



## The effect of leadership styles on organizational culture: A research in the public sector\*

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### ABSTRACT

Public administrators, who are expected to have management and leadership skills and to use human resources effectively, play an important role in shaping the organizational culture and can facilitate organizational activities by affecting the performance of employees. It is important to reveal and understand the effects of leadership on organizational culture. Although there are studies on the relationship between leadership and organizational culture in Türkiye, the number of studies conducted in public institutions and organizations is quite low. In this study, conducted in the context of public employees, unlike previous studies, leadership styles and organizational culture dimensions were discussed comprehensively, and it was aimed to examine the effects of perceived leadership styles on perceived organizational culture. This research it is aimed to understand the organizational culture in public institutions, to determine the effect of leaders in shaping the organizational culture, and to contribute to the development of actions to increase the motivation of employees, to manage employees more effectively, and to manage organizational change processes based on the information obtained. The data analyzed in this context consists of 601 valid questionnaires collected from public employees in Osmaniye province by convenience sampling method. ‘Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA),’ ‘reliability analysis,’ ‘Pearson correlation analysis,’ and ‘multiple linear regression analyses’ were used in the study. After the analyses, it was determined that the dimensions of organizational culture differed according to the leadership styles of the managers, and leadership styles affected the perceptions of organizational culture.

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# Liderlik tarzlarının örgüt kültürüne etkisi: Kamu kurumlarında bir araştırma

## MAKALE BİLGİSİ

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## ÖZ

Yönetim ve liderlik becerilerine sahip olmaları ve insan kaynaklarını etkin bir biçimde kullanmaları beklenen kamu yöneticileri, örgüt kültürünün şekillenmesinde önemli bir rol oynamakta ve çalışanların performansını etkileyerek örgütsel faaliyetleri kolaylaştırabilmektedir. Bu anlamda liderliğin örgüt kültürü üzerindeki etkilerinin ortaya konulması ve anlaşılması önemlidir. Türkiye’de liderlik ve örgüt kültürü arasındaki ilişkilerin ortaya konulmasına yönelik çalışmalar bulunmakla birlikte, kamu kurum ve kuruluşlarında yapılmış çalışma sayısı oldukça azdır. Kamu çalışanları bağlamında gerçekleştirilen bu çalışmada; önceki çalışmalardan farklı olarak liderlik tarzları ile örgüt kültürü boyutları kapsamlı bir şekilde ele alınmış ve algılanan liderlik tarzlarının algılanan örgüt kültürü üzerindeki etkilerinin incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Bu araştırma ile kamu kurumlarında örgüt kültürün anlaşılması, örgüt kültürünün şekillenmesinde liderlerin etkisinin belirlenmesi ile elde edilen bilgilerden yola çıkılarak çalışanların motivasyonunun artırılması, çalışanların daha etkili yönetilmesi ve örgütsel değişim süreçlerinin yönetilebilmesi için aksiyonlar geliştirilmesine katkı sunulması hedeflenmektedir. Bu bağlamda analiz edilen veriler, Osmaniye ilindeki kamu çalışanlarından kolayca örnekleme yöntemi ile toplanan 601 geçerli anketten oluşmaktadır. Çalışmada “doğrulamalı faktör analizi (DFA)”, “güvenilirlik analizi”, “Pearson korelasyon analizi” ve “çoklu doğrusal regresyon analizleri” kullanılmıştır. Analizler sonrasında, örgüt kültürü boyutlarının yöneticilerin liderlik tarzlarına göre farklılık gösterdiği ve liderlik tarzlarının örgüt kültürü algılarını etkilediği tespit edilmiştir.

## 1. Introduction

It is stated that when activities and processes are highly planned and leaders have strong relationships with employees, success largely depends on the employees (Mansaray, 2019, p. 21). Indeed, the common subject of leadership and organizational culture is “people.” The function of leadership is managing people, while the function of organizational culture is guiding and controlling people (Karahan, 2008, p. 476).

By nature, humans are concerned about the disorder and uncertainties in their environment. Organizational culture explains all phenomena in organizational life, from how activities are carried out and what types of solution methods are applied to encountered problems to how to behave, ultimately providing employees with an orderly, consistent, and meaningful environment (Schein, 2010; Trice and Beyer, 1993; Weick, 1995). The importance of leadership and organizational culture is great in increasing employees’ willingness and efforts and their commitment to the organization, consequently improving the quality of the goods produced for businesses and the services provided for institutions (Uğur, 2017, p. 353).

Schein (2004, p. 10), while acknowledging that organizational culture is influenced by many factors, emphasizes the relationship between leadership and organizational culture as ‘two sides of the same coin.’ In the leader/manager debate, he states that leaders have the ability to create or change a new culture in the organization when necessary, while managers act within a certain culture. Teixeira (2005) defines leadership as “the process of influencing others to do what the leader wants done. . .” (Filipe, 2018; Teixeira, 2005). From this perspective, leadership is seen as one of the many tasks of a

manager, even one of the most important ones. The concept of leadership refers to a process, not a position (Filipe, 2018; Kouzes and Posner, 1997).

Public organizations differ from private sector organizations in many ways, such as the diversity of their objectives, access to resources, and economic and political organizational constraints (Massey, 1993; Scott and Falcone, 1998). The activities of public organizations are broader in scope and can be considered part of economic management and social development (Parker and Bradley, 2000, p. 137). In one study, it was observed that public-sector employees are more altruistic than private-sector employees and are more committed to social development and the public interest (Sinclair, 1991, p. 323).

Organizational culture in public organizations is crucial in shaping employee motivation (Panagiotis, Alexandros and George, 2014, p. 423). In terms of organizational culture, while private sector organizations tend to focus on adaptability, change, and risk-taking (developmental culture) and productivity and efficiency (rational culture), public organizations tend towards a hierarchical culture based on rules, procedures, and stability (Parker and Bradley, 2000; Panagiotis et al., 2014; Cameron and Quinn, 2011). Therefore, public organizations face great pressure to adapt to the changing demands of society (Schraeder, Tears and Jordan, 2005, p. 494). An innovative and result-oriented culture plays an important role in implementing and embedding management initiatives (Harrison and Baird, 2015, p. 614). Having an organizational culture that reflects flexibility and entrepreneurship in the public sector can lead to managerial reform (Parker and Bradley, 2000, p. 133).

Although there are various studies in Türkiye aiming to reveal the relationships between leadership and organizational culture (Akgündüz, 2013; Avcı, 2016; Bakan, 2008; Gül and Aykanat, 2012; Gürdoğan and Yavuz, 2013; Karşu Cesur, Erkilet and Taylan, 2019; Mansurova and Güney, 2018; Sürücü and Yeşilada, 2017), fewer studies have been conducted in public institutions. Avcı (2016) investigated transformational and transactional leadership styles and organizational culture; Gül and Aykanat (2012) examined charismatic leadership and organizational culture; Karahan (2008) studied employees' perceptions of organizational culture based on their demographic characteristics; Karşu Cesur et al. (2019) explored paternalistic leadership and Hofstede's cultural dimensions; Şahin, Taşpınar, Eryeşil and Örselli (2015) analyzed the leadership perceptions of civil servants and managers at various levels (lower, middle, and upper); and Tanrıöğen, Baştürk and Başer (2014) investigated the relationships between organizational culture (task, support, achievement, bureaucratic) and leadership (structural, human resources, political, symbolic).

Leaders in public institutions both play a role in shaping the organizational culture and facilitate their work by affecting human resources performance (Rus and Rusu, 2015, p. 569). This study aimed to uncover the effects of leadership on organizational culture, is significant not only because it is conducted in public institutions but also because it examines and compares multiple leadership styles and dimensions of organizational culture differently from previous studies.

This research aims to understand the organizational culture in public institutions, determine the effects of leaders in shaping this culture, and, based on the information obtained, contribute to the development of actions to increase employee motivation, manage employees more effectively, and manage change processes.

## 2. Conceptual framework

In this section, in accordance with the scope of the research, first organizational culture and organizational culture dimensions and then leadership and leadership styles are discussed.

### 2.1. Organizational culture and organizational culture dimensions

Just as no two personalities are identical, it is not expected for the cultures of any two organizations to be the same. Organizational culture manifests itself through the unique behavior styles specific to the organization to which it belongs (Gizir, 2007; Güçlü, 2003; Öztürk, 2015). The culture of an organization expresses the unique configuration of norms, values, beliefs, and behavior patterns that depict how people and groups gather around a common goal to get things done (Farah, 2010, p. 13).

The observed behavior patterns in the organization are specific to that environment and what the members believe in (Vrančić, 2015, p. 56).

Organizational culture researchers have used numerous “dimensions of organizational culture” to compare different organizational cultures using quantitative research methods (Denison, 1996; Van der Post, De Coning and Smith, 1997). The dimensions and measurement methods developed by researchers have been stated to be useful in measuring the culture of a particular organization (Van der Post et al., 1997, p. 153). The cultural tendency approach to organizational culture dimensions utilized in the research is based on a detailed literature review conducted by Danişman and Özgen (Danişman and Özgen, 2008; Görmen, 2017; Şanal and Öztürk, 2019). The authors examined the dimensions of organizational culture in the literature in detail and identified similar or closely related dimensions. They then combined and simplified these dimensions, adapted them to our local culture, and defined the dimensions of organizational culture (Danişman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Görmen, 2017; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021; Şanal and Öztürk, 2019).

*The normativeness culture* is an organizational culture that emphasizes rules and adherence to them. *Hierarchy culture* is stated as an organizational culture where status, authority, hierarchy, and command are important. *Clan culture* refers to an organizational culture where employees see the organization as a family and management views employees as family members, emphasizing interpersonal relationships (Danişman and Özgen, 2003, 2008). *Supportive culture* is described as the organizational culture where employees can take risks related to their work, use their initiatives, prioritize information sharing, and respect personal rights (Danişman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021; Yetgin, 2016). *Team culture* is the organizational culture where employees work cooperatively and make decisions collectively within the organization. *Development culture* is explained as the organizational culture that is prepared and flexible to respond to developing situations and conditions, encouraging new and innovative approaches and ideas. *Professionalism culture* is the organizational culture where problems are solved rationally, employees are competent in their jobs, and importance is given to success and clear job descriptions. *Openness culture* is the degree to which problems and disagreements are discussed and resolved impartially, openly, and comfortably. *Results culture* is the importance given to the result of the work rather than the way the task is done, i.e., the processes (Danişman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021).

## 2.2. Leadership and leadership styles

In the literature, leadership is seen as the reason for the success of a group, organization, community, or nation, or in other words, the observable cause of the results that occur. Besides, leadership is also defined as a power relationship between the individual and the group, the person who affects group performance in terms of achieving goals, or as a process of achieving goals (Bass, 1990; Bass and Bass, 2009).

*Bureaucratic leadership* is a leadership style based on laws, regulations, and predefined official rules and instructions. It does not take risks and maintains the existing situation (Akyürek, 2020; Idrus, Armanu, and Rohman, 2015).

*Autocratic leadership*: It is a leadership style where power and authority are generally concentrated in the leader (Chiang, Chen, Liu, Akutsu, and Wang, 2021, p. 6), and the leader expects his orders and instructions to be carried out (Ojokuku, Odetayo and Sajuyigbe, 2012, p. 204). In this leadership style, decisions are rarely made with or without consulting subordinates (Bakan and Büyükbeşe, 2010; Gedik, 2020; Küçüközkan, 2015).

*Democratic (Participative) leadership*: Cartwright and Zander (1968, p. 304) defined democratic leadership as “all member actions that help a group achieve the outcomes . . .” Such actions are also expressed as teamwork (Gastil, 1994, p. 957). The success condition of democratic leadership is the inclusion of members in decision-making processes and, thus, in management (Beerbohm, 2015, p. 639).

*Charismatic leadership*: The fundamental characteristics of charismatic leadership include presenting a vision for the future, changing the existing situation or order, encouraging innovation and creativity, making extraordinary decisions, taking personal risks, being reliable, being aware of

environmental changes (opportunities or threats), having high self-confidence, valuing the needs and demands of followers, influencing followers through attitudes and behaviors, and motivating them to act in line with goals (Akyürek, 2020; Al Khajeh, 2018; Gedik, 2020; Ojokuku et al., 2012). Charismatic leaders use these characteristics to influence their followers, encouraging them to give up individual interests and achieve collective action in line with ideals (Gedik, 2020; Ojokuku et al., 2012).

*Transactional leadership:* This leadership style is defined as an interaction, exchange, or transaction between the leader and subordinates that benefits both parties. This leadership is based on the leader's use of his/her authority and power while subordinates fulfill their duties (Bass and Avolio, 1990; McCleskey, 2014; Zacharatos, Barling and Kelloway, 2000). Transactional leaders expect subordinates to carry out their duties as defined and desired. Leaders use their authority to award a prize or penalize in accordance with the fulfillment or non-fulfillment of tasks and responsibilities (Tracey and Hinkin, 1998).

*Transformational leadership:* This leadership style merges the individual goals of followers with the organization's goals, causing unusual effects on the followers (Bass, 1985; Bass, Avolio, Jung and Berson, 2003). This type emphasizes the development, individual needs, and interests of followers (Al Khajeh, 2018; Conger, 1999), enhancing productivity by fostering feelings of participation and commitment (Bass et al., 2003, p. 209). Followers whose abilities, morale, and motivation are increased strive to use their full capacity and perform beyond expectations voluntarily (Al Khajeh, 2018; Bass, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1998).

*Laissez-Faire leadership:* Also recognized as "let them do" leadership, is characterized by the leader not intervening and leaving subordinates to their own responsibilities, avoiding leadership duties and decision-making (Breevaart and Zacher, 2019; Chaudhry and Javed, 2012; Sharma and Singh, 2013; Tosunoglu and Ekmekci, 2016). These leaders, although occupying a leadership position, do not fulfill leadership duties or show minimal effort and are indifferent to their followers (Tosunoglu and Ekmekci, 2016, p. 90). There are also approaches that assume employees are internally encouraged and must be left alone while performing their duties (Jones and Rudd, 2008, p. 92). It is suggested that this leadership style could be more effective if employees are experts, reliable, and have sufficient knowledge and experience (Chaudhry and Javed, 2012; Sharma and Singh, 2013; Zareen, Razzaq and Mujtaba, 2015).

*Ethical leadership:* In this style, leaders question what is correct and incorrect and sets an example for followers regarding the correctness or incorrectness of actions (Guy, 1990; Mihelic, Lipicnik and Tekavcic, 2010). Ethical leaders adopt ethical standards (Mihelic et al., 2010, p. 33), possess personal attributes like honesty and trustworthiness, and apply ethical management based on moral values (setting ethical standards, using reward and punishment authority, etc.), influencing and encouraging their followers regarding ethics (Ko, Ma, Bartnik, Haney and Kang, 2018; Trevino, Brown and Hartman, 2003).

*Paternalistic leadership:* Paternalistic leadership is described as "a leadership style where discipline and authority meet with paternalistic benevolence and honesty, resembling parental behavior" (Bekmezci and Yıldız, 2019; Gerçek, 2018; Hou, Hong, Zhu and Zhou, 2019; Niu, Wang and Cheng, 2009; Ötken and Cenkci, 2012; Sarp, Kumral and Bozkurt, 2019). The presence of discipline and authority, as well as caring and helpfulness to employees in paternalistic leadership, distinguishes it from other types of leadership (Uslu and Ardiç, 2022, p. 280). Paternalism is expressed as "a hierarchical relationship where the leader continues to maintain authority while guiding the personal and professional lives of followers like a parent, in return expecting respect and loyalty from them" (Gelfand, Erez and Aycan, 2007; Pellegrini, Scandura and Jayaraman, 2010; Uysal, Keklik, Erdem and Çelik, 2012).

*Servant leadership:* Greenleaf defined the fundamental characteristic of servant leadership as "going beyond one's own interests" (Van Dierendonck, 2011, p. 1230). Page and Wong (2000) expressed the primary purpose of servant leaders as considering the common benefits of the organization and followers in fulfilling tasks and achieving goals, serving others before oneself by investing in the development and welfare of followers (Aslan and Özata, 2011; Page and Wong, 2000; Tokmak, 2018; Ürü Sanı, Çalışkan, Atan and Yozgat, 2013). These leaders hold themselves responsible for the well-

being of the workplace and followers (Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, Van Dierendonck and Liden, 2019, p. 114).

### 3. Research model and hypotheses

It is possible to express these approaches that shape leadership studies as the “Great Man Approach” before the 1900s, the “Trait Approach” from the 1900s to the 1940s, the “Behavioral Approach” until the 1960s, the “Situational Approach” until the 1980s, and the “Modern Approaches” since the 1980s (Aksoy, 2016; Khan, Nawaz and Khan, 2016; Olley, 2021).

The ‘Great Man Theory’ is an early approach that claims that leadership is innate; in other words, individuals are born with the necessary leadership traits (Olley, 2021, p. 8). Early approaches to the characteristics of “great leaders” (e.g., intelligence and ancestry) have been replaced by more detailed approaches and research focusing on the characteristics of effective leaders (social, physical, intellectual, and emotional) (Nahavandi, 2000; Sıgır, 2011; Yukl, 2018). For various reasons, such as inadequate measurement of many traits of leaders, ignoring organizational or group needs, not paying attention to situational differences, and the relativity of traits, studies have not been successful enough to provide a general trait theory. Generally accepted and agreed-upon characteristics that cover all leaders have not been identified (Shackleton, 1995; Tengilimoğlu, 2005b).

The inadequacy of the trait theory, which argues that the most suitable individual can be selected as a leader according to certain personal characteristics, has mobilized leadership researchers seeking answers to the question “What makes a leader a good leader?” (Olley, 2021, p. 8). The behavioral approach, which was accepted in the period from the 1940s to the 1960s, focused on the behaviors exhibited by effective leaders rather than the innate characteristics of leaders or how they become leaders. What effective leaders do and how they do it has been investigated, and their behaviors that are different from other leaders have been tried to be determined (Kumar, Adhish and Deoki, 2014; Sıgır, 2011; Sıgır and Ercil, 2007; Yılmaz, 2011).

Defending the view that effective leader behaviours do not change and remain the same in different situations and do not take the environment into account, situation, and conditions has led to criticism of this approach (Sıgır, 2011; Sıgır and Ercil, 2007).

Trait and behavioral approaches have been insufficient to explain success or failure on their own (Demir, Yılmaz and Çevirgen, 2010; Tengilimoğlu, 2005b; Yılmaz, 2011). The fact that effective leaders with the same behavioral tendencies, who are seen as ideal in every aspect, can be successful in one situation but fail in a different situation or position has brought the issue of sustainability to the agenda, and it has been suggested by researchers that the ‘situation’ affects the probability of success of leaders (Daft and Marcic, 2009; Demir et al., 2010; Ralph, 2005).

In situational approaches to leadership, it is argued that a leader's actions will also differ according to the different conditions encountered (Kumar et al., 2014, p. 83). This approach argues that different conditions and situations require different leadership styles (Gün and Aslan, 2018; Tengilimoğlu, 2005b). Leadership styles emerge depending on the situation, people, task, organization, and other environmental variables (Gün and Aslan, 2018; Olley, 2021; Yılmaz, 2011).

Criticisms on research methods and application of leadership theories, changes in both external (changes in customer expectations and knowledge level, etc.) and business environment of organizations, and developments in the field of management and organization have led to the emergence of new approaches in the field of leadership (Tengilimoğlu, 2005b, p. 5). These new approaches are called modern leadership approaches and many leadership types are defined (Demir et al., 2010, p. 134). In this study, the effect of modern leadership approaches on organisational culture is tried to be examined comprehensively.

Figure 1 shows the model of this research, which aims to reveal the effects of leadership styles on organizational culture.

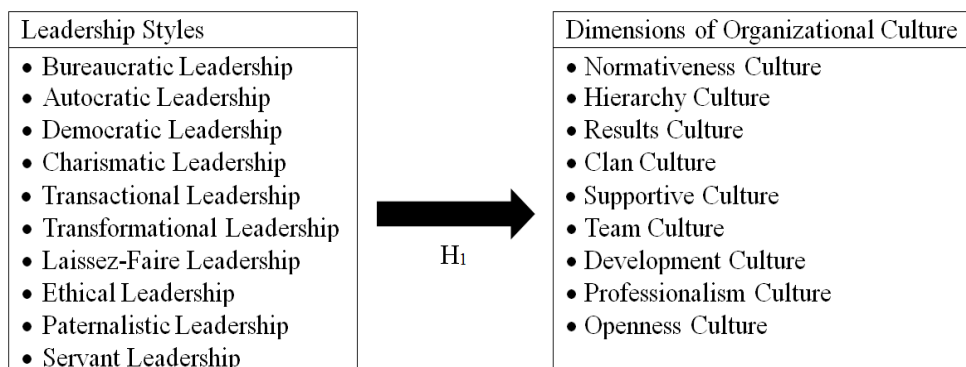


Figure 1. Research model

The literature contains studies demonstrating that leadership influences organizational culture and is also influenced by it (Bakan, 2008; Barut and Onay, 2016; Erdem and Dikici, 2009; Paşa, Kabasakal and Bodur, 2001). Similarly, the study by Gürdoğan and Yavuz (2013) revealed a positive and significant relationship between perceived leadership and perceived organizational culture (Gürdoğan and Yavuz, 2013, p. 66-67).

Various authors have stated that the main force in forming organizational culture is leadership (Acar, 2013; Barut and Onay, 2016; Gürdoğan and Yavuz, 2013). Generally, leaders' principles are adopted by followers as they successfully implement ideas, views, principles, and strategies. This situation ensures the development of an organizational culture in line with the leaders' principles (Barut and Onay, 2016; Gürdoğan and Yavuz, 2013). Considering these data, it is expected that leadership styles will affect perceptions of organizational culture.

H<sub>1</sub>: Unit managers' leadership styles affect employees' perceptions of organizational culture.

Normativeness culture is a culture of bureaucracy and control (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, p. 106). The concept of bureaucracy is associated with organizations where official hierarchy, rules, specialization, routine tasks, and merit-based personnel employment are deemed important (Morgan, 1996; Van der Voet, 2014; Zincir and Tunç, 2018). This study, conducted in public institutions and organizations where official hierarchy and rules are deemed important (A. Özmen, 2013, p. 942), expects that unit managers' leadership styles will affect employees' perceptions of normativeness culture.

Nwibere (2013, p. 175) revealed a negative and significant relation between laissez-faire leadership and bureaucratic culture defined by characteristics such as formalization, rules, standard working procedures, and hierarchical coordination. Considering the characteristics of bureaucratic culture, it is evaluated that they have similar features to the dimension of normativeness culture, where rules are emphasized (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021). Considering these data, laissez-faire leadership, which leaves control and authority entirely to followers (Chaudhry and Javed, 2012; Jones and Rudd, 2008; Zareen et al., 2015), is not expected to positively affect perceptions of normativeness culture.

H<sub>1a</sub>: Unit managers' leadership styles affect employees' perceptions of normativeness culture.

Hierarchy culture is the degree to which status, authority, hierarchy, and command are valued (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021). Research findings in domestic and international literature have provided some bases for the effect of leadership types on hierarchy culture.

Various researchers have observed a significant and positive relationship between transformational leadership and hierarchy culture (Acar, 2013; Gürdoğan and Yavuz, 2013). In contrast, Schimmoeller (2010, p. 134-135) found a significant and negative relation between transformational leadership and hierarchy culture. Due to different findings about the relationship between transformational leadership and hierarchy culture, the information obtained from this study is predicted to make a contribution to the relationship between transformational leadership and hierarchy culture.

Studies have demonstrated the significant and positive influence of ethical leadership on hierarchy culture (Kalfaoğlu, Attar and Tekin, 2021; S. Özmen, Özer, and Özkan, 2020), the positive correlation between paternalistic leadership and hierarchy culture (Liu, 2014, p. 5-15), and the positive effect of servant leadership on hierarchy culture (Lee, Kim and Cho, 2018, p. 46-47).

H<sub>1b</sub>: The leadership styles of unit managers affect employees' perceptions of hierarchy culture.

Clan culture refers to employees viewing their work environment as a family setting, where management sees employees as family members and places importance on individual relationships (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021). Various research findings about the relationship between leadership and organizational culture have been identified in both domestic and foreign literature. Due to characteristics such as paternalistic leaders acting almost like a father by implementing control measures, protecting and caring for their followers, being involved in their followers' work and private lives, and being concerned about their followers' interests (Bedi, 2020; Hatipoğlu, Akduman and Demir, 2019; Hou et al., 2019; Şendoğdu and Erdirencelebi, 2014), it is predicted that paternalistic leadership will have positive effects on the clan culture, where employees are viewed as family members and interpersonal relationships are valued (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021; Yetgin, 2016). Contrarily, Sürücü and Yeşilada (2017, p. 37) observed that paternalistic leadership has no significant effect on clan culture. The findings of this study are predicted to make contributions to the literature about the relation between paternalistic leadership and clan culture.

There are different research findings indicating that leadership styles affect perceptions of clan culture. Research findings reveal the significant and positive effects of transformational leadership (Acar, 2013; Gürdoğan and Yavuz, 2013; Schimmoeller, 2010; Sürücü and Yeşilada, 2017), ethical leadership (Kalfaoğlu et al., 2021; S. Özmen et al., 2020), transactional leadership (Schimmoeller, 2010; Sürücü and Yeşilada, 2017), servant leadership (Lee et al., 2018, p. 46-47), and charismatic leadership (Sürücü and Yeşilada, 2017, p. 37) on clan culture. Additionally, findings indicate a negative and significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and clan culture (Schimmoeller, 2010, p. 134-135). Considering these data, it is evaluated that the leadership styles in this research may affect perceptions of clan culture.

H<sub>1c</sub>: The leadership styles of unit managers affect employees' perceptions of clan culture.

In a supportive culture, employees are empowered, and information sharing among employees is valued. Employees can take reasonable risks and use their initiative regarding their work. Respect for followers' personal rights and consideration of their rights are also noted (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021; Yetgin, 2016).

There is no research within the literature addressing the relationship between supportive culture and leadership styles. However, some bases have been provided regarding their relationship based on the characteristics of leadership styles. The responsibility delegation and empowerment of followers by democratic leaders (Gastil, 1994; Ray and Ray, 2012; Terzi and Derin, 2016) and the prioritization of followers' needs, interests, and goals over their own by servant leaders (Eva et al., 2019, p. 114), the facilitation of idea sharing within the institution, and the support offered to followers (Mansaray, 2019, p. 22) are evaluated as similar to the traits of a supportive culture. Consequently, it is expected that democratic and servant leadership styles positively influence perceptions of a supportive culture.

H<sub>1d</sub>: The leadership styles of unit managers affect employees' perceptions of a supportive culture.

Development culture refers to the emphasis placed on development and innovation (Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021, p. 152); it is the tendency to seek new ways of doing business and actions, which implies a continuous search for new and different products, services, and procedures (Reynolds, 1986, p. 335-336).

Transformational leaders value the emergence and utilization of creative ideas and thoughts within followers, encouraging an innovative and creative perspective over traditional practices (Bass, 1985; Conger, 1999; Conger and Kanungo, 1998). Followers are asked to present innovative and



creative ideas by evaluating all assumptions in problem-solving (Bass et al., 2003, p. 208). It has been revealed that transformational leadership has a positive effect on organizational innovation (Mohammed and Paşaoğlu Baş, 2020, p. 115). It is also stated that servant leaders support followers in achieving their goals and facilitate followers' involvement in the decision-making process (Mansaray, 2019, p. 22). Considering the data, it is expected that transformational and servant leadership styles positively influence perceptions of a development culture.

H<sub>1c</sub>: The leadership styles of unit managers affect employees' perceptions of a development culture.

Team culture indicates the importance placed on collaborative work, collective action, and joint decision-making in line with organizational goals or activities (Danışman and Özgen, 2008; Reynolds, 1986). Apart from a study by Mansurova and Güney (2018, p. 48-49) revealing the positive and significant relation between transformational leadership and the teamwork dimension of organizational culture, no other research addressing the relationship between team culture and leadership styles has been found.

According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958), the democratic leadership style is characterized by decisions shared by all members instead of centralized decision-making (Al Khajeh, 2018; Ojokuku et al., 2012). Considering these features, it is expected that the democratic (participatory) leadership style positively influences perceptions of team culture, characterized by joint decision-making (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021).

H<sub>1f</sub>: The leadership styles of unit managers affect employees' perceptions of team culture.

Professionalism culture indicates the importance placed on solving problems rationally and logically within the organization, considering employee competence and performance in appointments and promotions, and having clear and precise job descriptions (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, p. 106). No research addressing the correlation between leadership types and professionalism culture has been found. However, based on the characteristics of professionalism culture and leadership styles, some bases have been provided.

The transactional leadership style, where members are guided by defining their roles and duties (Bass et al., 2003; Judge and Piccolo, 2004), is evaluated to be compatible with the characteristics of professionalism culture and is expected to positively influence perceptions of professionalism culture. The laissez-faire leadership style assumes that employees are internally motivated and need to be left on their own to fulfill their tasks (Jones and Rudd, 2008, p. 92). It is noted that laissez-faire leadership would be more effective if employees were experts, reliable, knowledgeable, educated, skilled, and experienced (Chaudhry and Javed, 2012; Sharma and Singh, 2013; Zareen et al., 2015). Considering this aspect, it is expected that laissez-faire leadership positively influences perceptions of professionalism culture.

In the framework of the public institutions and organizations where this study is conducted, issues such as the systematic execution of appointments and promotions and the clarity of positions and titles are thought to be explained by professionalism culture. In this perspective, it is evaluated that different leadership styles within the research scope may impact perceptions of professionalism culture. Findings derived from the study are predicted to contribute to the literature and practitioners.

H<sub>1g</sub>: The leadership styles of unit managers affect employees' perceptions of professionalism culture.

No studies addressing the relationship between results culture and leadership styles have been found in the literature. In bureaucratic organizations such as public institutions where formality, rules, standard operating procedures, and hierarchy are important (Nwibere, 2013, p. 170-178), it is expected that results culture, which values the outcome of the work rather than the manner in which it is done (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021), will be negatively influenced by the leadership styles in this study.

H<sub>1h</sub>: The leadership styles of unit managers affect employees' perceptions of results culture.

No studies addressing the relationship between openness culture and leadership styles have been found in the literature. In organizations where hierarchy and rules are important (Morgan, 1996; Van der Voet, 2014; Zincir and Tunç, 2018), it is noted that problems are often not voiced before causing harm (Ojokuku et al., 2012, p. 204). Therefore, it is considered that the openness culture, described as the degree to which problems and disagreements can be discussed impartially, openly, and comfortably (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021), may be negatively influenced by the leadership styles in this study conducted in public institutions and organizations.

H<sub>1i</sub>: The leadership styles of unit managers affect employees' perceptions of openness culture.

#### 4. Method

This research aims to examine the role of perceived leadership styles on perceived organizational culture in the context of public employees.

##### 4.1. Study population and sample

The study population consists of employees of public institutions and organizations in Osmaniye. Due to reasons such as public institutions and organizations being located in different administrative regions (e.g., provincial centers, districts), the duties, shifts, and leave statuses of public employees, and the flexible working hours applied during the COVID-19 epidemic, convenience sampling method was utilized in the study. The study sample consists of public employees working in various units and levels in the provincial center and districts of Osmaniye who agreed to participate in the survey. The sample group was not expected to exhibit leadership qualities; however, they were asked to answer questions about the leadership style they perceive in their managers.

There are different methods for calculating the sample size. Firstly, it is indicated that the sample size must be more than five times the number of expressions in the survey form (scales) (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Balck, 1995, p. 373). The organizational culture scale contains 52 expressions, and the leadership style scale contains 63 expressions, making a total of 115 expressions. According to this rule, the study sample should be more than 575 ( $115 \times 5 = 575$ ). During the data collection process, a total of 603 survey responses were obtained via the online survey form. Two of the surveys were excluded from the study sample and not included in the analysis, resulting in a dataset consisting of responses from 601 participants. Thus, the rule is satisfied with a sample size of 601. Sekaran (1992) showed acceptable sample sizes according to population sizes (Sekaran, 1992, p. 253). For a population of 10,000,000 or larger, considering a 95% confidence level and a 5% margin of error, the required sample size is at least 384 (Altunışık, Coşkun, Bayraktaroğlu and Yıldırım, 2012; Poyraz and Dayangaç Kıyat, 2021; Sekaran, 1992; Tutcu and Çelik, 2020). Thus, the rule is also satisfied with a sample size of 601. The demographic characteristics of the participants are shown in Table 1:

Table 1  
*Demographic characteristics of participants*

Variables	Number	%	
Age	26 years and under	79	13.1
	27-31	193	32.1
	32-36	144	24.0
	37-41	81	13.5
	42 years and over	104	17.3
Generation	Z	79	13.1
	Y	418	69.6
	X	104	17.3
Gender	Male	391	65.1
	Female	210	34.9
Marital Status	Single	198	32.9
	Married	403	67.1
Education Level	Associate degree or lower	158	26.3
	Bachelor's degree	318	52.9
	Postgraduate degree	125	20.8

Managerial Duty	Yes	217	36.1
	No	384	63.9
Work Location	Village/Town/District	192	31.9
	Provincial center	409	68.1
Service Duration	5 years and under	219	36.4
	6-10	136	22.6
	11-15	113	18.8
	16 years and over	133	22.1

#### 4.2. Data collection process

Ethics Committee Approval dated 12.04.2021 and numbered 2021/2/2 was obtained from the Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee of the Social Sciences at Osmaniye Korkut Ata University. To conduct the survey, permission dated 21.04.2021 and numbered E-30703593-044-5361 was obtained from the Osmaniye Governorship. Considering the COVID-19 pandemic, the data was collected using an online survey method between 26.04.2021 and 30.09.2021.

#### 4.3. Data collection method and tools

In the study, the “Organizational Subculture Scale” developed by Danişman and Özgen (2008) was used to determine the dimensions of organizational culture. The organizational culture scale consists of nine dimensions: normativeness, hierarchy, clan, support, development, results, team, openness, and professionalism, with a total of 52 expressions (Danişman and Özgen, 2008; Yeşiltaş and Türk, 2021).

The Leadership Style Scale consists of ten leadership styles: bureaucratic, autocratic (authoritarian), democratic (participatory), charismatic, transactional, transformational, laissez-faire, ethical, paternalistic, and servant leadership, with a total of 63 expressions. Four expressions related to the “bureaucratic leadership” dimension were used from Alga’s (2017) scale (Alga, 2017, p. 106). Twenty-one expressions used to measure three different leadership dimensions, “autocratic leadership,” “democratic leadership,” and “charismatic leadership,” were taken from the leadership styles survey developed by Erdoğan (2010) (Erdoğan, 2010, p. 113-114). The survey designed by Erdoğan (2010) utilized Spector’s “Job Satisfaction Scale” and the leadership behavior dimensions found in Tengilimoğlu’s (2005a) study titled “A study to determine the relationship between leadership behaviors and job satisfaction in service businesses” (Erdoğan, 2010; Tengilimoğlu, 2005a). Thirty-eight expressions used to measure six different leadership dimensions, “transactional leadership,” “transformational leadership,” “laissez-faire leadership,” “ethical leadership,” “paternalistic leadership,” and “servant leadership,” were taken from the “Leadership Style Scale” developed by Çağlar (2012) (Çağlar, 2012, p. 23). A 5-point Likert scale (1=Strongly Disagree/5=Strongly Agree) was utilized to measure the scale expressions.

The demographic information section includes questions such as “age,” “gender,” “marital status,” “education level,” “profession,” “whether they have a managerial duty,” “work location,” “service duration,” and “institution worked.”

## 5. Findings

### 5.1. Findings related to scales

To test the construct validity of the scales, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and Cronbach’s Alpha reliability analysis were performed. Seventeen expressions from the leadership style scale and twenty-one expressions from the organizational culture scale were eliminated from the analysis because of low factor loadings. As a consequence of the CFA, the “bureaucratic leadership” and “autocratic leadership” styles, and the “results culture” and “openness culture” dimensions of organizational culture were not confirmed and thus not included in the analyses.

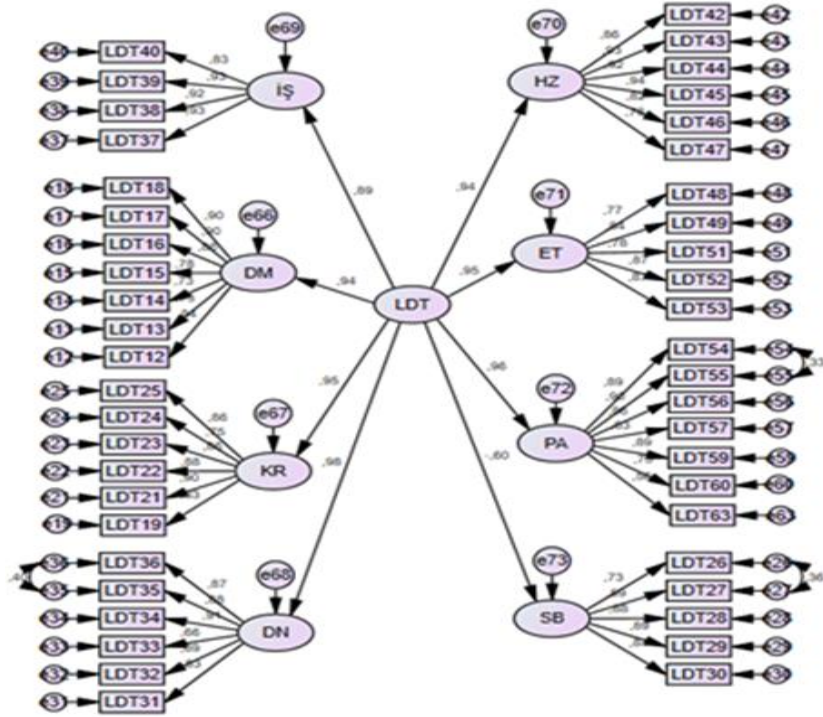


Figure 2. CFA model for leadership style scale

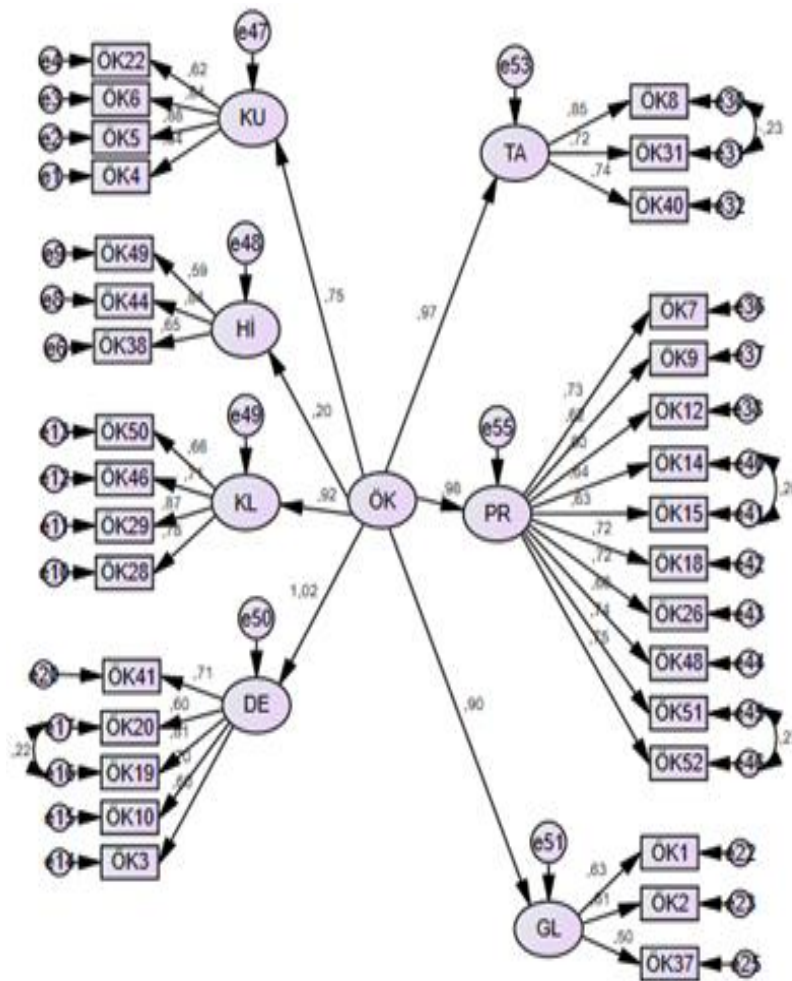


Figure 3. CFA model for organizational culture scale

According to the second-level multi-factor CFA results, both the Leadership Style and Organizational Culture scales showed acceptable fit indices (Table 2).

Table 2  
Second-level multi-factor model CFA fit indices for scales

Fit Indices	Excellent Fit Criteria	Acceptable Fit Criteria	Leadership Style Scale Fit Indices	Organizational Culture Scale Fit Indices	References
CMIN/Df	$0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 3$	$3 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 5$	3.154	4.122	(Meydan and Şeşen, 2015; Simon et al., 2010)
CFI	$0,90 \leq CFI \leq 1,00$	$0,80 \leq CFI \leq 0,90$	0.931	0.883	(Dehon et al., 2005, p. 799-810)
NFI	$0,90 \leq CFI \leq 1,00$	$0,80 \leq CFI \leq 0,90$	0.902	0.851	(Dehon et al., 2005, p. 799-810)
RMSEA	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq 0,05$	$0,05 \leq RMSEA \leq 0,08$	0.060	0.072	(Simon et al., 2010, p. 234-243)
SRMR	$0 \leq SRMR \leq 0,05$	$0,05 \leq SRMR \leq 0,10$	0.039	0.070	(Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003, p. 23-74)

As seen in Table 3, the Cronbach's Alpha reliability values of the scales utilized in the study are greater than 0.6 indicate that the scales utilized are reliable (Tavşancıl, 2005, p. 19); the skewness and kurtosis values are in the range of +2 and -2 indicate that the datas are normally distributed (George and Mallery, 2010).

Table 3  
Descriptive statistics and reliability analysis results

Scales	Number of Items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha
Normativeness Culture	4	3.63	0.94	-0.594	-0.142	0.871
Hierarchy Culture	3	4.09	0.74	-0.917	1.215	0.724
Clan Culture	4	3.13	1.00	-0.182	-0.677	0.833
Supportive Culture	4	3.46	0.92	-0.421	-0.385	0.789
Development Culture	3	3.73	0.85	-0.790	0.560	0.655
Team Culture	3	3.41	1.00	-0.492	-0.460	0.787
Professionalism Culture	10	3.14	0.94	-0.106	-0.726	0.910
Democratic Leadership	7	3.30	1.07	-0.366	-0.716	0.938
Charismatic Leadership	6	3.38	1.08	-0.391	-0.654	0.938
Laissez-Faire Leadership	5	2.84	1.03	0.331	-0.514	0.896
Transformational Leadership	6	3.38	1.05	-0.344	-0.591	0.938
Transactional Leadership	4	3.31	1.19	-0.403	-0.854	0.945
Servant Leadership	6	3.12	1.09	-0.127	-0.755	0.952
Ethical Leadership	5	3.43	1.00	-0.422	-0.411	0.915
Paternalistic Leadership	7	3.35	1.00	-0.351	-0.564	0.920

In Table 4, The Leadership Scale's Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Composite Reliability (CR) values were examined for convergent validity and construct reliability. The AVE value should exceed 0.50 and CR should be above 0.70 (Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson, 2014, p. 693), and it's also essential for the CR value to be greater than the AVE value (Yaşlıoğlu, 2017, p. 82).

Table 4  
The leadership scale's convergent validity and construct reliability

Leadership Styles	Democratic	Charismatic	Laissez-Faire	Transformational	Transactional	Servant	Ethical	Paternalistic
AVE	0.678	0.720	0.626	0.716	0.817	0.773	0.685	0.631
CR	0.936	0.940	0.891	0.937	0.947	0.953	0.915	0.921

5.2. Correlation analyses

Pearson correlation analysis was utilized to investigate the relations among the perceived leadership styles and the dimensions of organizational culture among the participants (Table 5). Different classifications are made in the literature. Generally, the correlation coefficient obtained from Pearson correlation analysis is interpreted as follows: “if it is in the range of (0.00 - 0.25), the relationship is very weak; in the range of (0.26 - 0.49), the relationship is weak; in the range of (0.50 - 0.69), the relationship is moderate; in the range of (0.70 - 0.89), the relationship is high; and in the range of (0.90 - 1.00), the relationship is very high” (Sungur, 2010, p. 116). Consequently, positive and significant relationships have been identified between organizational cultures and leadership styles. The relationships between laissez-faire leadership and organizational cultures, as well as between hierarchy culture and leadership styles, vary.

Table 5  
Relationship between leadership style and organizational culture

Variables	Normativeness	Hierarchy	Clan	Supportive	Development	Team	Professionalism
Democratic	0.429**	0.092**	0.633**	0.594**	0.513**	0.620**	0.625**
Charismatic	0.470**	0.171**	0.647**	0.570**	0.506**	0.602**	0.636**
Laissez-Faire	-0.207**	0.010	-0.316**	-0.315**	-0.233**	-0.313**	-0.268**
Transformational	0.463**	0.156**	0.661**	0.595**	0.541**	0.628**	0.645**
Transactional	0.419**	0.110**	0.641**	0.563**	0.513**	0.583**	0.628**
Servant	0.470**	0.093**	0.668**	0.608**	0.540**	0.623**	0.673**
Ethical	0.515**	0.171**	0.622**	0.575**	0.493**	0.592**	0.632**
Paternalistic	0.422**	0.140**	0.673**	0.575**	0.504**	0.600**	0.615**

\*p<0.05; \*\*p<0.01

When examined in detail, the laissez-faire leadership style has statistically significant, weak, and negative relationships with the normativeness culture ( $r=-0.207, p<0.01$ ), clan culture ( $r=-0.316, p<0.01$ ), supportive culture ( $r=-0.315, p<0.01$ ), development culture ( $r=-0.233, p<0.01$ ), team culture ( $r=-0.313, p<0.01$ ), and professionalism culture ( $r=-0.268, p<0.01$ ). There is no statistically significant relation between laissez-faire leadership and hierarchy culture ( $p>0.05$ ).

Hierarchy culture has statistically significant, very weak, and positive relationships with democratic leadership style ( $r=0.092, p<0.05$ ), charismatic leadership style ( $r=0.171, p<0.01$ ), transformational leadership style ( $r=0.156, p<0.01$ ), transactional leadership style ( $r=0.110, p<0.01$ ), servant leadership style ( $r=0.093, p<0.05$ ), ethical leadership style ( $r=0.171, p<0.01$ ), and paternalistic leadership style ( $r=0.140, p<0.01$ ). There is no statistically significant relation between hierarchy culture and laissez-faire leadership style ( $p>0.05$ ).

### 5.3. Regression analyses

Multiple linear regression analyses were utilized to test the H<sub>1</sub> hypothesis and its sub-hypotheses (H<sub>1a</sub> to H<sub>1g</sub>) and to explain the effects of leadership on perceived dimensions of organizational culture. The VIF value was utilized to test for multicollinearity among independent variables. VIF values are expected to be below 10 (VIF<10) (Hair et al., 2010). The Durbin-Watson statistic being close to 2 or in between 1.5 – 2.5 is important to show that there is no relation among residuals (Kalaycı, 2010, p. 264). In all established models, VIF (<10) and Durbin-Watson values are in line with these criteria, indicating no autocorrelation problem.

Table 6  
Effects of leadership styles on normativeness culture

		Dependent Variable: Normativeness Culture				
	Independent Variable	B	t	p	Beta (β)	VIF
Model 1	Constant	1.782	8.358	0.000*		
	Democratic	-0.026	-0.388	0.698	-0.029	4.709
	Charismatic	0.149	1.994	0.047*	0.170	5.995
	Laissez-Faire	0.054	1.431	0.153	0.059	1.406
	Transformational	0.013	0.147	0.883	0.015	7.946
	Transactional	0.029	0.532	0.595	0.037	4.034
	Servant	0.098	1.283	0.200	0.114	6.518
	Ethical	0.390	5.180	0.000*	0.417	5.305
	Paternalistic	-0.150	-1.947	0.052	-0.161	5.584
<i>F=28.493; (p=0.000)</i>						
<i>R<sup>2</sup>:0.278; Adj.R<sup>2</sup>:0.268</i>						
<i>Durbin Watson test statistics=1.883</i>						

\*p<0.05

In Table 6, the established model is statistically significant ( $F=28.493; p<0.05$ ). Charismatic ( $t=1.994; B=0.149$ ) and ethical ( $t=5.180; B=0.390$ ) leadership styles have statistically significant effects on normativeness culture ( $p<0.05$ ), while democratic, laissez-faire, transformational, transactional, servant, and paternalistic leadership styles have no statistically significant effects on normativeness culture ( $p>0.05$ ). The change in the normativeness culture is explained by 26.8% with charismatic and ethical leadership styles (*Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>=0.268*). The hypothesis “H<sub>1a</sub>: “The leadership styles of unit managers affect employees’ perceptions of normativeness culture” is supported.

Table 7  
Effects of leadership styles on hierarchy culture

		Dependent Variable: Hierarchy Culture				
	Independent Variable	B	t	p	Beta (β)	VIF
Model 1	Constant	3.210	16.886	0.000*		
	Democratic	-0.122	-2.071	0.039*	-0.178	4.709
	Charismatic	0.177	2.661	0.008*	0.258	5.995
	Laissez-Faire	0.085	2.516	0.012*	0.118	1.406
	Transformational	0.109	1.395	0.164	0.156	7.946
	Transactional	0.004	0.091	0.928	0.007	4.034
	Servant	-0.214	-3.133	0.002*	-0.317	6.518
	Ethical	0.179	2.669	0.008*	0.243	5.305
	Paternalistic	0.036	0.525	0.600	0.049	5.584
<i>F=5.811; (p=0.000)</i>						
<i>R<sup>2</sup>:0.073; Adj.R<sup>2</sup>:0.060</i>						
<i>Durbin Watson test statistics=1.869</i>						

\*p<0.05

In Table 7, the established model is statistically significant ( $F=5.811; p<0.05$ ). Democratic ( $t=-2.071; B=-0.122$ ), charismatic ( $t=2.661; B=0.177$ ), laissez-faire ( $t=2.516; B=0.085$ ), servant ( $t=-3.133; B=-0.214$ ), and ethical ( $t=2.669; B=0.179$ ) leadership styles have statistically significant effects on hierarchy culture ( $p<0.05$ ), while transformational, transactional, and paternalistic leadership styles

have no statistically significant effects on hierarchy culture ( $p > 0.05$ ). The change in the hierarchy culture is explained by 6.0% with leadership styles ( $Adjusted R^2 = 0.060$ ). The hypothesis “ $H_{1b}$ : “The leadership styles of unit managers affect employees’ perceptions of normativeness culture” is supported.

Table 8  
Effects of leadership styles on clan culture

		Dependent Variable: Clan Culture				
	Independent Variable	B	t	p	Beta ( $\beta$ )	VIF
Model 1	Constant	0.544	2.870	0.004*		
	Democratic	0.087	1.479	0.140	0.093	4.709
	Charismatic	0.102	1.537	0.125	0.109	5.995
	Laissez-Faire	0.058	1.733	0.084	0.060	1.406
	Transformational	0.049	0.630	0.529	0.052	7.946
	Transactional	0.130	2.638	0.009*	0.154	4.034
	Servant	0.159	2.328	0.020*	0.172	6.518
	Ethical	-0.032	-0.475	0.635	-0.032	5.305
	Paternalistic	0.241	3.516	0.000*	0.241	5.584
	$F=74.383; (p=0.000)$					
$R^2:0.501; Adj.R^2:0.495$						
$Durbin Watson test statistics=1.761$						

\* $p < 0.05$

In Table 8, the established model is statistically significant ( $F=74.383; p < 0.05$ ). Transactional ( $t=2.638; B=0.130$ ), servant ( $t=2.328; B=0.159$ ), and paternalistic ( $t=3.516; B=0.241$ ) leadership styles have significant effects on clan culture ( $p < 0.05$ ). Democratic, charismatic, laissez-faire, transformational, and ethical leadership styles have no statistically significant effects on clan culture ( $p > 0.05$ ). The change in the clan culture is explained by 49.5% with these leadership styles ( $Adjusted R^2 = 0.495$ ). The hypothesis “ $H_{1c}$ : “The leadership styles of unit managers affect employees’ perceptions of clan culture” is supported.

Table 9  
Effects of leadership styles on supportive culture

		Dependent Variable: Supportive Culture				
	Independent Variable	B	t	p	Beta ( $\beta$ )	VIF
Model 1	Constant	1.508	7.884	0.000*		
	Democratic	0.177	2.973	0.003*	0.205	4.709
	Charismatic	0.001	0.017	0.987	0.001	5.995
	Laissez-Faire	0.011	0.322	0.747	0.012	1.406
	Transformational	0.065	0.831	0.406	0.074	7.946
	Transactional	0.061	1.226	0.221	0.078	4.034
	Servant	0.193	2.798	0.005*	0.227	6.518
	Ethical	0.058	0.852	0.394	0.062	5.305
	Paternalistic	0.034	0.494	0.621	0.037	5.584
	$F=49.830; (p=0.000)$					
$R^2:0.402; Adj.R^2:0.394$						
$Durbin Watson test statistics=1.718$						

\* $p < 0.05$

In Table 9, the established model is statistically significant ( $F=49.830; p < 0.05$ ). Democratic ( $t=2.973; B=0.177$ ) and servant ( $t=2.798; B=0.193$ ) leadership styles have statistically significant effect on supportive culture ( $p < 0.05$ ); charismatic, laissez-faire, transformational, transactional, ethical, and paternalistic leadership styles have no statistically significant effects on supportive culture ( $p > 0.05$ ). The change in supportive culture is explained by 39.4% with these leadership styles ( $Adjusted R^2 = 0.394$ ). The hypothesis “ $H_{1d}$ : “Unit managers’ leadership styles affect employees’ perceptions of supportive culture” is supported.



Table 10  
Effects of leadership styles on development culture

		Dependent Variable: Development Culture				
	Independent Variable	B	t	p	Beta (β)	VIF
Model 1	Constant	1.941	10.306	0.000*		
	Democratic	0.098	1.679	0.094	0.123	4.709
	Charismatic	0.027	0.403	0.687	0.033	5.995
	Laissez-Faire	0.060	1.791	0.074	0.072	1.406
	Transformational	0.154	1.989	0.047*	0.190	7.946
	Transactional	0.087	1.776	0.076	0.121	4.034
	Servant	0.169	2.487	0.013*	0.215	6.518
	Ethical	-0.032	-0.488	0.626	-0.038	5.305
	Paternalistic	-0.006	-0.088	0.930	-0.007	5.584
F=35.107; (p=0.000)						
R <sup>2</sup> :0.322; Adj.R <sup>2</sup> :0.313						
Durbin Watson test statistics=1.746						

\*p<0.05

In Table 10, the established model is statistically significant ( $F=35.107$ ;  $p<0.05$ ). Transformational ( $t=1.989$ ;  $B=0.154$ ) and servant ( $t=2.487$ ;  $B=0.169$ ) leadership styles have a statistically significant effect on development culture ( $p<0.05$ ); democratic, charismatic, laissez-faire, transactional, ethical, and paternalistic leadership styles have no statistically significant effect on development culture ( $p>0.05$ ). 31.3% of the change in development culture is explained by leadership styles ( $Adjusted R^2=0.313$ ). The hypothesis “ $H_{1c}$ : The leadership styles of unit managers affect employees’ perceptions of development culture” is supported.

Table 11  
Effects of leadership styles on team culture

		Dependent Variable: Team Culture				
	Independent Variable	B	t	p	Beta (β)	VIF
Model 1	Constant	1.095	5.454	0.000*		
	Democratic	0.204	3.267	0.001*	0.219	4.709
	Charismatic	0.051	0.727	0.467	0.055	5.995
	Laissez-Faire	0.036	1.012	0.312	0.037	1.406
	Transformational	0.139	1.682	0.093	0.147	7.946
	Transactional	0.057	1.088	0.277	0.068	4.034
	Servant	0.155	2.137	0.033*	0.169	6.518
	Ethical	0.022	0.311	0.756	0.022	5.305
	Paternalistic	0.046	0.627	0.531	0.046	5.584
F=56.809; (p=0.000)						
R <sup>2</sup> :0.434; Adj.R <sup>2</sup> :0.427						
Durbin Watson test statistics=1.687						

\*p<0.05

In Table 11, the established model is statistically significant ( $F=56.809$ ;  $p<0.05$ ). Democratic ( $t=3.267$ ;  $B=0.204$ ) and servant ( $t=2.137$ ;  $B=0.155$ ) leadership styles have statistically significant effect on team culture ( $p<0.05$ ); however, charismatic, laissez-faire, transformational, transactional, ethical, and paternalistic leadership styles have no statistically significant effects on team culture ( $p>0.05$ ). 42.7% of the change in team culture is explained by leadership styles ( $Adjusted R^2=0.427$ ). The hypothesis “ $H_{1f}$ : The leadership styles of unit managers affect employees’ perceptions of team culture” is supported.

Table 12  
Effects of leadership styles on professionalism culture

Dependent Variable: Professionalism Culture						
Independent Variable	B	t	p	Beta ( $\beta$ )	VIF	
Constant	0.572	3.195	0.001*			
Democratic	0.107	1.913	0.056	0.122	4.709	
Charismatic	0.132	2.113	0.035*	0.152	5.995	
Laissez-Faire	0.108	3.409	0.001*	0.118	1.406	
Transformational	0.017	0.235	0.814	0.019	7.946	
Transactional	0.130	2.784	0.006*	0.164	4.034	
Servant	0.269	4.169	0.000*	0.312	6.518	
Ethical	0.087	1.377	0.169	0.093	5.305	
Paternalistic	-0.049	-0.760	0.448	-0.053	5.584	

$F=71.751$ ; ( $p=0.000$ )  
 $R^2:0.492$ ;  $Adj.R^2:0.485$   
Durbin Watson test statistics=1.808

\* $p<0.05$

In Table 12, the established model is statistically significant ( $F=71.751$ ;  $p<0.05$ ). Charismatic ( $t=2.113$ ;  $B=0.132$ ), laissez-faire ( $t=3.409$ ;  $B=0.108$ ), transactional ( $t=2.784$ ;  $B=0.130$ ), and servant ( $t=4.169$ ;  $B=0.269$ ) leadership styles have statistically significant effects on professionalism culture ( $p<0.05$ ); democratic, transformational, ethical, and paternalistic leadership styles have no statistically significant effects on professionalism culture ( $p>0.05$ ). 48.5% of the change in professionalism culture is explained by leadership styles ( $Adjusted R^2=0.485$ ). The hypothesis " $H_{1g}$ : Unit managers' leadership styles affect employees' perceptions of professionalism culture" is supported.

## 6. Discussion, conclusion, and recommendations

This study, conducted in compliance with research and publication ethics, aims to provide a general perspective on the relationship between organizational culture and leadership. The result of the CFA of the organizational culture scale revealed seven factors (dimensions of organizational culture): "normativeness culture", "hierarchy culture", "clan culture", "supportive culture", "team culture", "professionalism culture", and "development culture". The result of the CFA of the leadership styles scale revealed eight factors (leadership styles): "transactional leadership", "democratic leadership", "charismatic leadership", "transformational leadership", "servant leadership", "ethical leadership", "paternalistic leadership", and "laissez-faire leadership". The analyses were conducted with the leadership styles and organizational culture dimensions identified through CFA.

First, a correlation analysis was conducted on the relationships between leadership styles and organizational culture dimensions. The analysis results showed:

Democratic leadership is positively related to the dimensions of organizational culture in this study. The findings of Tütüncü and Akgündüz (2012, p. 66) and Uğur (2017, p. 351), which reveal a positive relationship between democratic (participative) leadership and organizational culture, support the findings of this study. The statistically significant and positive relationship between democratic leadership and team culture is supported by the characteristics defined in the literature regarding democratic leadership (Akyürek, 2020; Ray and Ray, 2012; Terzi and Derin, 2016) and team culture (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021). The statistically significant and positive relationship between democratic leadership and supportive culture is supported by the characteristics defined in the literature regarding democratic leadership (Gastil, 1994; Ray and Ray, 2012; Terzi and Derin, 2016) and supportive culture (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021).

The finding that there is a positive and significant relationship between charismatic leadership and organizational culture is supported by the findings of Gül and Aykanat (2012, p. 31) and Sürücü and Yeşilada (2017, p. 36). The positive and significant relationship between charismatic leadership and clan culture is supported by the findings of Sürücü and Yeşilada (2017, p. 36).

The findings that there is a negative and significant relation between laissez-faire leadership and clan culture support Schimmoeller's (2010, p. 134-135) research findings regarding the negative

correlation between laissez-faire leadership and clan culture. Nwibere's (2013, p. 175) finding a negative and significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and bureaucratic culture dimension is similar to the "normativeness culture" dimension of organizational culture that values rules (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021). The significant and negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership and normativity culture is also supported by the findings of Nwibere (2013, p. 175). In the literature, laissez-faire leadership is explained as "the absence of leadership" and "the leader's avoidance of intervention" (Tosunoglu and Ekmekci, 2016, p. 90), and it is described as a leadership type where subordinates are left to their responsibilities (Breevaart and Zacher, 2019; Chaudhry and Javed, 2012; Sharma and Singh, 2013; Tosunoglu and Ekmekci, 2016). This information supports the findings that laissez-faire leadership is weakly and positively related to hierarchy culture and weakly and negatively related to normativeness, development, clan, supportive, team, and professionalism cultures.

The positive relation between transformational leadership and organizational culture dimensions is supported by the findings of Avcı (2016, p. 4789) on the positive relation between transformational leadership and organizational culture. The positive relationship between transformational leadership and hierarchy culture is similar to the findings of Acar (2013, p. 17-28) and Gürdoğan and Yavuz (2013, p. 64). The positive relation between transformational leadership and clan culture is similar to the findings of Acar (2013, p. 17-28), Gürdoğan and Yavuz (2013, p. 64), Sürücü and Yeşilada (2017, p. 36) and Schimmoeller (2010, p. 134-135). The positive relationship between transformational leadership and team culture is also supported by the findings of Mansurova and Güney (2018, p. 48-49). The finding of a negative and significant relationship between transformational leadership and hierarchy culture in Schimmoeller's (2010, p. 134-135) study contradicts the finding that transformational leadership has a statistically significant, very weak, and positive relation with hierarchy culture in this study. It is considered that the fact that this study was conducted in public institutions where formal hierarchy and rules are considered important (Morgan, 1996; Van der Voet, 2014; Zincir and Tunç, 2018) may have played a role in the positive relation between transformational leadership and the hierarchy culture dimension.

The findings of this study that there is a positive and statistically significant relation between transactional leadership and the dimensions of organizational culture are supported by the findings of Avcı (2016, p. 4789), Schimmoeller (2010, p. 134-135) and Sürücü and Yeşilada (2017, p. 36) on the positive relation between transactional leadership and organizational culture. The findings of Sürücü and Yeşilada (2017, p. 36) and Schimmoeller (2010, p. 134-135) regarding the significant and positive effect of transactional leadership on clan culture support the findings of this study. The characteristics of transactional leadership defined in the literature, such as hierarchy and authority (Bass and Avolio, 1990; McCleskey, 2014; Zacharatos et al., 2000), support the finding of a significant and positive relationship between transactional leadership and hierarchy culture in this study.

The finding that there is a positive and statistically significant relation between servant leadership and organizational culture dimensions in this study is supported by the findings of Harwiki (2016, p. 287-288), Setyaningrum (2017, p. 562) and Almutairi et al. The positive relation among servant leadership and clan culture and hierarchy culture identified by Lee et al. (2018, p. 46-47) supports the findings of this study.

The characteristics of servant leaders such as focusing on the development, needs, interests, and goals of their followers, prioritizing them over their own (Eva et al., 2019; Mansaray, 2019), and facilitating idea-sharing and participation in decision-making (Mansaray, 2019, p. 22), support the findings that servant leadership has significant and positive relationships with supportive culture where personal interests and rights are respected, development culture where new and innovative approaches and ideas are encouraged, and team culture where joint decision-making comes to the fore (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021; Yetgin, 2016).

The findings of a positive relationship between ethical leadership and clan culture are also supported by the findings of Şentürk (2017, p. 199), S. Özmen et al. (2020, p. 450), and Kalfaoğlu et al. (2021, p. 1120). The findings of a positive and significant relation between ethical leadership and

hierarchy culture are supported by the findings of S. Özmen et al. (2020, p. 450) and Kalfaoğlu et al. (2021, p. 1118-1120).

The characteristics of ethical leaders, such as avoiding harm to their followers and considering their interests (Stouten, Van Dijke and De Cremer, 2012, p. 2), support the findings of a positive relation between ethical leadership and the supportive culture in which personal rights are respected (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021; Yetgin, 2016).

The findings of this study that there is a positive relation between paternalistic leadership and the dimensions of organizational culture are supported by Liu's (2017, p. 11) findings on the relation between the sub-dimensions of paternalistic leadership (authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership) and the sub-dimensions of organizational culture (group culture, developmental culture, hierarchy culture, and rational culture). The positive relationship between paternalistic leadership and clan culture and hierarchy culture is supported by the findings of Karşu Cesur et al. (2019, p. 107) on the positive and significant relationship between paternalistic leadership and collectivism and Köksal's (2011, p. 117-120) findings that paternalism is related to hierarchy, authority, benevolence, and participation. In cultures with high power distance, patriarchal and collectivist structures, paternalistic leadership is more commonly observed (Bekmezci and Yıldız, 2019; Kabasakal and Bodur, 2007; Sarp et al., 2019; Şendoğdu and Erdirençelebi, 2014; Uysal et al., 2012), where hierarchical order and strong social structures based on mutual assistance and loyalty are accepted (Carolina, 2019; National culture, n.d.). Paşa et al. (2001, p. 585) found that the most dominant feature of organizational culture in the Turkish context is collectivism and that leaders stand out with the feature of caring about followers' belonging to the organization. This information in the literature supports the significant and positive relationships found in this research among paternalistic leadership, hierarchy culture, and clan culture. Characteristics of paternalistic leaders such as implementing control measures like a father, protecting and caring for their followers, being involved in their followers' work and personal lives, and showing concern for their followers' interests (Bedi, 2020; Hatipoğlu et al., 2019; Hou et al., 2019; Şendoğdu and Erdirençelebi, 2014), support the positive relations among paternalistic leadership and organizational culture dimensions in this study, specifically the clan culture where employees are seen as family members and interpersonal relationships are valued, and the supportive culture where personal rights are respected (Danışman and Özgen, 2003, 2008; Gürbüz and Varoğlu, 2021; Yetgin, 2016).

Secondly, multiple linear regression analyses were conducted to explain the effects of leadership on organizational culture dimensions, which is the main hypothesis of this research. The following findings were obtained from the regression analyses:

Democratic leadership style was observed to have negative effects on hierarchy culture and positive and statistically significant effects on supportive culture and team culture. When examining past studies, Murcahyanto, Asmawi and Madhakomala (2018, p. 179) found the positive effect of democratic leadership style on organizational culture. It is evaluated that findings from future studies will be beneficial for observing the relationship between democratic leadership and organizational culture.

Charismatic leadership style was found to have positive and statistically significant effects on normativeness culture, hierarchy culture, and professionalism culture. In addition to these findings, the study by Darı and Koç (2021, p. 273) found a positive effect of charismatic leadership on organizational culture, and the study by Sürücü and Yeşilada (2017, p. 37) found positive and significant effects of charismatic leadership on clan culture.

The laissez-faire leadership style was observed to have positive and statistically significant effects on hierarchy and professionalism culture. However, no studies were found that included findings on the effect of this style on organizational culture.

Transformational leadership style was observed to have positive and statistically significant effects on development culture. Besides these findings, the study by Avcı (2016, p. 4790) revealed the positive effect of transformational leadership on organizational culture. The studies by Acar (2013, p. 18) and Sürücü and Yeşilada (2017, p. 37) revealed positive and significant effects of transformational leadership style on clan culture.

Transactional leadership style was observed to have positive and significant effects on clan culture and professionalism culture. The positive effect of transactional leadership on organizational culture was found in the study by Avcı (2016, p. 4790), and the positive and significant effects of transactional (transactional) leadership on clan culture were found in the study by Sürücü and Yeşilada (2017, p. 37) support the findings obtained from this study.

Servant leadership style was observed to have negative and statistically significant effects on hierarchy culture, positive and statistically significant effects on clan culture, supportive culture, development culture, team culture, and professionalism culture. When examining past studies, no studies were found that included findings on the effect of servant leadership style on organizational culture.

Ethical leadership style has positive and statistically significant effects on normativeness and hierarchy culture. The data obtained from this study support the results of Kalfaoğlu et al. (2021, p. 1121), which found that ethical leadership positively influences organizational culture. The authors did not specify the dimensions or types of organizational culture positively affected by ethical leadership.

It was observed that paternalistic leadership style had a positive and statistically significant effect on clan culture. In contrast to the data obtained from this study, the research by Sürücü and Yeşilada (2017, p. 37) found that paternalistic leadership had no effect on clan culture. Findings from future studies will be beneficial for observing the relations among paternalistic leadership and organizational culture.

As a result, it was observed that charismatic, laissez-faire, and ethical leadership practices positively influence hierarchy culture. In light of these analysis findings, it can be considered that charismatic, laissez-faire, and ethical leadership practices contribute to the improvement of hierarchy culture within the institution, while democratic and servant leadership practices contribute to the reduction of hierarchy culture within the institution.

Similarly, it can be considered that charismatic and ethical leadership practices contribute to the dissemination of normativeness culture; transactional, servant and paternalistic leadership practices contribute to the dissemination of clan culture; democratic and servant leadership practices contribute to the improvement of supportive and team cultures; transformational and servant leadership practices contribute to the dissemination of development culture; and charismatic, laissez-faire, transactional, and servant leadership practices contribute to the dissemination of professionalism culture within the institution.

It is evaluated that different findings can be reached with more comprehensive research in the future. In this research, two cultural dimensions, “*results culture*” and “*openness culture*”, and two leadership styles, “*bureaucratic leadership*” and “*autocratic leadership*”, could not be tested. Evaluating the untested organizational culture dimensions and leadership styles within the scope of future research may provide more detailed information about the relationship between variables.

The main and most significant limitations of the study are place and time. The study is limited to public employees working in Osmaniye province who agreed to participate in the survey in the course of the data collection process. The presence of public institutions and organizations in different administrative divisions such as provincial centers, districts, towns, and villages can also be expressed among the limitations of the study in terms of place, time, and financial aspects. The duties, shifts, leaves, reports, rest periods, and availability of public employees make it impossible to reach all public employees working in the same unit at the same place and time. During the Covid-19 epidemic, flexible working systems were implemented in public institutions and organizations, and different arrangements were made for the working hours of the personnel. Therefore, it was not possible to reach employees working in the same public service unit at the same time during the data collection process.

Additionally, since this research was conducted in the framework of public employees, it is thought that studies to be conducted with different samples and in the private sector will be beneficial in terms of observing differences and obtaining more in-depth information about the variables. Furthermore, supporting the research with international studies involving different cultures can also provide different perspectives.

**Author statement****Declaration of research and publication ethics**

This study was conducted in accordance with the principles of scientific research and publication ethics.

**Approval of ethics board**

Ethics Committee Approval dated 12.04.2021 and numbered 2021/2/2 was obtained from the Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee of the Social Sciences at Osmaniye Korkut Ata University.

**Author contribution**

This study has two authors. All stages of the study were designed and prepared equally by the authors.

**Conflict of interest**

There is no conflict of interest between any organization or individual.

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