missing studies have no effect on the meta-analysis. Duval and Tweedie's cut and add test is based on the main idea behind the funnel plot; if there is no bias, the plot will be symmetric about the summary effect, if there are more small studies on the right than on the left, the concern is that studies from the left may be missing. Duval and Tweedie's cut and add test discards these missing studies, adds them to the analysis, and then recalculates the summary effect size (CMA, 2024b: 89). Kendall's tau  $b$  test, which is used to determine whether the number of studies included in the analysis has an effect on the pooled correlation coefficient obtained as a result of the analysis, is interpreted as the Z statistic being higher than the critical value ( $p > 0.05$ ) as indicating that the number of studies used has no effect on the result obtained and the results are reliable. In Rosenthal's classic fail-safe N test, which is used to determine how many studies are needed to invalidate the results obtained, it is determined how many studies are needed for the pooled correlation coefficient obtained in the study to be insignificant, what the critical correlation coefficient and the pooled correlation (correlation average) in these studies should be (Borenstein et al., 2007).

#### 4. Findings

The studies and sample numbers used in the research are shown in Table 1.

**Table 1**

*Information on Studies Included in the Research*

<b>Working Names</b>	<b>r</b>	<b>n</b>
1-Nitafan 2020	0,233	236
2-Al Haraisa 2021	0,779	207
3-Bakhshandeh & Zare 2021	0,587	349
4-NouriSamarin et al. 2021	0,320	376
5-Tharya et al. 2021	0,633	295
6-Abdulah & Amin 2022	0,761	150
7-Ghanbari & Mojooni 2022	0,424	324
8-Modnalizade & Javaheri 2022	0,770	205
9-Kassandrinou et al 2023	0,224	150
10-Lerebulan & Amalia 2023	0,661	165
11-Mohammed 2023	0,867	75
12-Al Hasnawi et al. 2024	0,876	282
13-Pinto et al. 2024	0,265	222
14-Shahwan & Elazem & Mohamed 2024	0,613	169
15-Khakpour 2025	0,794	664
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>0,587</b>	<b>3869</b>

Fifteen studies examining the relationship between organizational silence and burnout, and 3869 samples in these studies, were included in the analysis, and the correlation average was determined as 0.587.

#### **4.1. Meta-Analysis Findings**

Table 2 includes the heterogeneity/homogeneity control  $Q$  and  $I^2$  test results regarding which model will be used in the meta-analysis.

**Table 2**

*Test Results for Determining the Appropriate Model*

<b>Test</b>	<b>Value</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>SE / Variance</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>Result</b>	<b>Model</b>
$Q$	488,700	14	-	0,000	Heterogeneous	Random Effect
$I^2$	97,135	-	-	-	Heterogeneous	Random Effect
<b><math>Tau^2 / Tau</math></b>	<b>0,136 / 0,368</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>0,059 / 0,003</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>Heterogeneous</b>	<b>Random Effect</b>

In order to determine the relationship between organizational silence and burnout, according to the  $Q$  ( $Q = 488.70 > df = 14$ ) and  $I^2$  ( $I^2 = 97.13 > 75$ ) tests conducted for the heterogeneity/homogeneity control of the studies included in the research, it was determined that there was a high level of variance (heterogeneity). Therefore, it was found that the use of the random effect model was appropriate. Considering the expected value of the work weights included in the research ( $100/15 = 6.666$ ), it was determined that the work weights in the fixed effect model were far from the expected value (between 1.88% and 17.29%), whereas in the random effect model, the work weights were close to the expected value and were distributed more evenly (between 6.27% and 6.84%) (Table 2; Figure 1).

#### 4.2. Meta-Analysis Results

Table 3 presents the meta-analysis results regarding the relationship between organizational silence and burnout.

**Table 3**

*Meta-Analysis Results on the Relationship Between Organizational Silence and Burnout*

Statistic	Result
N	15
r	0,635
r (Lower Limit)	0,508
r (Upper Limit)	0,735
Fisher's Z	0,749
Fisher's Z (Lower Limit)	0,559
Fisher's Z Upper Limit)	0,939
SE	0,097
DVariance	0,009
Z	7,736
<b>p</b>	<b>0,000</b>

As a result of the meta-analysis conducted with the random effect model in order to determine the effect of organizational silence on burnout, it was determined that the effect of organizational silence on burnout was statistically significant ( $Z=7.74$ ;  $p<0.05$ ). According to the correlation mean ( $r=0.635$ ) and Fisher's Z (Fisher's  $Z=0.749$ ) statistics obtained in the random effect model valid due to heterogeneity, the effect of organizational silence on burnout was determined to be at a large effect level ( $R^2=0.403 > 0.25$ ). This effect is expected to be between 0.258 and 0.540 (Table 3, Figure 2).

#### 4.3. Findings Regarding Bias

The meta-analysis results regarding how many studies are needed to refute the findings regarding publication bias, the effect of potentially missing studies on the meta-analysis, pooled correlation, and Fisher's Z statistics are shown in Table 4.

**Table 4**

*Findings Regarding Bias*

Test	Statistic	Innovation→ Sustainability
		Value
Egger	Value	-1,778
	SE	6,458
	t	0,275
	p (1-tailed)	0,394
	p (2-tailed)	0,787
	Result	1
Duval and Tweedie's Trim and Fill	Point estimate (Observed Values)	0,749
	Point estimate (Adjusted Values)	0,749
	Lower limit (Observed Values)	0,559



Result Tau <i>b</i>	Lower limit (Adjusted Values)	0,559
	Upper limit (Observed Values)	0,939
	Upper limit (Adjusted Values)	0,939
	Q (Observed Values)	488,699
	Q (Adjusted Values)	488,699
	(Observed values - Adjusted values =0)	
	2	
	Value (Without continuity correction)	0,152
	Value (With continuity correction)	0,143
	Z (Without continuity correction)	0,792
	Z (With continuity correction)	0,742
	p (1-tailed) (Without continuity correction)	0,214
	p (1-tailed) (With continuity correction)	0,229
	p (2-tailed) (Without continuity correction)	0,428
	p (2-tailed) (With continuity correction)	0,458
Classic Fail-Safe N (Rosenthal)	Result	3
	Observed Z	44,597
	Observed p	0,000
	Alpha	0,050
	Tails	2
Orwin's Fail-Safe N	Z	1,959
	Number of Observed Studies	15
	Fisher's Z in observed studies	0,751
	Correlation in observed studies	0,635
	Criterion for a "trivial" Fisher's Z	0,100
	Mean Fisher's Z in missing studies	0,050

1: No publication bias; 2: Possible missing studies have no impact on the meta-analysis; 3: This study was not affected by the number of articles used;

According to the Egger test results in the studies examining the relationship between organizational silence and burnout, it was determined that there was no effect of publication bias in the studies included in the research (Egger=-1.78;  $t=0.27$ ;  $p>0.05$ ) (Table 4). Funnel Plot was examined in order to determine the effect of possible missing studies on the meta-analysis, and it was seen that the studies were distributed symmetrically on both sides of the funnel plot (Figure 3). Similarly, according to the results of Duval and Tweedie's cut and add test, it was determined that the difference between the observed values and the corrected values obtained to correct the effect of publication bias was 0.000 ( $0.749-0.749 = 0.000$ ). According to this finding, possible missing studies have no effect on the meta-analysis (Table 4). According to the results of Kendall's Tau *b* test, which was conducted to determine the relationship between study size (number) and effect size, it was determined that the number of studies included in the research had no effect on the effect size value obtained from this study (Tau *b*=0.143;  $Z=0.742$ ;  $p>0.05$ ) (Table 4). According to the results of the Orwin (fail-safe N) safe N test, which was conducted to determine how many studies are needed to refute the effect size result obtained in this study, 196 studies are required for the Fisher's Z coefficient obtained in this study to be insignificant ( $p>0.05$ ). Since the insignificance Fisher's Z coefficient was determined as 0 (Fisher's  $Z\leq 0.100$ ) and the

insignificance correlation coefficient was determined as 0 ( $r \leq 0.100$ ), the average Fisher's Z correction coefficient in the 196 studies should be 0.050 and the pooled correlation should be 0.100. When the publication bias results in Table 4 are evaluated together, it is seen that there is no publication bias effect in the meta-analysis results obtained from this study.

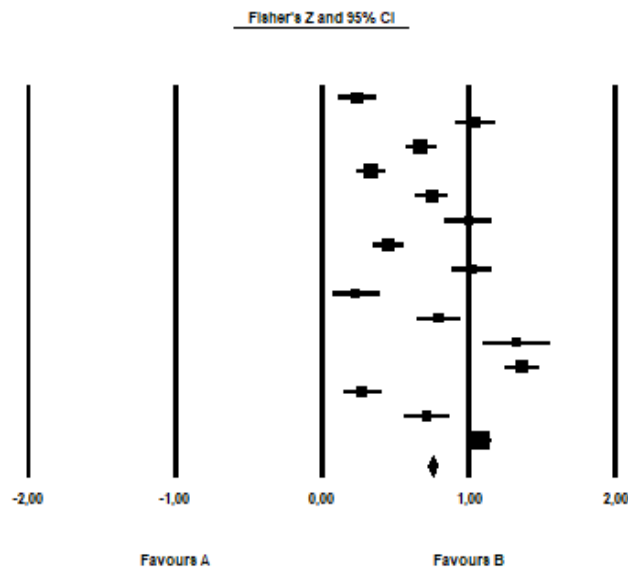
**Figure 1**

*Working Weights Chart*



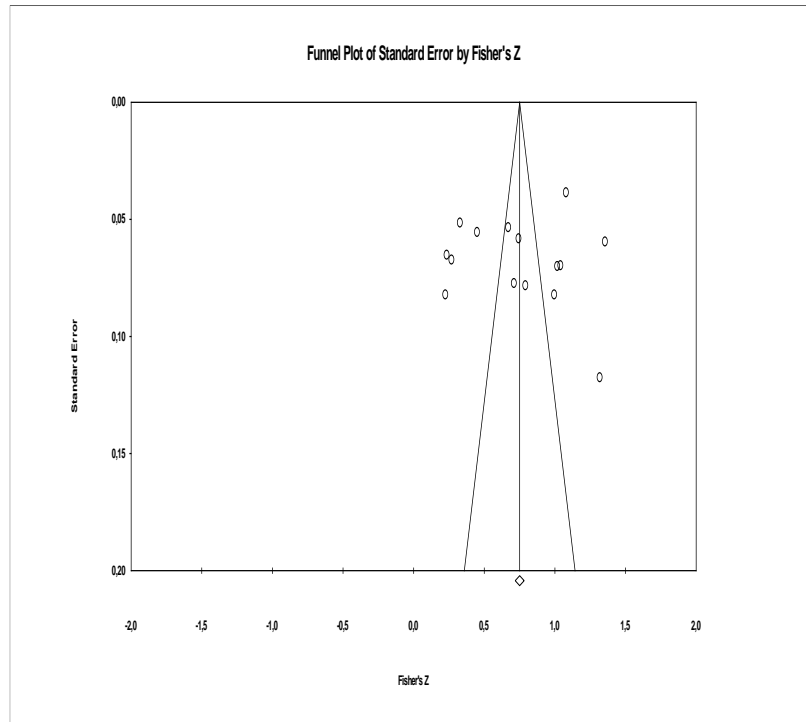
**Figure 2**

*Effect Size Graph with 95% Confidence Interval*



**Figure 3**

*Funnel Chart*



## 5. Conclusion

It is observed that the relationship between organizational silence and burnout is explained through factors that influence employees' attitudes. Al-Rousan and Omoush (2018) stated that the factors leading to organizational silence also trigger the emergence of burnout. They emphasized that effective communication between employees and a flexible organizational structure can help overcome both organizational silence and burnout. Khakpour (2025) identified a significant relationship between silence and emotional exhaustion. Lainidi et al. (2025) found that the relationship between burnout and silence is moderated by the tendency to express oneself, indicating that as self-expression increases, burnout tends to decrease. Durmuş (2022) determined that managers reduce silence by strengthening interpersonal relationships among employees in the workplace, which in turn creates a mitigating effect on burnout. Modnalizade and Javaheri (2022) asserted that organizational cynicism and negative attitudes stemming from a lack of information influence the relationship between silence and burnout. NouriSamarin et al. (2021) found that organizational silence mediates the indirect effects of centralized decision-making and mobbing on burnout. The findings in these studies are supportive of our research.

To determine the relationships between organizational silence and burnout, an evaluation was carried out on 15 studies and 3111 samples within the scope of the meta-analysis method. According to the findings of the study, it was determined that there was a strong positive relationship between organizational silence and burnout ( $r=0.635$ ). It was also seen that organizational silence had a large effect level on burnout ( $R^2 = 0.403$ ). However, according to the Egger test parameters regarding whether there was publication bias in the studies between organizational silence and burnout, it was determined that there was no publication bias.

It can be thought that due to the positive relationships between organizational silence and burnout, the probability of employees who exhibit organizational silence to suffer from burnout syndrome will increase. According to the Funnel Plot parameters, it was determined that the missing studies had no effect on the meta-analysis. According to the results of Kendall's Tau  $b$  test, it was seen that the number of studies did not have any effect in terms of "effect size".

According to the meta-analysis results, it is possible to improve the relationships between followers and managers by making improvements in the organizational structure and leadership approach that trigger organizational silence. In other words, it can be stated that employees supported by strong and continuous feedback mechanisms (Pinder & Harlos, 2001) and positive reinforcements decrease their tendency to exhibit organizational silence, and that burnout can be prevented. In addition, the intersection of the concepts of organizational silence and burnout is a stress factor. Organizational silence increases stress, and stress increases burnout (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). In this context, it can be thought that controlling the factors that trigger stress at the organizational level will indirectly reduce burnout. In the studies in the relevant field, it is emphasized that excessive workload, insufficient managerial support, and level of responsibility are important triggers among the factors affecting burnout (Bemana et al., 2013).

This meta-analysis has several limitations that should be acknowledged. First, the analysis was limited to studies published in specific databases and languages, which may have led to publication bias by excluding relevant unpublished or non-English studies. Second, methodological differences among the included studies—such as varying measurement tools for organizational silence and burnout—may have introduced heterogeneity in the effect sizes. Third, the cross-sectional nature of most studies limits causal inference. Lastly, although moderator analyses were conducted, there may be other

contextual or organizational factors that influence the relationship between organizational silence and burnout, but could not be tested due to data limitations. Future research may benefit from including longitudinal studies, broader samples, and more diverse cultural contexts to address these limitations.

**Conflict of Interest:** On behalf of all authors, the responsible author declares that there is no conflict of interest.

**Ethics Approval:** This study does not require any ethics committee approval.

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## İş Güvencesizliği ve Örgütsel Sinizm Algıları Arasındaki İlişkinin İncelenmesi: Eskişehir Yabancı Dil Kursları Örneği<sup>1</sup>

Necmi GÜNAYDIN<sup>2</sup> 

Tuba YİYİT<sup>3</sup> 

### Öz

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı iş güvencesizliği algısı ile örgütsel sinizm arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır. Çalışma Eskişehir ilinde yabancı dil kurslarında çalışan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin katılımı ile gerçekleştirilmiş olup, ölçek madde sayısı üzerinden yeterliliği hesaplanmıştır. Çalışmada kolayda örneklem yöntemi kapsamında 145 kişiye ulaşılmıştır. Elde edilen veriler anket formu aracılığıyla toplanmış olup, anket formu demografik özelliklere yönelik sorulardan, örgütsel sinizm ve iş güvencesizliği ölçeğinden oluşmaktadır. Araştırmada elde edilen veriler SPSS 23 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Sonuç olarak yabancı dil kurslarında çalışan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin iş güvencesizliği algısı ile örgütsel sinizm arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı ve karşılıklı pozitif bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür. Ayrıca demografik değişkenlere göre elde edilen sonuçlarda evli bireylerin daha az iş güvencesizliği algısına sahip oldukları ve daha az sinik tutumlar geliştirdiği bulgusuna ulaşılmıştır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** İş Güvencesizliği, Örgütsel Sinizm, İngilizce Öğretmenleri

## Examining The Relationship Between Job Insecurity and Organizational Cynicism in Eskisehir Foreign Language Courses

### Abstract

The primary objective of this study is to examine the relationship between perceived job insecurity and organizational cynicism. The research was conducted with English language teachers employed at foreign language courses in Eskisehir, Turkey. The adequacy of the sample size was determined based on the number of items in the measurement scales. Using a convenience sampling method, data were collected from 145 participants. The questionnaire consisted of sections addressing demographic characteristics, as well as standardized scales measuring organizational cynicism and job insecurity. The collected data were analyzed using SPSS 23 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). The findings indicate a statistically significant and positively correlated relationship between perceived job insecurity and organizational cynicism among English language teachers. Moreover, the results suggest that married individuals tend to perceive lower levels of job insecurity and display less cynical attitudes.

**Keywords:** Job Insecurity, Organizational Cynicism, English Teachers

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## 1. Giriş

İş yaşamı, çalışan beklentilerinin farklılaşması, ekonomik dalgalanmalar, teknolojik ilerlemeler, küreselleşmenin hız kazanması ve esnek istihdam politikalarının yaygınlaşması gibi dinamiklerle birlikte önemli bir dönüşüm geçirmektedir. Bu dönüşüm, iş güvencesi kavramını da doğrudan etkilemekte ve çalışanların kariyerlerini planlama biçimlerini yeniden şekillendirmektedir. Özellikle rekabetçi piyasalar, özel sektörün ekonomi ve istihdam politikalarında daha fazla söz sahibi olduğu neoliberal ekonomik politikaların benimsenmesi, sendikaların zayıflaması ve sürekli daha fazla performans gösterme baskısıyla birlikte kamu ve özel sektör istihdamında güvenli ve uzun vadeli çalışma koşullarının yerini, geçici ve güvencesiz iş ilişkilerine bıraktığı gözlemlenmektedir. Özellikle esnek çalışma biçimlerinin yaygınlaşması, kısa süreli sözleşmelerin artması ve istihdamın giderek daha kırılgan bir yapıya bürünmesi bireylerde işlerinin sürdürülebilirliğine yönelik endişeleri artırmaktadır. Her çalışan işini kaybetmeme ve uzun vadede iş hayatını sürdürebilme beklentisini içerisindeyken; günümüzde bu beklenti giderek daha fazla belirsizlik ve endişe ile gölgelenmekte ve çalışanların işini kaybetme olasılığına yönelik duyduğu kaygı ve belirsizliği arttırarak iş güvencesizliği kavramını ortaya çıkarmaktadır.

İş güvencesizliği, çalışanlar için yalnızca işin kaybedilme riskine dair rasyonel bir olasılık yanında, aynı zamanda bireyin öznel olarak hissettiği bir tehdit algısı olarak tanılanmaktadır. Bu algı, sadece çalışanları sadece ekonomik değil psikososyal olarak da etkilemektedir. İş güvencesizliği hisseden bireyler, çalışma yaşamlarına yönelik kurumsal bağlılık düzeyleri, motivasyonları, aidiyet duyguları, psikolojik iyilik halleri ve aile ilişkilerini açısından etkilenebilmektedirler. Bireylerin, işlerini kaybetme olasılığını sürekli bir tehdit olarak algılamaları, uzun vadede tükenmişlik, kaygı bozuklukları ve stres gibi psikolojik sorunların yanı sıra kurumsal düzeyde performans düşüklüğü ve devamsızlık gibi olumsuz sonuçlara da yol açabilmektedir. Bu bağlamda iş güvencesizliği, yalnızca bireysel bir sorun olmaktan çıkarak aynı zamanda örgütsel verimlilik ve kurumsal sürdürülebilirlik açısından da kritik bir mesele olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır.

İş güvencesizliğinin birey üzerinde psikolojik, davranışsal ve tutumsal boyutta çeşitli olumsuz sonuçlara yol açması; psikolojik açıdan kaygı, stres ve duygusal tükenmişlik gibi sorunlara; davranışsal düzeyde iş güvencesizliği motivasyon ve performansın düşmesi, devamsızlıkların artması ve işten ayrılma niyetinin yükselmesi şeklinde kendini

gösterebilmektedir. Bu durumun çalışanların tutumlarına yansıyan yönlerinden biri ise işlerine ve örgütlerine karşı olumsuz tutumlar geliştirmeleri şeklindedir. Bu durum literatürde "örgütsel sinizm" olarak adlandırılmaktadır.

Örgütsel sinizm, bireylerin çalıştıkları kuruma karşı geliştirdikleri olumsuz tutumların ve duyguların bütünüdür. Dean vd. (1998) sinizmi, bireyin kurumuna dair duyduğu hayal kırıklığı, güvensizlik ve öfke duygularının, küçümseyici ve eleştirel davranışlarla dışa vurumu olarak tanımlamaktadır. Sinik bireyler, örgütün dürüstlüğüne ve bütünlüğüne dair inançlarını kaybetmiş, yöneticilerin açıklamalarını şüpheyile karşılayan, değişim ve gelişim süreçlerine karşı umutsuzluk taşıyan çalışanlardır. Sinizm, bireyin yaşadığı olumsuz deneyimlerin bir yansıması olmasının yanı sıra; aynı zamanda örgüt içerisindeki adaletsizlik algısı, iletişim eksiklikleri, etkisiz liderlik ve kurumsal belirsizlik gibi yapısal sorunlardan da beslenmektedir. Özellikle iş güvencesizliği algısının yoğun olduğu örgütlerde çalışanlar, kendilerini örgütün bir parçası olarak görememekte ve örgütle özdeşleşmekten uzaklaşmaktadır. Bu durum sinik tutumların yaygınlaşmasına ve kurum kültürünün zedelenmesine neden olmaktadır.

Eğitim gibi toplumsal sorumluluğu yüksek bir alanda ise bu süreç daha da hassas bir hal almakta; uygulanan politikaların yarattığı belirsizlikler çalışanlar üzerinde doğrudan etkili olabilmektedir. Türkiye özelinde bakıldığında, devlet kurumlarında öğretmen istihdamının, ilgili bölümlerden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarının sayısına kıyasla yetersiz kalması; uygulanan merkezi sınav sistemleri ve öğretmen alım politikalarının belirsizliği, öğretmen adaylarını alternatif iş alanlarına yönelmeye zorlamaktadır. Bu bağlamda, özel eğitim kurumları ve özellikle yabancı dil kursları, öğretmenler için öne çıkan istihdam alanlarından biri haline gelmektedir. Ancak bu kurumlarda öğretmenlerin karşılaştığı çalışma koşulları, çoğu zaman devlet okullarındaki koşullarla benzer güvence ve hakları sunmaktan uzak kalmaktadır. Söz konusu özel kurumlar, öğretmenleri genellikle saatlik ücretlendirme esasına göre çalıştırmakta, kadrolu istihdam sağlamamakta ve sosyal güvencelere ilişkin yeterli teminat sunmamaktadır. Bu koşullar öğretmenlerin iş güvencesizliği algısını derinleştirerek örgüte karşı olumsuz tutumlar geliştirmelerine, yani örgütsel sinizme zemin hazırlamaktadır. Öğretmenlerin iş güvencesine dair algıları, yalnızca kendi mesleki motivasyonlarını değil; aynı zamanda verdikleri eğitimin niteliğini ve öğrenci başarısını da dolaylı olarak etkilemektedir. Öğretmenlerin örgüte karşı olumsuz tutumlar geliştirmesi, kurumun işleyişini ve eğitim ortamının iklimini olumsuz yönde

etkileyebilmektedir. Dolayısıyla, eğitim kurumlarında iş güvencesizliği ve sinizm arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek, yalnızca bireysel düzeyde değil, kurumsal ve toplumsal düzeyde de önem arz etmektedir.

Geçmiş çalışmalar, iş güvencesizliği algısının örgütsel sinizmin tüm boyutlarıyla etkileyen önemli bir değişken olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır (Andersson ve Bateman, 1997; Seçkin, 2018). Farklı sektörlerde çalışan bireylerin iş güvencesizliği ve sinizm algılarına yönelik çok sayıda araştırma gerçekleştirildiği görülmektedir. Bu araştırmalar arasında, çalışan-örgüt ilişkisinin duygusal ve psikolojik yönlerinin yoğun biçimde deneyimlendiği eğitim kurumlarına da yer verildiği dikkat çekmektedir. Ancak, bu çalışmanın örneklemini oluşturan özel eğitim kurumlarının, özellikle de özel yabancı dil kurslarının, mevcut literatürde yeterince temsil edilmediği göze çarpmaktadır. Bu bağlamda, söz konusu araştırma ile Eskişehir ilinde yabancı dil kurslarında görev yapan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin algıladıkları iş güvencesizliği ve örgütsel sinizmin arasındaki ilişkinin ortaya konulması ve demografik değişkenler açısından değerlendirilmesi amaçlanmaktadır.

## **2. Kuramsal Çerçeve**

### **2.1. İş Güvencesizliği**

İş güvencesizliği birçok ülkede göz ardı edilemeyecek düzeyde toplumsal bir sorun haline gelmiştir. Özellikle ekonomik belirsizlikler, iş dünyasındaki yapısal dönüşümler ve teknolojik gelişmeler, iş güvencesizliğini artıran başlıca faktörler arasında yerini almıştır. Bu kavram fabrika kapanmaları, şirketlerin yeniden yapılanma süreçleri ve geçici istihdam biçimlerinin yaygınlaşması gibi temel ekonomik değişimlerin sonucu olarak başta Avrupa ülkeleri ve ABD olmak üzere pek çok ülkede sosyal bir olguya dönüşmüştür (Betti, 2018; De Witte, 2005). Teknolojik gelişmeler etkisiyle ortaya çıkan uzaktan çalışma, esnek çalışma saatleri ve dijital platform temelli yeni iş modelleri, çalışma biçimlerini köklü bir şekilde değiştirmiştir. Bu dönüşüm, çalışanlara belirli düzeyde esneklik sağlarken, aynı zamanda iş güvencesizliğini artırmakta (Kalleberg, 2009, s. 17) çalışanların sosyal haklarının gerilemesine yol açmaktadır (De Stefano, 2016, s. 8).

İş güvencesizliği kavramı ilk kez 1984 yılında, bireyin işini güvende hissetmemesi, işine devam etmek istediği halde işinin devamlılığı konusunda bir tehdit algılaması olarak açıklanırken (Greenhalgh ve Rosenblatt, 1984); sonraki çalışmalarda iş bireyin işinin geleceğine ilişkin duyduğu endişe (Davy vd., 1997; Klandermans ve Van Vuuren, 1999; akt. Naswall ve De Witte, 2003), işini kaybetme konusundaki belirsizlik ve bu durumun yarattığı

kaygı (De Witte, 2005), ya da çalışanın mevcut işinin beklenenden daha erken sona erebileceğine dair algısı (Reisel vd., 2007) olarak tanımlanmıştır. Bu tanımlar incelendiğinde, iş güvencesizliği kavramında en yaygın vurgunun “tehdit algısı” ve “belirsizlik” unsurlarına yapıldığı görülmektedir (Karanfil ve Doğan, 2020).

Literatürde iş güvencesizliği kavramının; nesnel ve öznel iş güvencesizliği, bilişsel ve duygusal iş güvencesizliği ile nitel ve nicel iş güvencesizliği olmak üzere çeşitli alt boyutlar çerçevesinde ele alındığı görülmektedir. Nesnel iş güvencesizliği, genellikle ekonomik durgunluklar, kuruluşların kendi içerisinde yeniden yapılandırılması, birleşimler ve teknolojik gelişmeler gibi (Clark, 2005, s. 8) çalışanların işlerini kaybetme riskinin somut ve ölçülebilir göstergelerine dayanmaktadır. Söz konusu faktörler genellikle çalışanların kontrolü dışında olup, ekonomik koşullar, işletmelerin iflası gibi makro düzeydeki değişimlerin sonucu olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Öznel iş güvencesizliği ise, bireylerin işlerini kaybetme korkusu ve işlerinin geleceği hakkında duydukları belirsizlik hissine dayanmaktadır (De Witte ve Näswall, 2003, s. 156). Öznel iş güvencesizliği, bireyin algısına ve deneyimlerine bağlı olduğu için, aynı nesnel koşullar altında çalışanların algıları açısından arasında farklılık gösterebilmektedir (Naswall ve De Witte, 2003, s. 193).

Borg ve Elizur (1992), iş güvencesizliği kavramını, bilişsel iş güvencesizliği ve duygusal iş güvencesizliği boyutları ile açıklamışlardır. Bilişsel iş güvencesizliği, bireyin gelecekteki iş yaşamının beklentilerine ilişkin bilişsel değerlendirmesi olarak tanımlanırken; duygusal iş güvencesizliği ise, işini kaybetme olasılığına dair çalışanların hissettikleri korku ve kaygı duygularını ifade etmektedir (Atalay, 2021, s. 14). Bilişsel iş güvencesizliği, bireyin iş veya hak kaybı olasılığının farkında olmasını; duygusal iş güvencesizliği ise bu olası kayıplar hakkında endişelenme veya duygusal olarak sıkıntı çekme deneyimi olarak da ifade edilmektedir (Huang, vd., 2012, s. 752).

Hellgren vd. (1999), iş güvencesizliğini nitel ve nicel iş güvencesizliği olarak boyutlandırmışlardır. Nicel iş güvencesizliği, mevcut işin gelecekte varlığını sürdürmesine dair endişeleri ifade ederken, nitel iş güvencesizliği ise çalışma koşullarının bozulması, kariyer fırsatlarının azalması ve maaş gelişiminin düşmesi gibi istihdam ilişkisinin kalitesinin bozulmasına yönelik algılanan tehditlerle ilgilidir (Hellgren vd., 1999, s. 182). Nitel iş güvencesizliği, çalışanların işlerinin doğası ve şartlarında meydana gelebilecek olumsuz değişikliklere dair endişelerini ifade etmektedir. Bu durum işin içeriği, çalışma koşulları, görev ve sorumluluklar gibi işin niteliklerinde meydana gelebilecek değişiklikleri



kapsarken; nitel iş güvencesizliği, işin tamamen kaybedilmesi yerine, işin kalitesinin ve özelliklerinin bozulmasına dair korkuları içermekte ve çalışanların işlerinin doğası ve şartlarında meydana gelebilecek olumsuz değişikliklere dair endişelerini ifade etmektedir.

Hangi boyutta yaşanırsa yaşansın iş güvencesizliği bireysel, sosyal ve örgütsel boyutta çeşitli sorunlara yol açabilmektedir. İş güvencesizliği yaşayan çalışanlar psikolojik, duygusal ve fiziksel sağlık sorunları ile karşı karşıya kalmakta ve motivasyonları negatif şekilde etkileyebilmekte (Cheng ve Chan, 2008; Sverke, vd., 2002), çalışanların kaygı düzeylerini arttırmakta ve stres seviyelerini yükseltmektedir (Boya vd., 2008). Ayrıca iş güvencesizliği algısı, çalışanların aile yaşamlarıyla iş yaşamları arasında denge kurmalarını zorlaştırarak, iş-aile çatışmasına yol açarak aile içi ilişkilerin zedelenmesine yol açabilmektedir (Cebe, 2022). İş güvencesizliği yaşayan ebeveynlerin çocuklarında sosyal sorunlar ve okul sorunları görülmektedir (Barling, vd., 1998). Barling ve Macewen (1992), iş güvencesizliğinin bireylerin stres seviyelerini artırarak evlilik kurumunu olumsuz etkilediğini, stres altında olan bireylerin eşleriyle olan ilişkilerinde daha fazla çatışma ve iletişim sorunlarına neden olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Örgütsel düzeyde ise iş güvencesizliği, çalışanları örgütsel bağlılık, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı, örgütsel aidiyet duygusunda azalma; işten ayrılma niyetinin artması ve sinizm gibi birçok önemli açıdan etkilediği görülmektedir.

## **2.2. Örgütsel Sinizm**

Temeli antik yunan düşüncesine dayanan sinizm kavramı, bireylerin yalnız kendi çıkarlarını gözettiğine inanan ve buna göre herkesi çıkarıcı kabul eden düşünce olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Erdost vd., 2007, s. 514). Zamanla bireye, gruplara, ideolojiye, sosyal topluluklara veya kurumlara yönelik güvensizlik, küçümseme, umutsuzluk ve hayal kırıklığını içeren, genel veya özel tutuma evrilmiştir (Andersson, 1996, s. 1397-1398). Günümüzde sinizm, hem bireysel hem de örgütsel dinamiklerle açıklanabilmektedir.

Örgütsel sinizm en genel anlamıyla, kişinin çalıştığı örgüte karşı, örgütün dürüstlükten yoksun olduğu inancına dayanan olumsuz bir tutum ve bu inanç ve duyguyla tutarlı olarak örgüte yönelik küçümseyici ve eleştirel davranış eğilimi şeklinde ifade edilmiştir (Dean vd. 1998, s. 345). Örgüt içerisinde yaşanan adaletsizlikler, etik dışı uygulamalar, güven eksikliği, örgütsel destek eksikliği yetersiz iletişim, örgütlerdeki politik davranışlar, kariyer gelişim olanaklarının sınırlı olması, yoğun iş yükü ve psikolojik sözleşme ihlalleri gibi faktörler; bireysel düzeyde ise çalışanların geçmiş deneyimleri, kişisel

beklentileri ve iş-özel yaşam dengesine dair algıları sinik tutumların oluşumunda etkili rol oynamaktadır. Bu faktörlerin bir araya gelmesi, çalışanlarda örgüte yönelik olumsuz yargıların ve duyguların gelişmesine, dolayısıyla örgütsel sinizm düzeyinin artmasına neden olabilmektedir.

Dean vd. (1998, s. 345), sinizmi bireyin çalıştığı örgüte karşı bilişsel, duygusal ve davranışsal olarak üç boyuttan oluşan bir tutum olarak tanımlamışlardır. Bilişsel boyut, çalışanların örgüte yönelik negatif düşünceleri ve inançları kapsamaktadır. Bu boyutta, çalışanlar örgütün adaletsiz dürüst olmayan ya da çıkarıcı bir yapıya sahip olduğuna inanırlar (Dean vd., 1998, s. 346). Bilişsel sinizmin temelinde ise genellikle çalışanların işyerinde yaşadıkları olumsuz deneyimler, etik dışı uygulamalarla örgüte duyulan güvenin etkilenmesi yer almaktadır.

Örgütsel sinizmin duygusal boyutu, çalışanların örgütlerine karşı geliştirdikleri olumsuz duygusal tepkileri ifade etmektedir. Bu boyutta çalışanlar örgütlerine karşı öfke, hayal kırıklığı, güvensizlik, hoşnutsuzluk gibi duygular deneyimlemekte ve çalıştıkları kuruma karşı olumsuz bir tutum geliştirebilmektedir. Örgütsel sinizmin davranışsal boyutu, çalışanların örgütlerine dair olumsuz inanç ve duygularını, açık bir şekilde dışa vurdukları davranışları ifade eder. Örgüte karşı alaycı konuşmalar, olumsuz yorumlar, işten kaçınma gibi davranışlarla kendini gösterebilir. Örgütsel sinizmin bilişsel boyutunda çalışanların örgüte dair olumsuz inançları, duygusal boyutta örgüte karşı olumsuz duygular olarak ortaya çıkmakta, davranışsal boyutta bu olumsuz inanç ve duyguların alaycı yorumlar ve pasif-agresif gibi davranışlarla dışa vurulması olarak sergilenmektedir (Fitzgerald, 2002, s. 19). Bir başka ifade ile bu üç boyut birbiri ile ilişkili olduğunu söylemek mümkündür. Davranışsal boyutta sergilenen tepkiler, bilişsel ve duygusal boyutların bir sonucu olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır (Dean vd., 1998, s. 346). Örgütsel sinizmin bireysel sonuçları arasında iş tatmininde azalma, motivasyon eksikliği, örgütsel bağlılığın azalması, tükenmişlik, saygının azalması, devamsızlık sayılabilmektedir. Bu davranışlar ise her alanda sürekli değişimin yaşandığı, verimliliğin önem kazandığı, çalışanların iş ve örgütle ilgili beklentilerinin farklılaştığı günümüz iş ortamlarında, örgütleri negatif olarak etkileyecek; örgütsel performansta düşüş, devamsızlıkta artış dolayısıyla iş gücü kaybı, proaktif faaliyetlerde isteksizlik, çevreyle iletişim ve saygının azalması, örgüte ve yönetime duyulan güvenin azalması gibi sorunlar doğurmaktadır (Kıral, 2023).

### **2.3. Literatürde İş Güvencesizliği ve Örgütsel Sinizm**

İş güvencesizliği çalışanların istihdamlarına yönelik belirsizlik ve kaygı durumunu ifade ederken, bu durumun örgütsel sinizmi tetikleyebileceği sıkça vurgulanmaktadır. İş güvencesizliğine maruz kalan çalışanlar, zamanla örgütlerine karşı olumsuz düşünceler geliştirerek güvensizlik, ilgisizlik ve olumsuz davranışlar sergileyebilmektedir. Bu nedenle, iş güvencesizliği ile sinizmin hem farklı değişkenlerle ilişkileri hem de kendi arasındaki ilişkileri literatürde dikkat çeken önemli bir konu olarak ele alınmaktadır.

İş güvencesizliği ile ilgili çalışmalar çoğunlukla örgütsel bağlılık, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı, örgütsel aidiyet, aidiyet, iş tatmini, iş stresi, üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışları ve sinizm gibi kavramlarla ilişkileri üzerine yoğunlaşmaktadır. Sharma vd. (2024), teknolojik gelişmelerin, çalışanlarda iş stresi ve iş güvencesizliği hissini artırarak örgütsel sinizmi beslediğini, işe bağlılığın ise sinik tutumu azaltıcı bir rol oynadığını ifade etmişlerdir. Kim ve Jo (2024), iş güvencesizliğinin üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışları üzerindeki etkisinin örgütsel sinizm aracılığıyla incelenmesi: algılanan örgütsel destek ve lider-üye etkileşimi kalitesinin düzenleyici rolleri isimli çalışmalarında iş güvencesizliğinin üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışları (CWB) ile pozitif yönde ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Ayrıca çalışmada örgütsel sinizmin, iş güvencesizliği ile üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışları arasındaki ilişkide aracı bir rol oynadığı; algılanan örgütsel destek (POS) ve lider-üye etkileşiminin (LMX), iş güvencesizliği ve örgütsel sinizmin olumsuz etkilerini artırarak üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışlarını etkilediği görülmüştür. Guidetti vd. (2022), ise doktora sonrası araştırmacılar da sinizm ve işe bağlılığın; bireysel iş güvencesizliği, iş güvencesizliği iklimi ve yönetici desteği arasındaki ilişkileri ne yönde etkilediğini inceledikleri çalışmalarında, bireysel iş güvencesizliğinin iş güvencesizliği iklimi ile hem sinizm hem de işe adanmışlık arasındaki ilişkide aracı bir rol oynadığını, yönetici desteğinin ise iş güvencesizliği iklimi ile bireysel iş güvencesizliği arasındaki ilişkiyi anlamlı şekilde zayıflatıldığını ortaya koymuştur

Mabrouk ve Gab Allah (2020), ise örgütsel sinizm düzeyinin yüksek olduğu iş yerlerinde iş güvencesizliği düzeylerinin orta ve iş performanslarının düşük olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, örgütsel sinizm ve iş güvencesizliği arasında pozitif bir ilişki, iş güvencesizliği ile iş rolü performansı arasında ise negatif bir ilişki bulunmuştur. İş güvencesizliğinin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı (Karanfil ve Doğan, 2020) ve örgütsel aidiyet üzerinde de negatif yönde olumsuz etkileri olabildiği görülmektedir. Seçkin (2018), çalışanların yaşadıkları iş güvencesizliği algısı arttıkça örgüte olan aidiyet duygularının

azaldığını belirtirken; Türkiye’de muhasebe meslek mensupları üzerinde yapılan bir çalışmada ise iş güvencesizliği algısı arttıkça işten ayrılma niyetinin de doğrusal ve pozitif yönde arttığı saptanmıştır (Köse vd., 2019). Sora vd. (2011), ise iş güvencesizliğinin çalışanlar üzerindeki etkilerini incelemiş ve iş güvencesizliği algısının, çalışanların örgütsel bağlılığını düşürdüğü bulgusuna ulaşmışlardır.

Çalışanların iş güvencesizliği algısı, örgütlerine karşı olumsuz tutumlar geliştirmelerine, bir başka ifade ile örgütsel sinizme yol açabilmektedir (Ashford vd., 1989; 2002; De Witte, 2005; Thinane, 2005; Kim ve Jo, 2024; Sverke ve Hellgren, 2002). Hegazy vd. (2024), örgütsel kimlik ve sinizmin performansı üzerindeki etkisini incelemişler ve sonuç olarak örgütsel kimlik algısının iş performansını olumlu yönde sinizmin ise olumsuz yönde etkilediği sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Örgütsel sinizmin aynı zamanda iş tatmini üzerinde olumsuz bir etkiye sahip olduğunu gösteren başka çalışmalar da bulunmaktadır (Abraham, 2000; Eaton, 2000; Kahya, 2013). Benzer şekilde örgütsel sinizm ile örgütsel bağlılık arasında da negatif bir ilişki bulgusu çalışmalarda sıklıkla vurgulanmaktadır. Bu bulgulara göre, çalışanların örgütsel sinizm düzeyi arttıkça, örgütsel bağlılık düzeyleri azalmaktadır (Eaton, 2000; Fındık ve Eryeşil, 2012; Terzi ve Sazkaya, 2020; Wanous vd. 2000). Saad Saleh Ali ve Abdelwahab İbrahim Elsyed (2022) araştırmalarında hemşirelerde örgütsel sinizm ile üretkenlik karşısındaki iş davranışları (CWB) arasındaki ilişkinin incelemişler ve sonuç olarak örgütsel sinizm, hemşireler arasında üretkenliğe zarar veren davranışların güçlü bir öncülü olduğu sonucuna ulaşmışlardır.

Örgütsel sinizmin, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışını da olumsuz etkilediğine dair araştırmalar bulunmaktadır (Andersson ve Bateman, 1997; Özdemir ve Tekin, 2018). Öte yandan, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışının, örgütsel sinizm düzeyinin azaltılmasında etkili olabileceğine dair bulgular da mevcuttur. Tokmak (2019), yürüttüğü çalışmada, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışının artmasının örgütsel sinizm tutumlarını azaltmada etkili olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, örgütsel sinizm ile tükenmişlik arasında da anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu çeşitli çalışmalarla ortaya konmuştur. Johnson ve O'Leary-Kelly (2003), bu iki kavram arasında ilişki bulunduğunu belirtirken; İbrahimağaoğlu ve Can (2017) ile Kaya ve Demirdağ (2024) da benzer sonuçlara ulaşmışlardır. Türkiye’de sınırlı sayıda olsa da iş güvencesizliğinin sinizm ile ilişkisini araştıran çalışmalar yapılmış ve bu çalışmalarda da iş güvencesizliği algısının sinizm algısını pozitif yönde etkilediği bulgusuna ulaşılmıştır (Çınar vd., 2014; Seçkin, 2018; Topluk, 2018). Çınar vd. (2014), örgütsel sinizm, iş güvencesizliği

ve işten ayrılma niyeti arasındaki üçlü ilişkiyi inceleyerek, bu değişkenler arasında çok güçlü pozitif ilişkiler bulmuşlardır. Seçkin (2018), Türkiye’de imalat sektöründe gerçekleştirdiği çalışmada, çalışanların yaşadıkları iş güvencesizliği arttıkça örgüte yönelik sinik duygu, düşünce ve davranışları da tetiklediği ortaya koymuştur.

#### **2.4. Eğitimde İş Güvencesizliği ve Sinizm**

Günümüzde iş güvencesizliği ve sinizm kavramları sadece özel sektör ve kurumsal yapılarla sınırlı kalmayıp eğitim kurumlarında da önemli bir sorun haline gelmiştir. Türkiye’de eğitim fakültelerinde istihdam fazlası öğretmen adayı bulunmasına rağmen, kamuya yapılan atamaların sınırlı kalması (Arık vd., 2018), çok sayıda öğretmenin ya işsiz kalmasına ya da özel eğitim kurumlarında ücretli öğretmenlik gibi güvencesiz pozisyonlarda çalışmasına yol açmaktadır (Sağıroğlu, 2013). Eğitimde artan özelleşme ve piyasalaşma eğilimleri, özel eğitim kurumlarında rekabet ve maliyet baskısı, öğretmen istihdamında esnek ve geçici modellerin benimsenmesine yol açmış; öğretmenlerin iş güvencesi olmadan uzun saatler karşılığı düşük ücretlerle çalışmalarına neden olmuştur (Sağıroğlu, 2013). Özel eğitim kurumlarında öğretmenler genellikle yıllık sözleşmelerle istihdam edilmekte olup, eğitim-öğretim yılı sonunda ise sözleşmelerinin yenilenip yenilenmeyeceği konusunda da belirsizlikler yaşanmaktadır. Bu durum, öğretmenlerde yüksek düzeyde iş güvencesizliği algısına neden olmaktadır. Öğretmenlerin iş güvencesizliği algısının artması, istenilen performansı sergileyememelerine neden olabilmekte, motivasyonlarını ve örgütsel bağlılıklarını olumsuz etkileyerek onların mesleklerine duydukları aidiyeti zayıflatabilmektedir (Karapınar ve Hatipoğlu, 2021). Ayrıca sendikal örgütlenmenin zayıf olması ve iş kanunlarının özel öğretim kurumlarındaki öğretmenleri yeterince güvence altına alamaması nedeni ile işverenler öğretmenleri daha düşük maaşlarla ve sosyal güvenceden yoksun olarak çalıştırabilmektedirler (duvaR.english, 2024). Tüm bu etkenler, iş güvencesizliği ve sinizm kavramlarının eğitim kurumları bağlamında da ele alınmasını ve araştırılmasını daha önemli hale getirmektedir.

Ruvio ve Rosenblatt (1999), İsrail'deki araştırmalarında devlet okulundaki öğretmenlerin iş güvencesizliği algılarının örgütsel bağlılık, algılanan örgütsel destek ve işten ayrılma eğilimini etkilediğini; buna karşın özel okullarda çalışan öğretmenlerin iş güvencesizliği algısının yalnızca işten ayrılma eğilimini etkilediğini bulmuşlardır.

Feather ve Rauter (2004), Avustralya’da gerçekleştirdikleri çalışmada, belirli süreli sözleşmeli öğretmenlerin kalıcı sözleşmeli öğretmenlere göre daha yüksek iş güvencesizliği

algısına sahip olduğunu ortaya koymuşlardır. Forcella vd. (2009) ise İtalya'da belirli süreli ve kadrolu öğretmenler üzerinde yaptıkları çalışmada, geçici kadrolu genç kadın öğretmenlerin daimi kadrodaki öğretmenlere göre; 50 yaş üstü kadın öğretmenlerin ve belirli süreli sözleşmeli erkek öğretmenlerin iş güvencesizliği ve kaygı düzeylerinin daha yüksek olduğu belirlenmiştir.

Chen vd. (2018), yaptıkları çalışmada çevrimiçi öğretmenlerin, kariyer uyumluluğunun işe bağlılıkla pozitif, iş güvencesizliğiyle negatif bir ilişki içinde olduğunu; iş stresiyle karşı karşıya kaldıklarında ise daha yüksek düzeyde kariyer uyumluluğuna sahip çevrimiçi öğretmenlerin, daha düşük düzeyde iş güvencesizliği ile işe daha fazla bağlı olacakları sonucuna ulaşmışlardır.

Samadi vd. (2020), İran'ın Fars eyaletindeki üniversitelerde çalışan İngilizce yabancı dil öğretmenleri üzerine yaptıkları çalışmada, öğretmenlerin iş tatminleri ne olursa olsun, örgütsel sessizlik ve iş güvencesizliğinin doğrudan tükenmişlikle ilişkili olduğunu bulmuşlardır. Singh vd. (2025), geçici süreli sözleşme ile çalışan öğretmenler üzerine yaptıkları çalışmada, duygusal iyi oluşun iş güvencesizliği ile iş bağlılığı arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık ettiğini ve duygu düzenleme güçlüklerinin, iş güvencesizliğinin duygusal iyi oluş üzerindeki etkisini düzenlediğinin sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Ayrıca, duygu düzenleme güçlüklerini iş güvencesizliğinin iş bağlılığı üzerindeki etkisini şekillendirebildiğini belirtmişlerdir.

Türkiye'de yapılan çalışmalarda literatürdeki çalışmaları destekleyerek önemli bulgulara ulaşılmıştır. Seçer (2011), Türkiye'de bir üniversitede araştırma görevlileri üzerine yaptığı çalışmada, belirli süreli istihdam edilen araştırma görevlileri (50d) ile diğer araştırma görevlilerinin (33a) algıladıkları iş güvencesizliği düzeyinde anlamlı bir farklılık bulmuş ve iş güvencesizliği ile yaşam doyumu arasındaki ilişkinin içsel işten ayrılma ile aracılık ettiğini tespit etmiştir. Üniversitelerde yapılan bir diğer çalışmada ise Valibayova (2018), Türkiye'de araştırma görevlilerinin, iş güvencesizliği algısının, iş stresini artırdığı ve iş performansı da azalttığını saptamıştır.

Kaya ve Yıldız (2020), İstanbul'da özel ilkokullarda çalışan sınıf öğretmenleri üzerinde yaptıkları çalışmada, iş güvencesi ve iş memnuniyeti algılarının örgütsel bağlılık ve motivasyonu anlamlı şekilde yordadığı sonucuna ulaşırlarken; Dede (2017), İstanbul'da devlet ve özel ortaokullarında çalışan öğretmenler üzerine yaptığı çalışmada, öğretmenlerin genel olarak iş güvencesizliği algılarının düşük olduğu ve özel ortaokul öğretmenlerinin iş

güvencesizliği algılarının devlet ortaokulu öğretmenlerine göre düşük olduğunun sonucuna ulaşmıştır.

Başaran vd. (2024), Eskişehir ilinde özel okullarda farklı türde sözleşmelerle çalışan öğretmenler ile yüz yüze görüşerek yaptıkları nitel çalışmada, katılımcıların çoğunun iş güvencesizliğini, yasal boşlukların ve işverenlerin yasa dışı ve etik dışı uygulamalarının bir göstergesi olarak gördüklerini belirtmişlerdir. Ayrıca bu çalışmada bazı katılımcılar iş güvencesinin yöneticilere bağlı olduğunu, her yıl sözleşmelerinin yenilenmesi gerektiğinden kendilerini güvensiz ve depresif hissettiklerini ifade etmişlerdir.

Örgütsel sinizm üzerine yapılan çalışmalar başlangıçta özel işletmelere odaklanmış olsa da 2000’li yılların başından itibaren eğitim kurumları ile ilgili de araştırmalar yapılmaya başlanmıştır (Dağyar ve Kasalak, 2018). James (2005), Amerika Birleşik Devletlerinde okul yöneticileri, öğretmenler, öğretmen yardımcıları ve diğer okul personeli üzerine yaptığı çalışmada, örgütsel sinizmin iş gerilimi, öğretmen tükenmişliği, üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışları ve uyumlu ve pozitif yönde ilişkili olduğuna ulaşmıştır.

Mousa (2017), Mısır’da bulunan devlet ilkokullarında yaptığı çalışmada, sinizmin boyutları (bilişsel, duygusal ve davranışsal) ile örgütsel bağlılık yaklaşımları arasında negatif bir ilişki olduğunun bulgusuna ulaşmış ve öğretmenlerin en çok duygusal sinizmden etkilendiklerini belirtmiştir. Yine Mısır’da bir devlet üniversitesinde çalışan öğretim görevlileri üzerinde yapılan çalışmada Nemr ve Liu (2021), ile örgütsel sinizmin, etik liderlik ile örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları arasındaki ilişkiyi zayıflattığı, sinizm düzeyi yüksek çalışanlarda bu ilişkinin daha zayıf, sinizm düzeyi düşük çalışanlarda ise daha güçlü olduğunun bulgusuna ulaşmışlardır.

Amerika Birleşik Devletleri’nin orta batı bölgesinde bulunan bir üniversitede çalışan öğretim görevlileri üzerine yapılan çalışmada ise değişime özgü sinizm üzerinde algılanan bilgi kalitesinin, meslektaşların sinizminin ve yönetime duyulan güvenin etkili olduğunu ve bunun durumun da değişime direnme niyetine yol açtığına sonucuna ulaşılmıştır (Qian ve Daniels, 2008).

Son yıllarda Türkiye’de de örgütsel sinizm konusu üzerine yapılan çalışmalar ivme kazanmış olduğu ve eğitim kurumları ve çalışanları da sinizm üzerine yapılan araştırmaların konusunu teşkil ettiği görülmektedir. Alanoğlu ve Karabatak (2021), öğretmenlerin sosyal bağlılık ve minnettarlık düzeylerinin ile demografik özelliklerinin, örgütsel sinizm algılarını nasıl etkilediğini incelemişler ve örgütsel sinizm ile sosyal bağlılık ve minnettarlık arasında



orta düzeyde ve negatif yönlü; örgütsel sinizm ile cinsiyet arasında düşük düzeyde negatif ilişki; eğitim düzeyi ve mesleki kıdem ile ise düşük düzeyde pozitif ilişki olduğu sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Kalağan ve Güzeller (2010), Antalya’da ilköğretim ve ortaöğretim kurumlarında görev yapan öğretmen üzerinde gerçekleştirdikleri çalışmada, öğretmenlerin örgütsel sinizm düzeyi ile branşları, mesleki kıdemleri, eğitim durumları, çalıştıkları okul türü, öğretmenliği seçme nedenleri arasındaki anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Gezer (2018), İstanbul’da görev yapan öğretim elemanlarının sinizm düzeyi ile ilgili yaptığı çalışmada; vakıf üniversitelerinde görev yapan öğretim elemanlarının genel ve örgütsel sinizm düzeylerinin devlet üniversitelerinde görev yapan öğretim elemanlarının genel ve örgütsel sinizm düzeylerinden daha yüksek olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Kahraman ve İşözen (2019), ise İstanbul Başakşehir’de bulunan devlet okulları ve özel okullarda çalışan öğretmenler üzerine yaptıkları çalışmada, devlet okulu öğretmenleri ile özel okul öğretmenlerinin örgütsel sinizm düzeyleri arasında fark olmadığı ve öğretmenlerin psikolojik sermaye düzeyleri arttıkça; örgütsel sinizm düzeylerinde azalma olduğu sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Şener ve Aytaç (2023), 2009-2021 yılları arasında yapılan çalışmaları öğretmenlerin örgütsel sinizm algıları üzerinde demografik değişkenlerin etki düzeyini belirlemek amacı ile meta-analiz yöntemi kullanarak incelemiş ve öğretmenlerin cinsiyet, kıdem, branş farklılıklarının örgütsel sinizm algıları üzerinde etkisinin olmadığı veya zayıf düzeyde etkili olduğu sonucuna ulaşmıştır. Topluk (2018) tarafından Muş Alparslan Üniversitesi araştırma görevlileri üzerinde yapılan çalışmada ise algılanan iş güvencesizliğinin örgütsel sinizme pozitif yönde etki ettiği belirlenmiştir. Eğitim kurumlarında iş güvencesizliği ve örgütsel sinizm konularının güncel olarak araştırmalara konu olduğu görülmektedir. Ancak bu iki kavramın doğrudan ilişkisini inceleyen spesifik çalışmalar olduğu ve uygulamaların yapıldığı kurumlar açısından bakıldığında çalışmaların sınırlı sayıda kaldığı, özel eğitim kurumlarının göz ardı edildiği görülmektedir. Bu nedenle bu çalışmada örneklem olarak farklı örgütlenme yapılarına sahip, çalışma koşulları açısından resmi kurumlardan farklılaşan yabancı dil kursları seçilmiştir.

Çalışmanın örneklemi oluşturulan yabancı dil kurslarında tam zamanlı çalışan öğretmenler genellikle verdikleri ders saatlerine göre ücretlendirilmekte, tam zamanlı çalışan öğretmen sayısı ise bu merkezlerin politikaları nedeni ile düşük düzeyde kalmaktadır. Bu durum bu merkezlerde çalışan öğretmenlerin çalışma hayatı ile ilgili sürekli bir gelecek kaygısı hissetmelerine sebep olabilmektedir. Ayrıca söz konusu kurumlarda sözleşmeli olarak çalışmakta olan öğretmenlerin de durumu istihdam fazlalığı nedeni ile çok farklı

olmayıp aynı şekilde bu öğretmenlerde gelecekte işlerinde çalışmaya devam edip edemeyeceği konusunda endişe yaşayabilmektedirler (Arık vd., 2018, s. 68; duvaR.english, 2024; Sağiroğlu, 2013, s. 84). Çalışmalar iş güvencesizliği yaşayan bireylerin çalıştıkları organizasyonlara karşı sinik tutumlar geliştirebileceklerini belirtilmektedir. Ancak Topluk (2018)'in çalışması haricinde eğitim kurumlarının çalışanları olan öğretmen/öğretim elemanlarının iş güvencesizliği algısının sinizm ile ilişkisini inceleyen başka bir çalışmaya rastlanılamamıştır. Bu durum yabancı dil kurslarında çalışan İngilizce öğretmenleri üzerinde yapılan bu çalışmanın önemini arttırmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın özel eğitim kurumlarında yapılmasının bu ilişkinin araştırılmasında literatüre önemli katkı sağlayabileceği öngörülmektedir.

### **3. Yöntem**

Bu bölümde araştırmanın örnekleme, araştırmada kullanılan veri toplama araçları, verilerin toplanma süreci ve verilerin analizine ilişkin bilgilere yer verilmiştir. Araştırmanın verilerinin toplanması, Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulunun 28.12.2021 tarihli 2021-21 nolu etik kurul onayı ile gerçekleşmiştir.

#### **3.1. Araştırmanın Örnekleme**

Bu araştırmada yabancı dil kurslarında çalışan öğretmenlerin iş güvencesizliği algısı ile örgütsel sinizm düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemek amacıyla ilişkisel tarama modeli kullanılmıştır. Bu model, değişkenler arasında var olan ilişkileri betimlemeye ve bu ilişkilerin yönü ile gücünü ortaya koymaya olanak sağlamaktadır. Bu çalışmanın örneklemini Eskişehir ilinde yabancı dil kurslarında çalışmakta olan İngilizce öğretmenleri oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmada kolayda örnekleme yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Kolayda örnekleme yönteminde, hedef evrendeki üyeler, kolay erişilebilirlik, coğrafi yakınlık, belirli bir zamanda hazır bulunma ya da katılma istekliliği gibi pratik kriterlere göre araştırmaya dâhil edilir (Etikan vd., 2016, s. 2). Kolayda örnekleminin bütün bu özelliklerinden yola çıkılarak Eskişehir ilinde bulunan 25 yabancı dil kursundan, kurumlarında anket uygulamayı kabul eden 17 dil kursunda toplam 145 kişiye ulaşılmıştır.

Örnekleme ilişkin tanımlayıcı istatistikler incelendiğinde kadın öğretmenler (%56,6), erkek öğretmenlere kıyasla (%43,4) daha fazla bulunmaktadır. Katılımcıların yaş dağılımı incelendiğinde, en büyük grubu %36,6 ile 25 yaş altı bireylerin oluşturduğu görülmektedir. Bunu %34,5 ile 25-30 yaş aralığındaki katılımcılar izlemektedir. 30 yaş ve üzerindeki

grupların oranları ise görece daha düşüktür; 30-35 yaş %12,4, 35-40 yaş %11,0 ve 40 yaş üzeri yalnızca %5,5 oranındadır. Bu bulgu, araştırmaya katılan öğretmenlerin büyük çoğunluğunun genç bireylerden oluştuğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Katılımcıların büyük çoğunluğunu bekâr bireyler oluşturmaktadır (%76,6), evli katılımcıların oranı ise %23,4'dür. Çalışma şekli açısından, öğretmenlerin %52,4'ü ücretli, %47,6'sı ise sözleşmeli olarak çalıştığı görülmektedir. Bu durum, iş güvencesi açısından kırılgan grupların çoğunlukta olduğunu göstermektedir.

Çalışma süresi dağılımı incelendiğinde, en büyük grubun %44,1 ile 1 yıldan az süredir çalışan öğretmenlerden oluştuğu görülmektedir. Bunu %31,7 ile 1-3 yıl arasında çalışanlar izlemektedir. 3 yıl ve üzeri deneyime sahip olanların oranı ise oldukça düşüktür; 3-5 yıl %13,1, 5-10 yıl %9,0 ve 15 yıl üzeri sadece %2,1'dir. Bu veriler, örneklemin mesleki deneyim açısından görece genç bir profilden oluştuğunu göstermektedir.

İngilizce öğretmenliğinde deneyim süresi açısından en büyük grubu %30,3 ile 1-3 yıl arası deneyime sahip öğretmenler oluşturmaktadır. Bunu %22,1 ile 3-5 yıl ve %20,0 ile 1 yıldan az deneyime sahip olanlar izlemektedir. 5 yıl ve üzeri deneyime sahip öğretmenlerin oranı kademeli olarak azalmakta olup, 5-10 yıl %13,8, 10-15 yıl %7,6, 15-20 yıl %3,4 ve 20 yıl üzeri %2,8 şeklindedir.

### **3.2. Veri Toplama Araçları ve Verilerin Analizi**

Araştırmada veriler biri kişisel bilgi formu olmak üzere üç adet anket formu aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Anketin ilk bölümünde örneklem grubunun demografik özelliklerine ilişkin altı maddeden oluşan “Kişisel Bilgi Formu” yer almaktadır. Anketin ikinci bölümünde iş güvencesizliğinin ölçümünde Ashford vd. (1989); De Witte (1999); Hellgren vd. (1999) tarafından geliştirilen ve dokuz maddeden oluşan “İş Güvencesizliği Ölçeği” kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin Türkçe formunun geçerlilik ve güvenilirlik çalışması Şeker (2011) tarafından yapılmıştır. Anketin üçüncü bölümünde ise örgütsel sinizm için ise Brandes vd. (1999) tarafından geliştirilen 3 boyutlu toplam 13 maddeden oluşan örgütsel sinizm ölçeği bulunmaktadır. Ölçekte 5 madde bilişsel sinizm, 4 madde duygusal sinizm, 4 madde ise davranışsal sinizm boyutları ile ilgilidir. Ölçeğin Türkçe formunun geçerlilik ve güvenilirlik çalışması Karacaoğlu ve İnce (2012) tarafından yapılmıştır.

Verilerin analizinde SPSS 23 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) programı kullanılmıştır. İş güvencesizliği ve örgütsel sinizm ölçeklerinin faktör yapısını incelemek

için Açımlayıcı Faktör Analizi (AFA) uygulanmış; verilerin faktör analizine uygunluğu Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) katsayısı ve Bartlett's küresellik testi ile değerlendirilmiştir. Ölçeklerin yapı geçerliliğini test etmek amacıyla ise doğrulayıcı faktör analizi (DFA) uygulanmıştır. Ölçekler arası ilişkiyi incelemek amacıyla Pearson korelasyon analizi, yordayıcı etkileri belirlemek amacıyla ise basit doğrusal regresyon analizi uygulanmıştır. Tüm istatistiksel analizlerde anlamlılık düzeyi  $p < 0,05$  olarak kabul edilmiştir ve bulgular %95 güven düzeyi çerçevesinde değerlendirilmiştir. Çalışmada ayrıca iş güvencesizliği ve sinizm algısının demografik değişkenler açısından farklılık gösterip göstermediği de incelenmiştir. İki grup karşılaştırmalarında bağımsız örneklem t-testi, ikiden fazla grup içeren karşılaştırmalarda tek yönlü varyans analizi (ANOVA) kullanılmıştır.

#### 4. Bulgular

Güvenilirlik analizi bulgularına göre, her iki ölçek de yüksek iç tutarlılığa sahiptir. İş güvencesizliği ölçeğinin Cronbach's Alpha katsayısı 0,866 olarak bulunmuş olup, bu değer ölçeğin güvenilirliğinin yüksek düzeyde olduğunu göstermektedir. Örgütsel sinizm ölçeği için elde edilen Cronbach's Alpha değeri ise 0,941'dir ve bu değer, ölçeğin yüksek iç tutarlılığa sahip olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Analizde kullanılacak testlerin belirlenmesi için her bir değişkenin normallik varsayımı, çarpıklık (skewness) ve basıklık (kurtosis) değerleri incelenerek değerlendirilmiş; bu değerler  $\pm 2,0$  aralığında olduğu için verilerin normal dağıldığı kabul edilmiştir (George ve Mallery, 2019, s.115; Tabachnick ve Fidell, 2007, s.675).

**Tablo 1**

*İş Güvencesizliği ve Örgütsel Sinizm Ölçeklerinin Güvenilirlik Analiz Bulguları*

Ölçek	Madde Sayısı	Ortalama	Standart Sapma	Cronbach's Alpha	Çarpıklık	Basıklık
İş Güvencesizliği	9	2,45	0,82	0,866	0,467	-0,103
Örgütsel Sinizm	13	2,16	0,89	0,941	1,019	0,959

İş güvencesizliği ölçeğine ilişkin KMO ve Bartlett's Testi sonuçları, faktör analizine uygunluk açısından bulgular sunmaktadır. KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) değeri ,805 olup bu değer "iyi" düzeyde kabul edilmekte ve verilerin faktör analizine uygun olduğunu göstermektedir. Bartlett Küresellik Testi sonucu istatistiksel olarak anlamlı çıkmıştır ( $\chi^2 = 752,517$ ,  $df = 36$ ,  $p < 0,001$ ); bu da değişkenler arasında yeterli düzeyde korelasyon olduğunu ve faktör analizinin uygulanabileceğini göstermektedir.

**Tablo 2***İş Güvencesizliği KMO ve Bartlett's Testi Bulguları*

Test	Değer
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Ölçüsü	,805
Bartlett Küresellik Testi	752,517
Serbestlik Derecesi (df)	36
Anlamlılık (Sig.)	p<0,001

İş güvencesizliği ölçeğine ilişkin faktör analizi bulguları, ölçeğin iki faktörlü bir yapıya sahip olduğunu göstermektedir. İlk faktör, yüksek faktör yükleriyle (0,672–0,923 aralığında) beş maddeyi kapsamış ve toplam varyansın %49,045'ini açıklamıştır. İkinci faktör ise dört maddeyi temsil etmekte olup, bu maddelerin faktör yükleri 0,637 ile 0,922 arasında değişmekte ve %19,013 oranında varyansı açıklamaktadır. İki faktör birlikte toplam varyansın %68,057'sini açıklamaktadır.

**Tablo 3***İş Güvencesizliği Faktör Analizi Bulguları*

Anket Madde	Madde Ortalaması	Standart Sapma	Faktör Yük Değeri	Açıklanan Varyans
ig8	2,83	1,26	0,923	49,045
ig7	2,57	1,23	0,905	
ig6	2,88	1,24	0,874	
ig5	2,89	1,13	0,738	
ig9	2,28	1,18	0,672	
ig3	2,28	1,22	0,922	19,013
ig4	2,01	1,09	0,879	
ig2	2,55	1,34	0,696	
ig1	1,77	0,87	0,637	
Total	2,45	0,82	-	68,057

Örgütsel sinizm ölçeğine ilişkin KMO ve Bartlett's Testi sonuçları verilmiştir. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) değeri ,908 olup bu değer oldukça yüksek düzeyde kabul edilmekte ve değişkenler arasında yeterli örneklem uygunluğunu işaret etmektedir. Bartlett Küresellik Testi sonucu da istatistiksel olarak anlamlıdır ( $\chi^2 = 1621,302$ ,  $df = 78$ ,  $p < 0,001$ ). Bu durum, değişkenler arasında anlamlı korelasyonlar olduğunu ve verilerin faktör analizine elverişli olduğunu göstermektedir.

**Tablo 4**

*Örgütsel Sinizm KMO ve Barlett's Testi Bulguları*

Test	Değer
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Ölçüsü	,908
Bartlett Küresellik Testi	1621,302
Serbestlik Derecesi (df)	78
Anlamlılık (Sig.)	p<0,001

Örgütsel sinizm ölçeğine ilişkin faktör analizi bulguları, ölçeğin üç faktörlü bir yapıya sahip olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. İlk faktör, yüksek faktör yükleriyle (0,557–0,956) altı maddeyi kapsamış ve toplam varyansın %59,72'sini açıklamıştır. İkinci faktörde yer alan beş madde ise negatif faktör yükleriyle (-0,529 ile -0,960 arasında) gruplandığı ve varyansın %9,96'sını açıkladığı görülmektedir. Üçüncü faktörde yer alan iki madde (faktör yükleri: 0,897 ve 0,765) varyansın %8,2'sini açıklamakta ve davranışsal sinizm boyutunu temsil etmektedir. Üç faktör birlikte toplam varyansın %77,88'ini açıklamakta olup oldukça yüksek bulunmuştur.

**Tablo 5**

*Örgütsel Sinizm Faktör Analizi Bulguları*

Anket Madde	Madde Ortalaması	Standart Sapma	Faktör Yük Değeri	Açıklanan Varyans
s7	1,83	1,06	,956	59,72
s8	1,85	1,06	,911	
s6	1,86	1,06	,871	
s9	1,88	1,06	,852	
s10	2,31	1,19	,653	
s11	2,31	1,24	,557	
s1	2,23	1,24	-,960	9,96
s3	2,21	1,15	-,851	
s2	2,11	1,19	-,836	
s5	2,10	1,08	-,777	
s4	2,23	1,16	-,529	
s12	2,60	1,28	,897	8,2
s13	2,52	1,28	,765	
Total	2,16	0,89	-	77,88

Ayrıca çalışmada ölçeklerin yapı geçerliliğini test etmek amacıyla doğrulayıcı faktör analizi (DFA) uygulanmıştır. DFA işlemi, yapısal eşitlik modelleme yazılımlarından biri olan IBM SPSS AMOS 24 programı kullanılarak gerçekleştirilmiştir. Modelin uyum iyiliği, çeşitli

uyum indeksleri (NFI, CFI, GFI, AGFI, RMSEA ve  $\chi^2/df$ ) aracılığıyla değerlendirilmiştir. Uyum indekslerinin yorumlanmasında literatürde kabul görmüş sınır değerler dikkate alınmıştır (Schermelleh vd, 2003). Modeller üzerinde uygun modifikasyonlar yapılarak kabul edilir sınırlar elde edilmiştir. Analizler sonucunda, ölçeklerin faktör yapılarının veriyle kabul edilebilir düzeyde uyum gösterdiği belirlenmiştir.

**Tablo 6**

*İş Güvencesizliği ve Örgütsel Sinizm Ölçekleri Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analizi Bulguları*

Uyum Ölçütleri	İyi Uyum	Kabul Edilebilir Uyum	İş Güvencesizliği	Örgütsel Sinizm
NFI	$0.95 \leq NFI \leq 1$	$0.90 \leq NFI \leq 0.95$	0,924	0,930
CFI	$0.97 \leq CFI \leq 1$	$0.95 \leq CFI \leq 0.97$	0,954	0,964
GFI	$0.95 \leq GFI \leq 1$	$0.90 \leq GFI \leq 0.95$	0,922	0,892
AGFI	$0.90 \leq AGFI \leq 1$	$0.85 \leq AGFI \leq 0.90$	0,859	0,836
RMSEA	$0 < RMSEA < 0.05$	$0.05 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.10$	0,097	0,082
$\chi^2/df$		$0 < \chi^2/df \leq 3$	58,815/25=2,353	118,180/60=1,970

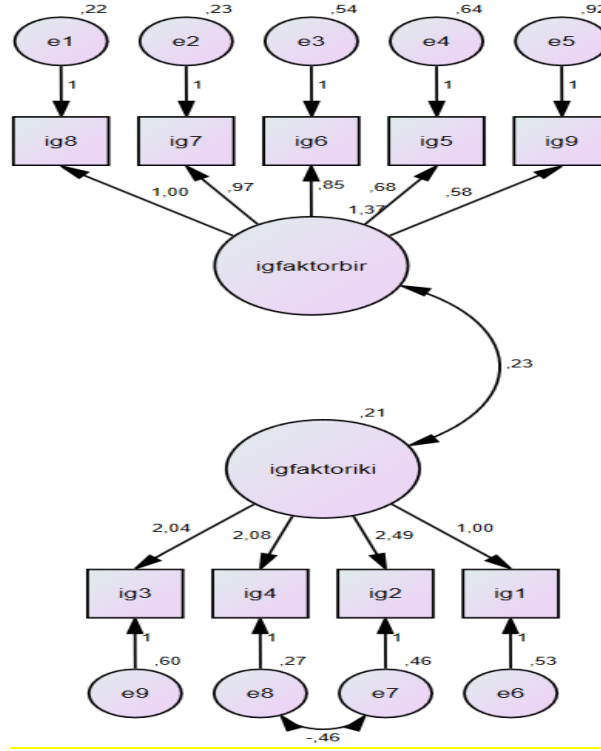
Kaynak: Schermelleh vd. (2003, s.52).

Tablo 6’da ölçeklere ilişkin doğrulayıcı faktör analizi bulguları paylaşılmıştır. Doğrulayıcı faktör analizi (DFA) sonuçlarına göre elde edilen uyum iyiliği indeksleri değerlendirildiğinde, “İş Güvencesizliği” ölçeği için NFI = 0.924, CFI = 0.954, GFI = 0.922, AGFI = 0.859 ve RMSEA = 0.097 olarak bulunmuştur. Bu değerler NFI, CFI ve GFI için kabul edilebilir uyum düzeyinde; AGFI ve RMSEA ise sınırdadır ve kabul edilebilir uyum düzeyindedir.  $\chi^2/df$  oranı 2.353 olup 3’ün altında kaldığı için kurulan İş Güvencesizliği modelinin uyum iyiliği kabul edilebilir düzeydedir. “Örgütsel Sinizm” ölçeği için ise NFI = 0.930, CFI = 0.964, GFI = 0.892, AGFI = 0.836 ve RMSEA = 0.082 olarak elde edilmiştir. Bu sonuçlar, NFI ve CFI değerlerinin kabul edilebilir seviyeye, GFI ve AGFI’nin ise sınırdadır ve yine kabul edilebilir düzeyde olduğunu göstermektedir. RMSEA değeri 0.082 ile yine kabul edilebilir uyum aralığında yer almaktadır.  $\chi^2/df$  değeri 1.970 olarak bulunmuş ve bu da kurulan Örgütsel Sinizm modelinin genel olarak kabul edilebilir düzeyde bir uyuma sahip olduğunu göstermektedir. Şekil 1’de İş Güvencesizliği ölçeğine ilişkin diyagram sunulmuştur.



**Şekil 1**

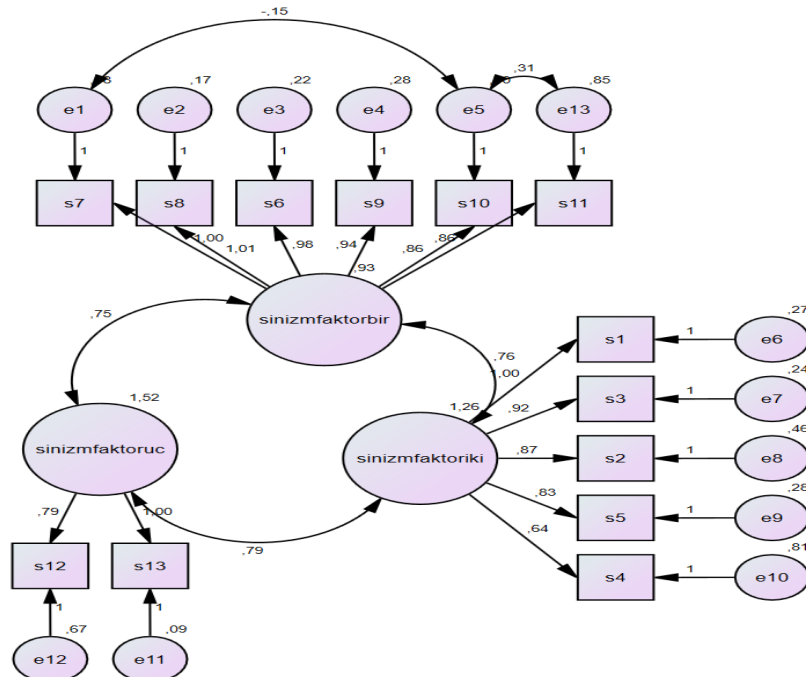
*İş Güvencesizliği Diyagramı*



Şekil 2’de ise Örgütsel Sinizm ölçeğine ilişkin diyagram sunulmuştur.

**Şekil 2**

*Örgütsel Sinizm Diyagramı*



Pearson korelasyon analizi bulgularına göre, iş güvencesizliği ölçeği ile örgütsel sinizm ölçeği arasında pozitif yönlü, orta düzeyde ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmaktadır ( $r = 0,616$ ,  $p < 0,001$ ). Bu sonuç, iş güvencesizliği algısı arttıkça öğretmenlerin örgütsel sinizm düzeylerinin de arttığını göstermektedir. Bu bulgu, araştırmanın temel varsayımlarından birini desteklemekte ve iş güvencesizliğinin sinizm üzerinde belirleyici bir etkisi olabileceğini ortaya koymaktadır.

**Tablo 7***Pearson Korelasyon Analizi Bulguları*

	İş Güvencesizliği Ölçeği	Örgütsel Sinizm Ölçeği
İş Güvencesizliği Ölçeği	r 1 p ,000	.616*** 1
Örgütsel Sinizm Ölçeği	r .616*** p ,000	1

 $p < .05$ ,  $**p < .01$ ,  $***p < .001$ 

Regresyon analizi bulgularına göre, iki model de istatistiksel olarak anlamlı sonuçlar vermektedir. Model 1’de bağımlı değişken iş güvencesizliği olup, örgütsel sinizmin bu değişken üzerindeki etkisi anlamlı bulunmuştur ( $B = 0,570$ ,  $\beta = 0,616$ ,  $t = 9,363$ ,  $p < 0,01$ ). Bu sonuç, örgütsel sinizm düzeyi arttıkça iş güvencesizliği algısının da arttığını göstermektedir. Model 2’de ise bağımlı değişken örgütsel sinizm olup, iş güvencesizliği bu değişkenin anlamlı bir yordayıcısı olarak bulunmuştur ( $B = 0,666$ ,  $\beta = 0,616$ ,  $t = 9,363$ ,  $p < 0,01$ ). Örgütsel sinizm puanında meydana gelen her 1 birimlik artış, öğretmenlerin iş güvencesizliği algısını 0,570 birim artırmaktadır. Benzer şekilde iş güvencesizliği puanında meydana gelen her 1 birimlik artış, bireylerin örgütsel sinizm düzeyinde 0,666 birimlik bir artışa neden olmaktadır.

**Tablo 8***Regresyon Analizi Bulguları*

Model 1	B	Std. Hata	Beta	t	p
Sabit	1,222	0,142	-	8,607	$p < 0,01$
Sinizm	0,570	0,061	0,616	9,363	$p < 0,01$
Model 2	B	Std. Hata	Beta	t	p
Sabit	0,523	0,184	-	2,842	0,005
İş Güvencesizliği	0,666	0,071	0,616	9,363	$p < 0,01$

Not. Model 1 bağımlı değişkenin iş güvencesizliği olduğu, model 2 ise bağımlı değişkenin sinizm olduğu modeldir.

Son olarak, katılımcıların demografik özelliklerine göre iş güvencesizliği ve örgütsel sinizm düzeyleri incelenmiştir. Yapılan t-testi analizine göre, cinsiyet değişkeni açısından anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır ( $p > 0,05$ ). İş güvencesizliği puanları erkeklerde ortalama 2,56 iken kadınlarda 2,37 olarak hesaplanmış; fark istatistiksel olarak anlamlı değildir ( $t = 1,450$ ,  $p = 0,149 > 0,05$ ). Örgütsel sinizm açısından erkek katılımcıların puanı 2,17, kadın katılımcıların ise 2,15 olarak hesaplanmış ve fark anlamlı çıkmamıştır ( $t = 0,122$ ,  $p = 0,903 > 0,05$ ).

Yaş gruplarına göre yapılan tek yönlü varyans analizi (ANOVA) sonuçlarına göre de anlamlı bir fark gözlenmemiştir. İş güvencesizliği ölçeğinde  $F(4, 140) = 1,209$  ve  $p = 0,310 > 0,05$ ; örgütsel sinizm ölçeğinde ise  $F(4, 140) = 1,468$  ve  $p = 0,215 > 0,05$  olarak hesaplanmıştır. Bu sonuçlarına göre yaş grupları arasında da anlamlı bir fark gözlenmemiştir.

Medeni durum değişkenine göre t-testi analizinde, evli katılımcıların iş güvencesizliği puan ortalaması (2,21) bekâr katılımcılarda bu ortalama (2,53) şeklindedir. Bu fark istatistiksel olarak anlamlıdır ( $t = -2,002$ ,  $p = 0,047 < 0,05$ ). Örgütsel sinizm açısından da evli bireylerin ortalaması (1,73) bekâr bireylerin ise (2,29)dur ve anlamlı düzeyde daha düşüktür ( $t = -3,371$ ,  $p = 0,001 < 0,01$ ). Bu sonuçlar, bekâr bireylerin hem iş güvencesizliği hem de örgütsel sinizm düzeylerinin evlilere kıyasla daha yüksek olduğunu göstermektedir.

Çalışma şekline göre yapılan t-testi sonuçlarına göre, sözleşmeli öğretmenlerin iş güvencesizliği puan ortalaması 2,37 iken, ücretli öğretmenlerde bu ortalama 2,53 olarak gözlemlenmiştir, bu fark istatistiksel olarak anlamlı değildir çıkmamıştır ( $t = -1,144$ ,  $p = 0,254 > 0,05$ ). Benzer şekilde örgütsel sinizm puanları sözleşmeli öğretmenlerde 2,21, ücretli öğretmenlerde 2,11 olup, bu fark da anlamlı bulunmamıştır ( $t = 0,664$ ,  $p = 0,508 > 0,05$ ). Çalışma şekline göre iş güvencesizliği ve örgütsel sinizm ölçek puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunmamaktadır.

Çalışma süresi ve İngilizce öğretmenliğinde çalışma süresi değişkeni ANOVA analizi ile incelenmiştir. Analiz sonuçlarına göre çalışma süresi açısından iş güvencesizliği ve örgütsel sinizm puanları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunmamaktadır. İş güvencesizliği ölçeğinde  $F(4, 140) = 2,155$  ve  $p = 0,077$  olup, bu değer anlamlılık sınırına yakın olsa da 0,05'in üzerinde kaldığı için fark anlamlı kabul edilmemektedir. Örgütsel sinizm ölçeğinde ise  $F(4, 140) = 0,981$  ve  $p = 0,420$  ile anlamlılıktan oldukça uzaktır.

İngilizce öğretmenliğinde çalışma süresi açısından da anlamlı sonuçlara ulaşılamamıştır. İş güvencesizliği için test sonucu  $F = 0,743$  ve  $p = 0,616$ ; örgütsel sinizm için ise  $F = 0,992$  ve  $p = 0,433$  olarak hesaplanmıştır ( $p > 0,05$ ).

## 5. Sonuç

Çalışmanın amacını, yabancı dil kurslarında görev yapan İngilizce öğretmenlerinin algıladıkları iş güvencesizliği ve örgütsel sinizmin arasındaki ilişkinin ortaya konulması ve demografik değişkenler açısından değerlendirilmesi oluşturmaktadır. Çalışmanın bulguları öğretmenlerin iş güvencesizliği algıları ile örgütsel sinizm düzeyleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu göstermektedir. Çalışmada iş güvencesizliğinin sinizm ve sinizmin iş güvencesizliğini yordadığına dair kurulan iki modelde de anlamlı sonuçlar elde edilmiştir. Bu sonuçlar, söz konusu iki değişken arasında karşılıklı bir etkileşim olabileceğine işaret etmektedir. Özellikle güvencesiz çalışma koşulları altında bulunan bireylerin örgütlerine karşı daha olumsuz, sinik tutumlar geliştirdiği; bunun da bireyin kuruma aidiyetini ve bağlılığını zayıflatabileceği anlaşılmaktadır.

Elde edilen bulgular, iş güvencesizliği ile örgütsel sinizm arasında çift yönlü ve yapısal bir ilişkinin var olabileceğini ortaya koymaktadır. Geçmiş çalışmalarda bu iki değişken arasındaki ilişki genellikle tek yönlü olarak ele alınmış; ya iş güvencesizliğinin sinizm üzerindeki etkisi ya da sinizmin iş güvencesizliğine yansımaları incelenmiştir. Ancak bu araştırmanın sonuçları, söz konusu değişkenler arasında karşılıklı bir etkileşim bulunduğu işaret etmektedir. Bu durum, daha önceki literatürde pek ele alınmamış yeni bir bakış açısı sunmaktadır. Elde edilen bu bulgu, gelecekte yapılacak araştırmalara iş güvencesizliği ile örgütsel sinizm arasındaki karşılıklı ilişkiyi, araya giren ya da etkileyen diğer değişkenlerle birlikte daha kapsamlı biçimde inceleme yönünde bir zemin oluşturmaktadır. Çalışmada öğretmenlerin demografik özelliklerine göre iş güvencesizliği ve örgütsel sinizm düzeylerinde anlamlı farklılık olup olmadığı da incelenmiştir. Elde edilen bulgular, genel anlamda bazı demografik değişkenlerin bu iki kavram üzerinde etkili olmadığını, ancak medeni durum değişkeninin anlamlı sonuçlar ortaya koyduğunu göstermektedir. Bu bulgu Şener ve Aytaç (2023)'in çalışmasındaki sonucu medeni durum değişkeni dışında desteklemektedir. Bekâr öğretmenlerin hem iş güvencesizliği hem de örgütsel sinizm düzeylerinin evli öğretmenlere göre daha yüksek olduğu görülmüştür. Bu bulgu, evli bireylerin sosyal destek mekanizmaları veya daha istikrarlı yaşam koşulları sayesinde iş güvencesizliği ve sinizm algılarını daha düşük düzeyde yaşadıkları şeklinde

yorumlanabilir. Aynı zamanda bu durum, bireysel yaşam koşullarının örgütsel tutumlar üzerinde etkili olabileceğini göstermektedir.

Araştırma bulguları, iş güvencesizliğinin yalnızca bireyin ekonomik güvenliğiyle sınırlı kalmadığını, aynı zamanda örgütsel tutumlar üzerinde de önemli etkiler oluşturduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Güvencesiz çalışma koşullarının, öğretmenlerin kurumsal aidiyet ve örgütsel bağlılık düzeylerini zayıflatabileceği; bu durumun ise uzun vadede kurumsal verimlilik üzerinde olumsuz yansımaları olabileceği söylenebilmektedir.

Bu bağlamda, eğitim kurumlarında iş güvencesine ilişkin kaygıların azaltılması, öğretmenlerin psikolojik ve mesleki iyi oluşlarını olumlu yönde etkileyebilir. Yöneticilerin, öğretmenlerin örgüte duyduğu güveni artıracak, aidiyet ve değer görme duygusunu pekiştirecek uygulamalara ağırlık vermeleri önerilmektedir. Ayrıca yöneticilerin dürüst, tarafsız, hoşgörülü ve adaletli davranmaları; çalışanların hak ve özgürlüklerine saygı göstermeleri (Kıral, 2023), kurumda daha güçlü bir örgüt kültürünün oluşmasını sağlayacaktır. Bu durum, öğretmenlerin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışlarını, iş tatminini, örgütsel bağlılığını ve iş stresi algılarını olumlu yönde etkileyerek, iş güvencesizliğine ilişkin kaygılarını da azaltacaktır.

Örgütsel sinizm açısından da yöneticilere önemli sorumluluklar düşmektedir. Bu sorumlulukların başında, sinizm kavramının farkında olmak yer almaktadır. Bunun için yöneticilerin hem mesleki hem de yönetsel becerilerini geliştirmeleri gerekmektedir. Bir diğer sorumluluk ise, örgütsel sinizm algısı yüksek olan bireyleri tespit ederek, onlara bireysel ya da örgütsel destek sağlamak ve sinizmin altında yatan temel nedenlere yönelik uygun stratejiler geliştirmektir.

Öğretmenlerin iş güvencesi ile ilgili kaygılarını azaltmak amacıyla istihdam politikaları gözden geçirilmesi ve sözleşmeli ya da ücretli öğretmenlik gibi güvencesiz çalışma biçimlerinin uzun vadede azaltılması, iş güvencesizliği algısının düşmesinde önemli rol oynayacağı düşünülmektedir. Ayrıca, öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişimlerine yönelik yatırımların artırılması, örgüte karşı olumlu tutumları destekleyecek, üretkenlik karşıtı davranışları azaltacak ve sinik yaklaşımları azaltmada yardımcı olacaktır. Örgütsel sinizmi azaltmaya yönelik olarak psikolojik danışmanlık, kariyer rehberliği ve sosyal etkinlikler gibi destek mekanizmalarının yaygınlaştırılması, kurumsal düzeyde bir gereklilik olarak değerlendirilmektedir.

İş güvencesizliğinin sinizm ile karşılıklı ilişkili olduğu sonucu araştırmanın önemli çıktılarından. Bu nedenle Eskişehir örnekleminin genişletilmesi, yalnızca dil kursları değil özel eğitim kurumlarında hatta farklı özelliklerdeki kadrolarda öğretmen istihdam eden devlet okullarının da iş güvencesizliği ve sinizm algıları açısından incelenmesi literatüre önemli katkı sunacaktır. Aynı zamanda özel ve kamu kurumlarındaki uygulanan politikaların gözden geçirilmesi gerekliliği noktasında farkındalık oluşturmaya beklenmektedir. Ayrıca yapılacak çalışmaların nitel araştırma yöntemleri ile desteklenerek öğretmenlerin görüşlerinin derinlemesine analiz edilmesi sorunların çözümüne ilişkin yeni fikirler sağlayacağı da öngörülmektedir.

**Destek Bilgisi:** Bu çalışma, kamu, ticari veya kar amacı gütmeyen kuruluşlar gibi herhangi bir organizasyondan destek almamıştır.

**Çıkar Çatışması:** Tüm yazarlar adına, sorumlu yazar çıkar çatışması olmadığını belirtir.

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**Bilgilendirilmiş Onam Formu:** Çalışmaya katılan tüm bireysel katılımcılardan bilgilendirilmiş onam formu alınmıştır.

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## A Model Suggestion On The Conditions And Factors Influencing Quiet Quitting: A Qualitative Study<sup>1</sup>

Özge KOBAK<sup>2</sup> 

### Abstract

This study examines the "quiet quitting" concept as perceived by white-collar employees and employers in Türkiye, with a specific focus on generational differences among Gen X, Y, and Z in the workplace. It aims to understand how quiet quitting is perceived and experienced across generations, and how shifting workplace conditions—particularly following the COVID-19 pandemic—have shaped employee attitudes and engagement. It seeks to provide a comprehensive understanding of quiet quitting, its prevalence in the workplace, and its potential consequences on organizations. Using qualitative methods, including semi-structured interviews and analysis via MAXQDA software, the study employs descriptive analysis and grounded theory to interpret the findings. Results indicate that quiet quitting is often driven by dissatisfaction, low motivation, and disengagement, with contributing factors such as remote work, blurred work-life boundaries, lack of recognition, poor leadership, and weakened communication. Economic pressures and social isolation, exacerbated by the pandemic, also play a role. Economic stress and social isolation since the pandemic have intensified these effects. The study proposes a conceptual model to explain generational dynamics in quiet quitting and offers practical recommendations for organizations to enhance recognition, feedback, and leadership strategies. These insights aim to help organizations mitigate long-term disengagement and serve as a reference point for further research in other socio-economic contexts.

**Keywords:** Quiet Quitting, Organizational Citizenship, Employee Engagement, Job Satisfaction, Human Resources, Neglect Behaviour

## Sessiz İstifa Kavramına İlişkin Bir Model Önerisi

### Öz

Bu çalışma, Türkiye'deki beyaz yakalı çalışanlar ve işverenler nezdinde "sessiz istifa" olgusunu kuşaklar arası farklılıklar bağlamında ele almakta; özellikle X, Y ve Z kuşakları arasında bu olgunun algılanış ve deneyimleniş biçimlerini, COVID-19 pandemisi sonrasında değişen çalışma koşullarının çalışan tutumları ve örgütsel bağlılık üzerindeki etkilerini incelemektedir. Araştırma, yarı yapılandırılmış mülakatlar ve MAXQDA yazılımı kullanarak nitel yöntemler uygulamakta; bulguları yorumlamak için tanımlayıcı analiz ve yerleştirilmiş teori kullanmaktadır. Veriler, sessiz iş bırakmanın çalışan memnuniyetsizliği, minimal katılım ve motivasyon kaybıyla bağlantılı olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Buna katkıda bulunan başlıca faktörler arasında uzaktan çalışma, iş-yaşam dengesi zorlukları, tanınmama, etkisiz iletişim ve kötü liderlik bulunmaktadır. Pandemi tarafından artırılan ekonomik baskılar ve sosyal izolasyon da rol oynamaktadır. Bu çalışma, "sessiz istifa" kavramını açıklayan bir model önermekte ve organizasyonların bu konsepti tanımları ve çözümleri için geri bildirim, takdir etme ve liderlik uygulamalarında iyileştirmeler yapmaları gerektiğine dair öneriler sunarak, uzun vadeli olumsuz etkilerin önlenmesini amaçlamaktadır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Sessiz İstifa, Örgütsel Vatandaşlık, Çalışan Bağlılığı, İş Tatmini, İnsan Kaynakları

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## **1. Introduction**

The COVID-19 pandemic has significantly shifted habits and routines, leading to new work modes that emphasize flexibility over traditional styles. The widespread adoption of remote and hybrid work during this period has redefined employee work environments and their commitment to employers, marking a transition to a new era in work life. This study examines the evolving discourse surrounding workplace disengagement, particularly the concept of "quiet quitting," or "quiet resignation," which has gained prominence in recent years. While quiet quitting is often associated with Generation Z (Gen-Z) and the pandemic (Yılmaz, 2024), it aligns with long-standing discussions on employee disengagement, previously studied under terms such as neglect behavior (Lee & Varon, 2016). However, the unique influence of contemporary social media and the COVID-19 pandemic has contributed to new workplace dynamics, shaping disengagement in ways that may differ from traditional forms of neglect or burnout. By exploring generational characteristics and corporate responses, this study aims to contextualize quiet quitting within the broader historical and theoretical framework of workplace disengagement.

Additionally, this research aims to provide insights into the concept of "quiet quitting" in the context of Türkiye, offering a case study that may contribute to a broader understanding of the phenomenon. While the concept has gained popularity, studies on quiet quitting remain relatively limited, particularly in the Turkish context. While recent studies, including Ellis and Yang (2022), have examined quiet quitting in contexts such as social media, research specifically focusing on its implications in the Turkish post-pandemic work environment seems to remain limited or less visible in the current literature. By addressing this gap, this study seeks to build on existing literature and offer a nuanced analysis of quiet quitting within a specific cultural and economic setting. Existing literature largely focuses on quantitative analyses, which may not fully capture the complex, subjective experiences of employees or the evolving nature of disengagement in modern work settings. In contrast, this study adopts a qualitative approach to gain a deeper understanding of quiet quitting, emphasizing personal perceptions and impacts, particularly within the context of remote work and the changing workforce dynamics brought on by Gen-Z's entry into the labor market. Additionally, this research contributes to the literature by addressing contemporary work conditions and accounts for factors like post-pandemic adjustments and shifting work structures. This study explores the concept of quiet quitting in relation to job satisfaction and burnout, generational differences—particularly how Gen Z's entry into the workforce has

influenced workplace behavior, employee initiative-taking, and the varying pressures faced by different generations—and the post-COVID impact on organizational commitment. Ultimately, it contributes to developing a model for employers, providing actionable insights on how to recognize, address, and prevent quiet quitting through the cultivation of a supportive work environment.

In line with this objective, the opinions of authorized Human Resources (HR) professionals and employees have been examined to identify the causes and consequences of quiet quitting, aiming to support employers in prevention efforts. It examines organizational responses during the pandemic, changes in employee loyalty, and related factors influencing burnout and job satisfaction. The findings offer valuable insights for developing policies that enhance employee well-being while maintaining productivity.

## **2. Literature Review**

Quiet quitting is a complex phenomenon influenced by individual and organizational dynamics. Therefore, the literature review not only focuses on defining the concept itself but also examines key related themes such as generational differences, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and burnout, which are key to understanding employee behavior, especially in the post-pandemic work environment. The following subsections provide a framework to analyze quiet quitting in its broader context.

### ***2.1. General Overview of Generations: X, Y, and Z***

Each individual possesses unique characteristics and beliefs that distinguish them from their environment and society. However, those born in the same period often share similarities in reactions, empathy, and perspectives due to experiencing similar societal events. These shared experiences shape societal norms, customs, and traditions. The Turkish Language Association defines "generation" as a group of individuals born around the same time who face common challenges and responsibilities stemming from their shared conditions and experiences (TDK, n.d.).

Evrin Kuran highlights that the X generation, comprising 20% of the Turkish population, holds significant leadership positions in today's business life. Raised with the notion that "success equals happiness," they face constant pressure to initiate, lead, and compete with themselves. Moreover, early in their careers, they were often urged to set aside their emotions (Kuran, 2018).



As for Gen-Y, communication technologies have become indispensable tools for self-expression (Şalap, 2016). Bayhan (2014) identifies Gen-Y as "creative" individuals who value comfortable living. They enjoy working but prioritize a balanced life, aiming to deliver quality work within short time frames. Generation Y is the generation that demands the most from work life (Yüksekbilgili, 2013).

Regarding Gen-Z, the flexible work environment and sense of freedom have advanced significantly. According to Kuran, Gen-Z are natives of the digital world to the extent that they won't have time to get bored (Kuran, 2021). Therefore, they significantly differ from other generations regarding important factors in their working life, particularly emphasizing social responsibility. The COVID-19 pandemic marked the beginning of their careers, shifting work models from occasional remote work to fully remote and more structured hybrid arrangements. These changes, coupled with Gen-Z's unique traits, might have impacted organizational commitment and work-life dynamics.

## ***2.2. Concepts related to Quite Quitting***

Although the term “quiet quitting” is a contemporary term, the concept is not new, dating back to Hirschman’s (1970) EVLN model and the concept of “neglect behavior”. The framework developed by Hirschman identifies four main reactions individuals exhibit in response to dissatisfaction: they may choose to exit (leave the situation), voice their concerns (seek changes), demonstrate loyalty (remain supportive despite issues), or display neglect (ignore responsibilities). Dan Farrell (1983) further explored and validated this framework in the context of job dissatisfaction by categorizing behaviors associated with these responses. His study shows a diverse range of behavioral options available to employees when facing dissatisfaction in the workplace such as talking to a supervisor to address issues directly under the category “voice”, exhibiting “loyalty” by "waiting patiently" with the hope for improvement without action, showing “neglect” by "calling in sick" to avoid dealing with problems and disengaging from their responsibilities, or opting for “exit” by "deciding to quit", demonstrating a proactive move to leave a dissatisfying situation.

## ***2.3. Organizational Commitment Within the Pandemic Framework***

Organizational commitment refers to an individual's attachment, devotion, and belief in their workplace's values, involving dedication to the organization's goals and a willingness to make sacrifices (Eren, 2015). This concept is crucial for companies, as they invest time and resources in hiring and developing their workforce, aiming to retain key representatives

who can attract future talent. Literature suggests that employee perception forms the foundation of motivation, leading to higher organizational commitment, which is a negative predictor of turnover (Muthuveloo & Rose, 2005; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Human resource management (HRM) should view investments in personnel as future investments rather than expenses and should organize training programs for employee development. This perspective can help reduce employee turnover since strongly committed employees are the least likely to leave the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Çavuşoğlu & Güler, 2016).

The pandemic has increasingly intertwined the concepts of organizational commitment and remote work. While remote work can challenge older employees who are not tech-savvy (Prasad et al., 2020), the American Psychological Association states that, when implemented correctly, it can enhance team satisfaction. Employees working remotely tend to experience higher job satisfaction, leading to increased productivity, greater engagement, and a lower likelihood of resigning (ILO, 2020).

As COVID-19 impacts wane, organizations increasingly adopt remote or hybrid work models to boost employee engagement. While remote work can enhance autonomy, it may also cause loneliness and weaken social ties (Garrad, 2022). Effective managerial training can promote commitment (Ara & Akbar, 2016). Notably, companies recognized as top workplaces in 2022 that use hybrid or remote models report positive outcomes, highlighting their impact on organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Great Place To Work, 2022).

#### ***2.4. Job Satisfaction and Burnout***

Job satisfaction reflects a sense of success and accomplishment linked to productivity and well-being through enjoyment of work, effective performance, and recognition. It is essential for achieving goals like promotion and fulfillment (Kaliski, 2007). Companies should measure employee job satisfaction through surveys to assess satisfaction levels and implement appropriate development methods, as low job satisfaction can decrease productivity and increase turnover rates while serving as a source of happiness and efficiency (Herzberg et al., 1959; Locke, 1970; Porter & Lawler, 1968; Şimşir & Seyran, 2020).

In addition, another concept negatively impacting employee commitment and satisfaction is burnout. It is described as the depletion of energy both mentally and physically in an individual, arising as a result of the long-term effects of both job-related and organizational factors, causing stress in the organization (Arı & Bal, 2008).

The pandemic has exacerbated burnout, particularly among Gen-Z, increasing risks for companies as today's youth are expected to become future leaders. Organizations must address burnout's root causes, as emotional exhaustion impairs employees' psychological capacity (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). HR should adopt measurable interventions like job rotation, enrichment, participative management, healthy communication, professional development, and teamwork (Taşdan, 2008). Such strategies help prevent burnout and enhance employee performance, as higher well-being correlates with greater effectiveness (Cropanzano & Wright, 1999).

### ***2.5. Post-pandemic Challenges and Adaptation***

The COVID-19 pandemic has created challenges for employees, such as mental health issues, blurred work-home boundaries, ergonomic concerns, reduced face-to-face interaction, and increased burnout risks (Göktepe, 2020; Greenhaus & Collins, 2003; ILO, 2020; Kim et al., 2018; McCulley, 2020). Employers and HR professionals must proactively support employees, establish boundaries, and foster connections within remote teams to enhance resilience and satisfaction (Agarwal et al., 2020). Additionally, employees may struggle with visibility and recognition in online environments, highlighting the importance of personal branding as a self-marketing strategy (Khedher, 2014) that communicates professional value (Çakır, 2008).

## **3. Quiet quitting: A conceptual framework**

### ***3.1. Modern Emergence and Definition of Quiet Quitting***

Social media, particularly TikTok, significantly impacts communication today, especially among Gen-Z, who often spend their leisure time expressing various issues. During the pandemic, the concept of "quiet quitting" gained traction on this platform. This term emerged as white-collar remote workers, facing harsh conditions, and African Americans feeling racially disadvantaged in the workplace began using it to describe their experiences. Quiet quitting has become not only a popular term but also a practice among many employees, leading to widespread discussions among experts. The term gained notoriety from a viral TikTok video by 24-year-old engineer Zaid Khan, who defined quiet quitting as performing job tasks while mentally disengaging from the hustle culture that prioritizes work over personal worth (Ellis & Yang, 2022; Thapa, 2022).

### ***3.2. The Concept of Quiet Quitting***

In the traditional work system, constant preoccupation with work, even during holidays, is common, often leading to burnout and unhappiness. The pandemic has shifted these norms, as many now prioritize life outside of work and complete only the minimum required tasks. While older generations may cling to past standards, some Gen-X and Gen-Y members also resist work's control over their lives (Ellis & Yang, 2022). Individuals engaging in "quiet quitting" fulfill their primary responsibilities but are less inclined to participate in activities known as citizenship behaviors. As economic conditions worsen, this approach becomes more appealing, especially since completely quitting is often not feasible (Klotz & Bolino, 2022). The hashtag #quietquitting gained over 366 million views on TikTok from September to November, building on the Chinese #TangPing or "lying flat" movement that rejects the high-stress, low-reward work culture in favor of attainable success and relaxation (Allen, 2021).

Employer perspectives vary; some view demanding excessive commitment as normal and threaten layoffs for less committed workers, while others offer flexible arrangements and blame poor management for employee disengagement (Ellis & Yang, 2022). Quiet Quitting, though recently in the spotlight, has deep roots among African American workers, stretching back generations. It's not a novel concept, especially for marginalized groups. This pressure to overwork extends beyond corporate environments to schools, where expectations persist even during lunch breaks (Harper, 2022). There is no national record of quiet quitters, making demographic analysis difficult.

The quiet quitting concept is expected to encourage companies to adopt more flexible work systems. While some executives may view this negatively, lessons from quiet quitting can enhance employee loyalty, especially for those lacking alternative job options. As CNBC reports, employees desire to be proud of their work and have a meaningful impact, but quiet quitting may hinder this. Quiet quitting can enhance focus during work hours, but often indicates low motivation and teamwork issues, sometimes leading to conflicts. However, it may also inspire creativity and increased productivity (Tong, 2022).

## **4. Research methodology**

### ***4.1. Method of the Research***

A qualitative method was utilized in this research. A semi-structured interview form was preferred, where the interviewer prepares questions in advance to ensure they are clear.

During the interview, the interviewer may rephrase or adjust questions if unexpected issues arise or the participant does not understand them (Polat, 2022).

#### ***4.2. Data Collection Tool***

The perception of quiet quitting in Türkiye was examined through semi-structured interviews and separate questionnaires for employers and employees (see Supplementary Material 1). Questions, included demographics and informed consent forms. The research was evaluated with the decision numbered 2022/12 at the meeting of the Yildiz Technical University Ethics Committee held on 27.12.2027 and deemed ethically appropriate.

The interview questions were formulated by drawing upon many studies found in the literature. Studies on "organizational commitment," "employee commitment," "work-life balance," "remote work," and "job satisfaction" were reviewed to prepare interview questions. The study drew upon Allen and Meyer's (1990) work on organizational commitment, Greenhaus and Collins's (2003) study on work-life balance, Prasad et al.'s (2020) research on remote work, and Spector's (1994) survey study on job satisfaction. For the concept of "quiet resignation," Thapa's (2020) and Harter's (2022a, 2022b) articles were examined, and relevant concepts were evaluated and blended with the study's purpose to shape the interview questions.

#### ***4.3. Sampling***

A snowball sampling method was used in the research. This method aims to create a sample for a study by making referrals among individuals who possess the characteristics of interest to the research (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981). Within the scope of the research, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 20 participants, 1 employer, and 1 employee from each of 10 different companies headquartered in Istanbul. Participants were purposefully selected to represent diverse job roles and responsibilities to ensure a comprehensive understanding of the quiet quitting phenomenon across hierarchical levels. Due to confidentiality agreements, company names are withheld, but sectoral information is provided in the following sections and supplementary material. All participating companies are large-scale organizations operating internationally with global headquarters—employing over 14 thousand to 340 thousand personnel. The sample was purposefully selected to reflect a diverse range of industries, including telecommunications, finance, automotive, retail, machinery, and human resources, ensuring that different organizational cultures and work

environments were represented. Participants held various roles and hierarchical positions—from assistant specialists and engineers to heads and directors, as seen in Table 1.

**Table 1**

*Positions and Sectors of Participants*

Participant	Sector	Title/Position
Employer 1	Telecommunications	Human Resources Business Partner Department Head
Employer 2	Finance	Foreign Trade, Procurement and Operations Director
Employer 3	Automotive	Second Hand Wholesale Sales Manager
Employer 4	Retail	E-Commerce Planning Manager
Employer 5	Machinery	Process Excellence Leader
Employer 6	Finance	Marketing Director
Employer 7	Human Resources	Team Leader
Employer 8	Automotive	Product Manager
Employer 9	Industrial	Human Resources Director
Employer 10	Retail	E-Commerce Planning and Analytical Group Manager
Employee 1	Automotive	Marketing Product Specialist
Employee 2	Human Resources	Recruitment Consultant
Employee 3	Retail	Assistant E-Commerce Planning Specialist
Employee 4	Automotive	Product Management Specialist
Employee 5	Industrial	Human Resources Business Partner
Employee 6	Telecommunications	Technical Product Manager
Employee 7	Banking	Talent Management Assistant Manager
Employee 8	Machinery	Quality Engineer
Employee 9	Retail	E-Commerce Planning Specialist
Employee 10	Finance	Senior Specialist

This diversity enabled the study to capture the perceptions of both decision-makers and employees involved in operational processes. All participants were actively working in white-collar positions, had relevant experience in their respective roles, and were selected based on their ability to provide insight into workplace dynamics and behavioral responses related to job satisfaction and motivation. Detailed demographic data, including gender, marital status, age, sector, and work experience, were collected and are presented in Supplementary Material 2. Interview information, such as interview date, method (online or phone), and duration, is shown in Supplementary Material 3. To account for possible differences in perspectives across hierarchical levels, comparative coding and analysis were conducted during data interpretation. This approach contributed to a more nuanced understanding of how organizational position and experience shape views on the concept of "quiet quitting."

#### ***4.4. Implementation of the Research***

The interviews were conducted via the online meeting platform Zoom, recorded with the participants' permission, and then transcribed (See Supplementary Material 3 for details). To avoid technical issues, four interviews were conducted via phone calls, as per the

preference of the interviewees. These recordings were transcribed verbatim by the researcher and imported into MAXQDA in Word format for systematic analysis.

#### **4.5. Data Analysis**

In the research, numbers were assigned to participants to ensure confidentiality for private sector employees, protecting their identities with participant numbers (e.g., Employee 1-10, Employer 1-10) instead of names. Interviews yielded an average audio recording of 21 minutes (18 minutes for employees and 23 minutes for employers), totaling 411 minutes. Descriptive analysis was employed, and grounded theory was chosen as a framework due to the novelty of the "quiet quitting" concept in literature. Grounded theory is a qualitative research design that uses data from individuals to explore complex or under-researched phenomena by uncovering their underlying causes (Bulduklu, 2019). It can also help develop theory-based interventions for practical applications (Oktay, 2012). Grounded theory was applied through a structured coding procedure using MAXQDA software, which facilitated coding and frequency identification. Initially, interview transcripts were open-coded to identify emerging concepts. In qualitative analysis using MAXQDA, codes are short textual labels attached to specific parts of the data—usually a sentence or paragraph—that represent an idea, emotion, or behavior expressed by participants. Codes help break down the data and identify recurring patterns. For example, labels such as “Promotion Uncertainty”, “Increased Workload”, or “Lack of Communication with Supervisor” were used to capture participants’ perceptions. These codes were then grouped and related via axial coding, allowing exploration of connections and patterns. Finally, selective coding was used to integrate core categories and build a cohesive theoretical framework representing the ‘quiet quitting’ phenomenon. This structured analysis enabled the development of a conceptual model explaining the underlying causes of the quiet quitting phenomenon, firmly grounded in participants’ lived experiences.

The systematic coding and analysis facilitated by MAXQDA resulted in well-defined themes that significantly aided in interpreting the research findings and tabulation. During the coding process, responses were analyzed based on key questions addressing the factors that might lead employees to consider leaving their jobs, revealing eight recurring themes for conceptualization:

1. Lack of appreciation, respect, and perceived fairness in the current organization



2. More attractive offers from other companies (e.g., enhanced fringe benefits, career advancement opportunities)
3. Perceived lack of productivity or limited opportunities for personal and professional development in the current company
4. Mandatory personal circumstances such as relocation
5. Lack of open communication and constructive feedback within the current organization
6. Opportunities for acquiring diverse experiences and cross-functional skills in the offering company
7. More competitive salary packages are offered by another company
8. A promise of a more structured and balanced lifestyle by the offering company

The findings were grouped into two main dimensions: working environment and conditions (e.g., remote work, work-life balance, benefits) and social and psychological factors (e.g., lack of leadership, feedback, communication, and recognition). Based on input from both employees and employers, these themes informed the development of the quiet quitting model which is presented in the results as Figure 2.

## 5. Results

### 5.1. Demographic Findings

Each company was represented by one employee and one employer, resulting in a total of 20 participants, comprising 12 males and 8 females. The average age of the participants was 35.5 years. This average was 39.8 years in the employer group and 31.4 years in the employee group. In terms of work experience, the overall average was found to be 12 years. This average was 15.6 years in the employer group and 8.4 years in the employee group. Regarding educational background, 9 participants had a bachelor's degree, and 11 had a master's degree. While the majority of the employee group had a bachelor's degree, the majority of the employer group had a master's degree.

### 5.2. Findings Related to the Research Topic

**5.2.1. Remote work.** The majority of participants (16 individuals) reported adhering to a fixed office-based working style, while four adapted to a flexible approach. Although some mentioned project-based work, they predominantly emphasized regular office hours.

Participants from the same company expressed satisfaction with their "highly flexible" work system. All 20 participants worked for companies with a hybrid model, with most required to be in the office twice a week. Some noted the absence of a standard for office attendance, attending in specific situations instead. Overall, all participants had more remote workdays than office days, though company policies varied by department, and some employees were required to be in the office full-time.

**5.2.2. Changes during the pandemic period.** Participants were asked about changes in their work methods during and after the pandemic. All noted a shift from a predominantly physical work model to either fully remote or hybrid arrangements. Changes included remote work adoption, hybrid models, preference for online meetings, elimination of strict office hours, digitization, and flexibility in working conditions, emphasizing a greater trust and focus on results. Only employers were surveyed regarding employee perceptions of these changes. All employers viewed remote work positively, highlighting increased productivity and comfort that enhances employee loyalty, although they also acknowledged challenges during the transition and noted generational differences.

**5.2.3. Employee engagement.** An interesting finding is that when employers evaluated employee loyalty during and after the pandemic, responses varied: half reported increased loyalty, while the other half observed a decline. The new hybrid model positively influenced employee loyalty, but despite increased happiness, many have prioritized different factors, resulting in decreased commitment to work. A diminished sense of belonging—including among managers—and Türkiye's inflation have further impacted loyalty, causing fluctuating motivation. Although happiness increased, job-change intentions have risen since pre-pandemic, varying by generation. Employers believe Gen-X and Y have a greater sense of responsibility towards work, but face challenges with remote arrangements. For these generations, accustomed to an office-centric culture, remote work poses challenges. Gen-Z adapts easily to remote work, often questions tasks, and prioritizes individuality, though sometimes seen as demanding. They are willing to change sectors and careers. All companies conducted job satisfaction surveys, including salary satisfaction, but results showed lower-than-expected satisfaction. Adjustments were made based on benchmarks, though one employer removed salary questions based on global headquarters guidance. Despite some improvements, widespread dissatisfaction remains regarding survey responses, highlighting the need for companies to reassess efforts amid Türkiye's economic challenges.

**5.2.4. Employee initiative-taking behavior.** The study explored employers' reactions to employees declining tasks outside their job descriptions. While some consider this normal, taking initiative is viewed as a valuable developmental opportunity that fosters teamwork and aligns with team goals. The extent of initiative correlates with an individual's passion and dedication. Employers emphasize that taking initiative is a positive trait contributing to career advancement and is also expected by their managers.

**5.2.5. Work-life balance.** In the study, employees were surveyed about their work-life balance, with most reporting success, though some faced challenges influenced by workload, work pressure, or personal life changes. Adaptation skills and a supportive work environment were seen as crucial for managing these fluctuations, while a lack of HR support hindered balance. One participant highlighted difficulty finding inspiration after long days of virtual meetings. Employers recognized that it's normal for employees to decline after-hours tasks, though urgent situations may require them. Respect for work-life balance is essential, and after-hours work should only occur when necessary, as it impacts balance.

**5.2.6. Productivity, recognition, and status.** All employees believe they contribute to the company but do not consider themselves irreplaceable, recognizing that their roles could be filled, albeit with some challenges. They expressed feeling appreciated, attributing this to the company's reward systems. When asked about societal status, most felt their jobs provided it, and felt respected by their families. However, the social impact is less significant since many peers share similar job roles.

**5.2.7. Factors leading to employee departure.** The study identified economic instability and low productivity as the primary reasons employees consider leaving their jobs. Employees are concerned about securing a stable financial future amid inflation, which influences their job-changing decisions. Additionally, those who wish to succeed and develop their skills tend to feel demotivated if they perceive themselves as unproductive, prompting them to seek new opportunities.

### ***5.3. Findings Regarding the Concept of Quiet Quitting***

**5.3.1. Quiet quitting for the employer group.** Participants predominantly define quiet quitting as employee dissatisfaction. Employers note that it arises when employees are unhappy, unproductive, and feel stagnant. Unhappy employees threaten company sustainability, and equal performance is expected. Those focused on self-improvement are

less likely to quiet quit, while neglect and feeling overlooked are seen as key causes. One participant defines quiet quitting as "employee resentment." Another participant suggests that someone engaging in quiet quitting may be punishing the company. It is stated that one of the main reasons for quiet quitting is productivity, with employees turning to this option when they feel they cannot develop themselves. Additionally, the absence of regular communication is emphasized as a significant factor. Employer 7 has highlighted a significant finding, emphasizing that quiet quitting began in the healthcare sector during this period.

"I believe that quiet quitting particularly entered our lives during the pandemic period. I personally think it initially started, especially, more in the healthcare sector in Türkiye. Because during that period, doctors and nurses were under serious pressure, and it was a process where everyone just piled responsibilities onto them without really caring about the conditions they were working in."

**5.3.2. Quiet quitting for the employee group.** In the employee group, quiet quitting is described as slowing down work, minimizing effort, and avoiding additional responsibilities to remain under the radar. This behaviour, described as "physical presence but mental disengagement", can lead to a loss of loyalty and motivation among employees. While challenging to measure in the short term, its long-term impact poses a significant threat to companies. Employees acknowledge quiet quitting in themselves and their peers, underscoring its prevalence. One participant described her transition into the workforce, initially struggling with negativity and quietly disengaging. She later adopted a positive, proactive mindset, stressing the need to confront challenges for career growth. Overcoming negativity strengthened her, reinforcing the belief that facing adversity can be empowering. Another participant views quiet quitting as rebellion, attributing it to empowered employees influenced by new generational trends and pandemic awareness. He notes employees expressing ideas and entrepreneurial spirit outside organizations where they feel excluded, with many pursuing freelance work alongside their jobs as a modern solution.

**5.3.3. The pros and cons of quiet quitting.** The majority of participants believe that this concept has no positive aspects. However, it serves as a warning for companies. Employers view it as feedback that, with proactive management and open communication, can improve organizations. However, quiet quitting financially burdens companies, fosters unproductive routines, and risks losing valuable employees, leading to wasted investments and decreased performance. While stepping out of one's comfort zone for career

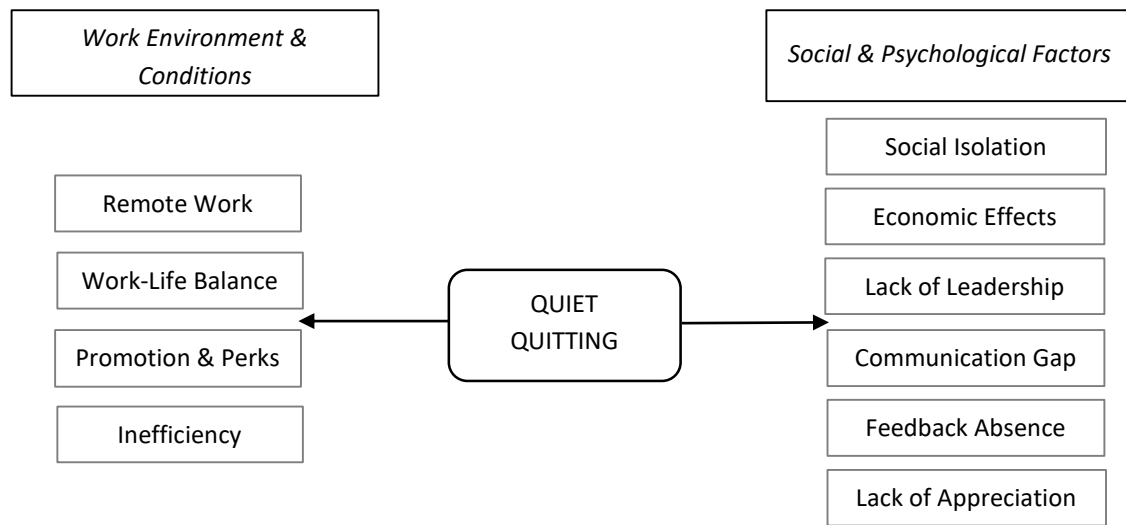
development is seen as a potential positive, challenges in cost and productivity are anticipated. Losing valued employees through quiet quitting is a significant risk, with some viewing it as purely detrimental, leading to decreased performance and a loss of value for the company. Working with individuals in a state of quiet quitting negatively impacts employees, hindering communication and productivity which is believed to decrease self-awareness and impede personal development, leading to unhappiness and negative emotions.

#### ***5.4. A Proposed Model for the Concept of Quiet Quitting***

The study examined how quiet quitting is perceived in Türkiye and the factors influencing it. According to participants, quiet quitting signifies the employee's unhappiness and loss of motivation. According to the factors influencing this situation, the determinants of quiet quitting are the pandemic and the resulting changes in the work environment and conditions. These conditions include remote work, work-life balance, promotions and benefits, and inefficiency. The biggest factor contributing to the emergence of quiet quitting is the shift in priorities during the pandemic period. Employees have become more individualized with remote work and the accompanying social isolation, defining work-life balance with a new adaptation process. Despite increased employee happiness, commitment to the company has declined. This decrease in loyalty among satisfied employees is significant, reflecting a redefined sense of belonging and a risk of reduced citizenship behaviors. Additionally, one factor that prevents quiet quitting is the open communication established by employees with their managers. Feedback received from managers supports employees' ability to produce and also increases their sense of appreciation, thus enhancing their loyalty. This suggests employees desire leaders, not just task assigners. Employees indicated that inflation significantly impacts salary satisfaction. Figure 1 outlines factors influencing quiet quitting. Although remote work can provide flexibility, it can also blur the boundaries between work and personal life and allow work to intrude into home life, leading to excessive workload, stress, and burnout. The employee journey within a company is crucial. Promotions and benefits boost commitment and motivation, but motivation can decline when expected promotions are withheld. Employees who feel denied their rightful benefits may retaliate by reducing effort, increasing the risk of quiet quitting. Moreover, feeling productive is essential; employees who perceive themselves as unproductive may consider leaving. A lack of motivation and feelings of inefficiency can lead to employees feeling undervalued and dissatisfied.

**Figure 1**

*Conditions and Factors Influencing Quiet Quitting*



Employees can trigger the quiet quitting state based on the work environment and conditions indicated in Figure 1. Remote work, work-life balance, promotions and benefits, and inefficiency are precursors that could contribute to the emergence of quiet quitting. Factors such as lack of appreciation, not receiving feedback, lacking open communication within the team and with their manager, economic factors, and social isolation, employees may affect employers to become unhappy, experience decreased motivation, and lose their sense of belonging, leading them to resort to quiet quitting. When the concept of quiet quitting is examined in detail based on these factors, it can be classified under three headings: Working conditions and pandemic effects, career planning and benefits, business management and communication, which are summarized in Figure 2.

**5.4.1. Work environment and conditions - effects of the pandemic.** The pandemic brought major changes to the work environment, with new models like remote work reshaping work-life balance. While offering personal flexibility, remote work reduces physical presence and teamwork, potentially lowering organizational citizenship behaviors due to social isolation and limited in-person interaction. Effective communication and maintaining interaction with colleagues are essential for promoting organizational citizenship behaviors.

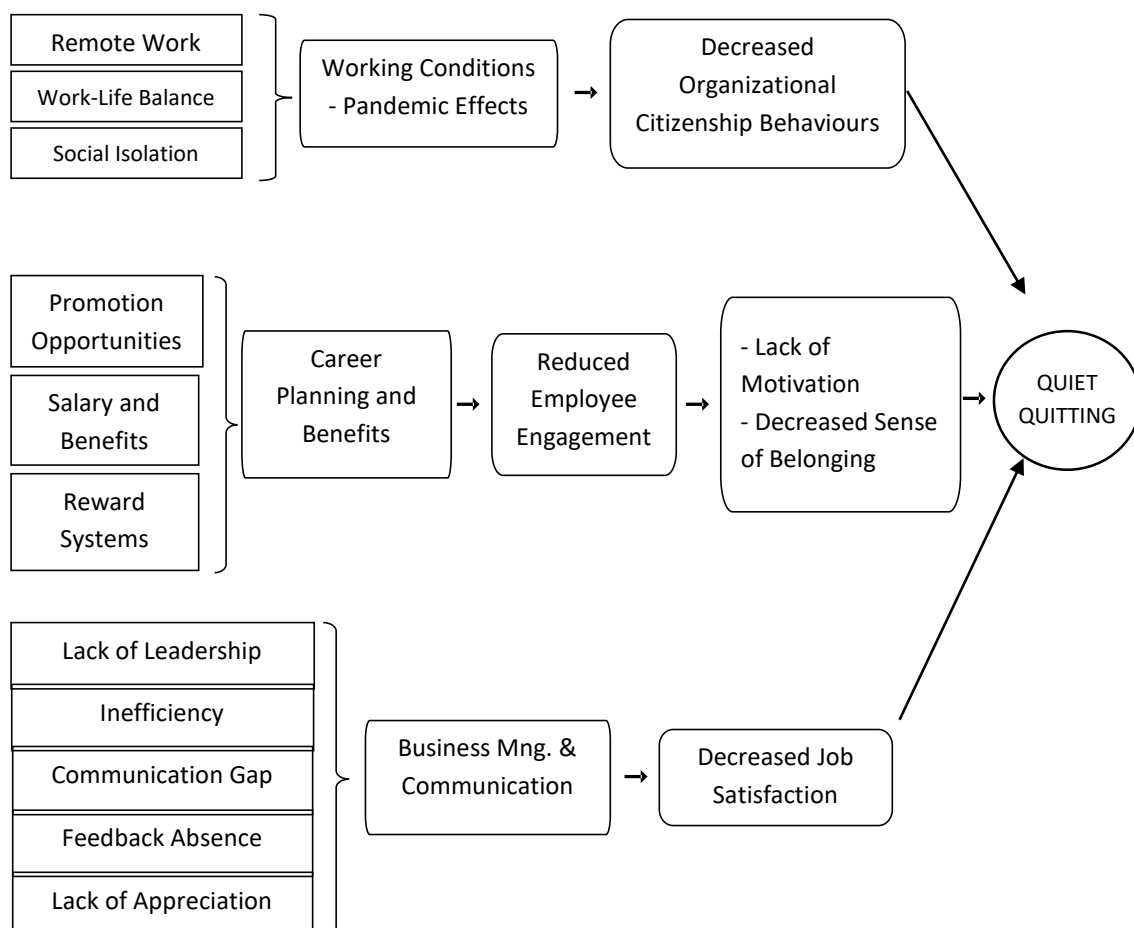
**5.4.2. Career planning and benefits.** Employees expect fair and satisfactory compensation for their efforts, valuing factors like career planning, promotion opportunities, salary, benefits, and reward systems. Clear advancement paths are essential for setting career

goals. Uncertainty, inadequate compensation, and unfairness lower motivation. Transparent, fair, performance-based reward systems impact loyalty. Imbalances in these factors may lead to employee demotivation and quiet quitting.

**5.4.3. Business management and communication.** Business management and communication significantly impact employee satisfaction. Lack of leadership, inefficiency, poor communication, feedback gaps, and lack of appreciation all contribute to the concept of quiet quitting. Leadership gaps impede direction and support. Communication issues, obscure roles and expectations. Open communication fosters problem-solving and idea exchange. Feedback aids performance improvement. Without appreciation or feedback, employees feel undervalued, affecting commitment.

**Figure 2**

*Quiet Quitting Model Proposal*



### 5.5. Recommendations for Companies

Employees expect effective leadership and good communication from managers to foster progress toward company goals. Constructive criticism, rather than harsh reactions to



mistakes, can help prevent quiet quitting. Recommendations for supporting employees include fair task distribution, motivational activities, internal entrepreneurship projects, and increased internal rotations. Some employers suggest conducting quarterly job satisfaction surveys and prioritizing forward feedback.

## **6. Discussion and conclusion**

### **6.1. Discussion**

This study involved interviews with employers and employees from companies in Istanbul to explore the concept of "quiet quitting" and its recognition in Türkiye. All participants were familiar with the concept, although some had limited knowledge. The perception of quiet quitting in Türkiye aligns with existing literature, particularly with Ellis and Yang (2022), who highlight its significant impact on social media, which is also evident in Türkiye. HR managers recognize this concept, influenced by Gen-Z, noting that "unhappy employees" are a defining characteristic of quiet quitting, often viewed as a temporary state that can improve with better communication.

Identifying quiet quitting can alleviate negative conditions, allowing employees to re-engage. This research suggests that activities like job rotation can positively impact this state. The study evaluated employees' views, revealing additional results related to this concept. Situations where employees cannot deliver results, feel unrecognized, etc., lead them to seek other job opportunities or become open to different job offers. Even if the employee does not resign, due to their minimal engagement with work requirements and loss of commitment, they may evaluate and make decisions on different opportunities more freely. As Allen and Meyer (1990) observed, highly committed employees are less likely to leave, a finding supported here.

Quiet quitting is less common among motivated employees, but factors such as changing work conditions, post-pandemic adaptation, and economic issues can affect motivation. Employees weigh their contributions against the benefits offered by their company, including personal development, training, and salaries, which aligns with Çavuşoğlu and Güler's (2016) suggestion that skill-enhancing training programs can help reduce turnover and mitigate quiet quitting.

Although 80% of firms in the study adhered to traditional office hours, there were instances of flexibility due to remote work, allowing employees to address personal matters during work hours and make up the time later. Furthermore, due to the reasons brought about

by remote working, there are also instances of employees staying late. Thus, working hours can be flexible, both positively and negatively.

The shift to a hybrid work model due to the pandemic has significantly altered employees' lives. According to employer data, those previously committed to their jobs have adapted more easily to this new era, expressing readiness for change. Additionally, the entry of Gen-Z into the workforce has facilitated this adaptation, thanks to their familiarity with technology and evolving work methods mentioned in Kuran (2021), making these changes feel more natural for them.

In Türkiye, quiet quitting is viewed as "the minimum fulfillment of responsibilities due to unhappiness and lack of motivation." Often termed "silent resignation," it reflects a loss of commitment and a means for employees to express dissatisfaction. These findings underscore the importance of measures to enhance employee motivation and commitment. As Tong (2022) states, quiet quitting can emerge from decreased motivation, even if employees do not fully understand the concept. Interviews conducted here corroborate Klotz and Bolino's (2022) observations that the worsening economic climate has popularized quiet quitting, reinforcing its prevalence in Türkiye.

To improve organizational commitment and employee satisfaction, companies should offer competitive salaries, value employee input, involve them in decision-making, and provide growth opportunities. Regular recognition of achievements is essential. Supporting work-life balance is crucial, as noted by Eren (2015) and Muthuveloo and Rose (2005), who emphasize that perceptions influence organizational commitment and job satisfaction. However, Arı and Bal (2008) highlight an intensified link between job satisfaction and burnout post-pandemic, with burnout contributing to increased quiet quitting. Although the hybrid model has aided work-life balance, constant accessibility for managers may disrupt it. Shifting company culture can improve motivation and mitigate quiet quitting, as employees in fixed-hour roles often struggle with balance, while those in flexible environments exhibit higher commitment.

Employers often see quiet quitting as a sign of reduced productivity. Though it can be challenging to identify, open communication is essential for addressing it. The lack of effort from quiet quitters can lead to negative perceptions among other employees.

## **6.2. Conclusion**

This research presents a model based on interview analyses, highlighting the importance of the work environment and conditions in preventing quiet quitting. Remote work, which became prevalent during the pandemic, can contribute to quiet quitting; however, proactive measures by companies can mitigate this. Ensuring employees maintain work-life balance, access promotions, and receive fair compensation is crucial for motivation. If employees feel undervalued or perceive unfair treatment, they may resort to quiet quitting. Additionally, inefficiency in the workplace can lead to reduced self-development and increased quiet quitting likelihood. For example, someone who cannot maintain their work-life balance or works remotely may lose their commitment to the company due to social isolation. In cases of leadership deficiencies from the manager, lack of recognition within the company, lack of open communication, and not receiving feedback, the employee may completely lose their sense of belonging.

Quiet quitting poses a long-term threat to companies, as Gen-Z prioritizes their own needs and is less loyal to employers than previous generations. However, employees at every level can experience quiet quitting, presenting significant risks for companies in terms of human resources and future productivity.

In conclusion, quiet quitting stems from factors like a lack of motivation, feeling undervalued, and not being appreciated. Enhancing working conditions, promoting employee engagement, increasing recognition, and prioritizing work-life balance can boost organizational commitment and prevent quiet quitting. Such improvements benefit both employees and employers, and employers should actively work to maintain high employee motivation.

## **6.3. Limitations and Future Studies**

The study involved interviews with 20 participants and reflects the inherent constraints of qualitative research, which typically requires more time and effort than quantitative research. The processes of data collection, analysis, and interpretation can be time-consuming, and direct interaction with participants often demands additional costs and resources. Qualitative research seeks to gather in-depth data, making it challenging to generalize results to other contexts. The concept of quiet quitting is relatively new in the literature and lacks sufficient data, limiting the reviewed studies. While the interview target group consisted of white-collar workers, quiet quitting is observed across various industries,

with the pandemic exacerbating the issue in healthcare. Future research should investigate this phenomenon in different sectors, particularly healthcare, and examine the relationship between quiet quitting, post-pandemic work life, and Gen Z leadership roles. Understanding these dynamics is crucial for addressing the potential threat to companies, as each study contributes insights into adoption processes, sectoral differences, and the implications of quiet quitting.

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**Conflict of Interest:** On behalf of all authors, the responsible author states that there is no conflict of interest.

**Ethics Approval:** The research was evaluated with the decision numbered 2022/12 at the meeting of the Yildiz Technical University Ethics Committee held on 27.12.2027 and deemed ethically appropriate.

**Informed Consent Form:** Informed consent forms were obtained from all individual participants participating in the study.

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## Can Emotion Regulation Mitigate the Harmful Effects of Toxic Leadership on Psychological Well-being and Turnover Intention?

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### Abstract

*This study aims to determine if cognitive emotion regulation mediates the relationship between private sector workers' perceptions of toxic leadership and their intention to leave and psychological health. The study employed a quantitative research approach, and 386 private sector employees in the province of Kırşehir provided data via a questionnaire technique. SPSS 21 and AMOS 21 were used to analyze the data. The validity and reliability of the scales employed in the study were assessed using basic validity tests and confirmatory factor analysis. The hypotheses developed within the parameters of the study were also tested using various statistical methods, including correlation analysis, mediation analysis, and structural equation modeling. In terms of the impact of managers' behavior on their employees, the study concluded that their psychological health and propensity to leave the company are greatly affected by toxic leadership behaviors in the private sector. Furthermore, it was found that the association between psychological well-being and toxic leadership is fully mediated by cognitive emotion control.*

**Keywords:** Toxic Leadership, Turnover Intention, Psychological Well-being, Emotion Regulation

## Duygu Düzenlemesi, Toksik Liderliğin Psikolojik İyi Oluş ve İşten Ayrılma Niyeti Üzerindeki Zararlı Etkilerini Azaltabilir mi?

### Öz

*Bu çalışmanın amacı, özel sektör çalışanlarının toksik liderliğe ilişkin algıları ile işten ayrılma niyetleri ve psikolojik sağlıkları arasındaki ilişkide bilişsel duygu düzenlemesinin aracılık rolünün olup olmadığını belirlemektir. Çalışmada nicel araştırma yaklaşımı kullanılmış ve Kırşehir ilinde 386 özel sektör çalışanına anket tekniği ile veri sağlanmıştır. Verilerin analizinde SPSS 21 ve AMOS 21 programları kullanılmıştır. Çalışmada kullanılan ölçeklerin geçerliliği ve güvenilirliği temel geçerlik testleri ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizi kullanılarak değerlendirilmiştir. Çalışmanın parametreleri dahilinde geliştirilen hipotezler ayrıca korelasyon analizi, aracılık analizi ve yapısal eşitlik modellemesi gibi çeşitli istatistiksel yöntemler kullanılarak test edilmiştir. Çalışmada, yöneticilerin davranışlarının çalışanları üzerindeki etkisi bağlamında, psikolojik sağlıklarının ve şirketten ayrılma eğilimlerinin özel sektördeki toksik liderlik davranışlarından büyük ölçüde etkilendiği sonucuna varılmıştır. Ayrıca, psikolojik iyi oluş ile toksik liderlik arasındaki ilişkinin bilişsel duygu kontrolü tarafından tam olarak aracılık edildiği bulunmuştur.*

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Toksik Liderlik, İşten Ayrılma Niyeti, Psikolojik İyi Oluş, Bilişsel Duygu Düzenleme

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## 1. Introduction

In the 21st century, the requirements for organizations and managers to be successful are being reviewed again and from different perspectives. Changing individuals' attitudes, behaviors, beliefs, values, and needs has significantly changed their expectations. Perspectives in psychology and management science have accompanied this change from different perspectives. Whatever the leader's attitudes and behaviors are, it is a fact that this will undoubtedly be seen in the situation of the organization and the workers. While management science has generally viewed the concept of leadership from a positive perspective in previous years and concluded that all leadership qualities are good, in recent years, the dark sides of leadership qualities have also become apparent (Bozbayır et al., 2023).

One of these dark sides is toxic leadership, which has received particular attention in recent years. Toxic leadership was defined as “a type of leadership characterized by malicious behavior used to bully or manipulate people” (Lipman-Blumen, 2006; Pelletier, 2009). Destructive leadership, gloomy leadership, or, more broadly, weak leadership are other terms used to describe this type of leadership style. This attitude of the leader naturally affects the work attitude of the employee. Sometimes, this effect may even lead to the employee intending to quit or quit his/her job. Since intentions can predict a person's perceptions and the judgment that results from those perceptions, they are the determining factor in actual conduct. According to McCarthy, Tyrrell, and Lehané (2007), the final step in the decision-making process is turnover intentions. Organizations and organizational psychology research benefit from understanding the predecessors of turnover intentions (Treglown et al, 2018).

In this picture, the share of the person's feeling of well-being, i.e., psychological well-being, should not be ignored. Although no single concept defines psychological well-being, it is universally important. According to a widely accepted definition, psychological well-being is the combination of feeling good and performing well. Another common commentary on psychological well-being is defined by the six-dimensional model suggested by Ryff (1989). Positive relationships, self-acceptance, environmental mastery, personal growth, and life purpose are all included in this concept of well-being.

In this study, the variable that is argued to affect employees' turnover intention and psychological well-being is emotion regulation. Emotional regulation encompasses a set of competencies. In the literature, nine distinct conceptual approaches to cognitive emotion regulation have been proposed. These include self-blame, blaming others, rumination, catastrophizing, putting into perspective, positive refocusing, positive reappraisal, acceptance, and planning (Garnefski &

Kraaij, 2007). It enables one to manage, assess, and control the processes that lead to the development of emotion and how it manifests.

Accordingly, the primary inquiry of this research is whether cognitive emotion control techniques have a moderating influence on the consequences of toxic leadership perceptions on turnover intention and psychological health in the private sector. The following sub-questions are also sought in the study to answer this main question.

- Do toxic leadership perceptions of private sector employees affect their turnover intentions, and if so, what is the direction and strength of this relationship?
- Do toxic leadership perceptions of private sector employees affect their psychological well-being, and if so, what is the direction and strength of this relationship?
- Do private sector workers' cognitive emotion regulation techniques become impacted by toxic leadership perceptions, and if so, how strongly and in what direction?
- Does the impact of toxic leadership views on turnover intentions become mediated by the emotion regulation attitudes of private sector workers?
- Do private sector workers' attitudes toward emotion control act as a moderator in the relationship between psychological well-being and toxic leadership perceptions?

## **2. Literature and Hypothesis Development**

### ***2.1. Toxic Leadership***

Leaders are one of the most important impactful people of an organization's success or failure. For this reason, organizational researchers have become increasingly aware of the importance of leadership style in recent years. As Stogdill (1974) argues in his study, “There are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are people trying to define the subject.” However, there are a few definitions that have consistently permeated academic and popular sources over the years. One of them is the definition made by Gandolfi and Stone (2022). According to this definition, leadership is “an intentional tool used by a leader to guide a group of people in an organization to a widely understood future state that is different from the current state.” The word intentional is a critical element of this definition. They discussed the commitment required to practice leadership and to develop leadership skills. Although this study is not related to leadership styles, the researchers concluded that every leadership style requires commitment (Gandolfi & Stone, 2022).

Leadership behaviors and styles arising from the personality traits of individuals are ultimately reflected in the behaviors and attitudes of organizational employees in the workplace and,

after a while, affect their performance. As a result, it is believed that certain traits of the leader—such as competence, vision, honesty, and respect for others—can positively impact workers (Manaa, 2022). From a different perspective, a leader who has negative traits like narcissism, self-promotion, and manipulative and dominating actions has a detrimental impact on employee morale and performance (Manaa, 2022). Some other definitions of toxic leadership, defined by scholars as “a type of leadership characterized by malicious behavior used to bully or manipulate people”, are as follows: This type of leadership is also defined as “destructive leadership, dark leadership, or weak leadership”. (Wolor et al, 2022). The toxic leader aims to protect his/her interests and tries to intimidate and intimidate his/her employees in order to gain acceptance, it is a dysfunctional type of leadership that discourages organizational members by constantly humiliating them with narcissistic tendencies and authoritarian attitudes, causing their physical and mental destruction (Çoban, 2021).

Examining the elements of Lipman-Blumen's (2006) toxic leadership scale reveals that toxic leadership can have detrimental consequences on a variety of organizational aspects, including motivation, organizational commitment, organizational culture, and organizational climate (Kılıç & Günsel, 2019). Problems like tardiness or absenteeism, decreased productivity at work, the rise of relocation demands, and resignations impact the organization's administrative and organizational processes from a micro perspective and sectors and fields from a macro perspective. These issues arise when employees are evaluated based on their individual mental and physical health as well as the loss of functionality of group behaviors (Ullah et al, 2021). The idea behind toxic leadership is “leaders who display a wide range of extreme emotions in an unpredictable pattern, lack emotional intelligence, act in ways that are culturally and/or interpersonally insensitive, are primarily motivated by self-interest, and influence others using negative methods” (Reed, 2004; Whicker, 1996).

Schmidt (2008) distinguished five sub-dimensions of toxic leadership:

- Coercion, public criticism, rudeness, tantrums, and other careless behaviors are examples of abusive supervision.
- Authoritarian leadership: This leadership style is frequently linked to a lack of consideration for the needs and opinions of others.
- A subdimension of toxic leadership, narcissism is characterized by a high sense of personal inadequacy, self-aggrandizement, selfishness, and self-interested goals.
- Self-promotion entails just engaging in activities and groups pertaining to personal growth and avoiding accountability for employees' individual or collective errors.

•Unpredictability; this concept in toxic leadership describes the leader's mood swings, characterized by sudden outbursts of emotion and tantrums, for no apparent and logical reason. The concept of unpredictability is also related to psychopathology (Batchelor et al, 2023).

Lipman-Blumen (2006) divided toxic leadership into two categories: intentional and unintentional. It can be said that the intentionally toxic leader intentionally harms others for status promotion. Unintentional toxic leaders do not intentionally and knowingly cause harm, but they are incompetent people who can cause serious problems to the organization with their irrational and irresponsible behaviors (Budak & Erdal, 2022). Nonetheless, recent instances of power abuse in various settings, including politics and business, have reignited curiosity about the shadowy side of leadership. Recent scholarship has used different constructs to describe this dark and destructive form of leadership: Exploiter (Tepper, 2000), cruel (Ashforth, 1994), unethical or bad (Kellerman, 2004), and toxic (Lipman-Blumen, 2006; Pelletier, 2009; Reed, 2004; Whicker, 1996). Although these structures are named differently by different authors, the same phenomenon is generally emphasized. Toxic leaders, often described by staff as arrogant, selfish, inflexible, and overbearing, are indifferent to their employees' motivation, morale, or well-being (Dobbs & Do, 2019). Although he presents a negative picture of his followers, the reasons why his followers continue to follow him differ. According to Gangel (2008), those who follow a toxic leader do so because they lack courage and education, they are insecure, they fear the leader, they have no other options, and they like the toxic leader's charisma.

There can be many explanations why toxic leaders behave this way in the workplace; however, some reasons are more prominent than others. Pelletier (2009) asserts that toxic leaders exhibit specific behavioral characteristics, such as incompetence, a lack of moral philosophy, a lack of honesty and integrity, and a lack of trust (Baloyi, 2020).

The toxic habits of the leader make the work more difficult and demanding. They are viewed as haughty, self-centered, rigid, and controlling, and they don't care about the happiness and welfare of their workers. To identify toxic tendencies in a leader before they have a significant detrimental influence, it is crucial for businesses to analyze leadership behavior (Naeem & Khurram, 2020). In this study, turnover intention and psychological well-being, which are argued to be affected by toxic leadership perception, are examined.

## **2.2. Turnover Intention**

In the literature, turnover intention refers to the desire to leave an organization. Intentions are important in that they reflect a person's perception. Since these intentions have the power to predict

judgment that emerges as a continuation of perceptions, this fact is the key to determining behavior. McCarthy, Tyrrell, and Lehane (2007) argue that turnover intention is the last part of the decision-making process.

Research aimed at comprehending the reasons behind turnover intentions constitute a significant portion of the literature on organizational behavior. The most reliable measure of turnover intention, according to these studies, is turnover intention. These studies have shown how perceived supervisor and organizational support, job satisfaction, job stress, job engagement, organizational commitment, and workgroup cohesion relate to the intention to leave (Simone et al, 2021). Employers rely on employee surveys to gauge how their staff members feel about their jobs and working circumstances. It is debatable whether it is appropriate to look into the predictive ability of other well-being indicators for turnover intention, given the prevalence of work satisfaction measures and the evidence that they are a reliable indication of this intention. However, it may be argued that employee well-being is a multifaceted concept that extends well beyond job satisfaction. Employee surveys that solely use a job satisfaction metric to reflect overall employee health appropriately ignore this multidimensionality. Employers have lost out on this chance to get crucial information about the role that other aspects of the work experience play (Diane, 2022). However, the reasons for these purposes are often obscure, and the phenomenon is far from being fully understood, especially since some of the psychological processes of fundamental turnover are still unclear (Ismail, 2015).

The factors that trigger turnover intentions can be characterized as individual (age, gender, education, marital status, family or kinship responsibilities, and professional experience), organizational (job satisfaction and organizational commitment), and external factors (macroeconomic factors, labor market). As an example of individual factors, according to role theory, individuals have various identities; the most prominent roles for individuals are their roles in business life and their roles in family life. The greater the incompatibility between these two roles, the more this causes a negative mood in the individual, and the source of the threat is questioned using negative evaluations. People either think that they are the main cause of the issue or they think that outside forces are to blame, which leads them to conclude that it is an accident. People who think they have control over their lives, or who think they are in charge of their lives, tend to stay employed at the same firm with little influence from pressures. The literature has examined the influence of environmental stimuli and antecedents (external organizational factors), which are events and stimuli that take place in the environment outside the organization. The most well-researched external variables are positive macroeconomic factors, including a warming labor market, the availability of job alternatives, the level of economic development, employment policy, social security policy, and labor supply and demand circumstances (Steil et al, 2019).

Furthermore, self-efficacy reduces turnover intention, according to a study by Moore (2002). An employee may quit due to internal organizational concerns, including role uncertainty and conflict. These two intra-organizational factors may lead to a faster psychological exhaustion of the personal resources of the employees for the organization. In the following process, these personal resources may continue with the search for a company with job clarity (Halawi, 2014).

With these arguments, the following assumption was made.

**Hypothesis 1a:** There is a significant relationship between employees' perceptions of toxic leadership and turnover intentions.

### ***2.3. Psychological Well-Being***

Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) put out one of the earliest and most significant models of psychological well-being, characterizing it as the outcome of two factors: having pleasant feelings and participating in worthwhile activities. This concept suggests that people who actively participate in meaningful activities and regularly feel good are likely to have higher levels of psychological well-being (Dhanabhakym & Sarath, 2023).

The conceptualization of psychological well-being has varied since the first study. While some researchers associate psychological well-being with the realization of life potential and happiness, others associate well-being with individuals' personal experiences or the outcome of achieving goals, as well as the feeling of well-being (Roslan et al, 2017).

Psychological well-being is commonly defined as the outcome of feeling good and functioning well. Another commonly recognized concept is psychological well-being, which is defined by Ryff's (1989) six-dimensional model. The paradigm states that self-acceptance, healthy relationships, autonomy, environmental mastery, personal development, and life purpose are all components of well-being. Some research distinguishes between psychological and subjective well-being (Shevleva et al, 2022).

Subjective well-being, one of the two primary well-being conceptions that emphasize life satisfaction and personal pleasure, distinguishes between positive and negative impacts and defines the psychological impact of well-being as the attainment of an individual's potential. The psychological approach definition of well-being, which incorporates several sub-dimensions, formulates human development and life's existential concerns. Although both approaches were developed at different times, their complementary effects and relationships can be seen. These two different structures include different aspects of the positive functioning of the individual's psychology. Actually, the following two theories of happiness are embodied in these two disparate notions of

happiness/well-being/well-being: (1) a eudaemonist philosophy, which maintains that happiness arises when people pursue meaningful goals through personally expressive behaviors, and (2) a hedonic philosophy, which maintains that happiness is comparable to subjective experiences of pleasure and satisfaction (Leite et al, 2019).

Positive emotional ideas like happiness and contentment, as well as feelings like compassion, caring, dedication, and trust, are recognized to be associated with the idea of well-being. Several criteria form the basis of the psychological idea of efficient functioning, some of which are as follows: Realizing one's potential, feeling somewhat in control of one's life, finding meaning in pursuing meaningful objectives, and experiencing healthy relationships (Huppert, 2009). Age and other sociodemographic characteristics have also been discovered to have a variety of relationships with psychological well-being.

Positive emotional states like happiness (hedonic perspective) and functioning with sufficient efficacy in one's personal and social life (eudaimonic perspective) are frequently considered to reflect psychological well-being. Huppert (2009) associates the concept of psychological well-being with the well-being of individuals' lives. Thus, it can be said that psychological well-being is the coexistence of feeling good and effective functioning and working (Winefield et al, 2012). According to these descriptions, people who have high psychological well-being are content, capable, at peace with life, and supported. Tests that measure well-being aim to capture objective measures of standard of living and psychological, spiritual, and social aspects. From this perspective, the concept is complex and multifactorial, as individuals' subjective judgments about their lives are divided into subjective measures based on cognitive and emotional aspects. When these constructions focus on psychological elements like happiness, they are frequently referred to as measures of psychological well-being. While measures such as life satisfaction are only concerned with one aspect of psychological well-being, the multidimensional structure of psychological well-being is broad. Within this broad structure, there are other aspects of both psychological and physiological health, such as stress, functionality/disability, and physical symptoms. (Fitzgerald et al, 2019).

With these arguments, the following assumption was made:

**Hypothesis 1b:** There is a significant relationship between employees' perceptions of toxic leadership and their psychological well-being.

#### ***2.4.Cognitive Emotion Regulation***

Emotion regulation abilities are studied in the context of using cognitive processes as a required precondition since people frequently utilize them to solve issues, reduce fear, and manage challenges. Individuals who regulate their emotions through cognitive processes develop strategies



before reacting to a situation, and then an emotional response to that situation occurs. According to research on cognitive emotion regulation techniques, people can better control their emotions, particularly following stressful situations (Bacıoğlu & Kocabıyık, 2020).

Emotions can be regulated through thoughts and cognitions. This helps individuals to manage their emotions after stressful events. Individual variances in the particular thoughts and cognitions that enable emotion regulation result from people's varied life experiences, even while the ability to regulate emotions cognitively is widely acknowledged. Furthermore, cognitive emotion regulation is thought to be crucial for people's mental well-being. In the literature, nine distinct cognitive emotion control techniques have been proposed conceptually. These are self-blame, blaming others, rumination, catastrophizing, putting into perspective, positive refocusing, positive reappraisal, acceptance, and planning (Garnefski & Kraaij, 2006).

Since Freud started researching the connections between emotional drives and mental health, there has been interest in emotion regulation. Neurophysiological reactions, attentional cognitive processes, information processing, internal cue encoding, and behavioral mechanisms like response selection or control over the demands of familiar surroundings are all part of emotion regulation (Khatibi & Yousefi, 2015). By definition, conscious techniques involving a person's attention and assessment processes are referred to as cognitive regulation of emotion. Using executive functions is one approach to conceptualizing the cognitive processes of emotion control. While non-executive strategies like rumination suggest a lack of attention or inhibitory deficits, executive cognitive emotion regulation (e.g., reappraisal, mental state change, appraisal, planning, working memory, and information updating, monitoring) implies using higher cognitive structures. For instance, rumination has been linked to reduced cognitive flexibility and deficiencies in internal change in working memory, while reappraisal has been linked to greater emotional flexibility, interference resolution, and working memory capacity (Miklosi et al, 2014). It has been demonstrated that self-report of allegedly maladaptive emotion management techniques, such as avoidance, rumination, and suppression, is consistently linked to psychopathological symptoms. Research on the preventive function of ostensibly adaptive techniques, such as positive reappraisal or acceptance, indicates that there is a comparatively weaker correlation between these techniques and psychopathology (Kököneyi et al, 2019).

A collection of competency levels that enable an individual to manage, assess, modify, and control the recurrence of emotion production processes is referred to as emotional regulation. Therefore, individuals develop and apply a set of strategies that enable them to adjust or modify emotional events throughout life. Furthermore, a person's physiological and emotional well-being

depends heavily on their capacity to control their emotions, which also helps to reduce their chances of developing anxiety and depression (Aristu et al, 2019).

Examining the current research generally highlights the fact that, just as certain regulating techniques are more associated with emotional issues than others, these techniques can also be useful in various ways to guarantee the well-being of the individual. Strategies that can directly affect positive emotional experiences, such as “positive reappraisal” in the face of negative situations, can be effective in increasing life well-being (Balzarotti et al, 2014).

With these arguments, the following assumptions were made:

**Hypothesis 1d:** Cognitive emotion regulation mediates the relationship between employees' perceptions of toxic leadership and turnover intentions.

**Hypothesis 1e:** Cognitive emotion regulation mediates the relationship between employees' perceptions of toxic leadership and psychological well-being.

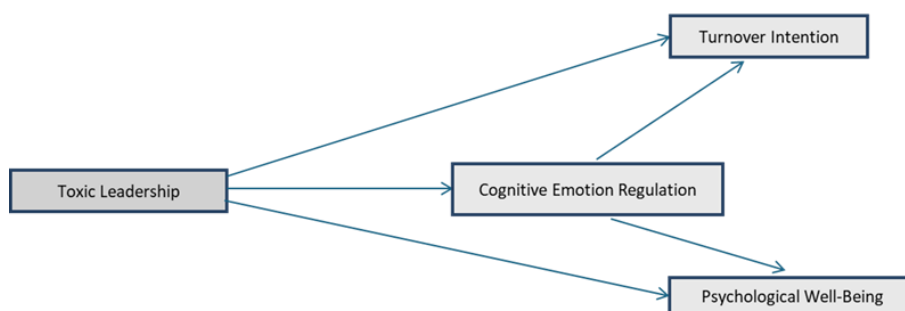
### 3. Method

#### 3.1. Research Model

The study is descriptive, and by incorporating cognitive emotion regulation into the model, a mediation model between toxic leadership and turnover intention and psychological well-being was developed. The conceptual model is presented in Figure 1.

**Figure 1**

*Conceptual Model of The Study*



\*Source: Created by the authors by utilizing the literature.

#### 3.2. Participants

The population of the research consists of private-sector employees. Especially considering the intensive working conditions and forms, it is a group where there is a high probability of experiencing undesirable phenomena at the organizational level. People who freely participated in the survey and work in the private sector in Kırşehir province make up the study's sample in the private sector universe. According to the Social Security Institution data for the period of July 2023,

the number of workplaces employing compulsory 4/A insured in Kırşehir province is 4,201. These workplaces employ a total of 29,168 4/A insured employees. According to the calculation, the sample size representing the number of private sector employees (29,168) corresponds to 380 people.

In this study, 386 people, which is the sample size that can represent the relevant population, were reached. Every participant provided their answers freely and without being forced to do so. The majority of the 386 participants were male (63.2%), married (71%), with 1-15 years of service (43.3%), in the 33-37 age range (25.4%), bachelor's degree holders (38.3%) and education sector employees (57.5%).

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

Four fundamental scales are part of the data-gathering instrument utilized in this investigation. Çelebi, Güner, and Yıldız (2015) created the first one, the "Toxic Leadership Scale," to find out how participants felt about toxic leadership. The 30-item scale looks at four sub-dimensions of toxic leadership (unappreciation, manipulation, selfishness, and negative mood).

The second scale, the Cognitive Emotion Regulation Scale, was created by Garnefski, Kraaij, and Spinhoven (2001) to assess how people manage their emotions both in everyday life and in the wake of stressful life events. The scale comprises nine sub-dimensions and 36 components. These include catastrophizing, blaming other subscales, putting into perspective, ruminating, positive refocusing, planning, self-blame, acceptance, and positive reappraisal. There are four elements on each subscale. On a five-point Likert-type scale, 1 represents never and 5 represents always. Higher subscale scores indicate increased employment of the technique identified by a subscale. Onat and Otrar translated the associated scale into Turkish (2010) (Kula & Mor, 2016).

Diener, Scollon, and Lucas (2009) created the third scale, the Psychological Well-Being Scale, which has eight items and is used to gauge individuals' psychological well-being. The scale's internal consistency coefficient is 87. Telef (2013) carried out the Psychological Well-Being Scale adaptation study in Turkish. The internal consistency coefficient in the Turkish adaptation research was determined to be 87. The score ranges from 1 to 7. A person with a high score on the scale is considered psychologically strong. The scale has a single dimension, and the study's Cronbach's alpha score was 0.864.

The fourth scale used in the study to determine the turnover intention of the participants is the Turnover Intention Scale developed by Rosin and Korabik (1991). The scale, which was adapted into Turkish by Tanrıöver (2005), consists of 4 statements in total. These statements are respectively "I would leave my job if I had the opportunity", "I have recently started to think about leaving my job

more often”, “I am actively looking for a new job”, and “I do not think about leaving my job”. Since the 4th statement is negative, it was reverse-coded and included in the analysis. The Cronbach's alpha value calculated for the scale consisting of a single dimension was 0.908.

### ***3.4.Data Collection Process***

The data of the study were collected online between January-April 2024 using Google Forms. At the beginning of the questionnaire form, the necessary preliminary information about the research was given, and the contact number was specified for possible problems. In addition, the research was evaluated with the decision numbered 2023/11 at the meeting of the Kırşehir Ahi Evran University Ethics Commission held on 21.12.2023 and deemed ethically appropriate. In addition, the “Informed Voluntary Consent Form” given while obtaining ethics committee approval was delivered to the participants online, and their consent was obtained. The study did not involve human health or negativity, and no conflict of interest was pursued.

## **4. Results**

This portion of the study provides the results and conclusions derived from the analyses. The scale-related statistics are presented first, followed by the correlational relationships between the several sub-dimensions and the overall scale scores as well as the outcomes of structural equation modeling within the parameters of the model that was developed.

### ***4.1.Statistics on Scales***

To ascertain if the data were regularly distributed, the skewness and kurtosis values were examined based on the sum of the scores. Total toxic leadership (skewness: 0,262; kurtosis: -0,616), total emotion regulation (skewness: -0,206; kurtosis: -0,095), total turnover intention (skewness: 0,448; kurtosis: -0,636) and finally total psycwellbeing (skewness: -1,092; kurtosis: 1,236) were obtained.

When the relevant data are analyzed, it is seen that the skewness and kurtosis values are between +1.5 and -1.5. As stated in Tabachnick and Fidell's (2013) study, the fact that the skewness and kurtosis values are in this range shows that the data exhibit a normal distribution.

In the study, the adequacy of the data was examined before proceeding to factor analysis. Within the scope of the adequacy tests, while the KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin/Measure of Sampling Adequacy) value of the toxic leadership scale was found to be 0.948, the approximately chi-square value for the related scale was obtained as 8347.790, df 190, and  $p=0.000$ . The total variance explained for the related scale was 79,557%. The values for the cognitive emotion regulation scale were found as KMO value 0,777, approximately chi-square value 5065,776, df value 325 and  $p=$

0,000. The total variance explained for the related scale was obtained as 75,230%. As a result of the analysis conducted for the turnover intention scale, the KMO value was obtained as 0.800, and the values within the scope of Barlett's test were obtained as approximately chi-square value 1069,292, df value 6, p=0.000, respectively. Finally, in the psychological well-being scale, while the KMO value was found to be 0.882, the approximately chi-square value was obtained as 1348.884, df=28, and p=0.000.

**Table 1**

*Factor Loading Values for The Scales*

Toxic Leadership		Psyc wellbeing		Turnover intention		Emotion regulation	
Toxic_Leader_1	,800	Psyc1	,749	İntoq1	,912	emotionreg_8	,670
Toxic_Leader_3	,816	Psyc2	,534	İntoq2	,887	emotionreg_17	,831
Toxic_Leader_4	,764	Psyc3	,562	İntoq3	,730	emotionreg_26	,679
Toxic_Leader_5	,827	Psyc4	,438	İntoq4	,774	emotionreg_35	,875
Toxic_Leader_6	,801	Psyc5	,770			emotionreg_1	,646
Toxic_Leader_8	,875	Psyc6	,828			emotionreg_10	,764
Toxic_Leader_9	,816	Psyc7	,700			emotionreg_28	,902
Toxic_leader_19	,842	Psyc8	,775			emotionreg_4	,539
Toxic_leader_20	,873					emotionreg_13	,443
Toxic_leader_22	,893					emotionreg_22	,706
Toxic_leader_24	,799					emotionreg_31	,964
Toxic_leader_25	,873					emotionreg_5	,617
Toxic_leader_12	,851					emotionreg_14	,608
Toxic_leader_15	,909					emotionreg_23	,794
Toxic_leader_26	,888					emotionreg_32	,788
Toxic_leader_27	,803					emotionreg_9	,767
Toxic_leader_28	,931					emotionreg_18	,782
Toxic_leader_30	,843					emotionreg_36	,715
Toxic_leader_23	,894					emotionreg_25	,739
Toxic_leader_16	,917					emotionreg_34	,693
						emotionreg_2	,560
						emotionreg_11	,721
						emotionreg_12	,615
						emotionreg_30	,872
						emotionreg_6	,734
						emotionreg_15	,727

\*Source: Created by the authors using the AMOS program.

As can be seen In table 1 above, as a result of the CFA (Confirmatory Factor Analysis) conducted for the toxic leadership scale, it is seen that the factor loads for the relevant scale are in the range of (0.764-0.931), while the factor loads for the psychological well-being scale are in the range of (0.438-0.828), the factor loads for the turnover intention scale are in the range of (0.730-0.912) and finally the factor loads for the cognitive emotion regulation scale are in the range of (0.539-0.964). The first level multifactor structure of the toxic leadership scale, which consists of a total of

4 sub-dimensions and 30 statements, was tested using the Amos 21 program. In the analysis using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the Maximum Likelihood calculation method was used, considering the normal distribution of the data. To ensure goodness of fit values in the toxic leadership scale, in some cases, covariances were drawn under the condition of being formed under the same dimension. The items with factor loadings below 0.40 were removed from the analysis, and the final version of the scale consisted of 20 statements. The items removed from the scale can be stated as follows in order and on a dimension basis; questions 2, 7, 10, 11 from the dimension of unappreciation, 17, 18, 21 from the dimension of manipulation, 13, 14 from the dimension of selfishness and 29 from the dimension of negative mood. In order to increase the goodness of fit value in the psychological well-being scale (which consists of 8 items and a single dimension). The Maximum Likelihood calculation method was selected because the data exhibited normal distribution for this scale, and as a result of the values obtained, it was concluded that the one-factor structure was theoretically appropriate. In the 36-expression cognitive emotion regulation scale, consisting of a total of 9 sub-dimensions and 4 statements for each dimension, 10 statements were not included in the analysis because their factor loadings were below 0.40. These items can be specified based on dimensions respectively as follows; Question 19 from the self-blame dimension, Question 27 from the blame others dimension, Questions 20 and 29 from the acceptance dimension, Questions 12,30 from the rumination dimension, Questions 24,33 from the positive reappraisal dimension and finally Questions 7 and 16 from the putting into perspective dimension. Finally, it can be said that the theoretical structure of the turnover intention scale, which consists of a single dimension and 4 statements, was confirmed as a result of the analysis. The values obtained were significantly below the specified threshold for all variables; this shows that each scale structure is different and separate (Uygungil-Erdogan et al., 2025).

**Table 2***Toxic Leadership Scale Basic Validity Test Values*

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	selfishness	unappreciation	manipulation	Negative mood
Selfishness	0,922	0,797	0,752	0,665	0,893			
Unappreciation	0,932	0,664	0,776	0,701	0,796	0,815		
Manipulation	0,946	0,745	0,785	0,771	0,867	0,881	0,863	
Negative mood	0,924	0,753	0,785	0,696	0,781	0,833	0,886	0,868

\*(CR: Composite reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted; MSV: Maximum Squared Variance; ASV: Average Shared Square Variance)

\*\*Source: Created by the authors using SPSS and AMOS programs.

The basic validity test results of the toxic leadership scale are as shown in Table 2. The internal reliability criterion that the CR value should be greater than 0.7 is met for all dimensions, the condition that the AVE value should be greater than 0.5 is also met, in terms of convergent validity,

CR>AVE is met and in terms of discriminant validity, MSV<AVE condition is met only based on selfishness dimension. In general, according to the results of CFA, the scale fits according to the final fit criteria, and it also conforms to acceptable values based on discriminant and convergent validity, which is parallel with the sources in the literature.

**Table 3**

*Cognitive Emotion Regulation Scale Basic Validity Test*

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	Catastrophizing	Self-blame	Planning	Blaming others	Putting into perspective	Acceptance	Rumination	Positive reappraisal	Positive refocusing
<b>Catastrophizing</b>	0,757	0,613	0,573	0,190	0,783								
<b>Self-blame</b>	0,818	0,605	0,479	0,137	0,661	0,778							
<b>Planning</b>	0,798	0,500	0,531	0,143	-0,247	0,050	0,707						
<b>Blaming others</b>	0,799	0,570	0,242	0,060	0,492	0,099	0,040	0,755					
<b>putting into perspective</b>	0,678	0,513	0,433	0,168	-0,331	0,127	0,597	-0,112	0,716				
<b>Acceptance</b>	0,584	0,417	0,125	0,041	0,122	0,353	-0,274	-0,157	0,166	0,646			
<b>Rumination</b>	0,720	0,569	0,573	0,169	0,757	0,692	-0,024	0,353	-0,062	0,217	0,755		
<b>Positive reappraisal</b>	0,696	0,534	0,531	0,164	-0,229	0,117	0,729	-0,253	0,622	0,098	-0,231	0,731	
<b>Positive refocusing</b>	0,771	0,479	0,433	0,108	-0,172	-0,099	0,339	-0,034	0,658	-0,065	-0,271	0,447	0,692

\*(CR: Composite reliability; AVE: Average Variance Extracted; MSV: Maximum Squared Variance; ASV: Average Shared Square Variance)

\*\*Source: Created by the authors using SPSS and AMOS programs.

The results of the basic validity test of the cognitive emotion regulation scale are presented in Table 3. When the relevant data are examined, the CR value, the internal security criterion, has values above 0.7 except for 3 dimensions (putting into perspective, acceptance and positive reappraisal dimensions are below 0.7 but close to the limit values). The condition that the AVE value should be greater than 0.5 is met except for two dimensions (acceptance and positive refocusing dimensions). In terms of convergent validity, CR>AVE is met. In the MSV<AVE comparison, which is discriminant validity, this validity is met except for two dimensions (planning and rumination dimensions).

**Table 4**

*Goodness of Fit Values of The Scales*

	Toxic leadership	Emotion Regulation	Turnover Intention	Psyc Well being
CMIN/DF	4,820	4,638	3,824	3,995
GFI	0,852	0,824	0,995	0,954
CFI	0,931	0,806	0,997	0,957
RMSEA	0,099	0,097	0,086	0,088

\*(CMIN/DF: Normed chi-square; GFI: Goodness of fit index; CFI: Comparative fit index; RMSEA: Root mean square error of approximation)

\*\*Source: Created by the authors using the AMOS program.



The data on whether the model tested with the structural equation model is supported by the data collected are given in Table 4, and a conclusion can be reached by interpreting these values, which are called goodness of fit values. When the values in the table are compared with the commonly used threshold values (CMIN/DF (X squared/sd) $\leq$ 5.00; GFI $\geq$ 0.85; CFI $\geq$ 0.950; RMSEA $\leq$ 0.10), it is seen that the CMIN/DF value, RMSEA and GFI (Goodness of fit index) values in the toxic leadership scale are compatible with the threshold values. Still, the other criterion for the scale in question, CFI (Comparative fit index) value is close to these limits. Similarly, in the cognitive emotion regulation scale, CMIN/DF and RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation) values are compatible with the threshold values, while the other two values, GFI and CFI, are close to the threshold values. While the data obtained from the turnover intention scale are compatible with the frequently used threshold values according to four different criteria, similarly, the psychological well-being scale also complies with the threshold values. With these results, it can be said that the predicted theoretical structures of the scales are confirmed (See also: Karagöz, 2019).

#### 4.2. Correlational Relationships Between Total Scale Scores

According to the data In table 5, regarding the correlation values of the variables in the research model is examined, it is seen that there is a coefficient of 0.166 ( $p=0.01$ ) between toxic leadership and cognitive emotion regulation, toxic leadership and turnover intention based on scale total scores, 0.481 coefficient ( $p=0.01$ ), 0.126 ( $p=0.05$ ) between toxic leadership and psychological well-being, 0.206 coefficient ( $p=0.01$ ) between cognitive emotion regulation and psychological well-being and finally -0.206 coefficient ( $p=0.01$ ) between turnover intention and psychological well-being.

**Table 5**

*Data On Correlation Values*

Variables	Toxic_Leadership	Emotion regulation	Turnover Intention	Psyc wellbeing
Toxic leadership	1			
Emotion regulation	,166**	1		
Turnover Intention	,481**	,030	1	
Psyc wellbeing	,126*	,206**	-,206**	1

\* $p<0.05$  \*\* $p<0.01$  \*\*\*Source: Created by the authors using SPSS program.

#### 4.3. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) and Path Analysis

When the coefficients In table 6 (stage 1) are examined, there are positive and significant relationships between toxic leadership, turnover intention and psychological well-being. The standardized regression coefficient (toxic leadership - turnover intention) was 0.48 ( $p<0.01$ ) and the standardized regression coefficient between toxic leadership and psychological well-being was 0.13 ( $p=0.013$ ;  $p\leq 0.05$ ).

**Table 6**

*Regression Coefficients Obtained From (Stage 1)*

Relationships			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	p
Total turnover intention	<---	<b>Total toxic leadership</b>	0,11	0,01	10,767	***
Total psyc wellbeing	<---	<b>Total toxic leadership</b>	0,049	0,02	2,49	0,013

\*Source: Created by the authors using the AMOS program.

Data In table 7 of the model (stage 2), the relationship between toxic leadership and cognitive emotion regulation was examined, where the standardized path coefficient was 0.17 ( $p \leq 0.01$ ), indicating the existence of a positive and significant relationship between the two variables. In short, it can be concluded that as the level of toxic leadership in managers increases, employees will try to reduce the effects of this situation by using cognitive emotion regulation strategies.

**Table 7**

*Regression Coefficients Obtained From (Stage 2)*

Relationships			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	p
<b>Total emotion reg</b>	<---	<b>Total toxic leadership</b>	0,082	0,025	3,301	***

\*Source: Created by the authors using the AMOS program.

When the values of the mediation analyses in Table 8 (stage 3) are examined, it is possible to make a comparison by considering the coefficients in the first stage with the cognitive emotion regulation added to the model. In the first stage, the standardized coefficients in the relationship between toxic leadership and psychological well-being decreased from 0.13 to 0.09 (with the addition of cognitive emotion regulation to the model). In addition, when the presence of a change in the significance level is checked, the significant relationship in the first stage ( $p=0.013$ ) becomes insignificant ( $p=0.061$ ) with the addition of cognitive emotion regulation to the model in Stage 3. This shows us the presence of a full mediation effect. In order to test this situation further, the values obtained with the Sobel test were analyzed. According to the Sobel test results, the Sobel t test value=3.89 and  $p=0.000$ , confirming the full mediation effect. In short, cognitive emotion regulation has a full mediating effect between toxic leadership and psychological well-being.

**Table 8**

*Regression Coefficients For Mediating Effect Analysis (Stage 3)*

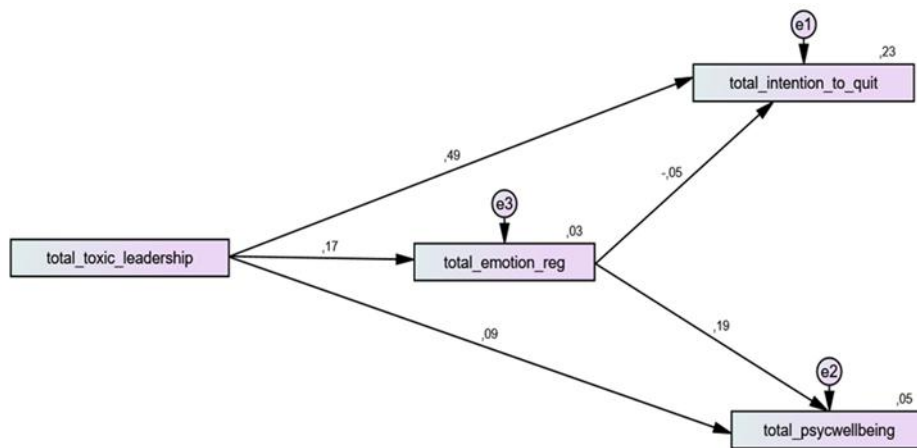
Relationships			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	p
Total emotion reg	<---	<b>Total toxic leadership</b>	0,082	0,025	3,301	***
Total turnover intention	<---	<b>Total toxic leadership</b>	0,112	0,01	10,825	***
Total psycwellbeing	<---	<b>Total toxic leadership</b>	0,037	0,02	1,872	0,061
Total turnover intention	<---	<b>Total emotion reg</b>	-0,024	0,021	-1,141	0,254
Total psyc wellbeing	<---	<b>Total emotion reg</b>	0,15	0,04	3,791	***

\*Source: Created by the authors using the AMOS program.

When another relational analysis in Phase 3 is examined, there is no change in the significance in Model 1 with the addition of cognitive emotion regulation to the model for the relationship between toxic leadership and turnover intention (in both cases at  $p \leq 0.01$  level), and there is an increase in the standardized regression coefficients (there is an increase from 0.48 to 0.49), so it is not possible to talk about any mediation effect. The mediating model and the values according to this model can be seen in Figure 2.

**Figure 2**

*Mediation Model For Path Analysis Phase 3*



\*Source: Created by the authors using the AMOS program.

As a result of the analyses, the findings obtained regarding the hypotheses of the study and the decisions made according to the data related to the hypotheses are given in Table 9.

**Table 9**

*Hypothesis Test Results*

Hypothesis	Test Result Decision
H1a: <i>There is a significant relationship between employees' perceptions of toxic leadership and turnover intentions.</i>	Accepted
H1b: <i>There is a significant relationship between employees' perceptions of toxic leadership and their psychological well-being.</i>	Accepted
H1c: <i>There is a significant relationship between employees' perceptions of toxic leadership and their cognitive emotion regulation strategies.</i>	Accepted
H1d: <i>Cognitive emotion regulation mediates the relationship between employees' perceptions of toxic leadership and turnover intentions.</i>	Rejected
H1e: <i>Cognitive emotion regulation mediates the relationship between employees' perceptions of toxic leadership and psychological well-being.</i>	Accepted

## 5. Discussion

This study looked at how private sector workers' psychological health and plans to leave were affected by toxic leadership perceptions. According to the results, which support the study's hypotheses, toxic leadership affects workers in various ways. These findings also highlight the crucial influence that leadership style has on the actions and emotions of employees in businesses. Below is

the interpretation of the findings obtained in line with the hypotheses of the study, their compatibility with the literature, and recommendations.

### ***5.1.Toxic Leadership and Turnover Intention***

H1a: There is a significant relationship between employees' perceptions of toxic leadership and turnover intentions. (Acceptance)

The study's conclusions show that employees are more likely to leave when they perceive toxic leadership. This outcome is consistent with earlier research in the literature. Some types of leadership have positive effects on employees, while toxic leadership leads to negative consequences. While empowering leadership motivates employees and encourages their development, toxic leadership demotivates employees and increases turnover intentions (Martinko et al, 2007; Semedo et al, 2022; Tepper, 2000). Negative behaviors of toxic leaders reduce employees' job satisfaction and weaken organizational commitment. Destructive and unsupportive behaviors of toxic leaders weaken employees' commitment to the organization and increase turnover intentions. Toxic leaders often exhibit behaviors such as belittling employees, behaving unfairly, and underestimating employees' contributions. This type of leadership reduces employees' willingness to stay with the organization and increases the likelihood that they will consider alternative job opportunities. As a result, employees may tend to leave their jobs to avoid such negative work environments.

### ***5.2.Toxic Leadership and Psychological Well-Being***

H1b: There is a significant relationship between employees' perceptions of toxic leadership and their psychological well-being. (Acceptance)

Although it has been noted that the stressful, discouraging, and unsupportive attitudes of toxic leaders considerably lower the psychological well-being of their workforce (Einarsen et al., 2007; Schyns and Schilling, 2013), the study's finding of a significant positive correlation, albeit weak, between psychological well-being and toxic leadership perception is noteworthy. This relationship may seem surprising and paradoxical at first glance because toxic leadership is generally associated with negative effects. In some studies, in the literature, the relationship between these two variables was found to be negative (Fedorova & Polents 2017; Kılıç, 2019). However, it would be meaningful to focus on a few possible situations when interpreting this situation. The first one is that employees may develop emotional resilience and immunity to stress as a result of prolonged exposure to toxic leadership. It can be argued that this may increase their ability to cope with challenges and their overall psychological resilience. Such an immune effect may help employees become more resilient to negative leadership behaviors and maintain their psychological well-being. However, this is a

hypothesis for future studies. Another possibility is that overexposure to toxic and coercive leadership may encourage employees to develop themselves and increase their problem-solving skills. Under toxic leadership, employees may develop strategies to cope with stress and grow personally in the process. As their capacity to handle difficulties increases, this may have a favorable impact on their general psychological health. In addition, it should be noted that toxic leadership can lead to the strengthening of solidarity and social support mechanisms among employees. Toxic leadership situations can lead employees to support each other and develop coping strategies together. Such social support networks can enhance employees' psychological well-being. In addition, it can be argued that employees may discover themselves in difficult situations, seek motivation outside of work life, and develop alternative emotion regulation strategies.

The intricacy and diverse dynamics of the positive association between psychological well-being and toxic leadership perceptions may be better understood with the aid of all these potential reasons. This finding provides important clues about how leadership styles and employees' psychological well-being can be better managed in organizations. A more detailed examination of such relationships will contribute to creating healthier and more productive work environments in organizations.

### ***5.3. Toxic Leadership and Cognitive Emotion Regulation***

H1c: There is a significant relationship between employees' perceptions of toxic leadership and their cognitive emotion regulation strategies. (Acceptance)

It can be concluded that as the level of toxic leadership behavior increases, employees will try to reduce the effects of this situation by using cognitive emotion regulation strategies. The strategies used by employees who encounter toxic leadership can generally be summarized as follows; as Tepper et al. (2007) stated in their study, it is possible to cope with toxic behaviors by engaging in compromise behaviors, and according to Ülbeği et al. (2013), it is possible to cope with toxic behaviors by exhibiting exemplary behaviors, self-promotion, and highlighting one's own achievements and qualifications. According to Yagil et al. (2011), it is possible to respond to the problem with two different solution strategies. Coping strategies that aim to solve the problem and prioritize controlling, reducing, and balancing emotional problems can be used. In order to apply these, direct open communication with the source of the problems is required (Çeliker, 2022).

### ***5.4. Cognitive Emotion Regulation and Turnover Intention***

H1d: Cognitive emotion regulation mediates the relationship between employees' perceptions of toxic leadership and turnover intentions. (Rejected)

The study found that the association between turnover intentions and toxic leadership views was not mediated by cognitive emotion control. This suggests that the factors that determine employees' turnover intentions are shaped not only by emotional regulation but also by other organizational factors such as leadership style, job satisfaction, organizational justice and support (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). Turnover intention is associated not only with individual emotional regulation skills but also with a range of factors such as organizational support, career opportunities, and job satisfaction (Saeed et al., 2014). Beyond perceptions of toxic leadership, employees' turnover decisions are also shaped by the general conditions of the job and individual expectations. According to the literature, environmental antecedents—stimuli and events that occur in the environment outside the organization—have a significant impact on turnover intentions. Positive macroeconomic factors, such as a warming labor market, the availability of alternative job options, the degree of economic development, employment policy, social security policy, and labor supply and demand conditions, are the most extensively studied external determinants (Steil et al., 2019).

### ***5.5.Cognitive Emotion Regulation and Psychological Well-Being***

H1e: Cognitive emotion regulation mediates the relationship between employees' perceptions of toxic leadership and psychological well-being (Acceptance)

The study found that the association between psychological well-being and toxic leadership views was significantly mediated by cognitive emotion control. It was discovered that psychological constructs like life experiences, emotional intelligence, and personality traits are linked to psychological well-being, and that psychological well-being and education level have a strong positive correlation (De-Juanas et al., 2020). Cognitive emotion regulation strategies can help employees manage their reactions to stressful and negative working conditions, which contributes to their psychological well-being (Gross, 2002; Lazarus, 1991). This finding emphasizes the importance of organizations providing training and support to their employees to improve their stress management and emotional regulation skills. Cognitive emotion regulation strategies can help employees cope with stress and maintain their mental health. This increases the importance of organizations providing emotional regulation skills training and support programs for their employees.

## **6.Conclusions**

This study revealed that toxic leadership has significant effects on employees' turnover intention and psychological well-being. Moreover, cognitive emotion regulation mediated the relationship between toxic leadership perceptions and psychological well-being. Organizations

should develop strategies to minimize toxic leadership behaviors and implement programs that support employees' emotional regulation skills. Such measures can increase employees' job satisfaction, reduce turnover intentions, and generally contribute to creating a healthier and more productive work environment.

This study clearly reveals that toxic leadership has significant effects on employees' turnover intention and psychological well-being with the results that toxic leaders' negative and destructive behaviors may cause employees to be dissatisfied with the work environment and seek better working conditions, that a challenging and toxic atmosphere may have an immune effect on employees' psychological well-being, that the factors affecting employees' turnover intention are not only limited to emotional regulation, but also other organizational factors such as leadership style, job satisfaction, organizational justice and support.

In line with the results of this study, the following recommendations have been developed that can help organizations reduce the toxic leadership effects on their employees and create a healthier and more productive working environment, as well as contribute to determining the necessary strategies to protect employees' psychological well-being and increase their job satisfaction:

- Organizations should conduct comprehensive leadership training and development programs to reduce leaders' toxic behaviors and enable them to adopt more positive leadership approaches.
- To support employees' psychological well-being, organizations should provide psychological support and counseling services in the workplace.
- Organizations should organize training for employees to improve their emotional regulation skills.
- Organizations should adopt a fair and transparent management approach to increase employees' perceptions of fairness and support. Organizations should create a strong support network within the organization to increase employees' organizational commitment and reduce turnover intentions.
- To increase employees' job satisfaction and commitment, organizations should provide career development opportunities and allow employees to develop their skills. Such opportunities can strengthen employees' organizational commitment and reduce turnover intentions.

Finally, for future studies, it can be suggested that new models be created and tested that will address the relationship between toxic leadership and psychological well-being and the relationship between emotional regulation and turnover from multiple perspectives.



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**Ethical Approval:** The research was evaluated with the decision numbered 2023/11 at the meeting of the Kırsehir Ahi Evran University Ethics Commission held on 21.12.2023 and deemed ethically appropriate.

**Informed Consent Form:** Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

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## Sessiz İstifanın Anatomisi: Teorik Temeller, Öncüller ve Sonuçlar

Coşkun AKÇA<sup>1</sup> 

### Öz

Sessiz istifa olgusu küresel işgücünde giderek yaygınlaşmaktadır. Sessiz istifa çalışanların iş faaliyetlerini iş tanımlarında belirtilen görevlerle sınırlandırmaları, işverenleri tarafından belirlenen beklentileri karşılamaları, ek görevler için gönüllü olmaktan kaçınmaları ve bu eylemleri yalnızca mevcut istihdam durumlarını korumak amacıyla gerçekleştirmeleri şeklinde tanımlanmaktadır. Başka bir deyişle, sessiz istifa örgütsel hedeflerden ziyade çalışanların kendi refahlarını önceliklendirmeye yönelik bilinçli kararlarıdır. Sessiz istifa olgusunun zayıf dışsal motivasyon, tükenmişlik ve üstlere ya da örgütsel yapıya yönelik kızgınlık gibi bir dizi faktöre bağlanması mümkündür. Sessiz istifa olgusu bir yandan çalışanların tükenmişlikten kaçınmasına yardımcı olurken, diğer yandan çalışanların profesyonel kariyerlerini tehlikeye atabilmektedir. Bu çalışmada sessiz istifa kavramının teorik temelleri, bireysel, örgütsel ve iş ile ilgili öncülleri ve sonuçları incelenmiştir. Literatürde yapılan çalışmalar ışığında sessiz istifanın iş dünyasındaki etkileri incelenmiş ve sessiz istifanın önlenmesine yönelik öneriler sunulmuştur. Çalışmanın literatüre katkı sağlayacağı ve yeni araştırma alanlarının belirlenmesinde gelecekteki çalışmalara rehberlik edebileceği düşünülmektedir.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Sessiz istifa, Sessiz istifacılar, Kurala göre çalışma

## Anatomy of Quiet Quitting: Theoretical Foundations, Antecedents and Consequences

### Abstract

The phenomenon of quiet quitting is becoming increasingly prevalent in the global workforce. Quiet quitting is defined as employees limiting their work activities to the tasks specified in their job descriptions, meeting the expectations set by their employers, refraining from volunteering for additional tasks, and taking these actions solely for the purpose of maintaining their current employment status. In other words, quiet quitting is the conscious decision of employees to prioritise their own well-being rather than organisational goals. The phenomenon of quiet quitting can be attributed to a number of factors such as weak extrinsic motivation, burnout and resentment towards superiors or the organisational structure. While the phenomenon of quiet quitting helps employees to avoid burnout on the one hand, it can jeopardise their professional careers on the other hand. In this study, the theoretical foundations, individual, organisational and work-related antecedents and consequences of the concept of quiet quitting were examined. In the light of the studies in the literature, the effects of quiet quitting in the business world have been examined and suggestions for the prevention of quiet quitting have been presented. It is thought that the study will contribute to the literature and guide future studies in determining new research areas.

**Keywords:** Quiet quitting, Quiet quitters, Work-to-rule

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## 1. Giriş

21. yüzyılın ilk çeyreğinde örgütler daha fazla sorunla karşı karşıya kalmaktadırlar. 2008 yılında ortaya çıkan ve tüm dünyayı etkisi altına alan ekonomik kriz, pandemiye dönüşen Covid-19 salgını ve tüm bunların sonucu olarak neredeyse tüm dünyayı etkisi altına alan yüksek enflasyon sorunları örgütlerin üstesinden gelmek zorunda kaldığı zorluklardan sadece birkaçıdır (Gharehgozli ve Lee, 2022). Ancak iş dünyası uzmanları, günümüz örgütlerini derinden etkileyecek ve hatta iş dünyasını sarsacak sessiz istifa olarak adlandırılan yeni bir eğilimle karşı karşıya kalındığını belirtmektedirler (Yıldız, 2023). Sessiz istifa olgusu Batı haber medyasında, sosyal medyada ve akademik araştırmalarda giderek daha fazla ilgi odağı haline gelmektedir. Sessiz istifayı çevreleyen iki farklı açıyı bulunmaktadır. İlk bakış açısına göre, sessiz istifacıların herhangi bir ek çaba veya inisiyatif göstermeksizin yalnızca işyerinde gerekli olan asgari görevleri yerine getirdiğini öne sürmektedir. Bu olgu “ücretini almak” olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Hamouche vd., 2023). İkinci bakış açısına göre, sessiz istifa, çalışanların profesyonel yaşamlarında net sınırlar belirleme girişimlerini yansıtmaktadır. Bu görüşe göre, çalışanlar sorumluluklarını özenle yerine getirmekte, ancak ücretlerinde yeniden müzakere olmaksızın fazla mesai yapmaktan veya ek görevler üstlenmekten kaçınmaktadırlar. Çalışanların bu sınırları belirleme ihtiyacı, iş-yaşam dengelerini iyileştirme çabalarından kaynaklanmakta ve tükenmişliğe karşı koruyucu bir önlem olarak hizmet etmektedir (Campton vd., 2023).

Sessiz istifa kavramı özellikle 2022 yılında viral bir TikTok videosunun yayılmasının ardından sosyal medyada önemli bir ilgi görmüştür. Daha sonra sosyal medyada işyeri ile ilgili en çok duyurulan ve popüler konulardan birisi haline gelmiştir. Sessiz istifa olgusunu çevreleyen sosyal medya içeriği, çok sayıda platformda milyonlarca görüntülenme sayısına ulaşmıştır. Buna ek olarak Gallup (2022) ve Harter (2022) raporları da dâhil olmak üzere çeşitli sektör raporları sessiz istifa olgusunun ortaya çıkışını doğrulamıştır. Küresel bir işgücü raporu, dünya çapında çalışanların %44'ünün yüksek düzeyde stres yaşadığını, %79'unun işlerinden koptuğunu ve %33'ünün işlerini tatmin edici bulmadığını göstermektedir (Gallup, 2022). Ancak çalışanlar devam bağlılıkları nedeniyle işten ayrılma niyetinde olsalar bile işlerini bırakamamaktadırlar (Akça, 2024). Çağdaş bir terim olarak bu durum sessiz istifa terimiyle ifade edilmektedir. Sessiz istifa bir çalışanın işyerindeki performans ve üretkenlik düzeyini kasıtlı olarak düşürmesi anlamına gelmektedir (Hamouche vd., 2023). Bu nedenle sessiz istifa kavramı esasında işyerindeki tutum ve performanstaki bir değişimle ilgilidir. Örnekler arasında işten uzaklaşma eğilimi, iş



motivasyonunun azalması ve iş-yaşam dengesi arzusu yer almaktadır (Zenger ve Folkman, 2022).

Günümüzde sessiz istifaya ilişkin akademik araştırmalar henüz başlangıç aşamasında olup, sessiz istifayı kavramsallaştırmayı ve işverenlere tavsiyelerde bulunmayı amaçlamaktadır (Bell ve Kennebrew, 2023). Görgül çalışmalar açısından bakıldığında, Serenko (2024) bir TikTok videosunun yorum bölümündeki 672 kullanıcı yorumunun içerik analizi yoluyla sessiz istifayı tanımlamaya çalışmıştır. Bulgular sessiz istifayı çalışanların yalnızca iş tanımlarını yerine getirdikleri ve performanslarını ileriye taşımaktan kaçındıkları bir zihniyet olarak çerçevelemiştir. Yakın zamanda yapılan diğer araştırmalar, örgütlerde sessiz istifayı ölçmek için bir ölçek geliştirmeye çalışmıştır (Anand vd., 2024). Caldwell ve diğerleri (2023) çalışmasında sessiz istifa olgusunu açıklamak için, bilişsel inançlar, duygusal tutumlar, niyetler ve eylem olmak üzere dört alt boyuttan oluşan gerekçeli eylem teorisi kullanılmıştır. Literatürde sessiz istifa kavramına dair yapılan çalışmalar, temel düzeyde kavramsal benzerlikler içermekle birlikte, sessiz istifanın altında yatan mekanizmaları ve örgütler üzerindeki etkisini inceleyen çalışmalar sınırlı düzeydedir. Bu bağlamda sessiz istifanın öncüllerinin ve sonuçlarının belirlenmesi bu araştırmanın yapılması ihtiyacını ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Bu çalışma sessiz istifayı kavramsal ve teorik bir çerçevede incelemenin yanı sıra öncüllerini ve sonuçlarını belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Sessiz istifa üzerine yapılan ulusal ve uluslararası çalışmalar incelenerek, sessiz istifa kavramı, sessiz istifanın belirtileri, sessiz istifa ile ilişkili teoriler açıklanmaktadır. Son olarak sessiz istifayı önlemeye yönelik bazı öneriler sunulmaktadır. Çalışmanın iş dünyasında sessiz istifa olgusunun anlaşılmasına ve yeni araştırma alanlarının belirlenmesine katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

## 2. Kavramsal Çerçeve

### 2.1. Sessiz İstifa

Sessiz istifa çalışanların iş tanımlarının gerektirdiğinden fazlasını yapma konusundaki isteksizliği olarak tanımlanmakta ve genellikle bir örgütün çalışanlarıyla anlamlı bir ilişki kurma yetersizliğinden kaynaklanan, işyerine karşı bir kızgınlığı yansıtmaktadır (Zenger ve Folkman, 2022). Sessiz istifa bireysel düzeyde işten kopukluk, düşük örgütsel bağlılık ve resmi görevlerin ötesine geçmeme şeklinde tanımlanmaktadır (Anand vd., 2024). Sessiz istifanın genel bir tanımı, bir çalışanın işle ilgili potansiyelini bilinçli olarak durdurması, sınırlandırması veya herhangi bir ek çaba göstermemesidir

(Walker, 2022). Aşağıdaki davranışlar çalışanların sessiz istifa eğiliminde olduklarına işaret edebilmektedir (Cuadra, 2022; Hetler, 2022):

- Uzun süreli bir kopukluk dönemi,
- Minimum gereksinimlerle sınırlı performans,
- Diğer ekip üyeleriyle etkileşimlerden çekilme,
- Zorunlu olmayan konuşmalar, görevler ve aktivitelerle etkileşimde azalma,
- Diğer ekip üyelerinin iş yükünde artış,
- Kasıtlı olarak işe geç kalma veya işyerinden erken ayrılma,
- Devamsızlıkta artış ve üretkenlikte azalma,
- Yapılan işe yönelik tutku veya heves düzeyinin azalması ve
- Örgüt kültüründen genel bir geri çekilme ve belirli bir derecede sinizm sergilenmesi.

Sessiz istifa ile ilgili bir kavram olan "kurallara göre çalışma", kişinin iş tanımında belirtileni yapması anlamına gelmektedir (Johnson, 2023). Bu bağlamda sessiz istifa kavramı, kurallara göre çalışma kavramı ile benzerlik göstermektedir. Ancak sessiz istifa kavramı çalışanın işin gerekliliklerine uyma konusundaki yetersizliğini veya isteksizliğini göstermemektedir. Aksine, çalışanın işten çıkarılmamak için gerekli ölçüde katkılarını en aza indirdiği bir durumu tanımlamaktadır. Sessiz istifanın görünürdeki olumsuzluklarına rağmen, çalışanlar için olumlu yönleri de vardır (Techtello, 2024):

- Yazılı olmayan beklentileri yerine getirmekle yükümlü olmamak,
- Hastalık durumunda çalışmak için baskı hissetmemek,
- Sınırları belirlemek ve ek iş almamak,
- Aile ile vakit geçirmenin, tatillerin ve bayramların tadını çıkarmak ve
- Sadece iş değil, kişisel hayatla da ilgilenebilmek.

Sessiz istifa fiili olarak istifayı içermeyip çalışanın ek enerji harcamadan işi tamamlaması olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Bununla birlikte sessiz istifanın mevcut pozisyonun memnuniyetsizlik veya tükenmişlik hissine işaret etme olasılığı bulunmaktadır (Hiltunen, 2023). Tükenmişlik yaşayan çalışanlar, rolleriyle ilişkili stresi azaltmak için pozisyon değiştirmeye veya yeni iş fırsatları aramaya hazırlanabilmektedirler (Hetler, 2022). Ancak alternatif fırsatların olmaması, ayrılmanın getireceği maliyetlerin değerlendirilmesi, ekonomik kaygılar (maaş ve yan haklar gibi) ve sosyal destek gibi çeşitli nedenlerden dolayı çalışanlar işinden ayrılamamaktadır (Akça, 2024). Bu sebeple bu çalışanların sessiz istifa

eğilimleri artmaktadır. Ayrıca uzun saatler çalışmaktan kaçınmak için, bir çalışan pozisyonundan ayrılmak yerine sessiz istifayı tercih edebilmektedir. İş-yaşam dengesini korumak ve ruh sağlığını iyileştirmek isteyenler tarafından da sessiz istifa tercih edilmektedir (Campton vd., 2023).

## **2.2. Sessiz İstifa ile İlişkili Teoriler**

Sessiz istifa kavramını, öncüllerini ve sonuçlarını destekleyen sosyal değişim teorisi, kaynakların korunması teorisi, öz belirleme teorisi, kuşak teorisi, karşılıklılık normu teorisi, eşitlik teorisi ve iş talepleri ve kaynakları teorisi gibi çeşitli teoriler bulunmaktadır. Bu teoriler aşağıda açıklanmaktadır.

### **2.2.1. Sosyal Değişim teorisi**

Sosyal değişim teorisi bireylerin sosyal bir sistem içerisinde nasıl davrandıklarını açıklayan, işverenler ve çalışanlar arasındaki süreçlere ilişkin bir dizi önerme, hipotez ve referans çerçevesi olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Homans, 1961; Blau, 1964). Sosyal değişim teorisi işveren-çalışan etkileşimlerini, her iki tarafın da karşılıklı süreçte kaynaklarını (ücret, terfiler, ödüller, sosyal haklar, fiziksel ve zihinsel katkılar) değiş tokuş ettiği bir dizi ardışık işlem olduğunu belirtmektedir (Cropanzano ve Mitchell, 2005). Sosyal değişim her iki tarafın da kendi çıkarları doğrultusunda hareket ettiği, birbirine bağlı bir dizi işlemde oluşan karşılıklı ve iki yönlü bir süreç olarak kabul edilmektedir. Sonuç olarak bir çalışanın bir örgütün başarısına katkıda bulunma kararı, zaman ve çaba yatırımı ile ilgili olarak kazanımların adilliğine ilişkin algısına bağlıdır. Sessiz istifa çalışanların çabalarının yöneticileri tarafından takdir edilmemesi ve kendilerine gerektiği gibi değer verilmediğini hissetmeleri karşısında kendi pozisyonlarını olumsuz etkilemeyecek şekilde memnuniyetsizliklerini işverenlerine iletebilecekleri bir yolu temsil etmektedir (Scheyett, 2022). Bu nedenle sosyal değişim teorisi kapsamında yöneticilerin çalışanlarına karşı sergiledikleri tutum ve davranışlar, sessiz istifanın belirleyicileri arasında yer almaktadır.

### **2.2.2. Kaynakların Korunması Teorisi**

Kaynakların korunması (COR) teorisi tükenmişlik olgusunu anlamak için en önde gelen teorik çerçevelerden biridir. COR teorisi iş talepleri ve aşırı rol yüklenmesi nedeniyle tükenmişlik hisseden çalışanların muhtemelen kalan psikolojik ve fiziksel kaynaklarını korumaya çalışacaklarını öne sürmektedir (Hobfoll, 1989). İşyeri stresi ve tükenmişliğin etkileri çalışanların kaynakları için bir tehdit oluşturarak genel strese ve zihinsel sağlık sorunlarına neden olmaktadır. Gerçekçi olmayan iş talepleri ve zihinsel sağlığı koruma

ihtiyacı, mikro düzeyde sessiz istifanın artmasına neden olmaktadır (Khan vd., 2022). Hobfoll (2001) tarafından ortaya konan COR teorisi çalışanların kişisel kaynakları olmadığında, günlük çabalarını azaltarak enerjilerini koruma eğiliminde olduklarını öne sürmektedir (Hobfoll vd., 2018). Çalışanlar kaynaklarını korumak için örgüt açısından istenmeyen davranışlarda bulunabilmektedirler (Mai vd., 2016). Sonuç olarak çalışanlar işgücünün ve kariyer geliştirme kaynaklarının boşa harcadığını hissettiklerinde olumsuz iş tutumları geliştirmeleri ve sessiz istifa eğilimi göstermeleri mümkün görünmektedir.

### **2.2.3. Öz Belirleme Teorisi**

Deci ve Ryan (1985) tarafından geliştirilen öz belirleme teorisi insan motivasyonunu açıklamaya yönelik bir teoridir. Bu teori bireylerin davranışlarını yönlendiren temel psikolojik ihtiyaçları ve bu ihtiyaçların motivasyon üzerindeki etkisini incelemektedir. Öz belirleme teorisinin ilkelerine uygun olarak, temel psikolojik ihtiyaç olan ilişkisellik, kişinin değer ve aidiyet duygusu yaşadığı sosyal bağlantılar kurabilmeleri anlamına gelmektedir (Tasman ve Eğer Aydoğmuş, 2022). Öz belirleme teorisine dayanarak temel psikolojik ihtiyaçların karşılanmamasının sessiz istifaya ve dolayısıyla işten ayrılmaya yol açabileceği varsayılmaktadır (Aydın ve Azizoğlu, 2022). Öz belirleme teorisi kapsamında çalışanlara değer verilmemesi ve takdir edilmemeleri onların sessiz istifa eğilimlerini artıracaktır söylenebilmektedir.

### **2.2.4. Kuşak Teorisi**

Mevcut literatür yaygın olarak kabul edilen beş kuşağı tanımlamaktadır. Bunlar Sessiz kuşak, Bebek Patlaması kuşağı, X kuşağı, Y kuşağı ve Z kuşağıdır (Twenge vd., 2010). Kuşak teorisi kuşaklar arasında önemli tutumsal, algısal ve davranışsal farklılıklar olduğunu öne sürmektedir. Z kuşağı “iş-yaşam dengesi” ve “eslenik” konularına önceki kuşaklardan daha fazla değer vermektedir. Youthall'ın (2022) araştırmasına göre, tüm katılımcılar arasında sessiz istifanın birinci nedeni düşük maaş iken, Z kuşağı katılımcıları arasında birinci neden iş-yaşam dengesizliğidir. Z kuşağının öncülük ettiği sessiz istifa hareketinin yaygınlaşması, bu demografinin fikirlerini ve deneyimlerini sosyal medya aracılığıyla yayma eğilimine bağlanabilmektedir. Buna ek olarak pandeminin ardından Z kuşağının işgücü piyasasına dahil olması da sessiz istifa olgusunun yaygınlaşmasına katkıda bulunan bir faktör olarak belirtilmektedir (Masterson, 2022).

### 2.2.5. Karşılıklılık Normu Teorisi

Karşılıklılık normu teorisi insanların karşılıklı ilişkilerine dayalı sosyal bağlar üzerine temellendirilmiştir (Gouldner, 1960). İnsanların birbirlerine karşılıklı fayda sağlamaları ve zararlara karşı ise kayıtsızlık veya düşmanlık göstermelerini ifade etmektedir (Whatley vd., 1999). Sosyal değişimin olağan seyrinde gözlemlenen işin gerekliliklerinin ötesinde fayda sağlama çabası, çalışanın yalnızca işin gerekliliklerini yerine getirmesiyle çağdaş durumda yeniden dengelenmektedir (Ye vd., 2022). Çalışanların performansları/çabaları beklentilerini karşılamadığında, motivasyon kaybı yaşamaları ve daha az performans göstermeleri muhtemeldir. Ayrıca, belirlenmiş rollerinin ötesinde işle ilgili sorumluluklar üstlenmemeyi tercih etmektedirler (Thapa, 2022). Karşılıklılık ilkesi ihlal edildiğinde, çalışanlar istifa etmeseler de işten psikolojik olarak kopabilir, minimum düzeyde performans gösterebilir ve ekstra rol davranışlarından kaçınabilirler (Klotz ve Bolino, 2016). Karşılıklılık normu teorisi çerçevesinde değerlendirildiğinde sessiz istifacıların iş yüklerini sınırlama ve kendilerine verilen görevleri asgari düzeyde yerine getirme eğilimi sergilemeleri mümkün görünmektedir.

### 2.2.6. Eşitlik Teorisi

Eşitlik teorisi çalışan bireylerin işverenleriyle olan ilişkilerinin adilliğini, girdilerini (örn. iş için harcanan çaba, zaman ve kaynaklar) ve bu ilişkiden elde ettikleri kazanımları (örn. maaş, sosyal haklar ve özerklik) diğerleriyle karşılaştırarak ölçebileceklerini öne sürmektedir (Adams, 1963). Sessiz istifa kavramı kişinin mevcut pozisyonundan ayrılmasının bir yolu olarak değil, daha ziyade zamanını ve emeğini yeniden önceliklendirmenin bir yolu olarak ifade edilmektedir. Bu şekilde sessiz istifa eşitlik teorisi çerçevesinde kavramsallaştırılabilmektedir. Eşitlik teorisine göre çalışanlar karşılaştırma yaptıkları diğerlerinin girdi-çıktı oranına ulaşmaya çalışmaktadırlar. Bu nedenle çalışanlar eşitliği sağlamak için çıktıları artırmaya, girdileri azaltmaya ve örgütten ayrılmak yerine sessiz istifa eğilimi gösterebilmektedirler (Anand vd., 2024). Bu durum meslektaşların iş yükünün artmasına yol açmakta ve yüksek başarı gösteren bireyler arasında örgütsel yapının hakkaniyetli olup olmadığına dair bir iç gözlem başlatma potansiyeli taşımaktadır.

### 2.2.7. İş Talepleri ve Kaynakları Teorisi

İş talepleri-kaynakları (JD-R) teorisi mesleki rollerin, talepler ve bu talepleri hafifletebilecek kaynakların bir kombinasyonu ile karakterize edildiğini öne sürmektedir. Yüksek iş taleplerine rağmen yetersiz iş kaynaklarının bulunduğu bir ortam, işle ilgili stresi

artırmaktadır ve bu durum çalışanların sağlığını, davranışlarını ve performanslarını olumsuz şekilde etkilemektedir (Demerouti vd., 2001). JD-R teorisine göre sessiz istifanın öncülleri arasında aşırı iş yükü, duygusal iş talepleri, fiziksel iş talepleri ve tanınma eksikliği yer almaktadır. Ayrıca özerklik çalışma arkadaşları ve yönetici desteği gibi iş kaynaklarıyla ilgili yapıların düzenleyici rolünü keşfetmeye ve sessiz istifanın örgütsel performans gibi örgütsel sonuçlar üzerindeki etkilerini incelemeye yardımcı olmaktadır (Hamouche vd., 2023). JD-R teorisine dayanarak sessiz istifacıların kendilerine yüklenen talepleri azaltacak alternatif fırsatları takip etme eğiliminde oldukları söylenebilmektedir.

### **2.3. Sessiz İstifa ile İlgili Yapılan Çalışmalar**

Sessiz istifa kavramı hem araştırmacılar hem de uygulayıcılar tarafından giderek daha fazla ilgi görmektedir. Sessiz istifa ile ilgili ulusal ve uluslararası çalışmalardan bir seçki aşağıda özetlenmiştir. Çalışmada sunulan kaynaklar, kavramın bilimsel literatürdeki gelişimini yansıtmak üzere hakemli dergilerde yayımlanmış makaleler, küresel raporlar ve görgül çalışmalar temel alınarak seçilmiştir.

Gallup araştırması, çalışanların yalnızca %15'inin işlerine son derece bağlı olduğunu ortaya koymuş ve %85'e varan bir oranın da sessiz istifaya eğilimli olabileceğini göstermiştir. Amerika Birleşik Devletleri'nde çalışanların %33'ünün aktif olarak işe bağlı olduğu ve bu oranın küresel ortalamanın neredeyse iki katı olduğu tespit edilmiştir (Gallup, 2022).

Arar ve diğerleri (2023) çalışmalarında sessiz istifa kavramını neden-sonuç ilişkisi içerisinde açıklayabilecek bilimsel teorilere dayandırmışlardır. Bu bağlamda kaynakların korunması teorisi, sosyal değişim teorisi ve kuşak teorisinin bu kavramı açıklayabilecek en kapsamlı teoriler olduğu sonucuna varmışlardır.

Caldwell ve diğerleri (2023) çalışmalarında gerekçeli eylem teorisinin önemini ve sessiz istifayı etkileyen inançları, tutumları, niyetleri ve davranışları açıklamışlardır. Bilimsel literatüre dayanarak, gerekçeli eylem teorisinin dört temel unsuru açıklanmış ve bunların sessiz istifayı nasıl etkilediği gösterilmiştir.

Lu ve diğerleri (2023) çalışmalarında sosyal değişim teorisi bağlamında aşırı iş yükü, algılanan kariyer geliştirme fırsatları, algılanan performansa göre ücret, duygusal bağlılık ve çalışma koşullarının mesleki tükenmişlik, çalışan refahı ve sessiz istifa üzerindeki etkilerini araştıran kavramsal bir model önermişlerdir.

Esen (2023) çalışmasında kamu sektöründe sessiz istifayı ve sessiz istifanın bireysel ve örgütsel nedenlerini araştırmıştır. Sessiz istifa eğilimi gösterenlerin hissettiği en yoğun duygular değersizleşme, mutsuzluk ve çaresizlik olmuştur. Sessiz istifanın başlıca örgütsel nedenleri motivasyon ve tanınma eksikliği olarak belirlenmiştir.

Kobak (2023) çalışmasında sessiz istifa eylemini tetikleyen faktörleri ve bu faktörleri içeren bir model sunmuştur. Sessiz istifayı etkileyen sosyal ve psikolojik faktörleri sosyal izolasyon, ekonomik etkiler, yöneticinin liderlik eksikliği, açık iletişimin olmaması, geribildirim eksikliği ve takdir görmeme şeklinde belirtmiştir.

Hamouche ve diğerleri (2023) çalışmalarında sessiz istifa ile ilişkili çeşitli kavramları ve teorileri sentezleyerek, sessiz istifa ve olası nedenleri hakkında fikir edinmeyi amaçlamış ve gelecekteki araştırmalar için yollar önermişlerdir. Yöneticilere sessiz istifanın oluşmasını önlemek ve oluştuğunda etkili müdahalelerde bulunmalarını kolaylaştırmak için pratik önerilerde bulunmuşlardır.

Saygılı ve Avcı (2023) çalışmalarında çalışanların liderlik tarzı algıları ile sessiz istifa davranışları arası ilişkide proaktif kariyer adanmışlığının aracılık rolünü incelemişlerdir. Liderlik tarzları ve proaktif kariyer adanmışlığı ile sessiz istifa arasında olumsuz ilişki tespit etmişlerdir. İnsan odaklı liderlik tarzı ile sessiz istifa arasındaki ilişkide proaktif kariyer adanmışlığının aracılık etkisi tespit edilirken; görev odaklı liderlik tarzı ile sessiz istifa arasındaki ilişkide proaktif kariyer adanmışlığının aracılık etkisi olmadığı sonucuna ulaşmışlardır.

Anand ve diğerleri (2024) çalışmalarında sessiz istifayı ve çalışanların yöneticilerinin kendilerini ne ölçüde değersizleştirdiğine ve örgütlerin onları istifaya zorlayacak durumları oluşturup oluşturmadığını ilişkin algılarını ölçen sessiz istifa ve sessiz işten çıkarma ölçeğini geliştirmişlerdir.

Serenko (2024) çalışmasında sessiz istifa olgusunu insan sermayesi yönetimi perspektifinden analiz etmiştir. Kullanılan yöntem, 672 TikTok yorumunun analizini, ikincil verilerin kullanımını ve kapsamlı bir literatür taramasını içermektedir. Terimin yeni olmasına rağmen, sessiz istifanın altında yatan kavramların yeni olmadığını ve kökenlerinin on yıllar öncesine dayandığını vurgulamaktadır.

Srivastava ve diğerleri (2024) çalışmalarında işyerindeki olumsuz dedikodular ile sessiz istifa olgusu arasındaki ilişkide işyeri stresi ile duygusal tükenmişliğin aracılık rolünü incelemişlerdir. Sonuçlar olumsuz işyeri dedikodusu ile sessiz istifa arasında pozitif bir ilişki



olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca işyeri stresi ve duygusal tükenmişliğin olumsuz işyeri dedikodusu ile sessiz istifa arasındaki ilişkide aracılık rolünün olduğunu tespit etmişlerdir.

Sessiz istifa ile ilgili yapılan çalışmaların özellikleri Tablo 1’de gösterilmektedir.

**Tablo 1**

*Sessiz İstifa ile İlgili Çalışmalar*

Yıl	Yazar(lar)	Yayın Türü	Yöntem	Bulgular
2022	Gallup	Rapor	Nicel	Sessiz istifacılar ABD işgücünün en az %50'sini oluşturmaktadır.
2023	Arar vd.	Makale	Derleme	Literatür taraması sonucunda sessiz istifanın öncülleri yönetsel/örgütsel faktörler ve çalışan kaynaklı faktörler olarak iki gruba ayrılmıştır.
2023	Caldwell vd.	Makale	Derleme	Gerekçeli Eylem Teorisine dayanarak sessiz istifa ilgili inançların, tutumların ve niyetlerin sessiz istifa davranışına dönüştüğü tespit edilmiştir.
2023	Lu vd.	Makale	Nicel	Mesleki tükenmişliğin sessiz istifayı pozitif, çalışan refahının ise sessiz istifayı negatif yönde etkilediği tespit edilmiştir.
2023	Esen	Makale	Nitel	Sessiz istifanın başlıca örgütsel nedenleri motivasyon ve tanınma eksikliği olarak belirlenmiştir.
2023	Kobak	Tez	Nitel	Sessiz istifayı etkileyen sosyal ve psikolojik faktörler arasında sosyal izolasyon, ekonomik etkiler, yöneticinin liderlik eksikliği, açık iletişimin olmaması, geribildirim eksikliği ve takdir görmeme yer almaktadır.
2023	Hamouche vd.	Makale	Derleme	Sessiz istifanın kavramsallaştırılmasında bir dizi teori ve kavram bulunmaktadır. Bunlar arasında örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı, sosyal mübadele, psikolojik sözleşme, örgütsel adalet, çatışma teorisi, eşitlik teorisi, iki faktör teorisi, iş talepleri-kaynaklar modeli ve kaynakların korunması teorisi yer almaktadır.
2023	Saygılı ve Avcı	Makale	Nicel	İnsan odaklı liderlik tarzı ile sessiz istifa arasındaki ilişkide proaktif kariyer adanmışlığının aracılık etkisi olduğunu, görev odaklı liderlik tarzı ile sessiz istifa arasındaki ilişkide proaktif kariyer adanmışlığının aracılık etkisi olmadığını tespit etmişlerdir.
2024	Anand vd.	Makale	Nicel	Sessiz istifa ve sessiz işten çıkarma ölçeklerini geliştirmişlerdir. Ölçeklerin iyi psikometrik özelliklere sahip olduğu saptanmıştır. Ayrıca, sonuç yapılarının yakınsak, ayırt edici ve yordayıcı geçerliliği de anlamlılık göstermiştir.
2024	Serenko	Makale	672 TikTok yorumunun analizi, ikincil verilerin kullanımı ve	Çalışanlar dışsal motivasyon, tükenmişlik ve yöneticiye duyulan kin nedeniyle sessiz istifa eğilimi göstermektedir.

literatür taramasını içermektedir.				
2024	Srivastava vd.	Makale	Nicel	Olumsuz işyeri dedikodusu ile sessiz istifa ve işyeri stresi arasında da pozitif bir korelasyon tespit edilmiştir. Buna ek olarak, işyeri stresi ve duygusal tükenmenin olumsuz işyeri dedikodusu ile sessiz istifa arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık ettiği sonucuna ulaşmışlardır.

**Kaynak:** Araştırmacı tarafından oluşturulmuştur.

Literatürde sessiz istifa kavramı, özellikle COVID-19 sonrası dönemde iş dünyasındaki dönüşümle birlikte ilgi görmeye başlamıştır. Yapılan çalışmalar, sessiz istifanın yalnızca bireysel bir pasif direniş biçimi olmadığını, aynı zamanda örgüt iklimi, liderlik tarzı, ödüllendirme sistemi ve psikolojik ihtiyaçların karşılanma düzeyi gibi çok sayıda faktörden etkilendiğini göstermiştir. Sessiz istifanın iş ortamındaki yapısal ve kültürel eksikliklerin bir dışavurumu olduğu anlaşılmaktadır.

### 3. Sessiz İstifanın Öncülleri ve Sonuçları

Sessiz istifanın bireysel, işle ilgili ve örgütsel öncüllerden etkilendiği görülmektedir. Sessiz istifanın öncülleri arasında işverenlerin ilgi ve destek eksikliği, mesleki gelişim için sınırlı fırsatlar, örgütsel ve çalışan hedefleri arasındaki uyumsuzluk, iş-yaşam dengesi elde etme arzusu, memnuniyetsizlik ve hayal kırıklığı duygusu yer almaktadır (Formica ve Sfodera, 2022; Harter, 2022; Pandey, 2022; Zenger ve Folkman, 2022). Bu yoğun duygular çalışanın sessiz istifaya olan eğilimini artırmaktadır. Mahand ve Caldwell (2023) çalışmalarında işin anlamlı olmaması, çeşitlilik ve kapsayıcılığın olmaması, toksik örgüt kültürünün, çalışanlara değer verilmemesinin, özerklik ve verilen sözlerin yerine getirilmemesinin sessiz istifaya neden olabileceğini belirtmişlerdir.

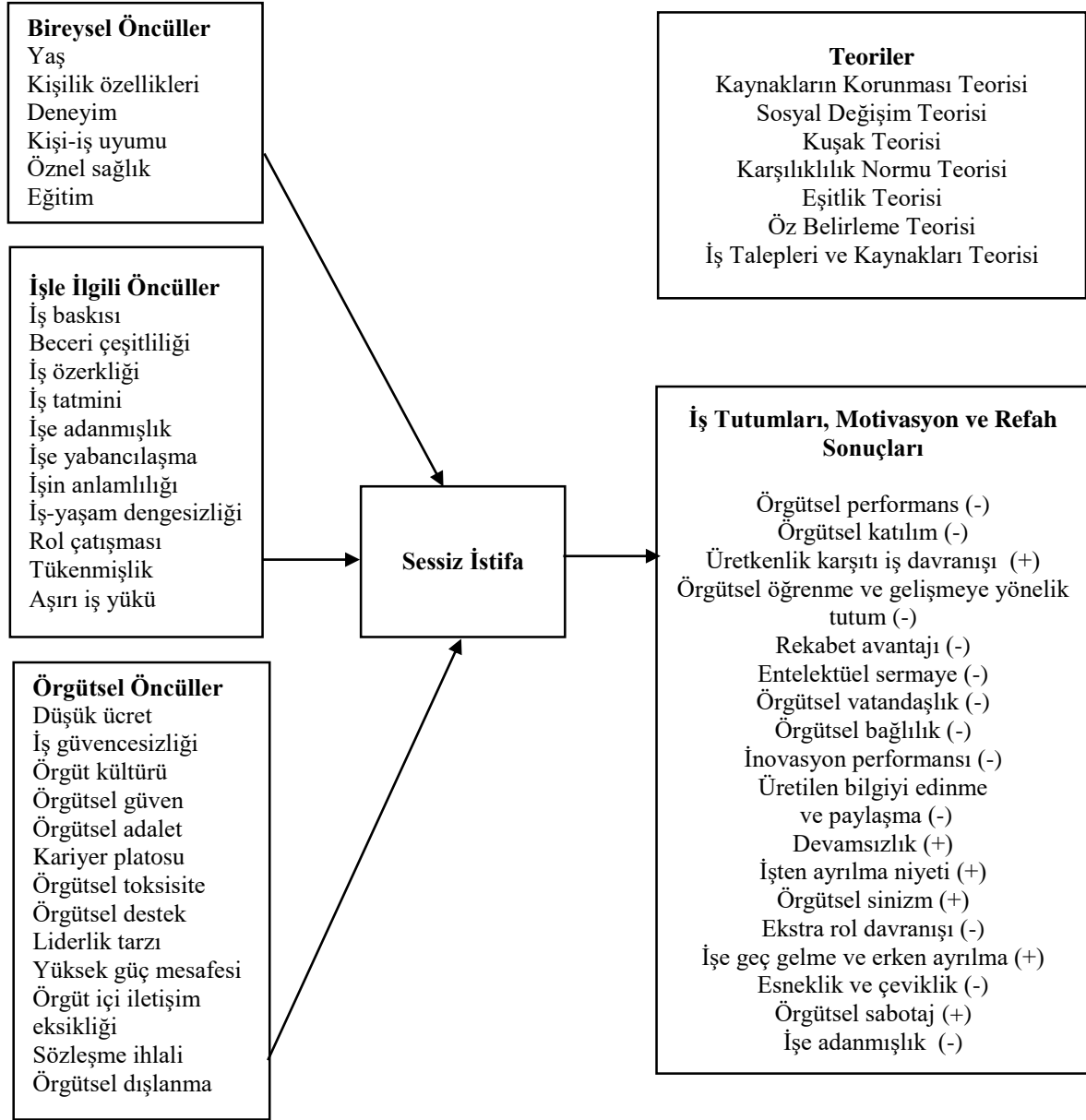
Çalışanlar mesleklerinde bir gelecek görmediklerinde, işten ayrılma ya da sessiz istifa eğilimi gibi alternatif seçenekleri değerlendirmektedirler. Küresel Gallup araştırmasının bulgularına göre işin etkin bir şekilde yapılabilmesi için, çalışanların mesleki ve kişisel gelişimine bağlılık göstermesi gerekmektedir (Clifton ve Harter, 2019). Sessiz istifanın nedenleri düşük ücret, yönetilemeyen iş yükü, tükenmişlik, kariyer platosu, düşük içsel motivasyon, iş-yaşam dengesizliği, gelişme/fırsat ve değer eksikliği ve işte takdir görmeme gibi çeşitlendirilebilmektedir (Formica ve Sfodera, 2022). Bazı belirli çalışanlardan kasıtlı olarak zam, terfi, gelişim ve fırsatları esirgemek anlamına gelen sessiz işten çıkarma gibi mikro yönetimi tercih eden önyargılı yöneticiler de sessiz istifanın ortaya çıkmasını tetiklemektedir (Zenger ve Folkman, 2022).

Sessiz istifacıların takım içinde bağımsız hareket ettikleri ve düşük performans gösterdikleri gözlemlenmektedir (Dill ve Yang 2022). Bu açıdan bakıldığında, sessiz istifacılar üretkenliği azalttıkları ve genel performansı etkiledikleri için yönetim için önemli bir sorundur (Anand vd., 2024). Ayrıca sessiz istifacıların daha geniş ekip ortamını etkileyebileceğine ve iş arkadaşlarının moralini düşürebileceğine inanılmaktadır (Hiltunen, 2023). Sessiz istifacılar genellikle kişisel iş/yaşam dengesini korumak veya yüksek baskı altındaki bir iş ortamında sağlık ve esenliklerini sürdürmek için işteki çabalarını sınırlamaktadırlar (Mahand ve Caldwell, 2023). İşlerini bırakmanın aksine, sessiz istifacılar hayatlarının iş tarafından domine edilmesi gerektiği fikrini reddederler. Yüksek düzeyde performans göstermesi istenen, ancak yöneticisi tarafından değerli bir birey olarak görülmeyen sessiz istifacılar, maksimum özveriyle çalışmayı reddederek tepki vermektedirler (Smith, 2022).

Ayrıca sessiz istifaya yönelen çalışanların üretkenlik karşıtı davranışlar sergilemeleri genellikle düşük düzeyde bağlılığa veya tükenmişliğe işaret etmektedir (Wallace ve Coughlan, 2023). İşgücü ile ilgili mevcut sorunların yaygınlığı süregelen bir endişe kaynağıdır ve pandemi ile birlikte daha da şiddetlenmiştir. Günümüz işgücü, çalışanların stresi nasıl yönettiklerini, iş-yaşam dengesini nasıl sağladıklarını ve pandemi sonrasında refahı nasıl artırdıklarını araştıran sessiz istifa sürecine girmektedir (Liu-Lastres vd., 2023). Sessiz istifanın neden olduğu olumsuz sonuçlar örgütler açısından ciddi endişe kaynağıdır. Bu nedenle sessiz istifa eğilimine neden olan faktörlere ilişkin farkındalıklar önem arz etmektedir. Yukarıda açıklanan bilgiler ışığında sessiz istifanın muhtemel öncülleri ve sonuçları Şekil 1’de gösterilmektedir.

Şekil 1

Sessiz İstifanın Öncülleri ve Sonuçları



Şekil 1'e göre uzun süreli ve yoğun çalışma, maaş ve performans uyumsuzluğu, özerklik, çalışma koşulları, artan tükenmişlik, azalan çalışan refahı ve güç mesafesi gibi öncüllerin sessiz istifaya neden olabileceği varsayılmaktadır. Sessiz istifa da örgütsel performans, inovasyon performansı, örgütsel bağlılık, işe adanmışlık ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı gibi istenen davranışlar üzerinde olumsuz bir etkiye sahipken, üretkenlik karşıtı iş davranışı, devamsızlık, örgütsel sabotaj ve işten ayrılma niyeti gibi istenmeyen davranışlara yol açmaktadır.

#### 4. Sonuç ve Öneriler

Sürekli gelişen ve değişen çalışma ortamlarında örgütlerin sürdürülebilir rekabet avantajı sağlamalarında en önemli rol çalışanlara düşmektedir. Rekabet avantajının sürdürülebilirliğinin sağlanmasında örgütlerin en önemli sorumluluğu, yetenekli çalışanlarını elde tutmak ve bunu korumak için gerekli araç ve kaynakları çalışanlara sağlamaktır. Sessiz istifa eğilimi gösteren çalışanlar örgütler tarafından istenmeyen kişiler olarak değerlendirilmektedir. Sessiz istifa eğiliminin artması örgütlerin sürdürülebilir rekabet avantajı için kritik önem taşıyan insan kaynaklarının tam potansiyelinden yararlanamadıkları anlamına gelmektedir. Örgüt içerisinde sessiz istifacıların varlığını etkin bir şekilde tespit edebilecek ve izleyebilecek performans ölçüm yöntemlerinin uygulanması giderek daha önemli hale gelmektedir. Sessiz istifacılar yöneticilerin kolayca fark edebileceği zayıf performans gösterenler değildir. Ayrıca tükenmişlik sendromu yaşayan çalışanlar kadar etkisiz, örgütsel sessizler ve sinikler kadar verimsiz ve isteksiz de değildir.

Sessiz istifa iş dünyasında giderek önem kazanan ve çalışanların yalnızca minimum düzeyde iş sorumluluğunu yerine getirerek örgütsel bağlılıklarını azalttıkları bir kavramdır. Sessiz istifanın öncülleri arasında tükenmişlik, örgütsel adaletsizlik, düşük iş tatmini, yetersiz iş kaynakları ve psikolojik ihtiyaçların karşılanmaması yer almaktadır. Özellikle çalışanların özerklik, yetkinlik ve ilişki gibi temel psikolojik ihtiyaçlarının ihmal edilmesi sessiz istifa davranışlarını tetikleyen kritik faktörlerdendir. Sessiz istifanın sonuçları ise çalışan motivasyonunda azalma, iş performansında düşüş, örgütsel bağlılıkta azalma, yüksek devir oranı, sosyal izolasyon ve işyeri ikliminin olumsuz etkilenmesi gibi sonuçları içermektedir. Bu durum hem çalışan refahını hem de örgütsel performansı doğrudan etkilemekte ve örgütlerin uzun vadeli sürdürülebilirlik hedeflerini tehdit etmektedir.

Sessiz istifanın dayandırıldığı teoriler arasında kaynakların korunması, sosyal değişim, kuşak, karşılıklılık normu, eşitlik, öz belirleme ve iş talepleri ve kaynakları teorileri yer almaktadır. Sosyal değişim teorisi, işveren-çalışan etkileşimlerinin ücret ve terfiler de dâhil olmak üzere sıralı bir kaynak alışverişini içerdiğini öne sürmektedir. Sonuç olarak, yöneticilerin çalışanlara yönelik tutumları sessiz istifayı etkileyebilmektedir. Kaynakların korunması teorisi çalışanların kişisel kaynaklardan yoksun olduklarında günlük çabalarını azaltarak enerjilerini koruduklarını öne sürmektedir. Kaynaklarını koruma çabası içinde çalışanlar olumsuz tutumlar geliştirebilir ve sessiz istifa sürecine girebilirler. Öz belirleme teorisi insanların nasıl motive olduğunu açıklamakta ve davranışa rehberlik eden temel

psikolojik ihtiyaçları incelemektedir. Öz belirleme teorisi çalışanların karşılanmamış ihtiyaçlarının onları sessiz istifaya yönlendirebileceğini ve bunun da daha fazla personel devrine yol açabileceğini öne sürmektedir. Youthall'ın (2022) bulgularına göre, kuşaklar arasında sessiz istifanın başlıca nedeni düşük maaş iken, Z Kuşağı için birincil neden iş-yaşam dengesizliğidir. Pandeminin ardından Z kuşağının işgücü piyasasına önemli ölçüde dahil olması da sessiz istifa olgusunun yayılmasına katkıda bulunan bir faktördür. Karşılıklılık normu teorisi insanların karşılıklı ilişkilerine dayanan sosyal bağlar üzerine temellendirilmiştir. Çalışanların performansları/çabaları beklentilerini karşılamadığında motivasyon kaybı yaşamaları, daha az performans göstermeleri ve sessiz istifa eğiliminde bulunmaları muhtemeldir. Eşitlik teorisine göre çalışanlar karşılaştırdıkları diğerlerinin girdi-çıkı oranına ulaşmaya çalışırlar. Bu nedenle çalışanlar eşitliği sağlamak için çıktıları artırma ve girdileri azaltma eğiliminde olabilir ve örgütten ayrılmak yerine sessiz istifa eğilimi gösterebilirler. İş taleplerinin yüksek ancak iş kaynaklarının yetersiz olduğu bir ortam, işle ilgili stresi artırır ve bu da çalışanların sağlığını, davranışlarını ve performansını olumsuz etkiler. İş talepleri ve kaynakları teorisine dayanarak sessiz istifacıların kendilerine yüklenen talepleri azaltacak alternatif fırsatların peşinden gitme eğiliminde oldukları söylenebilir.

Sessiz istifanın örgüler üzerinde çok sayıda olumsuz etkisi olduğu gösterilmiş olsa da, çalışanlar üzerinde bazı olumlu etkileri de bulunmaktadır. Sessiz istifanın olumlu etkileri arasında çalışanların aşırı iş yükünden korunması, tükenmişlik riskinin azalması ve iş-yaşam dengesinin sağlanması gibi unsurlar yer almaktadır. Bu durum özellikle yoğun iş temposuna sahip çalışanların zihinsel ve fiziksel sağlıklarını korumalarına yardımcı olmaktadır. Sessiz istifa modern iş dünyasının liderlik, iletişim ve ödüllendirme sistemlerini yeniden değerlendirmesini gerektiren bir uyarı niteliğindedir. Sonuç olarak sessiz istifanın olumlu ya da olumsuz bir olgu olarak değerlendirilmesinden bağımsız olarak, yönetimin çalışanlarıyla işyerindeki stresin yaygınlığı, tükenmişlik olgusu, performans değerlendirme kriterleri ve çeşitli rollerle ilişkili beklentiler konusunda şeffaf bir iletişim kurması gerektiği açıktır.

Sessiz istifanın etkili yönetiminin altında yatan temel ilke, çalışan ile üstü arasında ikili bir diyalog başlatmaktır. Bu diyalog çalışan ve örgüt arasında karşılıklı olarak faydalı hedeflerin belirlenmesini, çalışanın örgütün yapısı içindeki rolünün belirlenmesini ve bu unsurların çalışanın mesleki beklentileriyle uyumlu hale getirilmesini kapsamalıdır. İkili bir diyalog her iki tarafın karşılıklı saygısı ve dikkate alınmasıyla karakterize edilir ve astın katılımının sembolik olmamasını sağlamaktadır.

Sessiz istifacılarla başa çıkarken yöneticiler örgüt içinde iletişim kanallarını açık tutmalıdır. Böylece çevresel gelişmelerden ve örgütsel rutinlerden etkilenmeye başlayan bireylerin tutumlarını etkileme fırsatına sahip olma olasılıkları artmaktadır. Özellikle informal iletişim kanallarına ve ofis dışı görüşmelere ağırlık verilmesi grup dinamiklerini de olumlu yönde etkilemektedir. Sessiz istifayı önlemeye yönelik bazı öneriler aşağıda sunulmuştur.

- Çalışanların iş-yaşam dengesi gözetilerek tükenmişliği azaltıcı önlemler alınmalıdır.
- Liderlik stilleri, çalışanların bağlılığını artıracak şekilde gözden geçirilmelidir.
- Ödüllendirme sistemleri yeniden yapılandırılmalıdır.
- Ücret ve terfilerde adil davranılmalıdır.
- Örgüt içi şeffaflık artırılmalı ve örgütsel destek sunulmalıdır.
- Sosyal sorumluluk faaliyetleri artırılmalıdır.
- Mentörlük programları örgütün tüm bölümlerinde uygulanmalıdır.
- Sessiz istifa üzerine daha fazla saha çalışması yapılmalıdır.

Bu çalışma sessiz istifa olgusunu teorik çerçevede çok yönlü ele alarak kavramın sosyal değişim teorisi, kaynakların korunması teorisi, öz belirleme teorisi, kuşak teorisi, karşılıklılık normu teorisi, eşitlik teorisi ve iş talepleri ve kaynakları teorisi gibi temel kuramsal yaklaşımlarla ilişkilendirmekte ve bu bağlamda literatürdeki kuramsal boşlukları doldurmayı amaçlamaktadır. Ayrıca çalışma, sessiz istifanın öncüllerini ve ardıllarını yapılandırılmış bir biçimde ortaya koyarak gelecekte yapılacak araştırmalar için bir temel sunacağı düşünülmektedir. Gelecekteki araştırmalar sessiz istifa ile örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı, iş performansı, örgütsel sinizm, çalışan sessizliği, psikolojik sözleşme, duygusal tükenmişlik, liderlik tarzları ve örgütsel adalet gibi değişkenler arasındaki ilişkileri boylamsal araştırmalarla detaylandırabilir. Ayrıca sessiz istifanın sektörel farklılıklar, nesiller arasındaki tutum farklılıkları ve dijitalleşmenin etkisi çerçevesinde değerlendirilmesi, kavramın kapsamını genişletebilir.

**Destek Bilgisi:** Bu çalışma, kamu, ticari veya kar amacı gütmeyen kuruluşlar gibi herhangi bir organizasyondan destek almamıştır.

**Etik Beyanatı:** Bu çalışma etik kurul izni gerektirmemektedir.

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