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The Results of Work Models Applied During the COVID-19 Pandemic*

Kemal Temel¹ , Yener Pazarcık² 

Abstract

The aim of this study is to investigate the individual effects and institutional reflections different organizational work models have in terms of employees and to contribute to the field of application and the related literature by explaining their results and effects on work life. The study is based on the phenomenological research design and focuses on the participants' experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic. The study was carried out using the interview method on a volunteer basis with 16 managers. The data were analyzed using MAXQDA 2020 and evaluated by collecting two main categorical themes and 13 sub-themes. The study observed negative aspects such as the ineffectiveness of face-to-face communication, prolonged communication times, experience transfer and socialization problems, and the intertwining of professional life and social life. Positive results were determined such as a reduction in time and money spent on commuting, work flexibility, having the opportunity to spare more time for oneself and family, and reduced office expenses. The following determinations were made: organizations offer different levels of employee support, practices have no standardization, the problems employees experience are preventable with sufficient organizational support, and legal regulations are needed. The results revealed deficiencies to be present in crisis management, the organizations to be unprepared for the crisis, and all organizations to need to review their processes regarding fringe benefits. The study has aimed to contribute to the literature by focusing on the results of the work models that have been applied during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Keywords

Human Resources Management, Organizational Behavior, Working Models, Organizational Practices, COVID-19

*This study is derived from the author's doctoral dissertation titled "A Research to Determine the Individual and Organizational Consequences of Alternative Working Systems in Organizations."

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1. Introduction

Lewis Carroll's phenomenon of the Red Queen Effect inspired biologist L. Van Valen's theory where as one species evolves, other species evolve as well, such that relative competition remains the same. Under current conditions, organizations normal capabilities are no longer sufficient. Real success in professional life can be achieved through innovative initiatives and basic skills that others cannot possess or imitate (Ülgen & Mirze, 2018).

Seeing the environment as a whole in terms of organizations requires knowing all the concepts that affect human behavior, such as family, culture, belief, perceptions, tastes, judgments, and physical characteristics, as well as factors such as technological structure, supply systems, legal regulations, labor power, level of competition, and management styles. Organizations connect to the social, economic, and political elements of societies by creating an ecological structure for their labor force with the environment in which they operate (Hawley, 1986, p. 7). The developments in technology and communication tools in particular have forced the individual and the environment to change, and this process is considered the harbinger of radical changes in the finance, trade, education, and service sectors. Changes in organizations due to the environment can affect individuals and societies not only in business but also socially, culturally, and economically. Because many intertwined factors occur between work life and private life, having a balance between them is important for individuals and organizations (Barnett, 1998).

Organizations' productivity, performance, and sustainability goals and the work models they adopt can get reflected into their employees' private lives (Mušura et al., 2013). This causes organizations to consider innovative approaches more in the way they work (Purvanova, 2014). The ever-changing labor market forces organizations to try to retain talented employees and identify factors that increase organizations' attractiveness (Aiman-Smith et al., 2001). Technology enables innovative human resource practices by offering privileges to organizations in diversifying their work models. Organizations should better understand their employees and develop methods suitable for their needs when applying work models.

Due to globalization and competition, organizations must keep up with models that differ from traditional work models (Ulrich, 1998; Nilles, 1998). The search for the systems organizations will undertake to make their process management sustainable will also activate futuristic organizational structures and bring about the concept of future employee management (Slack, 1991). Understanding the results of the applied work models based on many factors is necessary to understand organizations (George et al., 2006:361). Innovative work models are considered to have flexibility in adapting to changing conditions. Basically, these practices serve the interests of organizations

(Burke, 2000). Due to the positive effects innovative work models have on work and family life, the number of studies on the subject have increased (Dex & Scheibl, 2001).

Experienced developments force radical changes in the meaning, content, and application formats of the concept of work. New models in which space and time flexibility are increasingly used have entered work life and brought about unique phenomena. The new process causes work and social life to intertwine and appears alongside the human resource practices that aim to bring the organization and employees into balance by addressing employees' personal aspects more.

Alternative work models that affect employees' social lives in which work life extends beyond the organization's physical conditions have transformed into mandatory practices due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The pandemic has been accompanied by approaches that have radically changed all processes and work life throughout the world. Although comprehensive studies are found on flexible and remote work models in the literature, the number of studies regarding the results from the alternative work models organizations have had to apply during the pandemic remain insufficient. The current study aims to determine the effects the applied work models have had during the pandemic.

1.1. Developing the Concept of Work

From hunter-gatherer societies to the First Agricultural Revolution, the survival activities of humanity have been evaluated within the concept of work, with ancient humans being thought to have allocated two to four hours a day for these operations (Méda, 2012, pp. 32–37). With the First Agricultural Revolution, the concepts of private property, and management and production where individuals live together have developed and also led to the development of the concepts of government and population growth (Şenel, 1995:28). The Industrial Revolution changed the meaning of the concept of government and caused a new understanding to emerge. With the Industrial Revolution, agricultural societies turned into urbanized factory workers. The Industrial Revolution led to a formal change in the concept of work, separated social life from work life, and developed concepts such as urbanization and unionization. Having developed from the Industrial Revolution to the present day, the concept of work has allowed flexible organizational and employee forms to emerge in which new models are applied (Keser, 2009, pp. 14–25).

Although the concept of work has changed in terms of meaning and form since the first humans to the present, it has not lost its place as the focal point of life (Sabuncuoğlu, 1987, p. 2). The concept of work has evolved from the process of meeting daily individual needs to a process in the Industrial Revolution where people work systematically, which has shaped its current meaning. While having many

definitions, the main concept of work is defined as “the production of goods and services on behalf of oneself or others for material or spiritual benefit by means of one’s physical, mental, or spiritual effort” (Kapız, 2001, p. 1). The common point in all definitions is that individuals create value through production factors in order to meet their material, moral, psychological, and social needs. The concept of work has been influenced by social concepts such as culture, traditions, and beliefs; it shows a developmental process in parallel with humanity and is affected by the social environment in which work is experienced.

To consider the concept of work as the activities that take place just for meeting human needs is not a realistic approach in terms of human resource management. The social and personal areas of individuals who spend almost their entire lives as employees become a part of the concept of work (Chacko, 1983, p. 163). For this reason, evaluating what work means individually and as a social phenomenon rather than just as a shallow definition of meeting needs is necessary to be able to understand the concept of work. Work life involves many different ways of and reasons for working. For example, while the 24-hour shift system is widely used in the health sector, workers in factories work on a 24-hour basis in 8-hour shifts. In addition, many models such as working from home and seasonal work are used by organizations for reasons such as increased employment and greater participation of women in work life. In the recent period in particular, computer and communication technology developments have changed the physical structure of work environments, and this has brought along a process in which new work models are rapidly reflected onto work life. With the COVID-19 pandemic, new work models that intensively benefit from technological infrastructure have become a necessity rather than a preference and are used by many organizations. In this process, employees have been exposed to work models in which organizations have moved away from the physical conditions they offer.

In Turkey, the concept of work is regulated by Labor Law No. 4857. The law regulates contracts that manage work life, such as employee rights, responsibilities, wages, compensation, dismissal, and recruitment processes. Many work models that organizations have applied are determined by these contracts. Organizations design a standard work model with factors such as the work environment, business processes, the way work is done, and the equipment that is used and then make this model available to employees. In this model, employees work under the organization’s physical area of control. In addition, employees are not offered flexibility regarding work hours or location. Employees are responsible for fulfilling their roles in the organization at the place and time expected of them. The applicability of the standard work model is affected by factors such as the sector in which one operates and the work being done. Organizations use different work models depending on factors such as competition, crises, and technological developments.

1.2. Factors Affecting the Concept of Work

The concept of work has been explained as the gains obtained in return for activities undertaken in order to meet individual needs of the individual; it has undergone significant changes, especially with the Industrial Revolution, and has begun to differentiate completely in today's information society. While technology has transformed social life and the environment, it also involves factors that transform work life. Organizations also use innovative human resource practices to keep up with this change. The experienced developments have paved the way for technical advances and resulted in computer-based digital transformations such as autonomous robots, 3D printers, and artificial intelligence, which have started being used in daily life and work life (Şen & Batı, 2020, p. 73). Computers, software, and digital systems have started a process that has changed the meaning of concepts such as workplace, format, and time. Organizations attempt to develop the competencies they need in human resources practices in order to keep up with these changes.

1.2.1. Development of Technology and Communication Tools

The digital systems used in all areas of life have brought innovative human resource practices and eliminated time and space limitations. The process can result in digital systems being replaced by existing systems (Turkish Academy of Sciences, 2020). Communication systems have also changed in connection with technological developments, with face-to-face communication in physical environments being replaced by communication in virtual environments. This situation has been rapidly integrated into work life due to its positive aspects such as speed, time, and economy. The transformation of information into the main source of production has forced organizations to use technological communication tools that are able to access the correct information systems as soon as possible. This situation has paved the way for radical changes in work life and labor planning (Aron, 1967, p. 117). Technology and communication systems have resulted in changes to the traditional organizational structure. Management processes and employment patterns have also been affected by this change with the disappearance of place and time constraints.

1.2.2. Globalization and International Competition

In order to be sustainable, organizations operate a process that affects and is affected by their environment. That they adapt to changing conditions is extremely important in this respect (Çağlar, 2013, p.121). Behind the organizations' desire to adapt to changing conditions exist factors such as productivity, performance, growth, and goal achievement. The developments in technology and communication tools have moved competition from a local environment to an intercontinental environment, and organizations have developed a structure in which they are in constant communication with their employees

and customers through the increase in communication opportunities. These developments have created a flexible structure thanks to the information networks that have forced organizations to compete (Castells, 2013, pp. 326–357). The infrastructure of computers and the Internet has transformed the whole world into a market where one can operate and affect competition. Increased competition has also led organizations to their own specific management and human resource practices.

1.2.3. Socio-Economic Developments and Unemployment

Humanity has moved from being hunter-gatherers to having settled lives through agricultural society; urbanization and production at large levels began with the transition from agricultural society to industrial society, and humanity has reached the present day through the developments in technology, science, and communication found in the information society (Aktan & Tunç, 1998, p. 119). With the development of information technologies, production has evolved from muscle and mechanical power to information power, thus revealing the concept of information society (Webster, 2006, pp. 8–10). Information technologies play a decisive role in economic growth and poverty (Hodrab & Maitah, 2016). Developing technology has revealed new work areas, reduced the need for people in labor-intensive sectors, and accelerated the transition to various work models. While changes in work life have affected sociological and economic life, sociological and economic changes have also changed work life. Production methods, management styles, legal regulations, policies, and cultural changes involve factors that determine unemployment and social life, and organizations adopt different human resource practices in this context.

1.2.4. Sectoral Developments and Generational Differences

Organizations are a part of the sectors in which they operate. While concepts at the sectoral level such as suppliers, customers, and employees show similar characteristics, the concept of competition has also developed in this context. The fact that organizations are under the influence of similar environments forces them to develop features that others cannot easily obtain and that differentiate them from other organizations. Technological developments and advances in information and communication networks have an impact on all business functions, from production processes and supply systems to management styles, sales, and marketing. This has caused a sectoral change in organizations operating in the same field that has been reflected in work styles and brought with it new work models that have no time or place constraints due to the technological developments. Likewise, individual differences such as lifestyles, culture, education, and mentality are reflected in work life. These differences are often evaluated under the concept of generation. Generations are communities that share similar historical processes, that have witnessed the same events, and that share their

social identities (Lagree, 1991, p. 7). Intergenerational differences also include factors that affect work life.

1.2.5. National and Global Crises

Like all living things in nature, organizations are affected by change (Iverson, 1996, p. 122). While organizations survive that are able to adapt to change, those that cannot adapt perish, just like living things. Organizations should adapt their organizational structures by keeping up with the changes experienced regarding competition and sustainability (Tunçer, 2013). In this context, new work models and human resource practices have rapidly been entering work life. However, in addition to the environmental instability, some unexpected and unpredictable situations that affect all individual and their social lives have created risks for organizations, and these situations get grouped under the title of crisis.

Crises occur as a result of many reasons such as pandemics, disasters, war, and political developments. Unexpected, unpredictable, and highly uncertain crises can affect social and work life at the local, national or international level. In addition to the effects on work life, crises also have consequences that affect family life and social life (Kaya, 2002). Crises involve factors that can result in radical changes in work life as well as individual and social consequences. The COVID-19 pandemic that emerged in Wuhan, China in 2019 and quickly impacted the world is also seen as a turning point in terms of individual, social, and work life.

2. Methodology

Interviews are the most preferred method in qualitative research and are a very powerful technique used to reveal individuals' perspectives, feelings, experiences, and perceptions (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). The purpose of the interview method is to enter people's inner world and understand their perspectives (Patton, 1987). As Yıldırım and Şimşek (2013, p. 46) stated in their research that the interview method can be used to analyze role conflicts, work processes, formal and informal communications, employee perceptions, their effects on management functions, and their reflections on individual and family life in organizations that adopt different work practices, as well as managers individual and organizational results. Collecting data using the interview method is thought to be suitable for the purpose of the current study in order to understand it from the eyes of the people and to test the study's arguments.

The questions were determined by scanning the relevant literature and examining the studies on the subject, after which they were first to experts for their opinion. Afterward the final arrangements were made based on the feedback received, and the semi-structured interview form was finalized by interviewing an expert on qualitative research.

This study discusses individual and organizational results such as how employees perceive the different work models that organizations voluntarily or legally implement, how these models reflect on employees' work and family life, their effects on intra-organizational communication and work processes, and role conflicts. The study focuses on the experiences of sector employees who've had different work models applied as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. and it was accepted that it would be correct to Applying the study over different sectors is considered correct for being able to understand the differences in inter-sectoral practices and managerial behaviors. In this respect, the research model uses a phenomenological research design. Phenomenology is used to identify the common aspects as perceived by individuals who've had similar experiences and the essence of the meanings they attribute to these experiences (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). The participants' opinions about their work conditions during the COVID-19 pandemic have been evaluated using qualitative methods with the aim of arriving at the common points that can be obtained (extracted) from their experiences. The study was carried out online due to the pandemic and recorded with the approval of the Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University Scientific Research Ethics Committee.

Research on understanding individuals, the foundation of which was laid with the theory of human relations, still continues with still more research being made by benefitting from many fields of science. Despite the fact that organizations have the same characteristics regarding many issues, different outputs appear as innovative human resource practices. Concepts such as organizational structure, culture, and legal regulations play a decisive role in work conditions. The uncertainty the COVID-19 outbreak caused has forced organizations to implement different work models. In order to determine the results, the employees of organizations that have actively applied these different work models constitute the research population, and the managers who've participated in the research constitute the research sample. In order to determine the study group, the purposeful sampling technique has been used as it can obtain the highest level of data. While purposive sampling allows cases to be handled in detail, it also allows researchers the opportunity to understand cases and explore the relationships between them (Patton, 1987). The current research uses this technique due to the uncertainty of being able to access the study group and the organizations that have implemented work models. Purposeful sampling focuses on the relationship between the research problem and the sample (Sıgı, 2018, pp. 129–130).

During the research, opinions were taken from employees who work under different work models and are thought to have knowledge about the subject; the first participants were determined based on this, and during or after their interview, they directed the researchers to their friends who had experiences appropriate to the research. Thus, participants were also included in the research using the snowball sampling method.

Data saturation and adequacy are important when determining the sample. The minimization or absence of a contributing level of data refers to data saturation, and the level at which the data contributes to the research problem refers to data adequacy (Kanten et al., 2019, p. 943). For this reason, the research was limited to 16 participants on the grounds of data saturation and data adequacy due to number of repeated answers given to the research questions. Table 1 shows the sectors, duties, and interview durations of the participants who were interviewed within the scope of the research.

Table 1
Participating Sector and Task Distribution

National/International	Sector	Duty	Interview Date	Interview Time
International	Cosmetic	Corporate Digital Director (CDO)	27.06.2021	45 min.
National	Retail	Operations manager	02.06.2021	36 min.
National	Energy	Audit Manager	01.06.2021	40 min.
National	Energy	Team leader	04.06.2021	30 min.
International	Cozmetic	Accounting Manager	06.06.2021	30 min.
International	Logistics	Legal Manager	06.06.2021	30 min.
International	Retail	Security Manager	06.06.2021	32 min.
International	Software	System administrator	16.06.2021	30 min.
International	Energy	Financial Controller	06.06.2021	30 min.
National	Energy	Department Manager	13.06.2021	30 min.
International	Cosmetic	Financial Controller	10.06.2021	30 min.
International	Energy	Project Manager	09.06.2021	42 min.
International	Energy	Financial Controller	11.06.2021	30 min.
International	Cosmetic	Financial Controller	09.06.2021	35 min.
International	Energy	Finance manager	09.06.2021	30 min.
National	Retail (Online)	Software Chief	27.06.2021	45 min.
Total				

2.1. Research Problem

Organizations determine their human resource management policies according to the organizational culture, politics, and social processes they adopt (Ferris, et al., 1998). Success is argued to be achievable if common values and understanding are provided within an organization (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). For this reason, organizations have adopted different work policies and applied different work models to help employees balance their work and social lives (Powell & DiMaggio, 1991; Cook, 2009). Policies that integrate social life and work life have been adopted in order to preserve employee productivity and qualified labor power (Barnett, 1999, pp. 151–152). Many factors such as the socio-cultural structure of the environment, the quality of the labor, demographic characteristics, and laws play decisive roles in these processes.

These policies are affected by conditions such as the social-cultural structure of the organizational environment, the labor market and competition. Recently, with the crisis caused by the COVID-19 epidemic, organizations have had to use different working models. The new working models applied have been realized in online environments where technological infrastructure and software are used intensively. The study focuses on the individual and organizational results of the changing conditions, physical infrastructure and traceable new working life. The research question was expressed as follows: “What are the effects that the different work models have had on employees’ family and social lives, and what individual and organizational consequences have reflecting on these effects had on work life?”

3. Findings

The inductive method was followed when determining the research questions, and the data were subjected to content analysis. Content analysis consists of the stages of defining, reviewing, coding, creating themes, and determining and evaluating the findings in order to explain the data (Sıgır, 2018, pp. 186–280). The research data were categorized and coded using thematic content analysis by means of the program MAXQDA 2020. The related codes were connected to each other under the formation of the main themes by considering the repeated words and sentences while coding. In order to ensure the validity and reliability of the research, the created codes were reviewed periodically to avoid generalizations.

3.1. Demographic Findings

The study assessed the participants’ demographic characteristics by associating them with the research problem. Of the participants, 75% are male, and 25% are female; 75% are married, and 25% are single; and all participants have at least a 4-year university degree. While 50% of the participants are 26-35 years old, 50% are in the 36-45 age range. Of the work models, 56.25% were determined to involve remote work, 31.25% hybrid work, 6.25% shift work, and 6.25% classical work models. Of the participants, 62.50% work in international organizations and 37.50% in national organizations.

3.2. Individual Findings

The study was carried out with participants who’d been exposed to work models different from those accepted as the standard work model in their organization’s physical facilities. Although organizations are involved in their work processes, they were determined as having no access to different work models and to even avoid their use. The COVID-19 outbreak is seen as a turning point in the use of different work models. According to the results of the study, individual results were categorized under the

headings of anxiety-psychological wear, communication, balancing work and family life, motivation, personal development, productivity, socialization, and loss of rights, as shown in Figure 1 with respect to frequency.

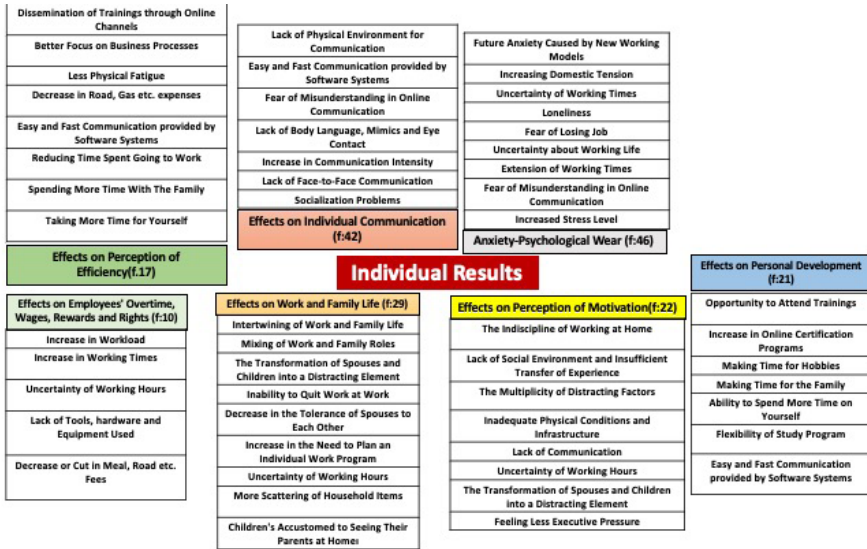


Figure 1. Individual Results of Alternative Working Models

3.2.1. Effects on Individual Communication

According to the research data, the new work models conducted a process that shifted from face-to-face communication to online communication. The number of participants in online communication affects the quality and efficiency of communication. The number of participants and the percentages regarding quality and effectiveness are inversely proportional and its effectiveness is unknown. In addition, online communication methods were determined to be deprived of humane attitudes such as the transfer of experience, socialization, and mimicry and to cause socialization problems by isolating employees.

When you are in the face-to-face work model, you can convey how a person should treat you with body language at least. (Mr. Ö. , 36, Ankara)

Honestly, I felt a bit lonely in that respect because it's not very good not to see people face to face, it's nice to chat with people while working, it's a bit difficult to work from outside every day. In that respect, I may have felt a bit psychologically isolated. (Mr. A., 30, Poland)

The study also shows those who'd never been to an office environment, especially those who'd just started working, to have had more difficulty adapting to the system compared to experienced employees and to also have difficulty communicating. While online communication provides speed and convenience, it also caused problems that

could normally have been solved in a very short time to turn into long processes. In addition, the work models eliminated concepts such as work and work hours, forcing employees to be ready 24/7. One of the biggest obstacles faced by innovative communication processes using technological infrastructure changes depends on whether the employees have sufficient infrastructure and equipment. The inability to question the feedback, which is the most important communication step in online communication, caused individuals to worry about whether they were understood or not. Because the exchange of information during short breaks is out of the question in the new models, the sharing of experience was seen to be interrupted.

We are constantly looking for someone on the teams. Everyone is very busy because everyone is in the same situation. Everyone is calling each other to ask something. Things that could be handled easily began to take more time. The most important thing was this: For example, when we went out to smoke or had dinner together, I could talk to someone for 2 minutes, or when I talked about something that had happened to me, someone could find a solution. (Ms. S., 26, Istanbul)

Especially our newly recruited staff and colleagues started to work from home before they could get used to the environment in the company, without being sincere. In other words, there were friends with whom we had such communication difficulties. We had to part ways with some of them. (Mr. U., 30, Istanbul).

3.2.2. Anxiety and Psychological Wear

According to the results of the research, online work models that do not involve physically going to the organization include factors where employees experience anxiety and are become psychologically worn out. These factors appear as concepts such as misunderstanding, uncertain work hours, attempts to express oneself, fear of losing one's job, and loneliness. With the disappearance of physical controls in particular, a structure in which employees control and internalize themselves was determined to have developed and this internalization to have turned into an element of pressure on employees.

3.2.3. Effects on Work and Family Life

Employees who participated in the study reported being able to spare more time for themselves and their families in the online work models and positively evaluated the flexibility in their work hours. However, employees who are married with children were determined to have difficulties balancing their work and family life, with the new work models causing changes in their domestic roles such as mother, father, and spouse.

Getting rid of the work environment is another advantage, but being at home can cause a different psychological crisis. Because you can't rest at home with your spouse or children, we understood when staying at home during the pandemic that we were actually physically resting while at work, because you cannot get rid of the role of husband and father. (Mr. Y., 38, Çanakkale)

I spend time with my family, so I can do it from any location, yes, it has such beauty. I have to work between 9 p.m.-5:30 a.m., but I have to take care of the baby for 2 hours because my wife is also busy. What happens this time, I have to work overtime to catch up. I have to work long hours at night. My business planning may not be the way I want it to be. (Mr. Ö., 36, Ankara)

While employees consider the new work models as an advantage in terms of flexibly being able to spend more time on themselves and their families, they do not prefer work models not based on office life because they cannot balance work and family life and experience social role conflicts.

Spending more time at home and with my children has been good for me psychologically. To be honest, I feel that way because I'm a mother. In other words, I realized that doing housework, cooking, and taking care of children all the time at home makes me very tired" (Ms. S., 40, Kayseri)

3.2.4. Effects on Perceived Motivation

According to the research data, the change in work models resulted in an adaptation process, to which employees were unable to adjust due to the uncertainty of the processes and their motivation having been negatively affected. This process revealed the concentration and motivation levels to be higher in organizations that had provide their employees with sufficient support. In addition, significant differences were found between single and married employees. Married employees reported being exposed to relatively more distractions and thus were unable to concentrate enough on their work. However, this situation was the opposite for single employees. The absence of distractions and managerial pressure while outside the work environment provided a basis for them to better concentrate on their work and to complete processes more quickly.

I personally need an office environment. I need to take off my pajamas so that I get motivated. Thus, my home office doesn't feel like work to me when I'm sitting at home in my shorts and a shirt. (Mr. Ö., 40, Kayseri)

According to the study results, employees experienced concentration problems due to socialization issues, prolonged work processes, uncertain work hours, and numerous distractions.

3.2.5. Effects on Personal Development

Online systems where the limitations of time and place are eliminated contribute to work life in different ways. The theme of personal development identified within the scope of the study is one of these reflections. Online work systems have left the time spent commuting to work and the flexibility in home work hours to the employees themselves. In addition, the online organization of processes such as training and certification provides a structure where employees can develop themselves as they wish. In addition to improving individual employees' self-development, organizations are able to carry out the training and panel processes they need with lower costs and can involve experts in their processes much faster. Although these processes are seen as an advantage for organizations, the data on their effectiveness remains insufficient.

I was able to get the education online that I should have received by going to another city under normal conditions and staying for 2-3 days. I was entitled to receive a certificate by taking the exam in the province I was in. (Mr. Ö., 40, Kayseri)

We can hold meetings, that we can't normally arrange or invite outside speakers very easily, through Teams because of these logistical conveniences. However, of course, we observe that the quality of interaction provided in those face-to-face meetings decreases when we hold the meetings online. (Ms. M., 41, Istanbul)

3.2.6. Effects on Perceived Efficiency

According to the research data, the employees' perceived efficiency are affected by factors that determine personality traits as well as concepts such as organizational support, work conditions, experience, marital status, and occupation. The study data reflected that employees whom the organizations provide sufficient support focus better on their work, with single employees in particular being able to perform their work functions more efficiently. However, the lack of pressure from checks in the office environment and flexibility in how to do business have a positive effect on productivity. The process is evaluated relatively more negatively for employees who do not receive adequate organizational support and whose home environments are not suitable for working conditions. Providing organizational support when implementing new work models and making managerial, infrastructure, and business processes easier, understandable, and accessible play an important role on efficiency.

It was positive for me; my friends think the opposite, but it was positive for me. I think my productivity has increased. I think I work better, or rather I think I focus better. (Mr. A., 30, Poland)

It had a very serious negative impact. I don't believe there is such a thing as a home office. Frankly, I need an office environment, because I am not a person who works with reports on the computer. (Mr. Ö., 40, Kayseri)

3.2.7. Effects on Employees' Overtime, Wages, Bonuses, and Rights

The research results show the applied work models to not have sufficient regulations on employee rights. While the employees did not suffer any loss in their salaries, losses were determined to occur in terms of fringe benefits and organizational differences related to the subject. No standard applications were found regarding work processes, and different applications were observed through the effect of factors such as organization size, management understanding, and employee approaches. While some organizations meet the needs of their employees such as for computers and Internet access, other organizations adopted a process left things to the employees' own possibilities. Organizations were seen to not comply with the concept of overtime and to communicate with their employees and operate business processes with Internet-based communication tools at all hours. From this point of view, the concept of work hours was seen to have disappeared due to being able to rapidly access employees' online systems. In addition, the study data reflect a serious concern to exist about managers' perceptions of whether or not employees are working because they are not at the office; therefore, efforts are made to have employees be accessible whenever requested.

We were called at lunch during the pandemic, we were called at 1 a.m., we also sat down and held a meeting at 1 a.m. That's why I didn't see much humanism there, frankly. (Mr. N., Istanbul, 33)

It wasn't like this before. Under normal circumstances, we used to work from 7:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m. (Ms. S., 30, Istanbul)

3.3 Organizational Findings

The second main categorical theme obtained within the scope of the study is gathered under the heading of organizational findings. The factors that change at the organizational level are gathered under the sub-headings of belonging, organizational support, work policies, organizational communication, and generational differences, as shown in Figure 2 in accordance to frequency ranges.

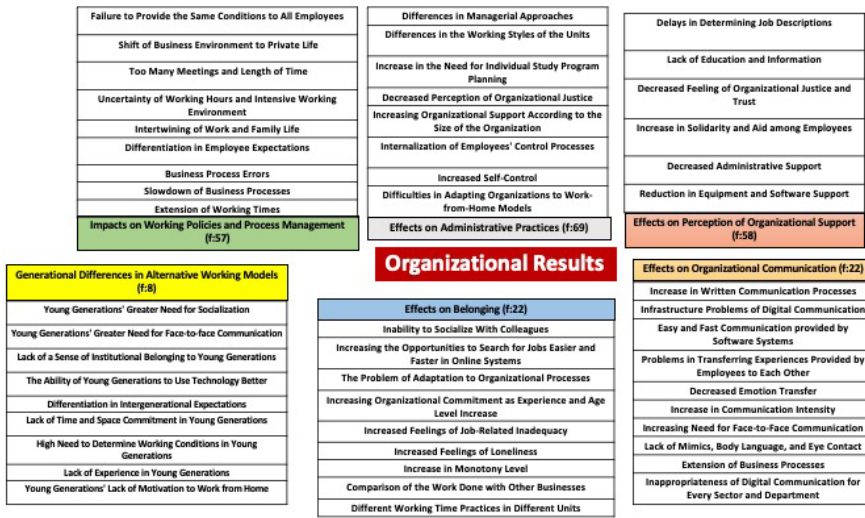


Figure 2. Organizational Findings of Alternative Working Models

3.3.1. Effects on Administrative Practices

The management structure, which determines all of an organization's functions and work processes, fell under the influence of an uncertain environment, as they had not been exposed previously to the COVID-19 pandemic. This situation brought new models regarding work life in which different work models were applied by crisis management. Due to legal and administrative sanctions and health risks to employees, work environments were shifted to employees' social lives. Organizations were forced from a process in which they adjusted and implemented infrastructure and management practices in accordance with their physical environment to a new process in which they tried to adapt to the changing conditions. The pandemic has made management structures and the speed of managers' adaptation to change the determinant of work life. The study data show organizations to have had difficulties adapting to the process with serious uncertainty present before implementing the adaptation, and the organizations to have not been ready for this type of crisis management.

We had a lot of trouble in the first 3 months. We went through this at an incredible level in the 4th month. I tried to complete each task by myself, spending more and more time. But then after the first 3-4 months, everything worked out. Has it become a habit? I don't know how it happened anymore. (Mr. S., 28, Prague)

Within the scope of the research, the employees were seen to be unable to ensure the continuation of the work, a managerial gap to be present, and the processes to be partially completed at the end of a period due to the infrastructure and software deficiencies not meeting organizations' requirements. The problems experienced were

determined to have been identified with attempts made to solve them in the process, and significant differences were seen to occur among the organizations with regard to approaches to solutions.

Of course, we also bought a licensed Zoom program when the epidemic started. At first, we could use it for 1 hour; but after that, the connection was dropped. (Mr. H., 41, Istanbul)

Some things are really learned over time, I'm aware of that. It doesn't seem right to me to say that if I were you, I would have done this. Because there really is uncertainty. (S. Hanım, 30, Istanbul)

Employees experienced in problem-solving reported their working time in the same company to turn into an advantage when managing the process, and they behaved more consciously about when, how, and by whom the work would be done. The uncertainty that was experienced caused variations in employees' work hours as well as anxiety. In addition, the changes to the work environment had taken control away from the manager and transformed into a phenomenon where the employees internalized and checked up on themselves. Managers transformed auditing work into a results-oriented approach and perceived this as getting the job done. They made their employees feel that they were being supervised confidentially.

I had an experienced team. I have been with this company for 7 years. Frankly, it was a very comfortable period for me. It was not a time when I had any difficulties. (Ms. M., 41, Istanbul)

So, we were constantly being asked to do something. For example, at 5:00 pm, it used to be "Let's do this tomorrow morning." But now I had to do this at night. That means staying overtime. It's a constant stress. It was a lot at first, but now it's starting to settle in. (Ms. S., 30, Istanbul)

I think there may have been anxiety about job tracking, because following people's work can be difficult, especially if you are producing a single result in a shared area. (Mr. A., 30, Poland)

I never felt like I had to supervise people, because everyone has their own responsibility related to their work. "Did he do his job? Is the system working properly?" I'd evaluate this result at the end of the day. (Ms. M., 41, Istanbul)

According to the study data, one of the important factors affecting management structure is perceived organizational justice. Employees form a perception by comparing themselves with other employees and other organizational opportunities. This perception is influenced by concepts such as the size of the organization, the support provided, and managerial processes, as well as personal characteristics.

Yes, I think the current company is fair, but my company in Turkey was not at all! (Mr. S., 28, Prague)

As far as we can see from our environment, of course, I do not think that everything is fair. (Mr. N., Istanbul, 33)

I don't believe it's fair. I don't think it's fair. (Ms. B., Kayseri, 40)

Yes, we have exactly the same conditions. There is no difference whatsoever. We are all equal. (Mr. F., 26, Istanbul)

I actually think it's fair because they provided all the material we could use. (M. Bey, 38, Kayseri)

3.3.2. Effects on Perceived Organizational Support

Organizations should consider employees' perceived support in addition to providing them with the support they need to get the job done. In order to fulfill their responsibilities, employees need the support their organizations will offer them, such as equipment, hardware, and software. In addition to the provided infrastructure support, the suitability of managerial processes and managerial support are also important. Within the scope of the study, the degree to which support is realized and employees' perceived support are considered factors that should be addressed separately. Organizations that supply less support than employees expect is considered to signify negative perceived organizational support, and organizations that provide more support than expected is considered to express positive perceived organizational support. Positive and negative perceived organizational support both impact employee factors such as their sense of belonging, performance, and productivity and includes results that directly affect the organization.

When I come to the office, my computer is at hand, and when I want to print something, I can print it out. But I don't have a printer at home. In other words, I collect my office-related work in one day. Obviously, this situation disrupted my routine. (Mr. Ö., 40, Kayseri)

According to the study data, problems were observed to occur regarding providing the equipment that the employees need in this process; although some organizations tended to solve these problems, other organizations left the situation entirely to the employees' own possibilities. Organizations that provide sufficient support for meeting employees' needs are understood to be evaluated positively regarding employee perceptions, and this is reflected onto employee functioning. Organizations that are not prepared to adequately support their employees were understood to experience infrastructure problems and to have different levels of preparation. Two important

problem that were ignored in the work models were the lack of environmental factors that should have been provided to employees outside the organization and the lack of employee training on these subjects.

They sent me a computer by mail from Czechia while I was in Turkey. They said that they can give tables, chairs, equipment and all the support I need so that I can work there more comfortably. They didn't offer anything like paying the Internet fee. My company in Turkey was paying. (Mr. S., 28, Prague)

My Internet was so bad, and this problem didn't seem fixable. There was an infrastructure problem. My Internet was constantly disconnecting. Apart from explaining myself, I could not attend the meetings properly, it was a huge problem for me. (Ms. S., 26, Istanbul)

The speed when you connect the computer to the Internet is not the same as the speed at home, but this is a negligible problem because some companies had no infrastructure at all. They were not ready at all. There was no problem in that direction in terms of connection speed. (Mr. A., 30, Poland)

Employees' expectations and perceptions about support were determined to be reflected in their business processes, and the employees who participated in the research were seen to generally have no expectations from their organizations about the work infrastructure; however, when support was provided, they responded positively. Organizations that had to quickly switch to new work models with the COVID-19 pandemic were determined to need a process for managing the crisis and to have been caught unprepared in terms of infrastructure. Organizations were seen to be unable to provide sufficient support to their employees at the beginning of the process, and the experienced preparation process varied based on the size of the organization, of human resources, and of the economics, as well as the management structure, process management, and managerial approaches.

Normally all our employees have laptops. Apart from that, there are company lines, there is unlimited Internet on the company lines. If there is no Internet in their own home, they have the opportunity to use a mobile phone as a modem and connect. (Mr. H., 41, Istanbul).

The company didn't ask any of us if we had Internet infrastructure. Because each of our employees already had a laptop, I did not have a problem. But the company never asked that. (Ms. B., 41, Kayseri)

Our biggest problem was the lack of computers. Only the admin group had laptops. Everyone else had a desktop computer. If you want your employees to work from home, you need to provide them with computers. We had a little trouble at that time. So, the company was actually not well-prepared in terms of IT. (Ms. A., 34, Istanbul)

Perhaps a little more supportive things can be done psychologically. Don't get too carried away, don't stress. In other words, this process could have been more moderate. (Ms. S., 30, Istanbul)

Employees were understood to have needed information in this process, as in all innovative practices that organizations implement. In addition, an adaptation process was observed to exist: the employees could not reach any standard information system from which they could benefit in this adaptation process, and an informal learning process was experienced where the employees tried to learn by asking each other. Problems were observed to occur in managing the organizational support and support perception process when implementing out-of-office work models.

3.3.3. Working Policies and Process Management

According to the data obtained within the scope of the study, organizations that were not prepared enough for the process were reported to not comply with work hours; therefore, an increase occurred in employee work hours. At the same time, even the simplest transactions slowed down due to the inability to operate the steps of communication. Although the speed of communication has increased, individuals' ability to communicate with each other slowed down due to the increased density. The study's participants felt the concept of standard overtime to not be suitable for today's conditions and to have lost its applicability. Opinions were expressed that different applications will be increasingly used that will reshape white collar work life, especially hybrid work models.

Hybrid models seem to be the most optimal at the moment. (Ms. M., 41, Istanbul)

So, sir, I think this hybrid model will continue. And I definitely think it should be a hybrid model. (Mr. U., 30, Istanbul)

Mixed work models, also known as hybrid work models, are seen to have positive returns for employees and organizations. Hybrid work models have positive effects on organizations' office costs, service fees, and food expenses. Hybrid work models are thought to have more application areas in work life due to reasons such as creating a freer work space for employees, being able to monitor work from anywhere, less time spent on the way to work, and being able to allocate more time to oneself. The change in work models was reported to not be able to be applied to all areas of work, and out-of-organization work models are not yet usable in jobs that need to be managed personally. Employees are always wary of work models that occur outside the physical structure of the organization. Due to reasons such as socialization problems, communication, irregular work hours, effects on family life, and transfer of experience in the master-apprentice relationship, employees want to work in areas within the physical bounds

of the organization for certain periods, and they want the work models that will be implemented in the future to have a structure that includes this.

Maybe in the future it could be like this; We used to go to work for 5 days, now we can go 3 days and work from home for two days. It can make a positive contribution to the company by reducing the costs in the office and the number of floors. (Mr. N., 33, Istanbul)

Due to my job, it is not very likely that I will work remotely. There are things that I need to control in the field, I need to control the productions. (Mr. Ö., 40, Kayseri)

3.3.4. Organizational Communication

Communication in work life is one of the most important factors for getting things done right and on time. Providing infrastructure such as technology, software, telephones, and computers is a prerequisite for realizing communication outside an organization's physical bounds. Even if an organization regulates the communication elements, failures in any prerequisites result in communication barriers. According to the study data, employees do not see online communication as full communication, especially in meetings involving many participants, control cannot be achieved.

For example, I am going to tell something, my voice gets cut off. After that I am misunderstood because half of the sentence is unheard. We had great communication difficulties in this sense. (Ms. S., 26, Istanbul)

How you set the language of communication is up to the administrator. Some managers discard these ice-breaking conversations, some give it a lot of importance. So, in a meeting attended by 20 people like this, it is very apathetic to look at the screen and look at the slide and talk alone. (Ms. M., 41, Istanbul)

The transfer of experience that takes place through face-to-face communication in the office environment was reported to not occur in distance and online communication, and this situation reflects negatively on the organizational culture, employees' sense of belonging, and their professional experience transfer. Employees were determined to attribute different meanings to face-to-face communication, and communicating just for business meetings is not enough. Factors such as body language, facial expressions, sadness, joy, and eye contact are very important for full communication.

Because we don't learn everything just by e-mailing. They also constantly teach us something through social communication: they share their life experiences. (Mr. U., 30, Istanbul)

3.3.5. Sense of Belonging

Sense of organizational belonging is considered an important factor in achieving an organization's goals and objectives. The positivity of this sense of belonging paves the way for a suitable working environment by affecting many processes from personnel turnover rate to organizational image. As with all changes, changes in work conditions also include factors that affect employees. Although not a complete generalization, employees develop an emotional bond with their offices and work environments. In work models where employees stay away from the physical bounds of the organization such as in online and remote work models, processes are observed in which this bond is negatively affected. This process is directly proportional to the time spent in the organization. With the change in work models, employees can take advantage of being able to spare more time for themselves and engage in different pursuits. According to the study results, good work conditions, regulated communications, and administrative processes positively affect the formation of a sense of belonging.

A sense of belonging is a very important thing for companies. I think that creating a sense of belonging is definitely a difficult process. For example, young teams like to work overtime. It has never been possible or very difficult for a fully online platform to keep the feelings of commitment and belonging and relationships as warm and close as before. (Ms. M., 41, Istanbul)

I might not have been able to find a job so easily in Europe. When I was at home, I did my work very comfortably. Because while I was going to a job, I wouldn't be able to do these things or realize my idea of changing jobs. Because think about it this way, I'm already working from home, I don't need to go to work, I can work with any company in the world I want. (Mr. S., 28, Prague)

In such periods, when you are alone with yourself, you can turn to other things. Job interviews are happening, other things are happening, you are not sure whether you feel competent or not. The sense of belonging may have diminished a little. (Mr. A., 30, Poland)

3.3.6. Generational Differences

The study determined the relationship between work models and generational differences. Age-related changes were observed in processes such as employee expectations, compliance, and use regarding the data obtained through the research. Young employees were also reported to be more active and successful, especially in applications with a technological infrastructure, and to be more inclined toward new work models. For this reason, considering intergenerational differences is important in the application of work models.

What I observed was that the age of our team is usually between 27 and 35. Younger friends do not have a very long commitment to the organization. They tend to change jobs more often. But they make good use of the technological possibilities. They are more inclined to these digital things. So, they like things like remote work, a little more flexible work, and working from home. (Mr. U., Istanbul, 41)

The offline world created an environment where they socialized, and their sense of belonging increased. It's a bad thing that it's disappearing in new generations right now. (Ms. M., 41, Istanbul)

4. Discussion

Organizational success is related to the strategies and management policies they implement. In this context, human resource practices directly affect the strategic vision, which is the path to success (Gratton & Truss, 2003). The conflict between organizational strategies and practices can turn into a problem by creating uncertainty (Ferris, et al., 1998). In addition, even when organizational strategies and policies are compatible, managerial practices and employee perceptions can prevent the targeted results from being realized. In this context, managers' roles regarding human resource practices is at the center of the process (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). Organizational policies and practices are mostly shaped by managers' own decisions (Cooper & Baird, 2015). For this reason, even when an organization is suitable and willing to implement different work models, a lack of managerial support may not allow employees to access or benefit from the applications (McNamara et al., 2012).

The development of technology, computers, and communication systems has led to a more comprehensive, continuously monitored structure in which the field of control expands in work life and the individual internalizes control (Barker, 2005). The creation of an auditable work life is based on the comprehensive provision of all data. This concept, which Bauman described as "fear of uncertainty," causes an internalization in which individuals are constantly monitored and employees control themselves (as cited in Foucault, 2005). In today's work life, many organizations apply different work models in order to balance their employees' work and non-work lives. Not enough information exists about the effects of work models that are used as a strategy for retaining and attracting qualified employees based on institutional policies (De Sivatte & Guadamillas, 2013). Studies on understanding employees, whose foundations were laid with the theory of human relations, still benefit from many branches of science today. Despite organizations having similar structural characteristics, the most important factor in obtaining different performance and production outputs is human resources, which is a reference for different applications. As a result of many scientific studies, understanding the structure of the individual only within the organization is understood to be unrealistic; the effects of one's social structure on concepts such as productivity,

performance, and belonging should be considered as a whole, as well as the effect of life outside of work on work life. This situation mutually affects individuals' personal and social lives, as well as organizations' management and functioning.

5. Conclusion

Human resource practices, in which awareness has increased with the development of approaches that have begun to evaluate management as a science, are increasingly making their weight felt these days. The fact that the effect of physical conditions and wages on individual motivation in particular is lower compared to abstract concepts such as perception, expectation, and inference is an indication that no single truth or result exists when dealing with human beings. The foundations of the importance of the psychological, social, and individual aspects of human beings in work life as in all fields have been laid out, with a different perspective being provided to the science of management. This perspective emphasizes the concept of efficiency in organizations as the basis of all approaches understanding, directing, and determining individual behaviors. Today, human behaviors and approaches that are rapidly changing alongside the environment and technology are accompanied by a work life in which work conditions are also changing rapidly. This situation creates a change in the conceptualization of the workplace, one that shifts from the physical area of the organization to the social life of the individual. In work models that have distanced employees from the physical conditions of the organization, the control area is shifted from the manager to the employee, with supervision being internalized by the employee.

Alternative work models offer employees a more independent work structure and work environment where they can control themselves. However, the research data show a process which organizations offer and often compel employees, rather than a model where employees can choose based on their own wishes and opinions. Employees were determined to be unable to make a full choice between the concepts of the office environment and working from home and to experience a dilemma. While the lack of reminders in the physical environment of the organization complicates the problems that can be solved in a short time, online systems are considered an opportunity for organizations with the convenience and speed they provide in recruitment processes. The current study has also determined the concept of transfer of experience in the workplace environment to not occur in the new work models, the reflections of generational differences to become more evident on work life, and young workers to experience more socialization problems.

Alternative work models cause changes in responsibility areas such as housework and child care in family life, showing that male workers have become more involved

in housework. The process is reflected onto family life and causes role conflicts by deteriorating the balance in the roles of mother, father, and spouse.

New work models have completely changed the concept of time and place in work life, eliminating the necessity of being physically present in any country or city, providing organizations with an important opportunity to reach the professionals of the business and making them their employees, while also providing individuals with the opportunity to become employees of many organizations. The epidemic has reshaped the form and meaning of the concept of work, completely changing the field of control, management practices, and internal roles by removing employees from the physical environment of the organization.

The intensity of communication is reported to have increased with digital software and technological infrastructure, and a new order has emerged in which employees are in constant communication. However, the communications that do take place are seen to lack human aspects such as body language, facial expressions, and eye contact, with communication taking place only for business not being perceived as real communication. The intensity of communication has been determined to be a factor of pressure on employees, with employees' work hours and social life being mixed. In addition, the increase in communications using digital systems has started a difficult process in which every employee has to plan and balance their communication time. Problems that can be solved in a very short time in the office environment take more time due to the increasing amount of communication that occurs in out-of-office work models having a negative impact on business processes.

In alternative work models where employees are deprived of reminders in the office environment, problems that used to be easily resolved where employees used to be able to intervene quickly upon seeing a problem now turn into protracted difficult-to-solve problems. In addition, employees used to exchange information and transfer their experiences very efficiently during coffee, cigarette, and tea breaks that were given in the office environment, but they are now deprived of this opportunity in the new work models.

New applications where recruitment and interview processes are carried out online were determined to have been rapidly included in business life during the pandemic. This can be considered as an opportunity for fast and easy recruitment processes with time and space flexibility. New models transform individuals all over the world into organizations' employee potential. However, the sense of belonging and adaptation processes of employees who do not meet face-to-face and who cannot physically come to the organization should be closely monitored.

In alternative work models, infrastructure support for things such as software and hardware is seen to be an absolute condition for the uninterrupted execution of business

processes. In organizations where this support is not provided, employees have been determined to experience anxiety in addition to the interruption of work due to the perception that they are not working. Managerial attitudes toward employees were evaluated as one factor affecting employees' anxiety levels.

Future research should focus on being able to reveal the effects of talent sharing, experience transfer, organizational culture, and generational differences in alternative work models, things which have also been reflected in the data from the current study. In addition, studies on the internalization of supervision and change in employees' managerial roles regarding alternative work models may also contribute to the literature.

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The Effect of Job Insecurity on Job Performance During The Covid-19 Pandemic: The Moderating Role of Employee Resilience

Bekir Değirmenci¹

Abstract

In recent months, the devastating effects of the Covid-19 pandemic on humanity in 2020 and 2021 have frequently been discussed in academic circles. We conducted this study to measure the perceived job insecurity, resilience, and task performance of employees during the pandemic period. The sample group of the study comprises employees. First, we designed the questionnaire form. We used the convenience sampling method with the help of the online method. The data obtained from 453 employees who agreed to take part in the study made up the sample group. We analyzed the collected data with the quantitative research method. As an analysis method, we used "descriptive statistics, direct and mediated regression, and independent sample t-test". In the light of the analysis, it was determined that the level of perceived job insecurity of the employees is medium, and the level of psychological resilience and task performance is high. In addition, we concluded that psychological resilience affects task performance positively and significantly. It was determined that perceived job insecurity is higher for women than for men. Business owners and managers supporting their employees psychologically and financially are helping to ease the painful effects of the pandemic.

Keywords

Covid-19 Epidemic, Disease, Perceived job insecurity, Employee Resilience, Job Performance, Employees

Jel Codes: D23, J64, L1

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1. Introduction

In general, measures to alleviate the effects of the Covid-19 pandemic brought production to a standstill in many sectors. The Covid-19 pandemic has had some negative effects on the labor market. During the epidemic, there was a record increase in unemployment in the world. In addition, an increase in working from home (online) was observed in some business lines during the pandemic period (Noyan-Yalmanlı, et al., 2021, p. 1125).

Within the scope of this study, we aimed to reveal the moderator role of psychological resilience in the effect of perceived job insecurity (negative moods) of employees on task performance during the Covid-19 period. During the Covid-19 period, we witnessed some events that deeply hurt human health and job markets. Within the scope of the research, we used perceived job insecurity as an independent variable, task performance as a dependent variable, and resilience as a moderator variable. Perceived job insecurity is a stressful process associated with distress and negative emotions. Given the negative repercussions of such events on employee moods, there is little research examining the possible psychological effects of perceived job insecurity during pandemics. In the literature, many related topics, such as perceived job insecurity, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, emotional commitment, emotional exhaustion, intention to leave, individual-organization fit, organizational citizenship, anxiety level, internal job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and coping with uncertainty strategies have been investigated (Pelenk, 2020, p. 215).

The literature includes many studies examining job insecurity and its effects on the psychological mood of employees (Ashford et al., 1989; Catalano et al., 1986; Cobb and Kasl, 1977; Dekker and Schaufeli, 1995; De Witte, 1997; Fryer and Payne, 1986; Greenhalgh, L. and Rosenblatt, 1984; Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984). In another study, job insecurity was examined in the conceptual dimension (Jacobson, 1991). In an academic study, job insecurity was explained as the perception of the threat of losing one's job and related concerns. In the related study, it was mentioned that in the emergence of the phenomenon of job insecurity, the fact that the employee is aware of the loss of his job (cognitive) and the determination of the reaction state (emotional) corresponding to the objective condition is an important issue (Orçanlı, 2019: p. 76). De Witte (1999) examined the effects of employees' perceptions of job insecurity on their psychological well-being, based on a literature study. Sverke et al. (2002) conducted meta-analysis studies on the effects of job insecurity in workplaces.

The concept of resilience has been defined in different ways by scientists. There is no consensus in the literature on a single definition of the concept of resilience. For example, Kyle (1985) studied the approach from an economic perspective as the ability of markets to recover from a liquidity shock. Hollnagel et al. (2006) clarified

the concept as the ability of engineering structures to withstand environmental disasters such as floods or earthquakes. Rutter (1987) examined the concept of resilience as the psychological ability of people to recover from environmental stressors. Holling (2001) focused on the socio-ecological perspective of resilience as the responses of societies, ecosystems, and businesses to changes in the environment. However, most of the research on resilience in the management discipline utilizes positive psychology at the level of individual analysis. The concept of employee resilience as organizational commitment and job satisfaction was explained in a study conducted by Youssef and Luthans (2007). In another study, resilience was described as a commitment to change (Shien et al., 2002; Act. Aguiar-Quintana, 2021, p. 2). When all the definitions related to the concept of durability are examined, it is clear that different disciplines such as economics, management, philosophy, and engineering sciences define the term differently.

When we examine the studies conducted in Turkey, very few studies have investigated the perceived job insecurity and related psychological effects on employees during the Covid-19 pandemic (Yüce-Selvi and Sümer, 2018; Demirbağ et al., 2021). According to the latest estimates of the International Labor Organization (2020), around 340 million workers worldwide lost their jobs in the second half of 2020 due to the COVID-19 epidemic (Lin et al., 2021, p. 317). Topics such as the recession caused by Covid-19 in the economy (for example, economic welfare and financial losses), employment uncertainty, perceived job insecurity, and an examination of the effects of Covid-19 on the perceived job insecurity of employees are emphasized on social media (Brenan, 2020; Nebehay and Mutikani, 2020).

In a recent study, the concept of task performance was explained as the employee's contribution to the enterprise as a result of fulfilling his work responsibilities (Pelenk, 2020, p. 214). Scientists examining the relationship between perceived job insecurity and job performance base their studies on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960) and resource conservation theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Acaray, 2019, p. 134). Resilience studies, which express the process of overcoming a stressful situation and coping with stress, are largely based on the field of developmental psychology (Erdoğan and Ak, 2021, p.435). In the light of these explanations, we designed our study to answer some questions. The main problem situations of the study are as follows:

- Does perceived job insecurity affect job performance?
- Does perceived job insecurity affect resilience?
- Does resilience affect task performance?
- Does employees resilience have a moderator role in the effect of perceived job insecurity on job performance?

- Does perceived job insecurity differ by gender?
- Does resilience differ by gender?

We think that the findings obtained from this study, which was developed to answer the above-mentioned research questions, will make positive contributions to the literature.

2. Literature Review and Development of Hypotheses

Periods of perceived job insecurity (i.e. permanent job loss or temporary job stoppage) because of challenges in social life and on the job market cause serious damage to the mental health of employees (Forbes and Krueger, 2019; Margerison-Zilko, 2016). Some observe that natural events such as recent global wars and pandemics, earthquakes, and floods affect the mood of employees (Forbes and Krueger, 2019). In another study on the subject, job insecurity, job satisfaction and individual-organization harmony were explained in a conceptual framework and the relationships of the related concepts were revealed in a field study. According to the research findings, there is no significant relationship between the dimensions of individual-organization fit and the perceived job insecurity, and the dimensions of job satisfaction and job insecurity perception. Only the relationship between person-organization fit and job satisfaction is significant, and person-organization fit has a positive explanatory effect on job satisfaction. Therefore, it can be said that businesses that make an effort to adapt their employees to the organization will increase the satisfaction of their employees and achieve more productive results (Şimşek İlkim and Derin, 2018, p. 238).

Perceived job insecurity is a negative mood process that hinders the continuity and stability of employment and is seen as a threat by employees (Shoss, 2017). Perceived job insecurity is often seen in times of economic recession. The Covid-19 epidemic, which emerged in 2020, has seriously threatened humanity in terms of economy and health. The negative moods caused by the epidemic triggered a peak in the perceived job insecurity of employees (Chen et al., 2020). Frequent layoffs and wage cuts by businesses in times of economic crisis cause perceived job insecurity in employees. When employees feel job insecurity, they naturally develop a reaction to it. These reactions manifest themselves in performance decline, resistance, and intention to quit (Günalan, 2020, p. 118). Today, employees who are faced with the danger of job insecurity due to technological, economic, and global factors generally perceive this process negatively (Pelenk, 2020, p. 217).

Perceived job insecurity is when a worker entertains negative impressions about the fear of failing his work. In the literature, perceived job insecurity is dealt with as an essential work stressor and is identified with individual and organizational issues such as low job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Wilson et al., 2020). Employees

with a good understanding of perceived job insecurity tend to act separately in terms of job attitude, psychological well-being, and job performance (Sverke et al., 2002; De Witte, 1999). In the meta-analysis studies of Sverke et al. (2002), it was determined that there was a negative relationship between perceived job insecurity and job satisfaction, job participation, organizational commitment, mental health, and performance variables, and a positive relationship between turnover intention. Another study has shown that the perception of perceived job insecurity reduces the job performance of the employees (Acaray, 2021, p.131). In another study, perceived job insecurity, which is defined as the concern for the future continuity of the current job, was presented as one of the extremely serious causes of stress in a person's working life. The findings of a related study revealed the negative impact of the concern about the continuity of the work on the general well-being of the employees, their psychological and physical health, and their work-life (Yüce-Selvi and Sümer, 2018, p. 2).

Psychological resilience is a science that tries to reveal how individuals can withstand the difficulties they face. According to the researchers, the primary premise of resilience is adversity (a difficult situation) and its main result is positive adjustment (Onan et al., 2019: pp. 3277-3278). Although the concept of resilience is phrased in different ways such as "indomitableness, recovery, resilience, endurance" in the national literature, it is generally expressed as "resilience" in English. Psychological resilience is the occurrence of an event that will distress the individual and the process of positive adaptation to this event (Erdoğan et al., 2021, p. 435).

The literature review revealed that perceived job insecurity is negatively related to job performance. In other words, as perceived job insecurity of employees increases, their job performance decreases, and on the contrary, as perceived job insecurity decreases, their job performance increases (Cheng va Chan, 2008; Gilboa et al., 2008; Schreurs et al., 2012). There are studies with the opposite findings of this inverse relationship, namely the negative relationship between perceived job insecurity and job performance. For example, according to Staufienbiel and König (2010), perceived job insecurity positively affects the performance of employees because employees who are afraid of being fired may be more motivated to work (Aguilar-Quintana, 2021, p. 4). Wu (2011) investigated the moderator role that individual emotional intelligence can play in reducing the effects of job stress on job performance. Schreurs et al. (2012) revealed that social support (for example, manager and colleague support) has a moderating role in the relationship between perceived job insecurity and employee performance. Another study showed that hotel employees with high resilience are more likely to reduce and transform the potential negative effects of job stress on job performance than those with low resilience (Aguilar-Quintana, 2021, p. 7). In the light of these findings, we developed the following six hypotheses.

H₁: Perceived job insecurity affects psychological resilience.

H₂: Psychological resilience affects task performance.

H₃: Perceived job insecurity affects job performance.

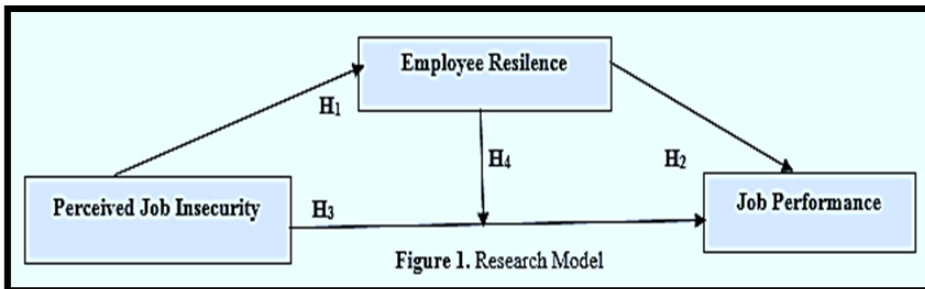
H₄: Psychological resilience has a moderator role on the effect of perceived job insecurity on task performance.

H₅: Perceived job insecurity differs by gender.

H₆: Psychological resilience differs according to gender.

3. Methodology

The quantitative method was used in this study. We gained access to the sample group using the online method between April and July 2020, when data collection was difficult due to the Covid-19 disease. We guided the participants using an online questionnaire, the convenience sampling method, and the “Whatsapp” program on their mobile phones. In the questionnaire form, we included a statement that all information would be kept confidential and that the study was voluntary. The study represents a longitudinal study. The scale used in the research benefited from the study of Aguiar-Quintana (2021). The scale used in the related study consists of three variables. These variables consist of a total of 21 items: “perceived job insecurity (8 items), task performance (3 items), and psychological resilience (10 items)”. When previous studies on the measurement of job insecurity were examined we noted that Pelenk (2020, p. 221) had benefited from the scale he used in his study in De Witte (2020). In his study, Eryeşil (2021) used four expressions to measure the perception of job insecurity. The “Job Insecurity Scale” used in this study was taken from the studies of Orçanlı et al. (2020).



To measure the study variables, we adopted the scales from previous studies. All items of the scales were assessed with a five-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. This study was inspired by the study of Aguiar-Quintana

(2021), which covers “hotel employees in the Canary Islands of Spain”. Data were collected from 453 employees. Firstly, the validity and reliability analysis of the scale used in the study was conducted.

3.1. Construct Validity

To determine the construct validity of the scale adopted in the investigation, firstly, CR (Composite Reliability = Combined Reliability) and AVE (Average Variance Extracted = Average Explained Variance) values were measured. Similar tests are seen in Table 1. In addition, factor load values of the terms (items) used in the scale are given in Table 1.

Table 1
Construct Validity

Factor Name	Items	Factor Loading	AVE	CR
Perceived job insecurity	J11	0.926	0.56	0.91
	J12	0.914		
	J13	0.780		
	J14	0.520		
	J15	0.685		
	J16	0.656		
	J17	0.780		
	J18	0.632		
Job Performance	JP1	0.633	0.66	0.80
	JP2	0.457		
	JP3	0.890		
Employee Resilience	ER1	0.701	0.50	0.91
	ER2	0.688		
	ER3	0.625		
	ER4	0.617		
	ER5	0.770		
	ER6	0.640		
	ER7	0.719		
	ER8	0.664		
	ER9	0.898		
	ER10	0.693		

Considering the threshold values for construct validity, the literature shows that the limit value for the AVE value is “0.50” and the CR value is “0.70” (Değirmenci and Aytakin, 2021, p. 97). As seen in Table 1, it was determined that the AVE and CR values of the three variables used in the scale were above the limit value. Results were obtained within acceptable limits for the job insecurity variable (AVE= 0.56 and CR= 0.91), task performance (AVE= 0.66 and CR= 0.80) and psychological resilience variable (AVE= 0.50 and CR= 0.91). In this case, it was revealed that the results of the analysis regarding the construct validity of the scale were within acceptable limits. It

was determined that the item load values of 21 expressions used in the study ranged from “0.457 to 0.926” (Table 1).

3.2. Discriminant Validity

We show the findings regarding discriminant validity in Table 2.

Table 2
Discriminant Validity

Variables	1	2	3
Perceived job insecurity	0.75*		
Job Performance	-0.025	0.81*	
Employee Resilience	-0.117	0.179	0.71*

*Values in bold are the black root of AVE values.

As showed in Table 2, we noted that there was a divorce between the variables. Then, the discriminant validity of the scale we adopted was accepted. We concluded that it is useful to apply the scale as it is.

3.3. Findings

In this part of the study, we explain the findings on descriptive statistics for variables and statistical testing of hypotheses.

Table 3
Descriptive Analysis Findings

Variables	Mean	Result
Perceived job insecurity	2.68	I agree moderately
Job Performance	4.18	I largely agree
Employee Resilience	3.96	I largely agree

When the answers provided by the respondents to the points in the questionnaire were reviewed, we discovered that the greatest average was “job performance” and the lowest average was “perceived job insecurity” variable (Table 3). Regarding the average of the answers given by the sample group to the statements in the questionnaire, the “2.61-3.40” range represents a medium level of agreement, and the range of “3.41-4.20” represents a high level of agreement (Table 3).

We applied statistical analyzes in the form of three hypotheses developed within the scope of the study (H_1 , H_2 , and H_3), one hypothesis moderator effect (H_4), and two hypotheses H_5 and H_6 difference tests. In this direction, we used Model 1 for testing the 4th Hypothesis from Model 4 in the Process Macro program developed by Hayes (2013) for testing the first three hypotheses. We used the “independent sample t-test” to test the last two hypotheses. We show the analysis results for the direct effect in Table 4.

Table 4
Findings Related to Simple Impact Analysis

HYPOTHESIS NO	RELATIONSHIPS	B	R2	%95 BIAS-CORRECTED BOOTSTRAP CI	P VALUE	T-VALUE
H1	JI→ER	-.0021	-	[-.0461, .0419]	.9266	-.0921
H2	ER→JP	.0857***	0,03	[.0417, .1297]	.0001	3.82
H3	JI→JP	-.0121	-	[-.0565, .0322]	.5919	-.54

Abbreviations: JI: Perceived job insecurity, JP: Job Performance, ER: Employee Resilience

As a result of the analysis for the simple effect, the H1 hypothesis, that is, the effect of perceived job insecurity on resilience, is statistically accepted ($b = -.0021$, 95% CI [-.0461, .0419], $t = -.0921$, $p > .005$). This is because the p-value (.9266) was found. In other words, it is above the “0.05” significance value. However, the H₁ hypothesis was not supported because the confidence interval values included zero (Table 4). We found that the effect of resilience on task performance was positive and statistically significant ($b = .0857$, 95% CI [.0417, .1297], $t = .382$, $p < .005$). We found that resilience explained approximately $R^2 = 3\%$ of the change in task performance (Table 4). In this case, the H₂ hypothesis was supported. We found that perceived job insecurity had no effect on task performance ($b = -.0121$, 95% CI [-.0565, .0322], $t = -.54$, $p > .005$). In this case, the H₃ hypothesis was not supported.

Table 5, presents the findings regarding the moderator role of employees resilience in the effect of perceived job insecurity on job performance.

Table 5
Findings on Moderating Impact Analysis

HYPOTHESIS NO	RELATIONSHIPS	B	95% BIAS-CORRECTED BOOTSTRAP CI	P VALUE	T-VALUE
H4	JI→ER→JP	.0109	[-0380, .0598]	.6622	3.84

We found that employee resilience did not have a moderator role in the effect of perceived job insecurity on job performance ($b = .0109$, 95% CI [-.0380, .0598], $t = 3.84$, $p > .005$). As a result of the statistical analysis we conducted, it was concluded that there was no regulatory effect because the “p” value was meaningless (0.6622) and the confidence interval values included zero. In this case, the H₄ hypothesis was not supported.

In Table 6 and Table 7, we show the findings regarding the independent sample t-test.

Table 6

Independent Sample T-Test (Dependent Variable Perceived job insecurity)

Gender	N	Mean	S.S.	S.D.	t	p
Female	122	2.83	0.44	451	4.435	0.000
Male	331	2.62	0.47			

According to the independent samples t-test results, we found that the perceived job insecurity levels of female employees (mean= 2.83) were significantly higher than that of male employees (mean= 2.62) ($p < 0.005$). In this case, we accepted the H_5 hypothesis.

Table 7

Independent Sample t-test (Employee Resilience)

Gender	N	Mean	S.S.	S.D.	t	p
Female	122	3.91	0.36	451	-1.727	0.085
Male	331	3.97	0.33			

According to the independent samples t-test results, we found that there was no significant difference between the psychological resilience levels of male and female employees ($p = 0.085$ and $p > 0.05$). In this case, the H_6 hypothesis was not supported.

4. Conclusion

In this study, in which we investigated the moderator role of psychological resilience on the effect of perceived job insecurity of employees on task performance, we obtained some findings. Since 2020, the Covid-19 pandemic, which has deeply affected the fate of humanity and caused much loss of life, serious health problems, psychological destruction, and job loss, has deeply affected people’s businesses and private lives. In this study, which was carried out during this difficult process, we measured the thoughts of employees about perceived job insecurity, psychological resilience, and task performance during the Covid-19 period. We collected data from 453 employees with the help of a random sampling method. Considering how difficult the data collection took place during the Covid-19 process, we estimate that this number has the power to represent the universe.

Within the scope of the study, we first included analyzes to reveal the construct and discriminant validity of the three-dimensional scale. As a result of our statistical analysis, we decided that the scale used in the study was valid and that it would be appropriate to test the hypotheses. In the analyzes we conducted in order to test the hypotheses, we noticed that the perceived job insecurity levels of the employees were moderate. We determined that the level of psychological resilience and employee performance levels were at high levels.

In our analysis to test the hypotheses, we first revealed that perceived job insecurity does not affect resilience. Second, we found that resilience positively and significantly affects job performance. We reported that the state of employees' resilience explains approximately 3% of the change in job performance. Third, we concluded that perceived job insecurity does not affect job performance. When the literature is examined, it can be seen that job insecurity negatively affects job performance (Pelenk, 2020, p. 227). In this respect, our study may differ from its predecessors. Fourth, the moderating effect of employees resilience could not be detected. We found that perceived job insecurity differs significantly by gender. We found that female employees have a higher level of perceived job insecurity than male employees. Finally, we noticed that the resilience levels of the employees did not differ according to gender.

5. Discussion

In recent years, the Covid-19 pandemic has caused disruptions in the psychological, physical and economic structures of societies. One of these disadvantages has been the job insecurity of employees. We believe that measuring employees' perception of job insecurity during this difficult pandemic process will make a positive contribution to the literature.

It has been emphasized in academic studies that perceived job insecurity in times of global "economic crisis" increases the depression and anxiety levels of employees. Perceived job insecurity during the Covid-19 period (decrease in driving hours due to the pandemic, wage cuts, temporary or permanent dismissals) individually influences the attitude of employees (Burgard et al., p. 2012. It is known that the Covid-19 pandemic negatively affected the psychology and living conditions of employees (Wilson et al., 2020, p. 690). Studies which make these negative effects known make a valuable contribution to the literature. (Lin et al., 2021, p. 325).

In empirical studies, it was found that perceived job insecurity is individually associated with job performance (Cheng and Chan, 2008; Gilboa et al., 2008), while in another meta-analysis study, the relationship between perceived job insecurity and employee performance was not significant (Sverke et al., 2002). In another academic study, it was claimed that perceived job insecurity reduces the employee's task performance. Among the findings of the related study, it was determined that innovative behavior has a moderator role in the relationship between job insecurity and task performance. This result shows that by changing the perceived job insecurity of employees with innovative behaviors, they gain an awareness and reflect this in their job performance (Pelenk, 2020: 19). In another academic study, it was found that job insecurity does not have any effect on task performance, as in the current study (Acaray, 2019, p. 129). The findings obtained within the scope of this study, show

similarities with the findings of the study conducted by Sverke et al. (2002). The finding in the study of Acaray (2019, p. 143) that “the expected negative relationship between perceived job insecurity and task performance is statistically significant” is consistent with the finding obtained in this study.

In Hofstede’s (1980) study, Turkey was included in the group of countries showing “high power distance”, “low individualism”, “high uncertainty avoidance” and “feminine characteristics” (Act. Premise and art., 2016, p. 260). In another academic study conducted in Turkey, which takes Hofstede’s model as an example, it was claimed that “the Turkish people value women and have a socialist structure” (Bilgin, 2020, p. 3). When the academic research results of Bilgin (2020) inspired by Hofstede’s study and the findings obtained in this study are compared, the finding that the perception of job insecurity of female employees is higher than that of males is compatible with the literature.

In a recent study, it was revealed that corresponding to the resource conservation theory (RCT), individual characteristics and social support are resources that reduce the effects of stress factors (i.e. perceived job insecurity) on performance outcomes (i.e. task performance). In addition to all these explanations, the support received from managers and colleagues can reduce the negative effects of perceived job insecurity and job performance (Schreurs et al., 2012). In another study, it was determined that hotel employees with high psychological resilience were more likely to reduce the potential negative effects of job stress on job performance than employees with low resilience (Aguiar-Quintana, 2021, p. 7). It was determined that perceived qualitative job insecurity has a negative effect on organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization, and organizational support plays a regulatory role in this effect (Acaray, 2019, p. 129).

5.1. Theoretical and Practical Implications

We claim that the findings obtained from this study have contributed to the theory and that we have developed some suggestions for practitioners. An examination of our study in terms of findings shows, firstly, that we found the level of perceived job insecurity of the employees to be moderate. At the beginning of the study, that is, before data collection, the expectation was that the level of perceived job insecurity of the employees was high, but the results were not in this direction. The findings of the study made two important contributions to the literature. The first of these is that resilience is an important trigger of task performance. The second contribution is the determination that perceived job insecurity is higher in females than in males.

In the light of this study, it would be useful to carry out some proposals to business owners and supervisors. To detail them:

- First, in light of the ravaging effects of the Covid-19 pandemic, businesses can take action to reduce the negative impact of the pandemic on employees. Businesses can develop clear and understandable operating procedures and guidelines during the pandemic to relieve the negative effects of the Covid-19 pandemic.
- Secondly, it is seen that the concept of perceived job insecurity worsens the psychological mood of the employees, leading to dysfunctional work behavior and a decrease in the quality of life. Business owners and managers should take measures to reduce the anxiety of employees regarding job insecurity. For example, businesses can support their employees by staying in constant communication with them about occupational safety during the pandemic.
- Psychological and financial support should be provided to employees during the pandemic process. Even when employees are not at work, no wage cuts or dismissals should be made. Business owners and managers should always support their employees and give them confidence.
- Today, competition, globalization, and technological developments lead businesses to take measures to maintain their existence. At this point, although it is seen as the easiest solution to dismiss employees, it would be appropriate not to consider and implement such an alternative. Job insecurity practices such as dismissal and salary cuts, due to the social effects of such practices and their devastating effects on the family institution, might not be the best solution.
- Managers should make their employees feel that they are always there for them. Managers must constantly motivate their employees. They should make their employees believe that they will be only moderately affected by the competitive conditions on the market.
- Managers should be in effective communication with employees to improve the conditions that create job insecurity in employees. In addition, it may be recommended to plan and implement procedures for the predictability of the operation in the working environment. Job designs that can strengthen the individual-organization harmony should be made, the training needs of the employees should be analyzed, and activities should be carried out to adopt an organizational culture (Acaray, 2019, p. 144).
- The findings obtained as a result of the study show that female employees have higher perceptions of job insecurity due to stress and dismissal anxiety than males. Managers should find solutions to help their female employees through some motivating and supportive in-service practices to relieve them mentally.

5.2. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Studies

There are some limitations to the study. First, the study was carried out during the pandemic period, which had devastating effects on humanity. During such a period it was difficult to collect data. For this reason, many business owners and managers did not allow face-to-face meetings, interviews, and surveys during the pandemic period. In this unfavorable scenario, they made an effort to collect data in the virtual environment using the simple random sampling method. In this respect, we encountered difficulties while collecting the study data. Secondly, the data obtained from this study were findings to measure perceived job insecurity, psychological resilience, and task performance of the employees. The data collected within the scope of the study are based entirely on the participants' self-assessment. In future studies, it is recommended that business owners and managers are consulted on the topic of job insecurity. We see the lack of practice of the study in different cultures and for different participant groups as an important deficiency.

It would be appropriate to make some suggestions for future studies. Conducting cross-sectional studies at different times, in different cultures, will contribute to enriching the literature. In addition, in this study, perceived job insecurity is discussed in terms of resilience and task performance. In future studies, we recommend an examination of the mediation and regulatory effects of variables such as organizational support, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and workaholism in the relationship between perceived job insecurity and job performance.

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Attitude Towards Marketing Surveys: The Comparison of Student and Non-Student Samples

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Abstract

Using student samples in marketing research is a debated issue. This study aims to test the differences in attitude towards surveys and marketing surveys between student and non-student samples, the variation differences in attitude towards surveys and marketing surveys between student and non-student sample, the differences among sample groups by means of the impact of different types of promised incentive. The sample of the study consists of two convenient sample groups (student and non-student samples). The survey was applied online and face-to-face to randomly selected 94 college students and 90 non-student individuals. The results demonstrate that there is a difference in attitude towards surveys but not for marketing surveys. While results measuring survey value results are mixed, there is no difference in variation of attitude towards marketing surveys for student and non-student samples. Also, no significant differences exist for the incentives related to the attitude towards marketing surveys.

Keywords

Student sample, Generalizability, Marketing research, Marketing survey attitude

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1. Introduction

Marketing research relies mostly on student samples in empirical testing which is an issue that social scientists have debated about its benefits and dangers in recent years (Ashraf & Merunka, 2017; Peterson, 2001). Due to the convenience and low cost of using student sample, it has been a much-used data source, especially for academic researchers (Cunningham, Anderson, & Murphy, 1974, p. 399; Enis, Cox, & Stafford, 1972; Gordon, Slade, & Schmitt, 1986). However, considering the differences between individuals in life periods, college students are thought to have “less defined attitudes, less formulated self-feelings, stronger cognitive skills, stronger tendency to conform to authority and more unstable peer-group relationships compared to non-student adults” (Sears, 1986, p. 515). This argument has been the most important criticism about the use of student samples especially in theory tests. Some of the studies show that the students are separated into different groups both in theory development and in the answers given to the questionnaires (Burnett & Dunne, 1986). Besides, it has been claimed that student samples are more homogenous than non-student samples (Peterson, 2001). Therefore, several questions were raised related to representativeness, generalizability and comparability of student samples.

Despite all these arguments above, there are also proponents of using student samples in research. They state that using a student sample in research is not wrong, but researchers should be more careful about the data obtained from the student sample in reaching the generalizable results, and the biases that will affect the results should be minimized (Ashraf & Merunka, 2017; Henry, 2008). Even some researchers defend using student samples on theory testing related to human behaviors and psychological investigations (Kardes, 1996; Lucas, 2003). Thus, it would be more appropriate to evaluate research according to the scope of the theory to be examined or the main purpose of the study, rather than avoiding the student sample usage.

Some of the studies (Clevenger, Lazier, & Clark, 1965; Cunningham et al., 1974; Espinosa & Ortinau, 2016) reveal the socio-psychological and behavioral similarities of the general consumers, especially in marketing studies of the student sample. In order to examine whether the student sample differs from the non-student sample, it is necessary to examine whether there is a difference between the two independent samples.

2. Concept and Hypotheses Development

In general, marketing research tends to study the attitudes towards a particular product or a service to examine the buying potential of individuals. Since willingness to participate in surveys affects the quality of the research results, it is vital to understand primarily the individuals' attitude towards marketing surveys in order to obtain an

accurate source of information. Therefore, this study seeks to measure the attitude towards marketing surveys to reveal whether there is a difference between students and non-student adults. Additionally, the postulate that students are more homogenous than non-student adults should also be investigated. The second aim of this study is to analyze the variation of the student and non-student samples to examine the homogeneity of these two samples.

2.1. Generalizability issue

Debate on student sample usage tended to concentrate on whether the results obtained from the student sample are generalizable to the non-student population (Peterson & Merunka, 2014). Researchers conducting studies based on student samples “should be able to demonstrate that their results are generalizable to situations that they want to shed light on in real life” (Bello, Leung, Radebaugh, Tung, & van Witteloostuijn, 2009, p. 362).

Generalizability is often expressed as “external validity”. Campbell (1957), who put forward the concept for the first time, stated that external validity means the effect under research can be generalized to research population, environment and variables. In theoretical research, it is thought that external validity should be questioned primarily and research with poor external validity does not test the theory adequately (Calder, Phillips, & Tybout, 1982). Providing external validity can be in two ways (Ashraf & Merunka, 2017): (1) the better a study design explains real-life events (the study needs to be repeated in different samples), (2) or the more precise and holistic a study in terms of theoretical simulation, the more it can be generalizable.

Another type of study is the generalization of the data obtained from the student sample to the student population only. This is called “partial generalization”. If the aim of the research is not to generalize results to the whole population, sampling student subjects can be appropriate for the study (Compeau, Marcolin, Kelley, & Higgins, 2012). Considering that the student sample has a homogenous structure (Peterson, 2001) and unique characteristics (Sears, 1986), it is thought that the sample characteristics can be easily transferred to other student groups. For example, if marketing researchers only want to examine the effect of students’ attitudes towards an innovative product, such research can be conducted without generalizability issues.

Using the heterogeneous non-student sample is considered to be the best way to analyze entire consumer behavior in a holistic manner in marketing research. However, taking its cost-effectiveness and convenience into consideration, it would not be wrong to use a student sample that is properly explained and can be generalized to other consumer groups. According to Compeau et al. (2012), generalizable results of student-based research can be presented if “(a) students are part of the population, (b) or similar conditions are aligned” (p. 1100).

As mentioned earlier, some studies claim that student samples differ from non-student consumer samples in certain respects (Burnett & Dunne, 1986; Enis et al., 1972; Ford, 2016; Peterson, 2001; Sears, 1986). However, it is the researchers' task to explain whether the studies they conducted with a student sample represent consumer groups and are applicable to the whole population. This can be done by comparing the distributions of the sample or by explaining the similar characteristics of the sample with the research population of the study (Ferber, 1977). In this study, we examine whether the student sample has similar characteristics with the non-student sample. Within this context, we focus on the generalizability of the student sample to the non-student sample examining their attitude towards marketing surveys.

2.2. Attitude towards marketing surveys

An attitude towards a certain behavior occurs in relation to the belief that behavior will have positive results (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). In other words, behavioral beliefs create the attitude towards a behavior. Surveys are a source of strength that uniquely gathers the desired information about the society. Therefore, it is necessary to evaluate the attitudes of the individuals participating in the survey and to reveal their preferences correctly.

Although the examination of the attitude towards surveys first dates back to the past (Sjoberg, 1955), there are a few studies in the literature since then. Surveys are frequently used in research methods. The attitude of the respondents towards questionnaires affects many factors on the data obtained, especially the data quality. (Rogelberg, Fisher, Maynard, Hakel, & Horvath, 2001). On the other hand, it is proposed that studies can be conducted in order to validate findings internally and externally using non-student samples (Le, Cheng, Lee & Jain, 2012: 613).

According to Goyder (1986), respondents who show a positive attitude towards surveys are usually individuals who have responded to a survey before. Respondents, who did not want to respond to a survey for the first time but were persuaded for the second time, show a negative attitude towards the surveys (Stinchcombe, Jones, & Sheatsley, 1981). In this case, it can be said that first of all, the past survey experiences of the respondents will shape their attitude towards the surveys. On the other hand, private or sensitive questions in surveys negatively affect respondents' attitudes towards surveys (Stocké, 2006). Using closed-ended questions instead of open-ended questions is also time-efficient, making it easier for participants to answer questionnaires voluntarily (Rogelberg et al., 2001).

Survey attitude measure consists of two dimensions: survey enjoyment and survey value (Rogelberg et al., 2001). These dimensions are the most important factors that affect the attitude towards surveys are the enjoyment and value of the surveys (de

Leeuw, Hox, Silber, Struminskaya, & Vis, 2019; Rogelberg et al., 2001). Respondents who find answering the questionnaire enjoyable or valuable show a positive attitude towards the surveys. Survey enjoyment represents the positive perception of individuals towards surveys. To assess whether the respondents like to participate in surveys and the difference between student sample and non-student sample, we hypothesized:

H1a: Significant differences exist in the attitude towards survey enjoyment between students and non-student samples.

Survey value reflects the individual's own attributed importance to the surveys. A respondent who thinks that much can be learned from information gathered from the surveys finds the surveys valuable. To reveal if there's a difference between student sample and non-student sample according to the survey value, we hypothesized:

H1b: Significant differences exist in the attitude towards survey value between students and non-student samples.

After measuring the attitude towards surveys, we investigate the attitude towards marketing surveys. Marketing surveys generally try to gather information for a particular product or a service in order to understand the buying potential of the individuals. Implications of marketing surveys help academicians or marketers to figure out consumers' needs and their expectations. In order to obtain an accurate source of information from the consumers, academicians or companies need to understand the attitude towards marketing surveys at first (Roster, Rogers, Hozier, Baker, & Albaum, 2007; Singh, Howell, & Rhoads, 1990). As mentioned before, marketing research heavily relies on student samples and it is important to investigate whether student samples provide an accurate estimation of the consumer population itself. Thus, we hypothesized:

H2: Significant differences exist in the attitude towards marketing surveys between student and non-student samples.

The assumption that college students are more homogenous than non-student adults (Ashraf & Merunka, 2017; Calder, Phillips, & Tybout, 1981; Greenberg, 1987; Peterson, 2001; Peterson & Merunka, 2014; Sears, 1986) is substantive in social sciences research. Researchers claim that similar demographic and psychographic features of college students cause less variation according to answers given in the surveys (Peterson & Merunka, 2014; Sears, 1986). Current research examines whether there is a difference in the variation in the attitude towards surveys and marketing surveys. Thus, we hypothesized:

H3a: Significant differences exist in the variation of attitude towards survey value for students and non-student samples.

H3b: Significant differences exist in the variation of attitude towards survey enjoyment for students and non-student samples.

H4: Significant differences exist in the variation of attitude towards marketing surveys for students and non-student samples.

To encourage the willingness to participate in surveys, incentives are also a tool to increase participation. Some reasons that incentives increase participation are (Ryu, Couper, & Marans, 2005); (1) participant's cost-benefit calculation for the completion of survey, (2) positive attitudes towards a favorable incentive, (3) reciprocity whereby the respondent feels obligated to fill the survey, (4) leveraging salience towards the survey. For the college students, incentives would be extra credits, small gifts, or cash (Espinosa & Ortinau, 2016; Groves, Cialdini, & Couper, 1992; Ryu et al., 2005). While students are more eager to favor incentives to participate in surveys (Malaviya & John, 2001; Tangpong & Ro, 2008), non-student adults can find incentives meaningless. Also, some researchers consider students as volunteer research participants, so they think that college students will be eager to participate in surveys. To reveal whether there is a difference between student and non-student study groups related to survey incentives, we hypothesized:

H5: Significant differences exist in the incentives for attitude towards marketing surveys for study groups.

3. Method

3.1. Sampling Procedure

The sample of the study consists of both student and non-student individuals. Gordon et al. (1986) asserted that to present the strongest proof of generalizable results, data should be collected from student and non-student subjects under exact conditions. Therefore, two convenient sample groups (student and non-student samples) were selected for the current study. 184 usable responses were returned in total from the 220 questionnaires. College students are randomly selected from a major state university located in the south of Turkey and the non-student sample consists of individuals residing in the same region. The survey was applied online and face-to-face to randomly selected individuals on a voluntary basis, 94 college students and 90 non-student individuals volunteered to participate in the study and answered the statements in the questionnaire. In case of survey studies using combination of different survey modes, it is still ambiguous whether there are significant differences among survey modes. It is important by whom the surveys are answered rather than how they are answered for the representation of the sample (Lindhjem & Navrud, 2011).

This study was carried out in two stages. First, the participants were asked to answer the statements about measuring their attitude towards surveys. In the second stage, scenarios were read by the participants. In order to investigate the effect of incentives on study variables for student sample, each attendee was randomly assigned to one of the three scenarios (e.g., volunteer participation, 5 points extra credit, and 10 Turkish Liras) and for non-student sample, each attendee was randomly assigned to one of the two scenarios (volunteer participation and 10 Turkish Liras). In the scenario, respondents are asked to participate in a survey that will take approximately 15 minutes to complete in a scientific research on marketing at the university. In the following scenario of the questionnaire, respondents are asked to complete the survey on attitude towards marketing surveys.

The student respondents consisted of 63% female (n=59), and 35% male (n=35) and the non-student respondents consisted of 56% female (n=50) and 44% male (n=40). The mean age of the student sample was 22,01 years (SD=1.94) and the mean age of the non-student sample was 35,56 years (SD=10.46). The age of the students ranged from 18 to 26 and the age of the non-student subjects ranged from 23 to 66.

3.2. Measurements

The statements in the questionnaire consist of closed-ended scale items to be responded easily. In order to measure survey value and survey enjoyment dimensions, the scale developed by Rogelberg et al. (2001) was used. Overall attitudinal score was formed with a five-point continuous rating scales, where each scale point is narratively described as ranging from 1=totally disagree to 5=totally agree. By following the suggestions on adjective-pairs of the item pool developed by Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1957), the scale used by Bosnjak and Batinic (2002) was adapted to form the attitude towards marketing surveys scale. In order to facilitate a comparison over their attitudes, the respondents were given a standardized list of bipolar adjective-pairs on a seven-point scale ranging from 1=good to 7=bad, 1=positive to 7=negative and 1=interesting to 7=not interesting, 1=fine to 7=not fine (Appendix A. Survey Questionnaire).

3.3. Validity and Reliability

SPSS AMOS was used to perform confirmatory factor analysis on the data obtained in this empirical study. As a result of confirmatory factor analysis CMIN/DF = 1.976 \leq 3 ($p = 0.000 < 0.001$), CFI = 0.968 \geq 0.9, IFI = 0.968 \geq 0.9 and RMSEA = 0.073 \leq 0.08 values were obtained. The wellness indices calculated as a result of CFA show that the scales have a good fit (Schermelele-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003).

Table 1
Reliability and Validity Assessments

Variable	Items	Factor Loading	AVE	CR	Cronbach's Alpha
Survey Enjoyment	SE1	0.514	0.659	0.846	0.814
	SE2	0.946			
	SE3	0.905			
Survey Value	SV1	0.799	0.486	0.737	0.729
	SV2	0.635			
	SV3	0.646			
Attitude Towards Marketing Survey	MS1	0.826	0.610	0.860	0.871
	MS2	0.932			
	MS3	0.646			
	MS4	0.687			

According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), as a conservative estimator of convergence validity, they stated that the calculated mean variance (AVE) should be higher than 0.5. On the other hand, if the AVE is less than 0.5 and the compound reliability (CR) is higher than 0.6, it is known that the convergent validity of the construct is still sufficient (Fornell & Larcker, 1981, p. 46). Accordingly, as seen in Table 1, convergence validity of the scales used in the study can be accepted.

4. Data Analysis and Results

The aim of the research is to test the equality of means and variations among independent samples. Widely used test statistics for the equality of means are ANOVA, Welch, and Brown-Forsythe (Brown & Forsythe, 1974). Since assumption related problems such as sensitivity to a lack of homogeneity of within group variances or deviation from normality of the distributions in ANOVA, Welch or Brown-Forsythe tests are alternatively used (Brown & Forsythe, 1974). On the other hand, in case of the distributions deviate from normality, the Welch test is known to perform reasonably better than the Brown-Forsythe (Gamage & Weerahandi, 1998).

Homogeneity or variability of two sample groups (i.e., student and non-student) was investigated by assessing the variance of the response to the questionnaire variables. F-ratio tests were conducted to compare the difference between variations of the study groups. The summary of the research results of the hypotheses are provided in Table 2.

The first three hypotheses are to investigate whether the student sample represent the population in terms of attitude towards survey. Welch test shows the differences between two independent samples. The test results indicate that, on average, attitude towards survey value of student sample (StudATSV = 4.22) are significantly different than those attitude towards survey value of non-student sample (NonStudATSV = 3.95; $p < .05$). Thus, H1a is supported. The test results also support differences in the

attitude towards survey enjoyment between student and non-student samples (sample (StudATSE = 3.40; NonStudATSE = 3.04; $p < .05$), providing empirical evidence supporting H1b. H2 predicts that there is a difference between student and non-student sample according to the attitude towards marketing surveys. The test results fail to support differences in the attitude towards marketing surveys between student and non-student samples (StudATMS = 4.78; NonStudATMS = 4.81; $p > .05$); thus; H2 is not supported.

To investigate the postulate that students are more homogenous than non-student adults, H3a, H3b and H4 predicts that there is a difference between student and non-student samples according to the homogeneity. Hypothesis testing the differences in the variation of attitude towards survey value between students and non-student samples is supported (StudVariatATSV = 0.472; NonStudVariatATSV = 0.843; $p < .05$). On the other hand, the test results did not support the differences in the variation of attitude towards survey enjoyment between students and non-student samples (StudVariatATSE = 1.077; NonStudVariatATSE = 1.394; $p > .05$). Hypothesis H4, concerning differences in the variation of attitude towards marketing surveys for students and non-student samples is not supported (StudVariatATMS = 2.046; NonStudVariatATMS = 2.166; $p > .05$). The test results did not provide empirical evidence that, there are any significant differences in the incentives for attitude towards marketing surveys for study groups ($p > .05$), thus H5 is not supported.

Table 2

Overview of the results of hypothesis testing

Hypotheses	n	M	SE	σ	σ^2	Welch F-value / F ratio	Results
H1a: Significant differences exist in the attitude towards survey enjoyment between student and non-student samples.	[n = 94] [n = 90]	3,40 3,04	0,11 0,12	1,04 1,18	1,081 1,392	5,003*	Supported (0,027<0,05)
H1b: Significant differences exist in the attitude towards survey value between student and non-student samples.	[n = 94] [n = 90]	4,22 3,95	0,07 0,09	0,68 0,92	0,462 0,846	4,860*	Supported (0,029<0,05)
H2: Significant differences exist in the attitude towards marketing surveys between student and non-student samples.	[n = 94] [n = 90]	4,78 4,81	0,15 0,16	1,43 1,47	2,044 2,160	0,022*	Not supported (0,881>0,05)
H3a: Significant differences exist in the variation of attitude towards survey value for students and non-student samples.	[n = 94] [n = 90]	4,216 3,952	0,070 0,096	0,687 0,918	0,472 0,843	1,783**	Supported (0,0031<0,05)

H3b: Significant differences exist in the variation of attitude towards survey enjoyment for students and non-student samples.	[n = 94] [n = 90]	3,403 3,037	0,107 0,124	1,037 1,180	1,077 1,394	1,294**	Not supported (0,109>0,05)
H4: Significant differences exist in the variation of attitude towards marketing surveys for students and non-student samples.	[n = 94] [n = 90]	4,781 4,813	0,147 0,155	1,430 1,471	2,046 2,166	1,058**	Not supported (0,392>0,05)
H5: Significant differences exist in the incentives for attitude towards marketing surveys for study groups.	[n = 30] [n = 34] [n = 30] [n = 45] [n = 45]	5,066 5,014 4,233 4,783 4,844	0,307 0,212 0,225 0,224 0,216	1,682 1,236 1,236 1,506 1,453	2,829 1,527 1,527 2,268 2,111	1,962*	Not Supported (0,108>0,05)

Note: *Welch test results; ** F-ratio test results.

5. Discussion

This study focuses on providing perspectives for future research based on the differences between student and non-student samples. As regards to dimensions of attitude towards surveys (e.g., survey enjoyment, survey value), the results of H1a and H1b show that there is a significant difference between student and non-student samples. However, the results of H2 show that there is no any significant difference between student and non-student samples according to the attitude towards marketing surveys.

By testing the variation of two independent samples, we examined the degree of similarity of student and non-student samples separately. The results of H3a show that significant differences exist in the variation of attitude towards survey enjoyment for student and non-student samples. These results may confirm the assumption that students are affected from common demographic and psychographic characteristics (Peterson, 2001; Peterson & Merunka, 2014; Sears, 1986) while participating in a survey. However, the results of H3b and H4 shows that significant differences do not exist in the variation of attitude towards survey enjoyment and attitude towards marketing surveys for student and non-student samples.

As can be seen, the results are mixed. These results show that it is not certain that students differ completely from non-student adults and “homogeneity of a sample group should not be based primarily on demographic groups, but should also use pertinent non-demographic factors including attitudinal, affective, psychographic, knowledge, experiential and motivational factors”(Espinosa & Ortinau, 2016). The accurate representativeness of student samples for the whole population can only be achieved by replication of studies with non-student samples. Therefore, generalizability of student samples still remains as an empirical question.

While conducting a research, researchers' task is to identify and scrutinize the target population. Besides, researchers should be careful about the data obtained from the student sample to reach the generalizable results. When applicable, source of data should be enriched by using non-student subjects and the biases that will affect the results should be minimized.

These findings suggest that, by specifying certain conditions, the differences between student and non-student samples can be eliminated and these two samples may show similar characteristics in experimental studies.

Another finding of this study shows the fact that incentives do not have an effect on groups is a proof of the similarities between student and non-student samples. This study has been carried out in a city located in south of Turkey, study findings of the data obtained from students and non-student individuals reflect the cultural characteristics of respondents. Turkey, which has a high power distance, is known as a collectivist culture (Hofstede, 2001). In this cultural framework, it was observed that the attitude of the non-student sample towards the questionnaire was similar to the student sample as a result of the individuals participating in the study giving institutional information about participating in the survey (information that it was a research conducted at the university).

In this study, the attitude variable towards the marketing surveys was discussed. In this way, it was aimed to determine the differences of the samples according to their responses to the variables, as well as to determine the attitude towards the surveys. For the future studies, more generalizable ideas can be formed with the results of whether there are differences according to different marketing variables.

6. Limitations and Future Research

These results may differ for different surveys or scales. For the attitude towards marketing surveys, culture can also be a differentiating factor for the results. Therefore, different results can be observed for different cultures. The respondents of the attitude towards marketing surveys are those who accept to complete the survey, so the sample cannot be generalized as it does not include those who do not agree to participate in the survey. In terms of incentives, this study focused on extra credits and cash. Nowadays, most of the studies conduct their research using online surveys, thus, incentives like internet discount coupons or coupons for a membership of a web site can be investigated.

It is suggested that the results of this study, like many other studies conducted in the field of social sciences, cannot be generalized due to the fact that results are limited only to respondents of this study and these results should be expanded with studies that will be carried out on different samples in different cultures.

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Workplace Flexibility and Organizational Commitment: The Mediator Role of Psychological Contract

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Abstract

In this study, the mediator role of the psychological contract on the effect of workplace flexibility on organizational commitment was examined.

The sample of the research consists of 112 participants working in different sectors and positions in Istanbul. To test the research hypotheses, Simple Regression Analysis and Hierarchical Regression Analysis were performed.

As a result of the analyses, the full mediator role of the relational psychological contract and the partial mediator role of the transactional psychological contract on the relationship between workplace flexibility and affective commitment and normative commitment were determined. With the inclusion of continuance commitment in the analysis as a dependent variable, the mediating role of both types of psychological contracts did not occur.

Organizations can influence their employees' psychological contracts and increase their commitment to the organization by providing flexibility in the work environment.

There is a limited number of national studies in which employees' perceptions of flexible practices in the workplace are considered. Also, it is predicted that examining flexibility within the scope of different models will contribute to the field.

Keywords

Workplace Flexibility, Organizational Commitment, Relational Psychological Contract, Transactional Psychological Contract

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1. Introduction

Many organizations are attempting to create a flexible workplace to help employees better balance their work and family (and personal) responsibilities (Galinsky *et al.*, 2011: pp.142-143; French *et al.*, 2011: pp.36-37). From the company perspective, the issue of flexibility has become more important because of some factors such as increased competition (McCarragher and Daniels, 2002), the attraction of talent (Arthur and Cook, 2003; Jones *et al.*, 2006), productivity pressures, and the need for a 24/7 available workforce (Glynn *et al.*, 2002; Kodz *et al.*, 2002); from the employee perspective, this issue is important due to the increasing interest in private life, the length of weekly working hours, the increase of women's employment, and the number of single-parent families (Sutton and Noe, 2005: pp. 151-152).

Flexibility is an important phenomenon for both employers and employees (Pitt-Catsouphes and Matz-Costa, 2008: p.219). Employers prefer flexible working practices to deal with customer demands and reduce labor costs (Armstrong, 2006: p. 384; Dex and Smith, 2002: p.10) whereas employees prefer them to deal with their responsibilities outside of work (Halpern and Murphy, 2005: p.25). Through flexible working practices, both employers and employees can cope with various demands more easily.

The framework of employment relationship is not only shaped by the written rules, but it is also shaped by the expectations of the parties. These expectations are called psychological contracts in the literature (Rousseau, 1995). The expectations of the parties in the employment relations differ from each other. An employer expects honesty, commitment, and productivity; an employee expects justice, respect, equality, and appreciation (Sabuncuoglu and Tuz, 2013). According to Anderson and Schalk (1998), flexibility is an important factor, in addition to factors such as new technology, globalization, and job insecurity, that causes psychological contracts to be included in more and more studies. A model was created by Guest (1998) regarding the causes and consequences of psychological contract. While HRM policies/practices were considered as one of the causes, variables such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and motivation are considered within the scope of its results.

Specifically, the flexible working opportunities offered by the employer can positively predict the type of psychological contract of the employees, and the psychological contract can positively predict the attitudes of the employees towards the organization.

2. Workplace Flexibility

In the literature, there are two different perspectives on flexibility (Hill *et al.*, 2008: pp.150-151). Flexibility definitions may differ according to these perspectives. Flexibility, from the most common point of view, involves the organization's adaptation to the changing environment and its quicker reaction (Grenier *et al.*, 1997). This

definition addresses flexibility as a strategic tool for the organization. Practices that make it easier for the organization to meet environmental demands indirectly affect people and communities in a positive way (Fleetwood, 2007: p. 387). For example, from the organizational perspective, the “compressed workweek” is used to respond to customer demands whereas for employees, it helps them to spare time for childcare. Another type of working flexibly, “teleworking,” can enable an employee to volunteer in social responsibility projects as well as controlling the costs of the organization (Hill *et al.*, 2008: pp.150-151).

The second perspective of flexibility in the workplace addresses the subject in terms of employees. This perspective covers flexibility options offered to employees and aims to increase the ability to meet personal, family, professional, and social needs (Hill *et al.*, 2008: pp.150-151) and benefits individuals directly. This type of flexibility allows the employee to decide when, where, and for how long to deal with their job-related tasks (Hill *et al.*, 2008: p. 152) and also provides an alternative to the traditional weekly 5-day, 9-5 work schedule (Eaton, 2003). A flexible workplace can offer employees the following options (Pitt-Catsouphes and Smyer, 2006: p.3);

-Flexibility about working hours (flexible working schedules, compressed work-weeks ...)

-Flexibility about the number of working hours (full-time jobs, part-time jobs, reduced working hours, job sharing, gradual retirement)

-Flexibility for the workplace (telework or alternative work locations)

-Task-related flexibility (re-designing the work considering the experiences, skills, and preferences of the elderly employee)

Different theoretical approaches have been proposed related to workplace flexibility. These are job control, work-family conflict, and border theory. According to the job control theory, the main concepts related to flexible work practices are employees' perceptions of control over working hours and perceived work autonomy (Fonner and Roloff, 2010; Gajendran and Harrison, 2007). In respect to the work-family conflict approach, workplace flexibility can reduce the work-family conflict (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). In terms of border theory, which suggests that individuals switch between different roles, flexible work practices facilitate transitions between these borders (Kossek and Lautsch, 2007).

Flexibility is a concept that leads to positive results such as attracting talented people towards the organization, retaining them in the organization, increasing morale and job satisfaction, increasing productivity, and reducing stress and burnout (Friedman, 2012). One of the most important advantages of using flexible work practices or

accessing flexible practices is increased well-being, low levels of stress, and health problems; a second main benefit is the high level of focus and satisfaction (Kossek and Michel, 2011: p. 36).

Scandura and Lankau (1997: p. 378) suggested that the advantages and disadvantages of flexible working hours are addressed in various studies; their advantages are low stress, increased job enrichment, autonomy, job satisfaction, productivity, and decreased tardiness and absenteeism. They argued that their disadvantages were problems with job coordination and work programs, the difficulty of managing employees in flexible hours, and changes in organizational culture.

3. Psychological Contract

The origins of the concept of psychological contract and traces of its initial development are based on the work of Argyris (1960), Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl, and Solley (1962), and Schein (1965) (cit., Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2000).

According to Rousseau (1995), the psychological contract is an agreement based on the exchange between the employee and the employer; according to Kotter (1973), it is an implicit contract that determines what the employee and the employer expect to give and receive from each other in their relationships. Thus, when an individual participates in the organization, they expect to be promoted, to receive salaries and status from the organization, and to give the organization their technical skills, time, energy, and loyalty; the organization expects to receive what the employee hopes to give and give what the employee hopes to receive.

Rousseau explained this concept in 2003 (p.234) as follows: *“Although subjective, an individual’s psychological contract is grounded in the social reality of others who believe they have reciprocal obligations with the individual and presumably share a common understanding of the nature of those obligations.”*

As long as the parties understand that they are working with reciprocal feelings like loyalty and commitment, they will have a certain degree of common expectation (Rousseau, 1995). For example, while the employee is waiting for a safe work environment, justice, respect, equality, and appreciation; the employer also expects employees to strive, be reliable, have responsibility, follow the rules, and show commitment (Sabuncuoglu and Tuz, 2013). Although labor contracts are comprehensive, they are unlikely to contain items that regulate all aspects of the employment relationship. Therefore, psychological contracts reduce uncertainty by providing settlement employment conditions. Employees feel secure by considering an agreed agreement with their employers (Shore and Tetrick, 1994).

The three states (mutuality, alignment, and reciprocity) that characterize the psychological contract may increase the probability of contract fulfillment or decrease in its absence. “Mutuality” means the degree of mutual belief of two or more parties regarding the terms of the contract. “Alignment” is the degree of proportionality or balance of employee and employer obligations. “Reciprocity”, on the other hand, indicates the degree to which the parties declare their obligations (Rousseau, 2011: p.201).

Psychological contracts, as schemas, are often incomplete at the beginning of employment relationships and motivate employees to seek new information to better understand employment relationships. Depending on whether (a) the information sources are of high quality (reliable and clear) and (b) there is consistent information among the sources, different psychological contracts are expected to emerge (Rousseau, 2001: p.523). A contract, like most other schemas, becomes a stable and durable mental model or schema (Rousseau, 2001: p.512). However, the persistence of schemas about the employment relationships creates difficulties when organizations and their conditions change (Rousseau, 2003: p.234).

In 2018, Rousseau, Hansen, and Tomprou proposed a stepwise model for psychological contract processes in which the functions of key variables (e.g., promises, obligations, contributions, and incentives) change over time and context. In this model, the phases are identified as “creation, maintenance, renegotiation and repair”. For example, an employer’s promises, which is one of these key variables, are less related to the beliefs and behaviors of the employee in the stabilization of the psychological contract (i.e. maintenance phase); it is even more important for a newly hired employee (i.e. creation phase) or when remedies are sought for breach of contract (i.e. repair phase). As a result, the role of constructs related to the psychological contract varies according to these four phases.

The psychological contract is categorized as transactional and relational (MacNeil, 1985);

Relational Psychological Contract

A relational contract does not depend on time; on the contrary, it establishes an ongoing relationship between the employee and the organization and includes the exchange of monetary and non-monetary (mutual loyalty, support, career rewards) benefits. Employees are at the center of responsibility. In this type of psychological contract, individuals fully embrace the values of the organization and identify themselves with the organization (Millward and Hopkins, 1998).

The relational psychological contract includes implicit elements such as fair treatment, support for promotion request, and utilization of development programs (Guest and Conway, 2003: p. 145). Relational contracts can increase the affective commitment or

participation of employees and promise that the employer will invest in the individual, such as education, individual and career development, and job security. Relational contracts are defined as emotional and internal obligations by nature, and it is claimed to be open-ended and indefinite-term (Grimmer and Oddy, 2007: p.155).

Transactional Psychological Contract

For employees with a transactional orientation, the organization is simply a place where they do their job and have little affective commitment. As a result of the employment relationship, they are looking for the rewards (e.g., money) they can get in a short time (McDonald and Makin, 2000: p. 85; Millward and Hopkins, 1998).

The transactional psychological contract includes more clear and precise elements such as vacation timing, the basics of overtime, and performance criteria (Guest and Conway, 2003: p.145). These are contracts based on short-term monetary agreements with a low level of participation. Employees are concerned with salaries and individual benefits rather than being a good organizational citizen. In addition to economic and external obligations, transactional psychological contracts are more specific and short-term (Grimmer and Oddy, 2007: p.155).

4. Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is an important variable that has been addressed in many different studies in the field of organizational behavior. Morrow (1983:491) defines organizational commitment as the desire of the employee to maintain his/her membership in the organization and to strive for the organization and, at the same time, to adopt the values of the organization. According to Meyer and Allen (1984, pp. 372-378), it is expressed as the actions of an employee who goes to work regularly, stays loyal to the workplace under all conditions, uses a full working day or more, and observes the purpose and vision of the workplace.

Although there are different classifications regarding organizational commitment (e.g., Etzioni, 1975; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986), this study is based on the study of Allen and Meyer (1990), which is the most widely used classification in the literature.

In 1984, Meyer and Allen developed a model of organizational commitment consisting of affective commitment and continuance commitment, based on the work to date. In their study in 1990, Allen and Meyer added a third dimension to the model. This dimension, called normative commitment, refers to a perceived obligation to stay in the organization (Meyer et al., 2002:21). Normative commitment also makes the employee feel indebted to the organization as a result of the investments and expenditures made by the organization on the employee. This situation forces the employee to stay in the organization and attaches the employee to the organization normatively. This type of

commitment can only end when the employee pays his/her debt to the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Affective commitment dimension expresses the emotional commitment of the employee to the organization, integration with the organization, and participation in the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1984). Employees continue to work in the organization by establishing an emotional bond with the organization. In this way, they express their desire to stay in the organization (Meyer, Stanley and Parfyonova, 2012, p. 1). Continuance commitment, on the other hand, reflects the employee's perception of the costs he or she thinks he/she will face if he/she leaves the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1984). The scarcity of alternative job opportunities and the benefits of their commitment to the workplace make it difficult for employees to leave the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990: p.18).

Meyer and Allen (1991) explain the main determining points in three different dimensions of organizational commitment as follows: in affective commitment, an employee remains in an organization because he/she desire it, in continuance commitment he/she needs it, and in normative commitment, he/she obligates to the organization.

5. Relationships Between Workplace Flexibility, Psychological Contract, and Organizational Commitment

Few studies have investigated the relationship between workplace flexibility and the psychological contract. Many of them deal with flexibility in terms of working style (temporary, part-time, full-time work). For example, in the study conducted by Lee and Faller (2005), it was observed that temporary employees generally started with a transactional psychological contract and that they had a relational psychological contract after about six weeks. In the study of Guest (2004), it is stated that temporary employees are prone to transactional psychological contracts rather than relational.

In a study, it has been suggested that the perceived flexible working hours can increase the commitment to the organization for various reasons (Scandura and Lankau, 1997: p.380). Firstly, employees might perceive that the organization that offers flexible working hours is interested in their jobs and families. Secondly, flexible working hours can increase the sense of control over the individual and his/her work. Thirdly, flexible working hours can increase individuals' positive feelings about their employer. Fourthly, employers can strengthen their psychological contracts by comparing their situation with equal-level employees in professions and/or organizations where flexible work practices are not offered. In different studies, flexible policies have been positively associated with affective commitment (Eaton, 2003), organizational commitment (Ng *et al.*, 2006), and

engagement (Pitt-Catsouphes and Matz-Costa, 2008; Richman *et al.*, 2008). In the light of foregoing results, our first hypothesis has been put forward;

H1: Workplace flexibility will significantly affect (a) relational psychological contract, (b) transactional psychological contract, (c) affective (d) continuance, and (e) normative commitment.

In a model in which the antecedents and results of the psychological contract are discussed, variables such as job satisfaction, commitment to the organization, sense of security, motivation, and organizational citizenship behaviour are evaluated as the results of the psychological contract (Guest, 1998: p.661). Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2000) found that the psychological contract affected organizational commitment. In the studies carried out in the textile (Keman, 2012) and education sectors (Dogan and Demiral, 2009; Donmez, 2015), it was also observed that the psychological contract affected organizational commitment.

In a study conducted on bank employees, a relational psychological contract was found to have a positive relationship with commitment, and a transactional psychological contract had a negative relationship with commitment (Cohen, 2011). In short, there is no possibility of high-level commitment to the organization in transactional contracts; a high-level of commitment can be seen in relational contracts (McDonald and Makin, 2000: p.86).

In addition to the first hypothesis, the following hypotheses have been determined:

H2: Relational and transactional psychological contract will significantly affect (a) affective, (b) continuance, and (c) normative commitment.

H3: Relational psychological contract has a mediator role on the effect of workplace flexibility on (a) affective, (b) continuance, and (c) normative commitment.

H4: Transactional psychological contract has a mediator role on the effect of workplace flexibility on (a) affective, (b) continuance, and (c) normative commitment.

6. Method

Purpose and Importance of the Research

It is important how the flexibility practices that are frequently used by organizations are perceived by employees because many studies have found that these perceptions are related to many organizational outcomes (e.g., Bal and De Lange, 2015; Dalton and Mesch, 1990; Grzywacz *et al.*, 2008; Hayman, 2010; Richman *et al.*, 2008; Scandura & Lankau, 1997). When the national literature is examined, it is seen that there is a limited number of studies in which employees' perceptions of flexible practices in the

workplace are considered (e.g., Avcı and Yavuz, 2020; Camlı, 2010; Dogan *et al.*, 2015; Kordeve and Aydıntan, 2016). Accordingly, it is predicted that examining flexibility within the scope of different models will contribute to the field.

In the current study, the aim was to examine the perceptions of employees towards flexible practices in the workplace and to examine the mediating role of the psychological contract in the effects of workplace flexibility on organizational commitment.

6.1. Research Model

In this study, workplace flexibility is regarded as an independent variable and affective, continuance, and normative commitment, which are sub-types of commitment to the organization, are regarded as dependent variables; relational and transactional psychological contracts are included in the model as mediator variables (See, Figure 1).

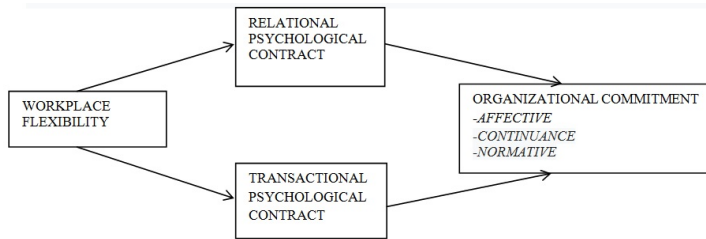


Figure 1: Model of the research

Sample and Procedure

The sample of the research consists of 112 participants working in different sectors and positions located in Istanbul. The participants were voluntarily part of the study, so the study was conducted with a non-randomly selected sample. The questionnaires were distributed to the participants in paper-pencil form.

6.2. Measures

The questionnaire consist of two main parts. In the first part the demographic questions were included, in order to see the differences among the participants. In the second part, workplace flexibility scale, consecutively psychological contract, and organizational commitment scales were used related to scope of the study. All responses were received on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). The demographic part included questions about the participants' age, gender, marital status, level of education, position, contract type, the capital structure of the organization, and seniority.

The Workplace Flexibility Scale was developed by researchers and consists of 22 statements. The scale includes statements such as “I can work in different locations of the organization,” “I can take a break from my career for a certain period time,” and “I may take one day off, instead of overtime pay.” As a result of the exploratory factor analysis, 7 factors with eigenvalues above 1 explained 70% of the total variance. A Cronbach Alpha value was found 0.69.

The Psychological Contract Scale, which was revised by Raja, Johns, and Ntalianis (2004) from Millward and Hopkins (1998), has 18 items, such as some statements about the transactional psychological contract (e.g., “I try to achieve only the short-term goals of my job”) and relational psychological contract (“I feel like I am part of the team in this organization”). The Cronbach Alpha value of the transactional psychological contract was 0.68; the relational psychological contract was 0.88. As a result of the exploratory factor analysis, it was found that the 2-factor structure explained 53% of the variance.

Organizational Commitment Scale developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) was used to measure commitment to the organization. This scale includes 18 items in total, each sub-dimension (emotional, continuation, and normative commitment) consisting of 6 expressions. The Cronbach’s Alpha value of the scale was 0.80.

6.3. Analysis

To test the research hypotheses, Simple Regression Analysis and Hierarchical Regression Analysis were performed using the SPSS 21.0 package program. The steps of the analysis were carried out based on the study of Baron and Kenny in 1986. According to these paths, a mediation model can be supported in the following 3 steps:

- (a) The change in the independent variable causes the change in the mediator variable,
- (b) The change in the mediator variable causes the change in the dependent variable,
- (c) When path (a) and (b) are controlled, the meaningful relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable will disappear, the strong mediating effect will occur when path c disappears.

7. Results

Results related to demographic features

Considering the demographic characteristics, 61% of the participants were women, 54% were single and 88.4% of them have an undergraduate and postgraduate education. The mean age of the sample was 31.72. Accordingly, it is possible to say that the majority of the participants were female employees and had a high level of education.

Results regarding relationship between variables

The mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients of the variables in the study are presented in Table 1. As seen in the table, when the correlation coefficients were examined, there were average meaningful relationships between all variables ($.20 < r < .73$). It was revealed that the Transactional Psychological Contract (P.C.) was negatively correlated with most of the variables. Additionally, Continuance Commitment was not associated with workplace flexibility, transactional, and relational psychological contract.

Table 1

Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation Coefficients of the Research Variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1- Workplace Flexibility	2,8	55,	-	**542,	**322,-	**436,	043,-	**384,
2- Relational P.C.	3,17	77,		-	**376,-	**729,	115,	**471,
3- Transactional P.C.	2,69	52,			-	**519,-	027,	**332,-
4- Affective Commitment	3,06	81,				-	*206,	**635,
5- Continuance Commitment	2,92	58,						**281,
6-Normative Commitment	2,6	65,						

** $p < 0,01$; * $p < 0,05$

P.C.: Psychological Contract

Results related to the direct effects

H1 suggested that workplace flexibility will significantly effect (a) relational psychological contract, (b) transactional psychological contract, (c) affective, (d) continuance, and (e) normative commitment. According to the research findings (See Tables 2 and 3), workplace flexibility predicted relational psychological contract ($\beta = 0,542$, $p < 0,001$), transactional psychological contract ($\beta = -0,322$, $p < 0,01$), affective commitment ($\beta = 0,436$, $p < 0,001$) and normative commitment ($\beta = 0,384$, $p < 0,001$) while it did not predict the continuance commitment significantly ($\beta = -0,043$, $p > 0,05$). With reference to these results, H1(a), H1(b), H1(c) and H1(e) were accepted, while H1(d) was rejected.

According to H2, relational and transactional psychological contract will significantly effect (a) affective, (b) continuance, and (c) normative commitment. When the research findings are examined, the relational psychological contract significantly predicted affective commitment ($\beta = 0,729$, $p < 0,001$) and normative commitment ($\beta = 0,471$, $p < 0,001$) while it did not significantly predict continuance commitment ($\beta = 0,115$, $p > 0,05$). The transactional psychological contract had a negative effect on affective commitment ($\beta = -0,519$, $p < 0,001$) and normative commitment ($\beta = -0,332$, $p < 0,001$)

and also had no significant effect on continuance commitment ($\beta = 0,027, p > 0,05$) (Only support for H2a and H2c).

Results related to the mediation model

Results related to the mediating role of the relational psychological contract

In the first steps of Hierarchical Regression Analysis, the effects of the independent variable (workplace flexibility) on mediator variable (relational psychological contract) and on dependent variables (organizational commitment) were calculated. As a result of the analysis, workplace flexibility predicted relational psychological contract ($\beta = 0,542, p < 0,001$), affective commitment ($\beta = 0,436, p < 0,001$) and normative commitment ($\beta = 0,384, p < 0,001$) while it did not predict the continuance commitment significantly ($\beta = -0,043, p > 0,05$). In the third stage, it was observed that the relational psychological contract significantly predicted affective commitment ($\beta = 0,729, p < 0,001$) and normative commitment ($\beta = 0,471, p < 0,001$) while it did not significantly predict continuance commitment ($\beta = 0,115, p > 0,05$). At the last stage, when the workplace flexibility and relational psychological contract variables were included together in the analysis, the effect of flexibility on affective commitment ($\beta = 0,057, p > 0,05$) and normative commitment ($\beta = 0,183, p > 0,05$) disappeared, and the effects of the relational psychological contract on these two dependent variables continued.

Accordingly, it has been demonstrated that the relational psychological contract had a full mediator role in the relationship between workplace flexibility and affective and normative commitment (Hypotheses 3a and 3c were supported and Hypothesis 3b was not supported, See Table 2).

Table 2

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Findings for Determining the Mediating Role of Relational Psychological Contract in the Effect of Workplace Flexibility on Organizational Commitment

	β			
	Relational P.C.	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment
Model 1				
Workplace Flexibility	,542***			
R ²	0.294			
Adj. R ²	0.288			
F	45,824			
Model 2				
Workplace Flexibility		,436***	-,043	,384***
R ²		0.19	0.002	0.148
Adj. R ²		0.183	-0.007	0.14
F		25,824	0,205	19,081

Model 3				
Relational P.C.		,729***	,115	,471***
R ²		0.532	0.013	0.222
Adj. R ²		0.528	0.004	0.215
F		125,106***	1,478	31,364***
Model 4				
Workplace Flexibility		,057	-,150	,183
Relational P.C.		,698***	-196	,372***
R ²		0.534	0.029	0.245
Adj. R ²		0.526	0.011	0.232
F		62,564	1,631	17,729

(Adj: Adjusted, P.C.: Psychological Contract)

Results related to the mediating role of the transactional psychological contract

As a result of the Hierarchical Regression Analysis, it was determined that the mediating role of the transactional psychological contract (See Table 3), workplace flexibility predicted affective commitment ($\beta = 0,436$, $p < 0,001$) and normative commitment ($\beta = 0,384$, $p < 0,001$) while it did not predict the continuance commitment with statistical significance ($\beta = -0,043$, $p > 0,05$). In the third stage, it was observed that the transactional psychological contract had a negative effect on affective commitment ($\beta = -0,519$, $p < 0,001$) and normative commitment ($\beta = -0,332$, $p < 0,001$) and also had no significant effect on continuance commitment ($\beta = 0,027$, $p > 0,05$). At the last stage, in which workplace flexibility and transactional psychological contract variables were included together in the analysis, the effects of both the workplace flexibility and the transactional psychological contract on affective and normative commitment continued. Accordingly, it was determined that the transactional psychological contract had a partial mediator role on the effect of workplace flexibility on affective and normative commitment (partial support for H4a and H4c). As a result of the calculation of the Sobel test, it was found that the mediator effect was statistically significant when the dependent variable was affective commitment ($z = 3.10$, $p < 0.01$) and normative commitment ($z = 2.55$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 3

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Findings for Determining the Mediating Role of Transactional Psychological Contract in the Effect of Workplace Flexibility on Organizational Commitment

	β			
	Transactional P.C.	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment
Model 1				
Workplace Flexibility	-,322**			
R ²	0.104			
Adj. R ²	0.096			
F	12,729			
Model 2				
Workplace Flexibility		,436***	-,043	,384***
R ²		0.19	0.002	0.148
Adj. R ²		0.183	-0.007	0.14
F		25,824	0,205	19,081
Model 3				
Transactional P.C.		-,519***	,027	-,332***
R ²		0.270	0.001	0.11
Adj. R ²		0.263	-0.008	0.102
F		40,613***	0,081	13,653***
Model 4				
Workplace Flexibility		,30***	-,038	,31**
Transactional P.C.		-,423***	-015	-,233*
R ²		0.35	0.002	0.196
Adj. R ²		0.338	-0.016	0.182
F		29,380	0,112	13,312

(Adj: Adjusted, P.C.: Psychological Contract)

8. Discussion and Conclusions

Although organizational commitment, which is one of the most frequently discussed concepts in many studies in the field of organizational behavior, is frequently examined in relation with different variables, it has not been examined in the context of a model with flexibility and psychological contract variables. Accordingly, current research has integrated current issues such as flexibility and psychological contract into a model, including organizational commitment.

In the current research, it has been determined that workplace flexibility significantly affects affective commitment and normative commitment and does not significantly affect continuance commitment. Similar to these findings, in another study conducted in the health sector, it was determined that the attitude towards flexible working practices positively predicts affective and normative commitment and not the continuance commitment (Kordeve and Aydıntan, 2016). In other studies, it has been revealed that flexibility predicted commitment to the organization (Bal and De Lange, 2015; Camlı,

2010; Eaton, 2003; Pitt-Catsouphes and Matz-Costa, 2008; Scandura and Lankau, 1997). When considered within the framework of Social Exchange Theory, employees respond to the organization with a high level of performance and commitment as a result of the perception of organizational support (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch and Rhoades 2001: 44). Accordingly, one of the ways to show organizational support is to provide workplace flexibility within the companies. The employees who perceive more workplace flexibility show more emotional and normative commitment towards their organizations.

When the effects of workplace flexibility on the psychological contract are examined, it has been determined that the flexibility predicts the relational psychological contract positively and predicts the transactional psychological contract negatively. In another study, it was found that individuals working in flexible employment forms had higher relational psychological contract levels (Guest, 2004). When flexibility is considered to be an application which is preferred and controlled by the employees rather than designed according to the needs of the organization, it causes a relational psychological contract.

In this study, the relational psychological contract had a positive effect on affective and normative commitment, and the transactional psychological contract had a negative effect. It was determined that both types of psychological contracts did not affect continuance commitment. In the studies conducted, it was found that relational psychological contracts lead to a higher level of affective and normative commitment and that transactional psychological contracts lead to a low level of affective and normative commitment (McCabe and Sambrook, 2013; McInnis *et al.*, 2009). Similar to these findings, it was determined in another study that relational psychological contract leads to a higher level of work and organizational commitment while transactional psychological contract leads to a lower level of work and organizational commitment (Millward and Hopkins, 1998). These findings may have arisen due to the fact that relational psychological contracts are emotional, internal, and long-term; on the other hand, transactional psychological contracts may have arisen due to their economic, external and short-term nature (Grimmer and Oddy, 2007: p.155). However, it is surprising that transactional psychological contract has no effect on continuance commitment. It may be important to re-examine the relationship between these two variables in future studies.

As a result of the hierarchical regression analysis conducted to test the mediation models, it was found that the change in the workplace flexibility affected normative and affective commitment by creating an effect on the perception of the relational psychological contract. This finding may have arisen due to the fact that the relational psychological contract covers the aspects related to the work-life balance of the

employees as Anderson and Schalk (1998) suggested. Especially when the workplace flexibility is considered as a concept related to the work-life balance of the employees, it is likely that the perceptions regarding this will affect the relational psychological contract and that the relational psychological contract will affect the commitment. However, in the results, it was determined that the relational psychological contract type did not have a mediator role in the effect of flexibility on continuance commitment. This result can be considered meaningful due to the nature of continuance commitment because relational contracts have an emotional and internal structure (Grimmer and Oddy, 2007). Continuance commitment does not cover emotions and values; it is a type of commitment that requires commitment not to lose various gains during employment in the company. On the other hand, the fact that affective and normative commitment is based on the emotions and values of the individual may have revealed the mediating role of the relational psychological contract.

While it was determined that workplace flexibility partially predicted the affective and normative commitment through the transactional psychological contract, no mediating effect was found for the continuance commitment. In other words, workplace flexibility decreased their perceptions of transactional psychological contracts and partially increased their affective and normative commitment. Accordingly, the partial mediator role of the transactional psychological contract indicates the existence of other mediator variables in the relationship between workplace flexibility and affective and normative commitment. When similar studies were examined in this subject, it was found that relational and transactional psychological contract mediated the relationship between developmental HRM (e.g., job enrichment, job rotation) and commitment (Bal *et al.*, 2013).

The collection of data from a limited number of participants (112) according to the scope of this research causes some limitations such as the generalizability of the research results. Additionally, the fact that the majority of the participants (89%) in the research have undergraduate or graduate-level education may have affected the results of the research. In future studies, different research findings may emerge if more participants with different educational levels can be reached.

The inclusion of individuals working in different sectors and organizations in the study is considered as one of the factors that affected the results of the study. In particular, it may have affected the research results by differentiating the psychological contract perceptions of some special elements belonging to the sectors or the organizations. According to Rousseau (2003: p. 233) because of some prototypes arising from the occupation chosen by the person, these beliefs may affect particular employment relationships. For example, the beliefs that healthcare professionals hold before joining a hospital may shape their subsequent psychological contracts and shape their reactions

to the policies and practices of that institution. In this direction, conducting this issue on a single sector, organization or occupation in future studies will make significant contributions.

In future studies, besides different sample groups, examining different variables (e.g., job satisfaction, work-family conflict, work-life balance) that may play a mediating role between workplace flexibility and organizational commitment will contribute to the literature.

Within the framework of the findings obtained, the fact that organizations include more flexibility practices may increase the affective and normative commitment positively by increasing the relational psychological contract. These two types of commitment are important for organizations. In such a way, individuals with affective commitment remain in the organization because they want while those with normative commitment remain in the organization because they feel an obligation to the organization. However, in continuance commitment, individuals remain in the organization in order not to lose some of their gains (such as money, status). In this context, workplace flexibility -that indirectly affects affective and normative commitment through psychological contract forms- emerges as an important concept. Especially, it is thought that the examination of flexibility from different perspectives in future studies, which has become more important with the Covid-19 pandemic period, will contribute to the field.

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Ar-Ge Projelerinde Kurum İçi ve Dışı Paydaşlar Arasındaki İş Birliğinin Başarı Algısı Üzerine Etkileri

The Effects of Cooperation Between Internal and External stakeholders in R&D Projects on Perceived Success

Sema Nur Altuğ¹ , Oya Ekici² 

Öz

Ar-Ge yatırımlarının katma değere dönüşmesi; sınırlı kaynaklara sahip, gelişmekte olan bir ülkenin rekabet gücünü artırmak için önemlidir. Bu ise, başarılı Ar-Ge projeleri yoluyla gerçekleşmektedir. Fakat Ar-Ge projelerinin içerdiği yüksek belirsizlik ve karmaşıklık nedeniyle, çoğu zaman Ar-Ge başarısının ne olduğu dahi tartışılabilir. Bu çalışmada, Ar-Ge projelerinin başarısı netleştirildikten sonra, bunda iş birliklerinin etkisinin incelenmesi motivasyonu hareket edilmiştir. Çünkü bu projelerde, genellikle zorluk derecesi yüksek ve farklı uzmanlıkların bir araya gelerek birlikte çalışmasını gerektiren görevler bulunduğundan, iş birliklerinin başarıyı etkilemesi beklenebilir. Yoğunlukla TÜBİTAK projelerinde görev almış ve Ar-Ge'de 15 yılın üzerinde tecrübesi olan 13 kişi ile yapılan yarı-yapılandırılmış yüz yüze görüşmelerle, üst yönetici ve proje ekiplerinin "Ar-Ge projesi başarısı" ve "Ar-Ge iş birlikleri" konularındaki algılarını ve deneyimlerini keşfetmek amaçlanmıştır.

Nitel analiz sonucunda elde edilen bazı bulgular şu doğrultuda olmuştur: Ar-Ge projelerinin başarısında, proje hedefleriyle belirlenen somut çıktılarının yanı sıra; insan kaynağı yetiştirme, bilgi birikimi ve iş birliği kültürü oluşturma gibi unsurlar, yeni projelerin tetiklenmesini kolaylaştırmakta ve proje, geleceğe katkısıyla başarılı olarak algılanmaktadır. Bütçe veya süreden sapma ise, Ar-Ge projelerinde beklenen durumlardır.

Ar-Ge'de iş birlikleri, yetkinliklerin birbirini tamamlamasının kaçınılmaz olduğu durumlarda, görevleri net olarak belirlenen minimum sayıda ortak ile yürütülen projelerde fayda sağlamaktadır. Projede fazladan ortakların bulunması, tarafların taahhüt seviyesinde ya da hedeflerinde büyük farklılıklar olması veya yetkinliklerinin çakışması durumunda Ar-Ge iş birliklerinin karmaşıklık seviyesi artmaktadır.

Anahtar Sözcükler

Ar-Ge, İş birlikleri, Ar-Ge Başarısı, Ar-Ge Çıktıları, Başarı Algısı

Abstract

Successfully transforming R&D investments into added value is important for increasing the competitiveness of a developing country with limited resources. However, due to the high uncertainty and complexity involved in R&D, even defining success can be controversial. The motivation of this study is to clarify what success in R&D means and then to examine the effect of R&D collaborations, because R&D often involves complex and highly uncertain tasks that require

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different expertise in order to work together. Semi-structured face-to-face interviews were conducted with 13 R&D experts in order to explore the perceptions and experiences of senior managers and project teams with regard to success and collaborations. Some of the findings obtained from the qualitative analysis are as follows: Besides the concrete outputs determined by the project objectives and factors such as creating knowledge and a culture of cooperation, an R&D project is perceived as successful if it triggers new projects in the future; also, deviations from the budget or timeframe are usually expected.

Collaborations are beneficial for projects carried out with a minimum number of partners whose duties are clearly defined and who have complementary competencies. The complexity increases when extra partners are involved in a project and when large differences occur at the level of the parties' commitment or goals.

Keywords

R&D, Collaborations, R&D Success, R&D Outputs, Perceived Success

Extended Summary

Successfully transforming R&D investments into added value is an important issue for increasing the competitiveness of a developing country with limited resources. However, due to the high uncertainty and complexity involved in R&D projects, even defining R&D success can often be controversial (Thamhain, 2003). In addition, R&D and innovation studies usually involve complex and highly uncertain tasks that require different fields of expertise to work with one another. This suggests that collaborations should have an important role in the success of R&D projects (Carayannis & Alexander, 1999; Lee & Bozeman, 2005). Therefore, the study's motivation is to examine the effect of collaborations on success after clarifying the criteria for perceiving whether an R&D project is successful or not. The study aims to explore the perceptions and experiences of senior managers and project teams regarding R&D project success and R&D Collaborations by conducting semi-structured face-to-face interviews with the different parties involved in R&D projects.

Interviewees with 16 experts in total (three being for the pilot interviews) were selected from among the team members of the Science and Technological Research Council of Turkey's (TUBİTAK) projects using convenient sampling. The interviewees are to have experience (average 26 years) in the field of R&D in accordance with the research topic in order to ensure the structural validity. In order to ensure external validity, examples were preferred from top managers, project managers, employees, and controllers. These people were additionally ensured to be from a public R&D institution or a private sector R&D department/university, or to have worked in several of these. For ethical validity, a consent form and interview protocol were sent to the individuals before the interview, and the interviews were recorded and coded. For internal validity, positive and negative aspects were asked for similar subjects. For the reliability, standard interview protocols were used, and the traceability of the records has been ensured with code numbers. The questions were tested in a pilot study (the

first three interviews) and evaluated in terms of being understandable, well-defined, and relevant to the subject, with the necessary corrections then being made. Six questions regarding R&D project success and four questions regarding collaborations were asked within the interview protocol.

Experts have expressed various exceptions indicating contingencies in case the probability of success differs according to the type of R&D project; they also expressed cooperation to lead to R&D projects producing more value (Lee & Bozeman, 2005). Some of the findings obtained from the qualitative analysis are expressed in the following paragraphs.

Estimating the probability of an R&D project's success is a complex and difficult task. However, projects that are expected to have widespread impact can be expected to be slightly more likely to be perceived as more successful, depending on how close they come to meeting the needs upon which they are based.

Clearly determining the targets and uncertainties regarding these targets in R&D projects, being customer- and need-oriented while determining these targets, updating targets when necessary, and communicating with project stakeholders in writing using strong, regular, and significant points have positive effects on project success. The experience, competence, and commitment of project managers and teams; being able to work together; being open to training; giving and understanding motivation and goals correctly and acting in this direction without deviating from the focus; ensuring flexibility in project plans and adapting to them; senior management's commitment to supporting the project; and problem-solving abilities are important to project success. The probability of success for an R&D project is considered to differ according to the project's purpose, type, and source of founding.

Unlike classical projects, receiving a time extension in R&D projects does not create a direct perception of failure. On the contrary, cases occur where this contributes to perceived success. Deviations from the budget are also considered normal in R&D projects, provided they are not extreme. Being able to foresee these deviations, create flexible budgets, or add risk shares is recommended.

To sum up, when looking at the success of R&D projects apart from the concrete outputs determined by the project objectives, intangible elements such as developing human capital, knowledge, and creating a culture of cooperation as well as new projects are important. An R&D project is perceived as successful to the extent that it contributes to future projects. Budget or timeline deviations are not indicators of failure for an R&D project; these are almost expected, in fact.

R&D collaborations are beneficial in projects that are carried out with the minimum number of partners required or where shares/contributions can be clearly determined in

cases where competencies will inevitably complement each other. In cases of unclear contributions to the project, having extra partners, large differences in commitment levels, or parties with conflicting goals, the complexity of R&D collaborations increases, and various managerial problems may occur.

1. Giriş

Günümüzde hem mikro hem de makro düzeydeki rekabetin temelinde yenilikçilik yer almaktadır. Ülkeler, yenilikçilik yoluyla küresel rekabet ortamında öne çıkmayı amaçladığı için; yenilik içeren Ar-Ge faaliyetlerini desteklemektedirler. Fakat ödenen vergilerin bir kısmı aktarılacak fonlanan bu çalışmalardan elde edilebilecek faydanın ne kadarının gerçekleşebildiği tartışılmaktadır. Ar-Ge çalışmalarına yapılan yatırımların verimli bir şekilde katma değere dönüşmesi; bir ülkenin, özellikle de sınırlı kaynaklara sahip, gelişmekte olan bir ülkenin rekabet gücünü artırmak için önemli bir konudur. Bu faydanın, iş birlikleri, özellikle de farklı yapıdaki aktörler arasında kurulan iş birlikleri yoluyla artırılabilmesine çeşitli çalışmalarda işaret edilmiştir (Carayannis ve Alexander, 1999; Lee ve Bozeman, 2005). Çünkü, Ar-Ge ve yenilikçilik çalışmaları, genellikle karmaşık ve yüksek derecede belirsizliğe sahip görevler içeren ve çoğunlukla hiçbir aktörün tek başına sahip olmadığı farklı uzmanlıkların bir araya gelerek birlikte çalışmasını gerektiren çalışmalardır.

“Araştırma ve deneysel geliştirme (Ar-Ge), insan, kültür ve toplumun bilgisinden oluşan bilgi dağarcığının artırılması ve bu dağarcığın yeni uygulamalar tasarlamak üzere kullanılması için sistematik bir temelde yürütülen yaratıcı çalışmalar” (OECD, 2002, s.30) olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Ar-Ge çalışmaları sonucunda; yeni bilgiler, yeni teknolojiler, yeni ürünler, yeni süreçler, sistemler ve hizmetler gibi pek çok çıktı üretilebilmektedir (Geisler, 1994; Choi, Lee ve Sohn, 2009; Matsumoto, Yokota, Naito ve Itoh, 2010). Bu çalışmalarla elde edilen çıktılarla ilgili olarak, zaman boyutunun da ayrı bir önemi bulunmaktadır.

Ar-Ge'nin tanımında yer alan “bilgi dağarcığının artırılması” ve “yaratıcı çalışmalar” ifadeleri, bu faaliyetlerdeki belirsizlik ve karmaşıklığın yüksekliğine işaret etmektedir. Ar-Ge çalışmaları sonucunda tesadüfen çok başarılı buluşlar ortaya çıkabileceği gibi, bütün gayretlere rağmen herhangi bir somut sonuç elde edilememesi de mümkündür. Bu nedenle, Ar-Ge projelerini, beklenen performansı gösterecek biçimde yönetmenin oldukça zor bir iş olduğu sıklıkla tartışılmaktadır (Thamhain, 2003). Literatürdeki çalışmalar projelerin başarısını etkileyen faktörleri yaklaşık olarak ortaya çıkarmaktadır fakat tüm bu etkilerin bir arada, derinlemesine incelenmesi pek mümkün olamamaktadır. Dolayısıyla, Ar-Ge projelerinin başarısının, projelerin içerdiği yüksek belirsizlik ve karmaşıklık nedeniyle bazen, klasik projelerden farklı olarak, subjektif kıstaslarla değerlendirilmesi daha isabetli olabilmektedir. Yaygın olarak bilinen süre, bütçe, kapsama uyum ölçütleri bazen Ar-Ge projeleri için doğrusal yorumlanamamakta, bu konularda sapmalar yaşayan bazı Ar-Ge çalışmaları, bazen çok başarılı olarak değerlendirilebilmektedir.

Bir yenilikçi Ar-Ge projesinin neye göre başarılı/başarısız olarak algılandığı biraz daha netleştirildikten sonra, başarı üzerinde iş birliklerinin etkisi daha iyi anlaşılacaktır.

Bu motivasyonla, birbirine bağılı bu iki konu incelemeye deęer görülmüştür. O nedenle çalışmada, Ar-Ge projelerinin başarısı üzerinde etkili olabilecek etmenler ve özellikle Ar-Ge iş birliklerindeki çeşitli dinamikler hakkında nitel bir analiz ile, ağırlıklı olarak Türkiye’de tecrübe kazanmış çeşitli uzmanların görüşlerinin alınması yoluna gidilmiştir. Çalışmamızda, Ar-Ge projelerinin farklı tarafları ile yarı-yapılandırılmış yüz yüze görüşmeler yapılarak üst yönetici ve proje ekiplerinin “Ar-Ge projesinin başarısı” ve “Ar-Ge iş birlikleri” konularındaki algılarını ve deneyimlerini kendi sözcükleriyle nasıl dile getirdikleri, anlamlandırdıkları ele alınmıştır. Böylece, tarafların subjektif olarak bir Ar-Ge projesini başarılı olarak niteledikleri durumlardaki ortak özellikler ve iş birliklerine bakış açıları araştırılmıştır.

1.1. Ar-Ge Projelerinin Başarısı

Ar-Ge projelerinin başarısı söz konusu olduğunda, klasik ölçümlerle proje başarısının ele alınması her zaman yeterli olmamaktadır. Ar-Ge’nin doğası gereği içerdiği belirsizlikler bazen proje kapsamını planlanandan çok farklı noktalara çekip, proje süresini ya da maliyetini çok saptırdığı halde; elde edilen önemli bir bilgi birikimi ya da yıkıcı bir yenilik sebebiyle bu projeler çok başarılı olarak algılanabilmektedir. Teknik belirsizlikler, öngörülemezlik, müşteri gereksinimleri, maliyet ve uzun süreler, fiziksel üretim kısıtları vb. konular, Ar-Ge sürecini etkileyebilir. Bu faktörlerden kaynaklanan belirsizlikler, Ar-Ge için zaten karmaşık olan “geçici” ve “benzersiz” proje çalışmalarını zorlaştırmaktadır.

Ar-Ge proje başarısı, öznel ve nesnel ölçütlerin bir kombinasyonu ile tanımlanabilir, yeniliğin türüne bağılıdır ve bağlamsaldır (Balachandra ve Friar, 1997). Bir projenin başarısı, performans ölçütlerine, zamanlamaya, onu kimin ölçtüğüne ve sunulduğu pazarın mevcut ya da yeni oluşuna bağılıdır. Bu muğlaklık, uygulayıcılar ve akademisyenler için proje başarısını tanımlama konusunda farklı öznel yorumlara yol açmaktadır (Smith-Doerr, Manev ve Rizova, 2004). Dolayısıyla projenin başarısı, hem başarı ölçütlerine hem de paydaşların başarı algısına bağılı olmaktadır (Bond-Barnard, Fletcher ve Steyn, 2018).

Ar-Ge projelerinin başarısı çok sayıda ve çok boyutlu faktöre bağılıdır. Bunu ifade eden çalışmalardan bazıları şunlardır: Balachandra ve Friar (1997), Griffin ve Page (1993), Cooper ve Kleinschmidt (1995), Hauser (1998), Kerssens-van Drongelen ve Bilderbeek (1999).

Literatürde Ar-Ge projeleri için bazı ortak başarı faktörleri “üst düzey yönetim desteği”, ‘teknik başarı olasılığının yüksek olması’, ‘pazarın varlığı’, ‘hammadde ve teknik becerilerin mevcudiyeti’, ‘geliştirme maliyeti’, ‘taahhüt ve proje personelinin deneyimi’, ‘iletişim’, ‘açıkça tanımlanmış proje misyon ve hedefleri’, ‘iyi tanımlanmış proje planı’, ‘izleme ve geri bildirim’, ‘iş stratejisi ile uyumlu teknoloji’, ‘potansiyel

finansal getiriler’, ‘müşteri memnuniyeti’, ‘disiplinler arası çalışma’, ‘tedarikçi memnuniyeti’ ve ‘bütçe kısıtlamaları içinde kalma’ olarak ifade edilmektedir (Maidique ve Zirger, 1985; Pinto ve Slevin, 1987; Dwyer ve Mellor, 1991; Griffin ve Page, 1993; Cooper ve Kleinschmidt, 1995; Belassi ve Tükel, 1996; Gaynor, 1996; Balachandra ve Friar, 1997; Souder ve Jenssen, 1999; Smith-Doerr ve ark., 2004). Bu faktörlerin varlığının, herhangi bir projenin başarılı olarak algılanmasını sağlayacak şekilde tamamlanmasında rol oynaması beklenebilir, fakat, bunların ülkemizdeki Ar-Ge projeleri üzerindeki etkilerinin uzmanların tecrübeleri ışığında da araştırılması yararlı olacaktır.

1.2. Ar-Ge Projelerinde İş Birliği

Ar-Ge'nin karmaşık ve oldukça belirsiz görevleri, çoğunlukla yeni bilgilerin geliştirilmesine ve entegrasyonuna bağlıdır. Bu nedenle, bunlar genellikle tek başına herhangi bir aktöre ait olmayan, farklı uzmanların bir araya gelip yeni bilgiler üzerinde birlikte çalışmasını gerektiren çalışmalardır. Bu ilişkileri yönetmek zor bir iştir. Tamamlayıcı yetkinliklere erişim yoluyla elde edilecek kazanımlar kadar, tarafların fırsatçı davranışta bulunması riski ve iletişim zorluklarından kaynaklanan maliyetler de vardır. (Cassiman, Di Guardo ve Valentini, 2009). Fakat, birbirini tamamlayan aktörler arasındaki iş birliklerinin, elde edilebilecek faydaları artırabileceği çeşitli çalışmalarda belirtilmiştir (Carayannis ve Alexander, 1999; Lee ve Bozeman, 2005).

Firmaların Ar-Ge’de iş birliği yapmalarının temel motivasyonları şunlardır: teknolojik gelişmenin risk ve maliyetlerinin paylaşılması (Carayannis ve Alexander, 1999; Kang ve Kang, 2010; Das ve Teng, 2000; Bayona, García-Marco ve Huerta, 2001; Baaken, Kesting ve Gerstlberger, 2017; Reyhanoğlu, 2006), proje süresinin azaltılması (Pisano, 1990), teknolojik ilerlemelerin ve yeni teknolojiye erişimin izlenmesi (Hamel, 1991), kaynakların ve teknolojik yeterliliklerin bir araya getirilmesi (Carayannis ve Alexander, 1999; Das ve Teng, 2000; Reyhanoğlu, 2006), ölçeğin avantajları ve pazara giriş engellerinin üstesinden gelinmesi (Hagedoorn, 1993), ağ kurarak ekosisteme dahil olma (Diir ve Capelli, 2018).

Ar-Ge iş birliğinin yenilikçilik üzerindeki etkileri biraz tartışmalıdır. Bazı araştırmalar pozitif bir ilişki olduğunu öne sürerken (Aschhoff ve Schmidt, 2008; Belderbos, Carree ve Lokshin, 2004), tam tersini iddia eden çalışmalar da bulunmaktadır (Okamuro, 2007; Teng, 2006). Bu sonuçlar, Ar-Ge iş birliğinin yenilikçilik üzerindeki etkisini belirleyen faktörlerin sanıldığından daha karmaşık olduğunu ve derinlemesine araştırılmasına ihtiyaç olduğunu göstermektedir. Bazı araştırmalarda, ortaklık tipleri de bu ilişkide önemli bir faktör olarak tanımlanmıştır (Tether, 2002; Belderbos ve ark., 2004; Fritsch ve Lukas, 2001; Lhuillery ve Pfister, 2009). Farklı türdeki ortaklar, farklı yeteneklere ve kaynaklara sahiptir ve bir Ar-Ge iş birliği ilişkisinde farklı şekillerde davranmaktadır. Yine de, özellikle tamamlayıcı iş birlikleri çoğu durumda kaçınılmaz olarak oluşmakta,

çoğu hükümetin Ar-Ge politikası, faydaları en üst düzeye çıkarmak için iş birliğine öncelik vermektedir (Etzkowitz ve Leydesdorff, 1995).

Türkiye’de, planlı ekonomiye geçişle birlikte ve 90’lı yıllardan itibaren yoğun olarak araştırma ve yenilikçiliği teşvik eden programlar devreye alınmıştır. Küçük ve Orta Ölçekli İşletmeleri Geliştirme ve Destekleme İdaresi Başkanlığı (KOSGEB), Türkiye Teknoloji Geliştirme Vakfı (TTGV), TÜBİTAK Teknoloji ve Yenilik Destek Programları Başkanlığı (TEYDEB) ve Araştırma Destek Programları Başkanlığı (ARDEB), Ar-Ge ve yenilikçilik için fon desteği sağlayan belli başlı yapılar olarak öne çıkmaktadır. Bu programlar da firmaları üniversite ve araştırma kurumları ile iş birliği yapmaları yönünde teşvik etmektedir (Temel ve Glassman, 2013). Ayrıca, 2001 yılında çıkarılan Teknoloji Geliştirme Bölgeleri Kanunu ile getirilen teşviklerle de, Ar-Ge kümelenmelerinin artması ve iş birliklerinin kolaylaşması hedeflenmiştir (Reyhanoğlu, 2006).

2. Yöntem

Ar-Ge projelerinin başarısı ve bunun üzerinde etkili olabilecek faktörleri ve/veya iş birliklerini araştıran çeşitli nitel çalışmalarda genellikle yüz yüze görüşme metodu tercih edilmiştir (Ghazinejad, Hussein ve Zidane, 2018; Thamhain, 2003; Chen, Chang ve Chang., 2012; Chiesa, Frattini, Lazzarotti ve Manzini, 2009; Weck, 2006; Vanderloop, 2004).

Bu çalışmada da detaylı bilgi sağlanması ve uygulama olanakları açısından yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşme tekniği belirlenmiştir. Görüşülecek kişiler, araştırma konusuna uygun olarak, Ar-Ge alanında tecrübeli olan ve kolay ulaşılabilir, elverişli örnekler arasından seçilmiştir. Beverland ve Lindgreen’in (2010), nitel vaka araştırmalarını pozitivist bir bakış açısıyla incelerken tespit ettikleri “Vaka Araştırmaları için Pozitivist Kalite Ölçütleri”ne mümkün olduğu kadar uyum sağlayarak nitel çalışma için mülakat protokolü hazırlanmıştır.

Mülakat protokolünde Ar-Ge Projelerinin “Başarılı” olarak değerlendirilmesini etkileyen faktörlere yönelik olarak, aşağıdaki sorular yöneltilmiştir:

1. Başarılı bir Ar-Ge projesini nasıl tanımlarsınız? Başarısız bir Ar-Ge projesini nasıl tanımlarsınız?
2. Kendi yaptığınız başarı tanımına göre, sizce proje başarısı üzerinde olumlu etkisi olabilecek hususlar nelerdir?
3. Projede elde edilen çıktılar, projenin “başarılı” olduğuna ilişkin kanaatinizi ne kadar etkiler? Sizce hangi çıktıları üreten Ar-Ge projesi daha başarılı olarak algılanır?

4. Projenin başarı olasılığının Ar-Ge projesinin türüne ya da amacına göre değişeceğini düşünür müsünüz? Nasıl?
5. Bir Ar-Ge projesinin süre uzatması alması o projeye ilişkin “başarı” algınızı nasıl etkilerdi?
6. Bir Ar-Ge projesinin başlangıç bütçesinden saptması o projeye ilişkin “başarı” algınızı nasıl etkilerdi?

Mülakat protokolünde Ar-Ge iş birliklerindeki dinamikleri keşfetmeye yönelik olarak, aşağıdaki sorular yöneltilmiştir:

1. Bir Ar-Ge projesinde niçin iş birliği yapma ihtiyacı duyarsınız? Sizi iş birliğine yönlendiren motivasyon kaynakları nelerdir?
2. Sizce Ar-Ge projelerinde iş birliğinin önündeki engeller nelerdir? Bir iş birliğinde en çok nelerden rahatsız olursunuz?
3. Sizce kurumlar arası iş birlikleri hangi durumlarda tek çalışılmasına göre daha çok fayda sağlar? Nasıl ve niçin? (Ne zaman tersi geçerli olabilir? Tek çalışmanın daha çok fayda sağlaması durumu)
4. Bir Ar-Ge projesinde iş birliği yapılan kurum sayısının artmasının ne gibi avantajları ve dezavantajları vardır? Bu soruya vereceğiniz cevap Ar-Ge projesinin türüne (*teknoloji, ürün/sistem geliştirme, altyapı, fizibilite, danışmanlık ve hizmet*) göre değişir mi?

Dışsal geçerlilik sağlamak üzere üst yöneticiler, proje yöneticileri, çalışanları ve projeyi denetleyen farklı gruplardan örnekler tercih edilmiş; ayrıca bu kişilerin kamu Ar-Ge kurumu, özel sektör Ar-Ge bölümü ve üniversite kökenli ya da bunlardan birkaçında birden görev yapmış kişilerden olması gözetilmiştir.

Etik geçerlilik için, onam formu ve mülakat protokolü görüşme öncesinde kişilere e-posta ile gönderilmiş, izin alınabilen her durumda ses kaydı alınmış (3’ü pilot olmak üzere 15 adet ses kaydı alınmış, 1 adet mülakat yazılı iletilmiştir) ve deşifre edilmiştir.

Yapısal geçerlilik için, Ar-Ge çalışmaları yürüten çeşitli kurum ve kuruluşlarda çalışmış veya halen çalışmakta olan kişilerle görüşülerek; üniversite, özel sektör kuruluşu ve kamu Ar-Ge kurumundaki ilgili karar alıcıların tamamının temsil edilmesi sağlanmıştır. Bu kapsamda, araştırmacı, proje yöneticisi, danışman, akademisyen, bölüm yöneticisi, enstitü müdürü, kalite güvence yöneticisi, proje izleme sorumlusu, takım lideri olarak kariyerinin çeşitli zamanlarında çoğunlukla Ar-Ge üzerine çalışmış; on yılın üzerinde tecrübeli (ortalama 26 yıl); üniversite, kamu Ar-Ge kurumu ve özel

sektörden 6 kadın, 10 erkek ile görüşülmüştür. Mülakatları gerçekleştiren araştırmacının da Ar-Ge projeleri konusunda 18 yıllık tecrübesi bulunmaktadır.

İçsel geçerlilik için, hazırlanan sorularla, benzer konunun olumlu ve olumsuz yönlerinin sorgulanması gözetilmiştir.

Güvenilirlik için, standart bir mülakat protokolü kullanılmış, kod numaralarıyla kayıtların izlenebilirliği sağlanmıştır. Sorular pilot çalışma ile test edilerek anlaşılabilirliği, iyi tanımlanmış olması ve konu ile ilgisi bakımından değerlendirilmiş, gerekli düzeltmeler yapılmıştır (ilk üç mülakat).

Örneklem

Bu araştırmada, genelleme amacı güdülmemiş ve derinlemesine bilginin elde edilmesi temel alınmıştır. Bu amaçla, dışsal geçerliliği sağlayacak şekilde farklı görevlerde farklı kurumlarda görev yapan, tercihen uzun yıllar Ar-Ge projelerinde çalışmış kişiler kolayda örnekleme yolu ile seçilmiştir (Detayları Tablo 1’dedir).

Tablo 1

Görüşlerine Başvurulan Uzmanlarla İlgili Bilgiler

Kod	Cinsiyeti	Meslekteki Kıdemi	Son Çalıştığı Kurum	Ar-Ge Projelerinde Aldığı Görevler	Öğrenim Durumu
G1*	E	27 yıl	Kamu Ar-Ge (Özel Sektör)	Araştırmacı, Proje Yöneticisi, Danışman, Yönetici	Lisans
G2*	K	29 yıl	Kamu Ar-Ge	Araştırmacı, Proje Yöneticisi, Bölüm Yöneticisi	Y. Lisans
G3*	E	20 yıl	Kamu Ar-Ge	Araştırmacı, Kalite Güvence Yöneticisi	Doktora
G4	E	18 yıl	Özel Sektör (Kamu Ar-Ge)	Araştırmacı, Proje Yöneticisi, Kalite Güvence Bölüm Yöneticisi	Doktora
G5	E	35 yıl	Kamu Ar-Ge	Enstitü Müdürü ve Yardımcısı, Proje Yöneticisi ve yardımcısı, Araştırmacı	Doktora
G6	K	27 yıl	Üniversite	Akademisyen, Proje Yöneticisi	Doçent
G7	E	23 yıl	Kamu Ar-Ge	Enstitü Müdürü, Proje Yöneticisi, Bölüm Yöneticisi, Araştırmacı	Lisans
G8	E	15 yıl	Kamu Ar-Ge	Araştırmacı, Proje İzleme Sorumlusu	Y. Lisans
G9	K	35 yıl	Kamu Ar-Ge (Özel Sektör)	Proje Yöneticisi, Bölüm Yöneticisi	Y. Lisans
G10	E	28 yıl	Kamu Ar-Ge (Üniversite)	Araştırmacı, Proje Yöneticisi, Bölüm Yöneticisi, Akademisyen	Doktora
G11	E	26 yıl	Kamu Ar-Ge (Üniversite)	Bölüm Yöneticisi, Proje Yöneticisi, Araştırmacı, Akademisyen	Doktora
G12	K	14 yıl	Kamu Ar-Ge (Özel Sektör)	Araştırmacı, Takım lideri, Proje Yöneticisi	Y. Lisans
G13	E	30 yıl	Üniversite (Kamu Ar-Ge)	Akademisyen, araştırmacı, proje yöneticisi	Prof.

G14	E	34 yıl	Kamu Ar-Ge	Enstitü Müdürü ve Yardımcısı, Bölüm Yöneticisi, Proje Yöneticisi, Araştırmacı, Danışman	Doçent
G15	K	28 yıl	Özel Sektör (Kamu Ar-Ge)	Bölüm Yöneticisi, Proje Yöneticisi, Proje İzleme Sorumlusu, Araştırmacı	Y. Lisans
G16	K	27 yıl	Kamu Ar-Ge (Özel Sektör)	Bölüm Yöneticisi, Proje Yöneticisi, Ar-Ge Takım Lideri, Kalite Güvence Yöneticisi	Y. Lisans

Not: *: Pilot uygulamada yapılan görüşmelerdir. Değerlendirme aşamasında bu görüşmeler nitel analiz dışında bırakılmıştır.

Verilerin Çözümlemesi ve Yorumlanması

Araştırma kapsamında yöneltilen sorular ayrı ayrı çözümlenmiştir. Yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmelere katılan kişilerin tamamına yakını kayıt alınmasına izin vermiştir (Yalnızca G12, cevaplarını yazılı olarak iletmeyi tercih etmiştir). Kayıtlar, sonradan deşifre edilerek yazılı belge haline getirilmiş, G1’den başlayarak G16’ya kadar kodlanmış ve ilk üç görüşme pilot çalışma kapsamında gerçekleştirildiği için analizlerin dışında tutulmuştur.

3. Bulgular ve Yorumlar

Bu bölümde, deşifre metinler soru bazında ayrı ayrı değerlendirilmiş ve yorumlanmıştır. Yapılan çıkarımlarla uyumlu yönde fikir beyan etmiş olan uzmanların kodları (Bkz. Tablo 1), ilgili bulgunun yanında parantez içerisinde verilmiştir. Bunun yanında, uzmanların konu ile ilgili ifadelerinden bazı örnekler, tırnak içerisinde ve italik olarak metnin içerisinde belirtilmiştir.

3.1. Ar-Ge projelerinin başarılı olarak değerlendirilmesini etkileyen faktörler

1. Başarı Tanımı: Uzmanların çoğunun dile getirdiği üzere; Ar-Ge projelerinde başarı tanımı ve ölçümü klasik projelerden farklıdır ve daha fazla belirsizlik, yenilik ve etkileşim içerir (G6, G7, G9, G10, G12, G13, G14, G16). Projenin bir hedefinin olması ve belirli bir zaman aralığında atanmış kaynaklarla bu hedefe ulaşılması/ yaklaşıması, kendisinden beklenenleri karşılaması ya da niçin karşılanamayacağını açıklayan sonuçlar elde edilmesi başarı sayılabilir (Tümü).

“o hedefi karşılayan sistemler, ürünler veya modeller geliştirilmiş olması gerekiyor. Veya, geliştirilememiş olsa bile bunların niye geliştirilemeyeceğine dair bazı bulgulara ulaşılmış olması. Bazı dersler çıkarılmış olması gerekiyor.”(G10)

“Ama bizde genel olarak bakıldığında bir Ar-Ge projesine; Ar-Ge projesi olsa da olmasa da, sonuçta işte ben şunu istiyorum dediği zaman müşteri, onun gözünde başarı aslında o sonucu elde etmek oluyor. Ama proje açısından bakıldığında ülke için bakıldığında o çalışmada elde edilen her sonuç başarıdır diye düşünüyorum ben.”(G9)

Proje çıktılarının kullanılabilirliği, müşterinin kabulü, başarı algısı üzerinde etkilidir. Müşteri kabulü, projenin gereksinimlerini (ya da gerek, ister) karşılmasına bağlıdır (G4, G5, G6, G7, G8, G9, G11, G14, G15).

“çıkıtıyı müşteri kullanıyorsa gerçekten aktif olarak kullanıyorsa ve onunla yaptığımız geri dönüşler olumluysa ve bunun peşinden yeni bir proje bu üretiyorsa o müşteri sizinle çalışmaya devam ediyorsa bence bu proje başarılıdır.”(G5)

Ar-Ge projelerinin başarısı dendiğinde proje başarısı ve Ar-Ge başarısı farklı değerlendirilebilir. Bu değerlendirmeler de projenin tipine göre farklılaşabilir (G5, G7, G9, G12). Ar-Ge projelerinde soyut olarak nitelenebilecek, varlığı kolaylıkla algılanmayan ve zamana bağlı olan (insan yetiştirme, toplumsal fayda, gelecekteki veya başka alanlardaki araştırmaları tetikleme vb.) çıktılarının da ulaşılacak hedefler arasında belirlenmesi, yani Ar-Ge başarısı konusuna vurgu yapılması başarı algısını artırabilir (G6, G9, G13, G14, G16).

“Kullanılabilir olması, yararlanılabilir olması, farklı alanlardaki bilgilerin keşfedilme gereksinimlerini ortaya çıkarması, mesela bir alandaki temel başka bilginin araştırma gereksinimini bizlere gösteriyor olması.”(G6)

“AR-GE projesinin başarısı bence yeni bir AR-GE projesi çıkarıp çıkarmamasıdır.”(G14)

Ar-Ge projelerinde belli bir miktar belirsizlik normaldir fakat hedeflere, odak kaybedildiği için ulaşılamamışsa, bu durum başarısızlık algısı oluşturur (G6, G12, G13, G16).

“(başarısızlık) hiçbir sonuç elde edememek ve yaklaşılamamak ya da yanlış konu belirlemek yanlış yolda ilerlemek oradaki belirlediği yol haritasının yanlış olması yanlış yolda ilerlemesi olabilir.”(G16)

Müşteri ihtiyaçlarını daha fazla tatmin edecek şekilde hedefler aşılsa, bu durum da başarı algısını artırır (G6, G7).

“Yani aslında başlangıçtaki küçük bir şeyi belirliyoruz, görmediğimiz bir alana eğer proje sonucunda çalışırken keşfedip proje değerini artırabilecek, daha yüksek bir değere taşıyabiliyorsak bu da projenin ya da Ar-Ge değeri oluşturmanın önemli bir kısmı.” (G6)

2. Başarıyı Etkileyen Faktörler: Tüm projeler için hedeflerin net ve ulaşılabilir olması önemlidir, fakat Ar-Ge projelerinde bazı hedeflerdeki belirsizliğin de başlangıçta net olarak ortaya konması önem taşımaktadır (G9, G10).

“Bir kere projenin bir problemi olmalı, yani gerçekten gerçekçi tanımlanmış hedefleri olmalı. Tanımlanmış bir problemi olmalı. Öyle rastgele yola çıkılmamalı.” (G10)

Ar-Ge hedefleri belirlenirken müşteri ve kullanıcı odaklı yaklaşmak gerekir. Paydaşların isteklerini ve bunların ardındaki ihtiyaçlarını iyi anlamak ve tüm proje yaşam döngüsü boyunca sürekli iletişimle bunları canlı tutmak önemlidir (G4, G5, G10, G16).

“Müşteri veya kullanıcının dahil olması esas. Yani o tüm proje süreçleri boyunca en başından en sonuna kadar müşterilerin, kullanıcıların, ...her aşamada dahil olmaları, parçası olmaları projenin, gerekiyor bence bu önemli bir faktör.” (G4)

Projenin içinde ve dışındaki tüm paydaşlarla iletişimin kuvvetli olması önemlidir. Kararların ve gelişmelerin paylaşımının yazılı olarak yapılması, paydaş istek ve ihtiyaçlarının anlaşılması ve canlı tutulabilmesi için sık sık toplantılar düzenlenmesi yararlıdır (G7, G9).

“Müşteri ihtiyacını biliyor, elinde olması gereken ürünün hangi özelliklere sahip olması gerektiğini biliyor ama onun yapılmasıyla ilgili yöntemi veya teknik kısıtları riskleri vs. de biz biliyoruz aslında. ...müşteriyi eğitmek de aslında bizim görevlerimizden birisi. Yani orada, o toplantılarda...” (G9)

“...gitmesi gereken yolda gidiyor mu diye dinamik bir şekilde takip edebilmek lazım.”(G7)

Proje yöneticisinin ve ekibinin tecrübesi, yetkinliği, aidiyeti, birlikte çalışabilmesi, eğitim almaya ve vermeye açık olması önemlidir (G4, G6, G7, G9, G15, G16).

“...en önemlisi insan faktörüdür, insan en önemlisidir, insanın nitelikli olması, niteliği yeterli değilse daha işte eğitimlerle, işte birtakım pratik teorik birtakım desteklemelerle insanı bir defa belli bir olgunluğa getirmek lazım.” (G7)

Proje ekiplerinin motivasyonu, hedefleri doğru bir şekilde anlaması ve odaktan şaşmadan bu doğrultuda hareket etmesi başarıya katkı sağlar (G4, G6, G7, G11, G12, G13).

“Tüm proje ekibinin taahhüdü yani bu işe inanması, elini taşın altına koyması, kendini adanmaları, adanmışlıkları çok önemli.”(G4)

Proje planlarında esnekliğin sağlanabilmesi ve buna tüm paydaşların uyum sağlayabilmesi önemlidir (G10, G12).

“Klasik projelerden farklı olarak; bir aşamadan elde edilen çıktıları göre projenin bir sonraki yol haritası tekrar revize edilmeli, her bir sonraki “araştır-tasarla-gerçekle” döngüsü ile “beklenen çıktıya” bir adım daha yaklaşıldığından emin olunmalıdır.” (G12)

Üst yönetimin projeye olan desteği ve sorun çözme yetenekleri proje başarısına katkı sağlar (G4, G7, G8, G9, G10). Projenin gerçekleştirilebilmesi için gerekli süreçler, kaynaklar ve altyapının var olması ve projenin doğasına uygun olarak doğru bir şekilde kullanılması, takip edilmesi, bilgilerin belgelenmesi projenin başarısı açısından önemlidir (G4, G7, G8, G9, G10, G14, G15, G16).

“Diğer bütün pek çok şey projenin gerçekleşmesi için işte gerekli kaynaklar, başta insan kaynağı... Parası olmayan bir projeye girilmez hepsinin asgari bir bütçesi asgari bir iş gücü vardır ama orada fark yaratacak yöneticinin desteğidir.” (G8)

“...süreçlere çok uygun çalışmak gerekiyor. Ar-Ge projesi tamam, hiçbir şey tam belli değil, iteratif gidilebilir ama mutlaka o süreçlerin olması gerekiyor.” (G9)

Projenin başarısını, müşteri ya da ülkenin durumundan kaynaklanan nedenler de etkileyebilir (Negatif etkiler dile getirilmiştir) (G5, G9). Proje için fizibilite çalışması yapılması ve risklerin doğru şekilde öngörülebilmesi de olumlu bir faktördür (G6, G14, G15). İş birlikleri ile yapılan projelerde görev paylaşımının, kesişim kümesi en az olacak şekilde tanımlanması ve ortakların birbirlerini denk bir şekilde tamamlamaları başarıyı artıracaktır (G9, G13, G14).

“...işin başında projede görev alacak kurumların görev tanımlarını ve sorumluluklarını çok net bir şekilde planlamak ve mümkün olduğu kadar kurumlar arasındaki teknik arayüzü minimumda tutmak. Veya çok net tanımlamak gerekiyor.” (G9)

Ar-Ge projelerinde teknik hedeflerin yanı sıra insan kaynağı yetiştirmek, bilgileri paylaşmak gibi yan hedeflerin de gözetilmesi önemlidir (G6, G9, G13, G14, G16).

“sonuçta Ar-Ge projesinin aslında sadece teknik çıktuları değil, insan kaynağı çıktısı da olmak zorunda. ... ürünün yanı sıra en büyük çıktısı insan kaynağı.” (G9)

3. Çıktıların Başarı Algısındaki Rolü: Görüşülen kişilerin tamamının mutabık kaldığı üzere; Ar-Ge projesinin başarılı kabul edilebilmesi için muhakkak hedefler doğrultusunda -olumlu ya da olumsuz- bir çıktı elde edilmesi gerekmektedir. Dolayısıyla, hedefe ulaşılamama nedenlerinin de bir çıktı olarak ortaya konması gerekir (Tümü).

“Projenin çıktılarına bakıp nasıl başarılı olduğuna karar verebiliriz yani bir kere proje tip, o hedefler yani bir kere hedefler cinsinden önce değerlendirme yapmak lazım. ... çıktı da dediğimiz gibi çıktının çeşitleri var. Bunlar çıkmış olabilir, çıkmamışsa bile sebepleri iyi analiz edilmiş olabilir Ar-Ge projesinin. Normal projede mecburen sadece çıktıya bakılır. Çıktı varsa başarılı yoksa başarısız. Ama Ar-Ge projelerinde o belirsizlik riski var. Yani öngörülemezlik. Dolayısıyla bir sıkıntı olmaz diye düşünüyorum.” (G10)

Ar-Ge projelerinde üretilen çıktıların etki düzeyi ne kadar büyük olursa -türünden bağımsız olarak, yayının atıfları ya da ürünlerin kullanılabilirliği, karşıladığı ihtiyacın

önem düzeyi ya da etkilediği kişi sayısı- projenin başarı algısı da o kadar olumlu olur (G6, G7, G14).

“Hedeflerinin olması ve hedeflerine ulaşılması, bence önemli aşamalar, AR-GE projelerinde. Tabi burada makale veya yayın çıkmasıyla, ürün çıkması, rapor çıkması, bence aşağı yukarı denk olan şeyler ama hangisi daha değerlidir dersiniz tabi toplumun refahını arttıracak düzeyde ve impact faktörü, etki faktörü yüksek, bize asimetrik güç kazandıracak şeylerin ortaya çıkması, çok daha önemli. ...en başarılı AR-GE projesinin impact faktörünün en yüksek olması lazım.”(G14)

Ar-Ge proje sonuçlarının somut ürün ya da teknolojilere dönüşmesi, projenin daha başarılı olarak algılanmasını sağlayacaktır (G4, G8, G12).

“Nihayetinde Ar-Ge belki bir ürünle bitmeyebilir, çalışma, ama Ar-Ge’si tamamlanmış, tatminkâr bir şekilde tamamlanmış bir proje, bir prototip haline gelmiş olması ve elle tutulur, gözle görülür bir şekle bürünmüş olması, belli isterler kapsamında ve belli bir zaman diliminde o projeyi hakikaten başarılı gösterecektir.”(G8)

Ar-Ge projelerinde elde edilen soyut çıktılar da çoktur ve önemlidir. Bu çıktıların da başlangıçta hedefler arasına konup görünür hale getirilmesi gerekir. İnsan kaynağı, altyapı ve yetkinlik geliştirilmesi araştırmanın geleceği açısından çok önemlidir (G9, G11, G15, G16).

“Bence bilgi ve yarı mamul üreten daha değerli, prototip üretmek ürüne ve teknolojiye yönelik, endüstriye yönelik bir şey olduğu için o sınırlı kalmış oluyor; ama Ar-Ge sırf o taraftan yapılmadığı için çok geniş kapsamlı bir Ar-Ge yapıyor sosyal olarak... Yarı mamuller çok kıymetli bence. Ar-Ge çalışmalarında. Birden fazla yerde kullanılabilir.”(G11)

“(bazı çıktılar diğerlerinden biraz daha kıymetlidir) Diyebiliriz. ... devletin finanse ettiği projelerde tek hedef bir ürün ortaya çıkarmak değil bu ürünün sürdürülebilirliğini sağlayacak altyapıyı da oluşturmak. ... Bu insan gücüyle ilgili. İkincisi üretim altyapısı.”(G15)

Üretilen çıktılarının türünün başarı algısı üzerindeki etkisi, hem değerlendirmeyi yapan tarafların bakış açısına, hem de projenin türü ve amaçlarına göre değişmektedir (G5, G10, G13).

“...akademik bakanlar ne kadar özgün bir sonuç çıkarsa o çalışmanın yayınlanabilirliği ve yayınlandıktan sonra atıf alma gücü çok fazla olacaktır. Ancak fonlayıcı açısından yani projeyi destekleyen para veren açısından ise yaygın etkisine göre bir sıralama olacaktır. Yani hangi çıktı toplumsal olarak en büyük yaygın etkiyi en güçlü yaygın etkiyi yaratır diye soracaktır.” (G13)

Ar-Ge çıktılarının mümkün olduğu kadar belgelendirilmesi ve paylaşılması; başka alanlarda kullanılmasına, yaygın etkisinin artırılmasına ve araştırmaların ilerletilmesine katkı sağlayacaktır. Ar-Ge projelerinde üretilen ara çıktılar da nihai çıktılar kadar önemlidir. Bu tür belgelendirilme, araştırma sonuçlarının ileriye taşınmasında ve yeni projelerde kullanılmasına fayda sağlar (G4, G9, G10).

“... sadece Ar-Ge projesiyle kalmıyor onun daha sonra başka platformlara uygulanması da söz konusu olabiliyor. Bu çıktılar gerçekten çok kıymetli, şu tanımla gireceğim aslında yeniden kullanılabilirlik. ... Dolayısıyla sizin bu Ar-Ge çalışmasını yaparken her ne kadar ilk defa yapılan bir şey de olsa çok sistematik gidip dokümanlarınızı çok sistematik tutmanız gerekiyor.” (G9)

“Ama mesela orada o ana şey o problem çözülmüşse ana şey gerçekleşmiştir yan faydalar çok iyi gerçekleşemez bazen yayınlar çıkmazsa.” (G10)

4. Başarı Olasılığının Proje Türü ya da Amacına göre Durumu: Ar-Ge projesinin başarı olasılığının amacına göre değişeceğini düşünen uzmanlar bulunmaktadır (G4, G6, G7, G8, G10, G11, G14, G15, G16).

“Olur, tabii farklılaşma olur. Şöyle olur. Konu ne kadar belirsizse risk o kadar artar.” (G7)

“(Amacına göre) Evet türüne göre Ar-Ge’nin başarı oranının değişeceğini çok ciddi düşünüyorum. Mesela sosyal içerikli veyahut da çok geniş kitleleri ilgilendiren çalışmalar hemen sonuç vermiyor yani bir neticeye hemen çabuk varmıyor.” (G11)

Öte yandan, Ar-Ge projesinin amacının başarı olasılığı üzerinde etkisi olmayacağını düşünen uzmanlar da bulunmaktadır (G5).

“... (amacına göre) çok farklılaşacağını sanmıyorum. ... ama finans türü öyle bir şeyi var farklılığı var açıkçası. ... mesela burada projenin tipine göre de şeyi değişiyor yani bir fizibilite projesi ile bir ürün geliştirme projesiyse bunların başarı ölçütleri muhakkak farklı olacaktır.” (G5)

Ar-Ge projesinin başarı olasılığının, temel araştırma, uygulamalı araştırma ya da deneysel geliştirme gibi türlerine bağlı olarak farklılaşacağı düşünülmektedir (G4, G5, G6, G7, G8, G9, G11, G13, G14, G15).

“... temel bilimlerde bir bilgi geliştirildikten sonra, bunun uygulamaya nasıl aktarılacağı ve bu uygulamadaki kullanım alanlarının nasıl çeşitlendirilebileceği daha kolaylıkla yürütülebilecek çalışmalar oluyor.” (G6)

“... mesela altyapı projelerinde daha yüksek başarı elde edilir danışmanlık projelerinde konusuna göre yüksek veya düşük başarılar elde edilebilir. Teknolojik

konularda genellikle yeni konularda yeni alanlarda en yüksek risk orada da en yüksek başarısızlık ihtimali oradadır.” (G7)

“Neticede hiç yapılmamış bir ürünü, hiç yapılmamış bir teknolojiyi, hiç kullanılmamış bir malzemeyi ortaya koyup bunu araştırma geliştirme sonucunda bir yerlerde kullanıyorsunuz bunun fail etme olasılığı ürün geliştirmeden bence kesinlikle daha fazla.”(G15)

Ar-Ge projesinin türünün başarı olasılığı üzerinde etkisi olmayacağını düşünen ya da bu kısım ile ilgili yorum yapmayan uzmanlar da bulunmaktadır (G10, G12, G16). Bazı uzmanlar tarafından, Ar-Ge projesinin fon kaynağının başarı olasılığı üzerinde etkisi olduğu düşünülmektedir (G5).

“...proje türünün çok etkisi olmayabilir.” (G10)

5. Süreden Sapma Etkisi: Klasik projelerden farklı olarak, Ar-Ge projelerinde süre uzatması alınması doğrudan bir başarısızlık faktörü olarak değerlendirilmemektedir (Tümü).

“Bir miktar olumsuz etkiler ama gerekebilir de böyle şeyler çünkü Ar-Ge projelerinin aslında zamanında biten bir tanesini ben hatırlamıyorum.” (G7)

“...her gecikme projenin başarısız olduğunu göstermiyor diye düşünüyorum ben.”(G15)

Ar-Ge projelerinde süre uzatması alınmasının başarı algısı üzerinde olumlu etki bıraktığı durumlar da vardır (G6, G8, G10, G13).

“Yani, ben başarısız olarak görmezdim, belki çok daha iyi bir sonuca ulaşmak için bir fırsat ve daha iyi bir noktaya taşınması için gerekli bir adım olarak görüp değerlendirirdik. Ve yapılan tabii projede belirtilen hedeflerdeki raporlar burada çok önemli.”(G6)

“Projelerde ek süre alınması gayet, hele Türkiye şartlarında, bence normal bir durum. Beni şahsen hiç olumsuz etkilemez. Aksine her şeyin zamanında çok hızlı yapılmış olması hedeflerin biraz böyle kolay seçildiği izlenimi uyandırır.”(G13)

Süre uzatmasından çok, bu uzatmanın neden alındığına ilişkin kök nedenin, başarı algısı üzerinde etkisi vardır. Ar-Ge belirsizliğinden (özellikle de önceden öngörülebilmeye) ya da dış etkenlerden (müşteri ya da konjonktürel) kaynaklanan uzatmalar olumlu karşılanırken, çalışmalarındaki ya da proje yönetimindeki yetersizlik, hedeflerdeki odağın ya da kaynakların kaybedilmesi nedenleriyle yapılan uzatma istekleri olumsuz olarak değerlendirilmektedir (G4, G5, G6, G8, G9, G10, G11, G12, G14, G15, G16).

“... belki orada o uzama da size bir bilgi birikimi olarak geri döneceği için ondan sonra geliştireceğiniz projelerde onu telafi etme ya da belki bir sonraki projeyi ondan daha kısa sürede yapma gibi bir avantaja çevirir.”(G8)

“Bir kere süre uzatmışsa veya ek bütçe istiyorsa sebebine bakmak lazım. Projenin başındaki o belirsizlik ve risklerle tanımlanmış olması lazım.”(G10)

“Ara çıktıklarına bakarım orada. Ara çıktılarında makul şeyler var mı yok mu? Eğer ara çıktıları tatmin edici değilse, nedenlerini sorarım, ikna ederseler, çünkü Ar-Ge projesinde belli bir belirsizlik var.”(G14)

6. Bütçeden Sapma Etkisi: Katılımcıların tamamının katıldığı bir görüş olarak, Ar-Ge projelerinde belli bir miktar bütçe sapması aslında beklenen bir durumdur. Bu sapmanın belli limitler dahilinde olması başarısızlık algısı oluşturmaz fakat iki katına çıkarmak gibi durumlar pek kabul edilemez (Tümü).

“Bence doğal o, emin olun doğal....AR-GE projesinin zaman ve bütçe açısından sapmasını ben çok kötü algılamam.”(G14)

“AR-GE projesinin bütçesinin de tanımlanmış bütçe ve maliyetlerini tamamlaması bile bence bir başarıdır ve de sizin o yol boyunca riskleri yönetmek için çoğu kez ekstra maliyeti göze almanız gerekir.”(G15)

Belirsizliklerin başlangıçta öngörülüp bütçenin ve zamanın esneyebileceği üzerinde anlaşılması ya da belli risk payları eklenmesi gereklidir (G6, G8, G9, G10, G14, G15, G16).

“Orada da bütçenin tabii aşımalar diyoruz ama aşımaların mertebesi de önemli. Feasible olmaktan çıkarıyorsa o büyük bir başarısızlık olabilir.”(G16)

“Sebeplerle bağlantılandırılabiliriyorsa hem süre hem bütçe uzatması mantıklı ama onun dışında ya yaptık olmadı, biraz daha süre verin şeklinde...projenin başında öngörülmemiş şekilde keyfi bir şeye bağlantılandırılıyorsa bence başarısızlık var diye anlaşılandırılabilir iki durum da.”(G10)

“Dolayısıyla bütçe benim fikrim bu tabii naçizane bütçesinin içinde kalması bile bir AR-GE projesinin ya kafa kafaya bitirmesi bile bence başarılı nitelendirilebilir yani kâr zaten düşünülemez hatta belli bir oranda bir risk payı bile düşünülebilir.”(G15)

Katılımcıların tamamı tarafından ifade edildiği üzere Ar-Ge projelerindeki bütçe sapmalarında rol oynayan belli başlı etkenler; belirsizlikler, uzun sürelerden kaynaklanan enflasyon-kur farkı riskleri, stratejik sebeplerle başlangıçta bütçenin düşük belirlenmiş olması, tedarik edilecek teknolojilerin yenilenmesi, ilave deneyler, testlerin tekrarlanması, ilave insan kaynağı ya da eğitim/danışmanlık ihtiyacının ortaya çıkması, kötü yönetim

sonucunda bütçe disiplinsizliğinin oluşması ya da öngörülerin yeteri kadar özenli yapılmamış olmasıdır. Bunlardan son iki tanesi dışında hiçbir başarı algısı açısından olumsuz değerlendirilmemiştir (Tümü).

“...orada da yine benzer aslında, bizim ülkemizde bir gerçek, kur farkı. ... O çok büyük bir risk ve önüne geçmeniz mümkün değil, onun dışında yani hani belki çok iyi incelenmeden alınmasına karar verilmiş ürünler yüzünden malzemeler yüzünden bütçeden sapılıyorsa o başarısızlık sayılabilir yani, veya kötü planlayıp o süreci kötü yürütmek olabilir aslında. Bunun dışında bütçe artışı çok... 3 senelik 5 senelik projelerden bahsediyoruz. Çok normal sapması” (G9)

“Bazen bazı tarihleri öne çekmekle ilgili hamle yapmanız gerekir. Bazen bir tedarikçiyi yedeklemeniz gerekir. Bazen konseptte iki paralel konseptle gidip projenin bir aşamasında konsept seçimi yapıp öyle devam etmeniz gerekir çünkü hangi konseptin başarılı olacağına ancak o noktada karar verebilecek olursunuz.”(G15)

3.2. Ar-Ge iş birliklerindeki dinamikler

1. İş Birliği Motivasyonları: Bir Ar-Ge projesinde iş birliği yapmak için en önemli neden olarak yetkinliklerin birleştirilmesi ve birbirini tamamlama ihtiyacı tüm katılımcılar tarafından belirtilmiştir (Tümü).

“Bir kere her kurumun katacağı bilgi, katacağı deneyim, katkı düzeyi, paydaş alanı yani bu da çok önemli çünkü yani bu ister imalat sektörü olsun ister teknoloji, fen bilimleri, hangi alanda kullanılırsa kullansın hiç kimse bugün tek başına bilgiye hakim olma ve yönetme konusunda yeterliliğe sahip olduğunu ileri süremez.” (G6)

“...farklı disiplinlerin içinde bulunduğu büyük projeler söz konusu olduğunda farklı kurumlar da işin içine giriyor.” (G9)

Büyük boyutlu projelerde; bütçenin, riskin ve kaynakların paylaşılması amacıyla iş birliği yapılabilir (G7, G13, G14). Müşterinin isteği ya da pazarın beklentileri nedeniyle iş birliklerine gidilebilir (G4, G6, G10, G13, G15). Hızı ve kaliteyi artırmak, teknoloji transfer etmek ve insan gücünün yetişmesini sağlamak amacıyla (G5, G6, G8, G10, G11, G12, G13, G15), kaynakların projeyi tek başına yapmak için yeterli olmaması durumunda (G4, G10, G15, G16) ya da Ar-Ge ekosisteminin geliştirilmesi amacıyla iş birliği yapılabilir (G4, G10).

“İş birlikleri tecrübenin bir araya gelmesi oluyor farklı kuruluşların veya insanların. O tecrübeler de Ar-Ge'nin amacını çok daha hızlı ve doğru anlamlı çalışmalarla ulaşmasını sağlıyor. İşbirliğinde bence bu çok önemli.”(G11)

“... projenin bileşenlerine bağlı olarak herkesin uzmanlık alanlarında faaliyet

göstereceği maliyet etkin bir yapılanma olması lazım bence. ...büyük orta üstü büyüklükteki ürünler için iş birliğine ihtiyaç var.”(G14)

“...projelerde çok ortaklık durumunun fon sağlayıcı tarafından teşvik edilmesi. Yani anlatabildim mi yani bu teşvike de karşılık vermiş olmak.”(G13)

“Zaman, bütçe tabii o işgücünden faydalanmanın şeyi, zaman kısıtları hani süreyi de efektif kullanabilme adına iş birliğine girilebilir.”(G10)

“...partnerimin o çalışma konusundaki isminden, prestijinden, itibarından istifade etme.”(G13)

“...proje ekibindeki çalışanların çalışan sayısının yeterli olmaması yani uzmanlık var fakat işgücü yeterli değil. İşgücünü takviye etmek için olabilir iş birliği yapmak.”(G4)

“Veya bazen de şey oluyor, kurumsal politikalar yani şu problemi biz yapabiliyoruz ama yapmayacağız, bu daha üst politikalar gereği bu konuyu şu kurumla paylaşacağız onlarla birlikte yapacağız şeklinde. Kurumsal kaynak olabilir veya şu ekip boş durmasın o ekip de projeden faydalansın atıl kalmamasın, hem de yetişsin ilerisi için diye kurumsal politikalar da bazı iş birliklerini zorunlu kılabilir yani. Ve ulusal politikalar bazen olabilir bu şekilde mesela bu konu şu kurumun tekelindedir denilebilir, mecburen o konuyu o kurumlarla çalışmak zorunda kalıyorsunuz.”(G10)

2. İş Birliklerinin Önündeki Engeller: Ar-Ge iş birliklerinde tarafların aynı hedefleri paylaşmamaları ve farklı yönlere gitmek istemeleri, koordinasyonun zayıf olması problem oluşturur (G4, G8, G10, G12, G15).

“İş birliğinin önündeki en büyük etken bunun yönetim safhası. Yani buradaki koordinasyon.”(G8)

“Hem kapsamda çok iyi anlaşmak gerekiyor çünkü hakikaten çok açık yazdığını düşündüğünüz bir takım iş tanımlarında bile iş birliklerinde karşılıklı biz bunu böyle anlamadık denebiliyor. ...Genelde husumetler iş tariflerinden ve takvimlerden çıkıyor diyebilirim.”(G15)

“...iletişim yani iletişimin sağlanamaması düzgün olmaması işte aşırı geç cevap dönülmesi gibi konular beni rahatsız eder.”(G4)

“İş birliklerinde en önemli husus, görev tanımlarının ve bütçe dağılımlarının doğru (hakkaniyetli) yapılması olur.”(G12)

İş birliği yapan kurumların proje çıktılarında ya da itibardan daha fazla pay almak istemeleri sorun oluşturabilir (G5, G6, G7, G9, G10, G12, G14).

“Bir diğer unsur yine daha önce sözünü ettiğim projeden elde edilecek kazanımların, iş birliği yapan taraflar arasında nasıl dağıtılacağına dair noktaların çok iyi saptanmaması. ...en büyük engel kurumların bir kere ... gücü paylaşmak istememesi. Projedeki o hakimiyeti kaybetme riski. Projenin sahipliğini yitirme riski. Proje sırasında sonrasında etkiyi kaybedebilme düşüncesi.”(G6)

İş birliği yapan kurumlar arasında çok büyük kültür farklılıkları, iş yapma tarzlarında ya da büyüklüklerinde çok fazla fark olması durumunda özellikle iletişim gibi konularda sorunlar yaşanabilir (G4, G6, G7, G8, G9, G10, G11, G13, G14, G16).

“teknik olarak onlarla iş yapmaktan büyük zevk alıyorsunuz ve siz de bir şeyler kazanıyorsunuz karşılıklı bir bilgi alışverişi oluyor ama idari olarak bakıldığında mesela ortak kullanılması gereken bir bilginin paylaşılmadığı durumla karşılaştık. O bilgiyi size vermiyor veya kısıtlı bir şekilde vermeye kalkıyor.”(G9)

“İş birliği yapılacak kurumların aynı özdeş güçte mali güçlerde olmayışları, hem mali açıdan hem de iş gücü açısından belki handikaplar yaratıyor olabilir.”(G8)

İş birliği yapan kurumlar projeye yeterli taahhüttü sağlamadığında, iş paketleri aksayabilir ve özellikle kritik yol üzerindeki iş paketleri üzerinden çok ciddi sorunlar yaşanabilir (G4, G6, G9, G11, G13, G15, G16).

“Yani işte sizin işinizi çok kurallara bağlı olarak yürütmeye çalıştığınız halde diğer tarafın biraz daha belki o sırada aynı çalışma grubunu farklı projelerde de kullandığı için olabiliyor böyle şeyler. Aynı gücü bu tarafa vermemesi nedeniyle çıkan sıkıntılar olabiliyor. Çok spesifik olacak belki ama müşteri nasıl olsa bunu kabul eder işte ilk defa yapılıyor daha önce hiç yapılmamış bir şey diyelim ki hedefte işte 5 çıkması lazım ya ben bunu 3 de yapsam hiç yapılmadığı için 3’ü de kabul eder deyip işi öyle bir sekteye uğratma şekli.”(G9)

“...bu paydaşlar arasında problemi sahiplenmeme, farklı sahiplik derecelendirmesi olunca aidiyet duygusu farklı olunca büyük dengesizlikler oluyor.”(G10)

““Önyargılar. ...her şey yukarıda çok güzel fakat aşağıya inince çözülemeyip işlerin ters döndüğünü ve yapılamadığını gördük yani. ...Paylaşmayı ve iş birliğini sevmiyoruz. ...güven çok önemli yani iş ahlakı çok önemli aslında kazan kazan olarak gitmesi lazım işlerin ama maalesef kazan da daha çok aşağı çekme şeklinde oluyor.”(G14)

“ilgili hatanın sahibi problemin kendinden olduğunu bile hiç varsaymıyor. Direkt senden bekliyor sende hata vardır diye bekliyor.”(G11)

Ar-Ge projelerinde ortaya çıkan sonuçların veya fikirlerin kötü niyetli olarak alınması, kullanılması ya da üçüncü taraflarla izinsiz olarak paylaşılması büyük sorunlar oluşturur. Fikrî mülkiyet haklarının paylaşımı konusunda hukukî problemler çıkabilir (G6, G10, G11).

“...kendisine ait olmayan çıktıları bile kendisininmiş gibi lanse etme, onları başka projelerde sistemlerde kullanmaya girişimler yani hak, fikrî mülkiyet hakkı paylaşımı konusunda uyumsuzluklar olursa ondan ekipler çok rahatsız olur. ...en kısa sürede en fazla bilgiyi hemen transfer edelim şeklinde bir ticari kaygı hissedince yani demek ki gelecekte birlikte yürüme derterli yok, yani yetişince rakip olacaklar bize. O tip durumlarda pek yürümüyor.”(G10)

Bürokratik ve mevzuatla ilgili sorunlar yaşanabilir, bazen de uluslararası menfaatler devreye girebilir ve iş birliğine fazladan eklenen ülkeler (ya da kurumlar) olabilir; bunlar, projeyi yavaşlatma ya da bilgi saklama, sızdırma gibi faaliyetlerde bulunabilirler (G7, G10, G13, G15).

“En önemli engel, bürokrasi. Ve mevzuat. Yani bir kurumla iş birliği yapmak istersiniz, belli sağlamanız gereken prosedürler vardır onlarla uğraşsınız, ne diyeyim, bürokratik engeller vardır.”(G7)

“...genelde Ar-Ge projelerinde ve teknoloji geliştirmede iş birlikleri, en azından belli bir fazda, yurtdışından belli bilgileri, bunu daha önce yapmış işin core mühendisliğinde ya da core bilgisinde bulunan yerlerden almak noktasında önündeki engeller bir kere, işte bu tür stratejik projelerde gizlilik, güvenlik, stratejik, kritik bilgilerin ülkeden ülkeye aktarılması noktasındaki kısıtlar var. İkincisi rekabet hususları var.”(G15)

Projenin bütçesinin yetersiz olması, sözleşmelerin ağır koşullar içermesi ya da stratejik gereklilikler nedeniyle bazı paydaşlar iş birliğine dahil edilemeyebilir (G7, G12, G15).

“...proje büyüklüğü bütçe ile ilgili kısıtlar varsa siz ilgili paydaşları da belki katamayabilirsiniz.”(G7)

“Belki Ar-Ge yapılacak konunun gizliliği, stratejik önemi bulunuyorsa ek paydaşlar istenmeyip tüm çalışmaların belirlenmiş tek kurum tarafından yapılması istenebilir.”(G12)

Fon sağlayıcıların dikte ettiği koşullardan ya da projeye hangi iş birliği modelinin uygun olacağını doğru tayin edilememesinden kaynaklanan problemler yaşanabilir (G10, G13, G16).

“... yani gereksiz yere işin içine yeni paydaşlar katılıyorsa mesela o iş birliğini başta proje ekibi, istemez yani. Kaçmaya çalışır.”(G10)

“...bize baştan böyle şart koştuğları için böyle yola çıkınca biz hatalı bir ortakla gitmek zorunda kaldık. ...senin alt yükleniciliğini yapacak firmayı sen ortak olarak aldığın zaman o firmaya mahkumsun çünkü ortaklığı bozamiyorsun sözleşme yapıldıktan sonra. Yani bunun iyi bir model olmadığını düşündüm sonradan.”(G13)

“...fıkren açık olmak modelleri bilmek, hangi projede hangi işte hangi iş birliği modelinin en optimum ideal olduğuna bakmak lazım.”(G16)

3. İş Birliğinin Faydaları: Disiplinler arası, farklı uzmanlıklar gerektiren ve tek bir kurumun o yetkinliğe sahip olmadığı ve kolaylıkla sahip olamayacağı durumlarda birbirini tamamlayan kurumlar arası iş birlikleri, tüm katılımcıların ittifakla belirttiği gibi, kaçınılmaz olmaktadır (Tümü).

“Ama bunun haricinde farklı farklı uzmanlık alanları var. İşin farklı farklı disiplinleri var. ...Oradaki uzman ekibe veya altyapılara ihtiyacınız var. Tek başına kotaramıyorsunuz o işi. O zaman da kurumların birlikte çalışmasında zorunluluk var. Fayda var da demiyorum, zorunluluk var.”(G7)

Proje konusunun farklı bakış açılarıyla ele alınması ve sonuçların yaygınlaştırılması gereken durumlarda iş birlikleri yarar sağlamaktadır (G6, G11, G13, G15).

“Yani büyük projelerde, altyapısı, ekosistemi, büyük projelerde bir kere mutlaka iş birlikleri büyüklerle yapmak lazım. Burada dış paydaş almak sizi çok hızlandırıyor. Özel sektör mesela olursa ön tarafta, çok daha iyi seyahat edebiliyor. Alım satımı orası yaparsa çok daha hızlı yapıyor. İsteddiğiniz şeyi alabiliyor öbür türlü siz istediğiniz ürünü alamabiliyorsunuz. Kamunun verdiği bir hantallıktan ve tarafsızlıktan dolayı. Büyük projelerde altyapı projelerinde sosyal projelerde ve sistem projelerinde kesinlikle iş birliksiz yapılmaması gereken projeler.”(G11)

İş paketlerinin kolaylıkla ayrıştırılabildiği, risklerin ve kaynakların paylaşılabilirdiği hallerde iş birlikleri fayda sağlamaktadır (G8, G9, G16).

“...iş birliği, sadece ve sadece multidisipliner projelerde benim o konuda yeteneğim yoksa bu işi yapabilecek işgücüm yoksa yani ben onu bir paket halinde verip paket halinde sonuç alabiliyorsam, o zaman çok verimli. Mümkünse hiç, minimum iletişimle, minimum temasla ben bu işimi halledeyim.”(G9)

Tek bir kurumun proje için gerekli yetkinlik ve kaynaklara sahip olduğu, proje konusunun gizlilik derecesinin ya da fikri mülkiyet hakkı paylaşımında sorun çıkarma potansiyelinin yüksek olduğu durumlarda tek çalışılması; yine tüm katılımcıların ifadesiyle, iş birliklerine göre daha elverişlidir (Tümü).

“...tek başına, belki az önce o söylediğimiz temel bilimlerde bu mesela, temel bilim alanında bir çalışmaysa ve kişinin sadece kendi uzmanlık alanı içindeki bir konu ve alansa, araştırma geliştirme yapılan, belki o zaman tek başına çalışılabilir. Ama diğer projelerde daha çok dediğim türdeki çalışmaların yapılması gerektiğini düşünüyorum.”(G6)

“Çok spesifik, sınırlı bir konuda alanda üründe çalışmak, iş birliğine gerek yok orada, yavaşlatır.”(G11)

“Tek çalışmanın fayda sağlayacağı durum, bir takım icrai işler alt yükleniciler kullanılarak yaptırılabilirse yani olası ortaklar arasında çıpa çok büyük olup denklik sağlamak mümkün olmayacaksa tek bir yürütücünün ister laboratuvar analizleri olsun ister prototip imalatı olsun kendisi alt yüklenicilere yaptırarak çözmesi daha pratik daha yönetilebilir oluyor.”(G13)

Çok benzer uzmanlıklara sahip kurumların iş birliği yapmak yerine tek çalışması ya da iş paketlerinin tamamen ayrıştırılması daha çok fayda sağlayacaktır (G7, G8, G9, G10).

“Bir kurum bir alanda gerçekten yetkinse işi A’dan Z’ye toparlayabilecekse o zaman sadece o kurumun o işi yapması daha verimlidir böyle bir durumda.”(G7)

4. İş Birliğinin Boyutu: Ar-Ge iş birliklerinde kurum sayısı arttıkça projenin yönetimi ve özellikle de iletişim zorlaşmaktadır. Bütün katılımcıların ifade ettiği üzere; kurum sayısının mümkün olabilecek en küçük sayıda tutulması projenin başarılı olabilmesi için bir gerekliliktir (Tümü).

“...iş birliği yapılan kurum sayısı arttıkça hayat bence hiç de beklendiği kadar olmayacak bir şekilde zorlaşır.”(G4)

“Seyahat masraflarından tutun iletişim problemlerinden tutun, haberleşmeden tutun projenin güvenliğinden tutun mesela bu bir gizli projeyse şeyi nasıl olacak? ...kurum sayısı arttıkça o güvenliği sağlamak, işin güvenlik boyutu da var. Güvenlik ile ilgili de zorluklar yaşanır. Birçok zorluk yaşanır.”(G7)

“Dışarıdan ve mecburen sokulmuşlarda, işte o da olsun da öğrensin bu işi denilen noktada, işte orada ona engel olup ‘bunun çözümü bu değil; bunun bir yöntemi var, teknoloji transferi diye bir süreç var’ deyip bunun yeri burası, bunun yeri bu Ar-Ge projesinin içi olmamalı.”(G9)

“Burada ortakların nitelikleri çok önemli, şimdi üniversitelerin rolü daha çok temel araştırma, biraz da uygulamalı araştırma kısmında. Ama TÜBİTAK Enstitüleri gibi kurumların rolü, daha çok uygulamalı araştırma, deneysel geliştirme kısmında. Firmaların rolü, deneysel geliştirme ve ürün geliştirme tarafında. Şimdi bu kesişim kümelerini düşünecek olursak, yaşam tarzı ve mesleki ilerleyişi tamamen temel araştırma, biraz uygulamalı araştırma ve yayın odaklı insanlarla ürün geliştirmecilerin bir arada çalışması çok zor oluyor”(G13)

Ar-Ge iş birliğindeki kurum sayısı arttıkça, bunların daha üstten yönetimini gerçekleştirecek bir otoriteye ya da çok ciddi bir koordinasyona ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır (G8, G11, G12, G13).

“...şöyle, mesela 3 güzel bir sayı 5 güzel bir sayı 7 güzel bir sayı bunun daha ötesi çok yorucu. Avrupa Birliği projelerinden biliyoruz, 20 tane paydaşı var. Ama işi asıl götüren iş paketlerinde gördüğümüz ya 5 kuruluş ya 7 kuruluş. Onlar büyük ekosistemle ilgili projeler olduğu için.”(G11)

“...iyi bir iş dağılımı ve iletişim planı, ortak anlayış ve ekipler arası iyi bir sinerji yakalanabildiği sürece kurum sayısı artırılabilir ancak bir noktadan sonra en iyi ekipler dahi bir araya getiriliyor olsa bunları ‘organize eden ortak yönetim’ birimi zorlanacaktır; bu nedenle iş birlikçi sayısı çok yüksek olmamalı.”(G12)

İş birliği yapılan kurum sayısının artmasının avantaj ve dezavantajlarının projenin amacına göre ya da projenin türüne göre değişebileceği ifade edilmiştir. Bunların projenin türünden bağımsız olarak gözlenebileceği de ifade edilmiştir (G4, G6, G11, G14, G15).

“Değişir. Yani bu sırf Ar-Ge projelerinde az olması lazım. Tek olması lazım mümkünse 1-2 diyoruz. Altyapı, sosyal veya kurumsal dönüşüm projelerinde 7’nin üzerine çıkabilir. Anlamsız da olsa koymak zorundasınız bazı paydaşları oraya.”(G11)

“Şimdi aslında burada tabi baya bir seçenek var. Ne tür proje olduğuna, büyüklüğüne göre değişiklik gösterebilir. Kurum sayısı arttıkça koordinasyonla ilgili sıkıntılar ortaya çıkmaya başlıyor.”(G14)

“Ben şu an sadece iş birliği yapılan kurum sayısının artmasının dezavantajı olduğunu söyleyebilirim. Yani bunun bir avantajını şu an, hani çok sayıda olmasının bir avantajı yok. Yönetilebilirliği kaybediyorsunuz çünkü sonuçta ...Siz on alt sistemi olan bir sistem tasarlıyorsanız bunun sekizini out source ederseniz, bu yönetilebilirliği kaybedersiniz. Çünkü sekiz farklı arenada, sekiz farklı projeyi yönetir hale gelirsiniz. Ama on tane alt sistemi olan bir sistem tasarlarken, yetkinliğinizi yeterli görmediğiniz iki üç tane konuda farklı mühendislik firmalarıyla çalışırsanız, bu yönetilebilir olabilir. ...Hizmet alımında bir problem yok ama tasarım iş paketlerinde çok fazla iş birliği yapmak işin karmaşıklığını, yönetilmesini, takibini zorlaştırır, diye düşünüyorum yani çok avantajlı bir konu değil.”(G15)

4. Tartışma

Başarı olasılığının Ar-Ge projesinin türüne göre farklılaşması ve iş birliğinin Ar-Ge projesinin daha fazla değer üretmesine yol açması konularında, durumsallığa işaret eden çeşitli istisnalar belirtilmiştir.

Ar-Ge projelerinin başarı olasılığının tahmininin, karmaşık ve zor bir iş olduğu uzmanlarca ifade edilmiştir. Bununla beraber, yaygın etkisinin fazla olması umulan projelerin, temellendikleri ihtiyaçları karşılamaya ne kadar yaklaştıklarına bağlı

olarak, daha başarılı olarak algılanma olasılıklarının biraz daha yüksek olması beklenebilmektedir. Projenin esas hedefiyle bağlantılı olmak koşuluyla ilave çıktılar ya da beklenen çıktılar özelliğinin artırılması olumlu karşılanabilirken, uzmanlar, amaçtan saptıracak yeni hedefler peşinde koşulmaması, gerekirse bunun için başka proje açılmasını önermektedirler. Ar-Ge'nin bilgi üretimi, yeniden kullanılabilirliği ve yayılmasına yönelik olan (insan yetiştirme dahil) soyut hedeflerinin başlangıçta açıkça belirlenerek bunların elde edilmesini garanti altına alacak tedbirler alınması başarı olasılığını değiştirmese bile görünürlüğünü artırdığı için başarı algısına olumlu katkı yapmaktadır. Klasik projeler için temel ölçütler olan kapsam, bütçe ve süre içinde gibi kalma gibi konular Ar-Ge projeleri için biraz daha ikinci planda değerlendirilebilir, bunlara da dikkat edilmesi ve dramatik sapmalara yol açılmamasının projenin başarı algısı açısından önemli olduğu düşünülmektedir. Weck'in (2006) çalışmasında da benzer şekilde, görüşülen uzmanlar, gerçek bir 'kazan-kazan' durumunun yaratılmasının, açık rollerin ve sorumlulukların, müşteri odaklı yaklaşım ve tamamlayıcı uzman bilgi alışverişinin, firmalar arası bilgi yaratım sürecinde önemli kritik başarı faktörleri olduğuna dikkat çekmiştir.

Ar-Ge projelerinde hedeflerin ve bunlar üzerindeki belirsizliklerin net olarak belirlenmesinin, bu hedefler belirlenirken müşteri ve ihtiyaç odaklı olunmasının, bunların gerektiğinde güncellenmesinin, proje paydaşları ile iletişimin kuvvetli, düzenli ve önemli noktalarda yazılı hale getirilmesinin proje başarısı üzerinde olumlu etkileri olduğu ifade edilmektedir. Proje yöneticisinin ve ekibinin tecrübesinin, yetkinliğinin, aidiyetinin, birlikte çalışabilmesinin, eğitim almaya ve vermeye açık olmasının, motivasyonunun, hedefleri doğru bir şekilde anlamasının ve odaktan şaşmadan bu doğrultuda hareket etmesinin, proje planlarında esnekliğin sağlanabilmesinin ve buna tüm paydaşların uyum sağlayabilmesinin, üst yönetimin projeye olan desteğinin ve sorun çözme yeteneklerinin proje başarısı için önemli olduğu görüşünde birleşmiştir. Güven, açıklık ve taahhüt değerlerinin Ar-Ge proje başarısı ve çıktıları üzerindeki etkilerini, Norveç'teki bir Ar-Ge merkezinde yaptıkları 12 tane derinlemesine mülakat ile inceleyen Ghazinejad ve ark. (2018) da, elde ettikleri sonuçlarda "güven" kavramının özellikle erken safhalarda takım üyeleri ve müşterilerle olan iletişim maliyetlerini azalttığını, güven eksikliğinde ise bilgi paylaşımının azaldığını tespit etmişlerdir. Yine Türkiye'de yapılmış bir anket çalışmasında (Reyhanoğlu, 2006), güven boyutları ile en fazla ilişki, karşılıklı öğrenme arasında çıkmış ve uzmanların bu yöndeki ifadelerini desteklemektedir. Chen ve ark. (2012), Ar-Ge projelerinin performansı ile bunun belirleyicileri arasındaki ilişkileri inceledikleri çalışmada, proje yöneticisinin yetkinliğinin ve takım çalışmasının etkinliğinin proje performansı üzerinde monoton artan bir etkisi olduğunu saptamıştır.

Projenin gerçekleştirilebilmesi için gerekli süreçler, kaynaklar ve altyapının var olmasının ve projenin doğasına uygun olarak doğru bir şekilde kullanılmasının, takip edilmesinin, bilgilerin belgelendirilmesinin de projenin başarısı, sonuçların

yaygınlaştırılabilmesi ve sürdürülebilirliği açısından faydalı olduğu dile getirilmiştir. Özellikle büyük çaptaki projeler için fizibilite çalışmasının yapılması, risk yönetiminin iyi yapılması, iş birliği yapılması ve iş birlikleri ile yapılan projelerde görev paylaşımının kesişim kümesi en az olacak şekilde tanımlanması ve birbirlerini denk bir şekilde tamamlamaları da başarıyı artıracak unsurlar olarak aktarılmıştır. İnsan kaynağı yetiştirmenin ve bilgiyi paylaşmanın, tecrübe kazanmanın da Ar-Ge projeleri için önemli çıktılardan olduğu hemen hemen tüm katılımcılar tarafından ifade edilmiştir.

Ar-Ge projelerinde elde edilen çıktılar ürün, teknoloji, yayın, altyapı şeklinde somut ya da teknik bilgi (know-how) üretimi, insan kaynağı yetiştirme, ekosistem geliştirme gibi soyut olabilmektedir. Projenin doğrudan hedeflerinin yanında, dolaylı olarak ürettiği çıktılardan da hedef olarak ilave edilmesinin o projeden elde edilecek faydayı artırması beklenir. Projenin türüne, amacına ve değerlendiren tarafların bakış açısına göre farklılık gösterse de, somut çıktılardan başarı üzerinde daha olumlu etkisi olduğu algısı bulunmaktadır. Çıktının türünden bağımsız olarak, oluşturduğu etkilerin ve gelecekteki araştırmalara sağladığı katkıların fazlalığı, uzmanların gözünde başarı algısını olumlu etkilemektedir. Proje sonuçlarının belgelendirilmesi, yayınlanması ve paylaşılması kadar; gereksinim, test, doğrulama raporları gibi ara çıktılardan da üretilerek paylaşılmasının, teknik bilgi oluşumunu ve benzer Ar-Ge projelerini hızlandırdığı ifade edilmiştir.

Ar-Ge projesinin başarı olasılığının, projenin amacına, türüne ve fon kaynağına göre farklılaşması beklenmektedir. İfadelerden anlaşıldığı kadarıyla, projenin amacına göre olması beklenen farklılaşmanın, projenin oluşturacağı etki ve müşterilerin tutumu ile ilişkisi vardır. Müşteriler tarafından kabul görüp benimsenen, karşıladığı ihtiyaçların önemi daha büyük olan projelerde elde edilecek en küçük ilerlemelerin; başarı algısı, dolayısıyla başarı olasılığı üzerinde olumlu katkısı beklenebilir. Projenin türüne göre beklenen farklılaşmanın, temel araştırmadan deneysel geliştirmeye doğru giderken azalan belirsizliklerin, riskleri azaltması ile ilişkisi olduğunun altı çizilmiştir. Farklılaşan olasılıkların nasıl farklılaşacağına ilişkin olarak, uzmanlar arasında bir mutabakat yoktur; kişilerin yorumları kendi tecrübelerine göre değişiklik göstermektedir. Fakat, projelerdeki belirsizlik ve risk arttıkça başarı olasılığının düşeceği öngörülmektedir. Ürün geliştirmenin teknoloji geliştirmeye göre, fizibilite ve danışmanlık projelerinin ise bu ikisine göre daha yüksek bir başarı olasılığının olacağı beklentisi dile getirilmiştir. Altyapı projeleri ise birçok unsura bağlı olduğu için daha zor olarak değerlendirilmiştir.

Ar-Ge projelerinde sürenin uzatılması, klasik projelerden farklı olarak, doğrudan bir başarısızlık algısı oluşturmadığı gibi; bilakis başarı algısına katkı yaptığı durumlardan da bahsedilmiştir. Ar-Ge’de belirsizlik yüksek olduğu için takvim sapması aslında beklenen bir durumdur; bu beklentinin (nedenleri ile beraber) başlangıçta risk olarak öngörülebilmesi ve süre talebi ile ilişkilendirilebilmesi proje ekibine olan güveni artıran

bir işlev görmektedir. Uzatma talebinin kök nedenine göre, uzatmanın algı üzerindeki etkisi değişiklik gösterebilmektedir. Yönetim ve yetkinlik yetersizliğinden kaynaklanan durumlar olumsuz değerlendirilirken; Ar-Ge projelerinin, karmaşıklığına bağlı olarak dış etkenlerden ve özellikle müşterilerden kaynaklanan nedenlerle gecikmesi olağan bulunmaktadır.

Ar-Ge projelerinde, çok yüksek oranlarda olmamak kaydıyla, bütçeden sapmalar da normal kabul edilmektedir. Uzmanlar tarafından, bunun önceden öngörülüp esnek bütçeler oluşturulması veya risk payları eklenmesi önerilmektedir. Yabancı para ile oluşturulan bütçelerde çok dramatik sapmalar beklenmemektedir. Fakat enflasyon ve kur farkları, Ar-Ge projeleri genellikle uzun soluklu olduğu için, büyük farklar oluşturabilmektedir. Teknik belirsizlikler, teknolojik ilerlemeler, düşük bedelle imzalanan sözleşmeler, ek deney/test gereklilikleri ve öngörülemeyen yetkinlik yatırımı ihtiyaçlarından kaynaklanan sapmalar doğal kabul edilirken, bütçe disiplini uygulanmaması veya bütçenin projeden sağlanması beklenen faydayı çok aşması, başarısızlık olarak değerlendirilmektedir.

Ar-Ge projelerinde çoğunlukla disiplinler arası, karmaşık konular ele alınmaktadır. Bu yetkinliklerin hepsine tek bir kurumun sahip olması pek mümkün olmadığından, en sık ve geçerli iş birliği motivasyonu, yetkinliklerin birleştirilmesi ve birbirini tamamlaması olarak, uzman görüşlerinde öne çıkmıştır. Bunun yanında, müşteri olan kurumun, riskini azaltmak ya da ekosistem geliştirmek gibi çeşitli nedenlerle iş birliğini zorunlu tuttuğu durumlar bulunmaktadır. Bazı yetkinliklerin bazı kurumların tekelinde olması ya da pazara erişmenin belli kurumlar üzerinden gerçekleştirilebilmesi gibi nedenlerle de iş birliği yapılabilir. Pazara giriş engellerinin üstesinden gelme (Haagedorn, 1993) ve teknolojik yeterliliklerin ve kaynakların bir araya getirilmesi isteği, pek çok çalışmada da temel iş birliği motivasyonları arasında sayılmaktadır (Das ve Teng, 2000; Carayannis ve Alexander, 1999; Reyhanoğlu, 2006). Büyük boyutlu projelerde kaynaklar ve risklerin paylaşılması hedeflenmektedir. Risk ve maliyetlerin paylaşılması motivasyonuna, literatürde de dikkat çekilmektedir (Kang ve Kang, 2010; Das ve Teng, 2000; Carayannis ve Alexander, 1999; Reyhanoğlu, 2006) Bazen, yetkinlik bulunmasına rağmen kaynakların yeterli olmaması ya da bu alanda devam edilmesi düşünülmeyi için insan kaynağı yetiştirilmesinin gerekli görülmediği durumlarda (çoğunlukla alt yüklenici kullanımı şeklinde) iş birlikleri oluşmaktadır. Hızı ve kaliteyi artırmak, teknolojiyi transfer etmek ve insan gücünün yetişmesini sağlamak amacıyla da iş birliği yapılabilir. Proje süresinin kısaltılması (Pisano, 1990) ve yeni teknolojiye erişimin sağlanması konuları (Hamel, 1991) da literatür ile paraleldir.

Özellikle farklı hedefleri olan kurumlar arasındaki Ar-Ge iş birliklerinde koordinasyon, takip ve kontrol önemlidir. Tarafların taahhütlerini yerine getirmemeleri, proje çıktılarını da itibardan daha fazla (katkılarından fazla) pay almak istemeleri, kültür farklılıkları,

iş yapma tarzlarında ya da büyüklüklerinde çok fazla fark olması, fikrî mülkiyet konusunda anlaşmazlıklar ve kötü niyet, bürokratik ya da uluslararası ilişkilerden kaynaklanan problemler, bilgi saklama ya da sızdırma gibi durumlar iş birliklerine zarar vermektedir. Cassiman, Di Guarda ve Valentini (2009) de çalışmalarında tarafların fırsatçı davranışta bulunması riskini ve iletişim zorluklarını iş birlikleri açısından negatif olarak değerlendirmiştir. Bütçe yetersizliği ya da ağır sözleşme koşulları da, bazen iş birliklerinin kurulmasına engel olabilmektedir.

Uzmanlar, tam ittifakla, disiplinler arası, farklı uzmanlıklar gerektiren ve tek bir kurumun o yetkinliğe sahip olmadığı ve kolaylıkla sahip olamayacağı durumlarda birbirini tamamlayan kurumlar arası iş birliklerinin kaçınılmaz olduğu kabul etmektedir. Öte yandan, tek bir kurumun proje için gerekli yetkinlik ve kaynaklara sahip olduğu, proje konusunun gizlilik derecesinin ya da fikrî mülkiyet hakkı paylaşımında sorun çıkarma potansiyelinin yüksek olduğu durumlarda ise, tek çalışılmasının iş birliklerine göre daha elverişli olduğu ifade edilmiştir. Egoların devreye girebileceği, çok benzer uzmanlıklara sahip veya rakip kurumların iş birliği yapmak yerine tek çalışması ya da iş birliği içinde iş paketlerinin tamamen ayrıştırılması daha çok fayda sağlayacaktır. Literatürde Ar-Ge iş birliğinin başarılı yenilikler üzerindeki etkileri hakkında hem pozitif hem negatif yönde bulgular tespit edilmiştir (pozitif: Aschhoff ve Schmidt, 2008; Belderbos ve ark., 2004; negatif: Okamuro, 2007; Teng, 2006). Bu, nitel çalışmamızda ortaya çıkan durumsallıkla uyumludur.

Ar-Ge iş birliklerinde birlikte çalışan kurumların sayısı arttıkça projenin karmaşıklığı artmakta, dolayısıyla yönetiminde, iletişimde ve entegrasyonda problemler oluşabilmektedir. Hedeflerin hizalanması ve tarafların projeyi aynı düzeyde sahiplenmesinde de sorunlarla karşılaşıldığı ifade edilmiştir. Sayıyı azaltmak için, gerekli bir uzmanlığın dışarıda tutulması düşünülemez, fakat projenin başarılı olabilmesi için bu sayının minimuma indirilmesinin önemi vurgulanmıştır. Çeşitli nedenlerle, aslında ihtiyaç duyulmazken projeye eklenen her paydaş (zorunlu tutulma sonucu, dahil etme ya da yetiştirme amaçlı) riskleri artırmaktadır. Kurum sayısı arttıkça, tüm işi bunların yönetim ve koordinasyonunu sağlamak olan yapılara ihtiyaç duyulmakta; projenin amacına ya da türüne göre avantajlar ve dezavantajlar değişebilmektedir. Savunma projelerinde gizlilik vb. nedenlerle sayının daha az olması tercih edilirken, sosyal ya da e-dönüşüm amaçlı projelerde, dahil olan tarafların sayısı arttıkça, yaygın etki büyüebilmektedir. Türe göre bu etkilerin nasıl değişeceği konusunda ise, uzmanlar arasında mutabakat yoktur. Teknoloji geliştirme safhasında daha fazla disiplini dahil etmek veya riski paylaşmak gerekeceği için, sayının artması avantajlı olabileceği gibi, bu tür projelerde fikrî mülkiyet hakkı konuları dezavantaj oluşturabilmektedir. Ürün geliştirmede daha az sayıda paydaşın avantaj sağlayacağı ifade edilmiştir. Altyapı geliştirme projelerinde teknik bilgi paylaşımının istenmeyeceği durumlarda, paydaş sayısının az tutulmak istenebileceği, fakat bu altyapıdan geniş kesimlerin faydalanması

isteniyorsa daha çok kurumun dahil edilebileceđi, gemiř tecrübeler ışığında tahmin edilmiştir.

5. Sonuç

İř birliklerinin Ar-Ge projelerinin başarısını nasıl etkilediđini arařtırmak motivasyonu ile yürütölen bu alıřmada, başarı algısı ve iş birliđi dinamiklerini irdeleyen sorular birlikte kullanılmıştır. ünkü, Ar-Ge projelerinin başarısı klasik projelere göre daha farklı algılanmaktadır. Ar-Ge projelerinin başarısı söz konusu olduđunda, proje hedefleriyle belirlenen somut ıktılar yanında; insan kaynađı yetiřtirme, bilgi birikimi ve iş birliđi költürü oluřturma gibi soyut unsurlar, yeni projelerin tetiklenmesini kolaylařtırmaktadır. Bir Ar-Ge projesi, gelecekteki projelere katkı sađladıđı ölçüde başarılı olarak algılanmaktadır. Büte ya da süreden sapma ise, Ar-Ge projesi için başarısızlık göstergesi deđil, adeta beklenen bir durumdur.

Ar-Ge projelerinde iş birlikleri; yetkinliklerin birbirini tamamlaması kaçınılmazsa, minimum sayıda ortak ile yürütölüyorsa, alınacak pay ve verilecek katkılar net olarak belirlenebiliyorsa, faydalı olmaktadır. Projeye katkısı net olmayan, gereksiz ortakların bulunması, tarafların taahhüt seviyesinde ya da hedeflerinde büyük farklılıklar olması veya yetkinliklerinin akıřması durumlarında, Ar-Ge iş birliklerinin karmařıklık seviyesi çok artmakta ve eřitli yönetimsel sorunlar yařanabilmektedir.

Bulgular, Türkiye’de yapılan Ar-Ge projeleri düşünölerek deđerlendirildiđinden temsil gücü bakımından bir dođal kısıtlama oluřturmaktadır. alıřmanın diđer ölkeler için benzer yöntem kullanılarak tekrarlanması, sonuçların izlenmesi ve karřılařtırılması alana katkı sađlayacaktır.

alıřmanın diđer bir kısıtı, görüřmelerde yöneltölen soruların kapsamına iliřkindir. İş birliklerine yaklařımda etkili olan költürel farklılıklar, tekrar eden iş birlikleri veya deđerler konuları da derinleřme potansiyeli tařımaktadır. Devam niteliđinde başka bir alıřma ile, iş birliđinde költürel etkiler incelemeye deđerdir.

Hakem Deđerlendirmesi: Dıř bađımsız.

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AMAÇ KAPSAM

Istanbul Management Journal, İstanbul Üniversitesi İşletme Fakültesi İşletme İktisadı Enstitüsü bünyesinde çıkarılan uluslararası ve açık erişimli hakemli bilimsel bir dergidir. Dergiye kabul edilen makaleler, Türkçe ve İngilizce dillerinde 1975-2016 yılları arasında basılı ortamda yayınlanmıştır. Dergimiz, 2010 yılından itibaren elektronik ortamda yayınlanmaktadır. Şubat 2018'e kadar adı İstanbul Üniversitesi İşletme Fakültesi İşletme İktisadı Enstitüsü Yönetim Dergisi iken, kurumumuz ve dergimizin uluslararası alanda başarılı olma vizyonu çerçevesinde adı Istanbul Management Journal olarak değiştirilmiştir.

Istanbul Management Journal yılda iki kez haziran ve aralık aylarında yayınlanır. Proquest, Ebsco, RePEc IDEAS, RePEc EconPapers indeks ve veritabanlarında yer almaktadır.

Istanbul Management Journal, Yönetim alanındaki ilgililer için yönetim sorunlarına odaklanılan ve bu sorunların araştırıldığı bir platform sağlamayı ve platformun beklentilerine uygun yüksek nitelikte araştırmalar ortaya koymayı amaçlamaktadır.

Dergi, Yönetim alanına ve bu alanın alt konularına odaklanır. Alt alanlarla iç içe geçmiş teorik ve pratik konuları ele alan disiplinlerarası çalışmalara da açıktır. Derginin kapsamında aşağıdaki konu alanları yer alır:

- Yönetim ve Organizasyon,
- Stratejik Yönetim,
- İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi,
- Örgütsel Davranış,
- Örgüt Teorisi,
- Örgüt Tarihi,
- İşletme Tarihi,
- Yönetim Tarihi.

Derginin hedef kitesini akademisyen araştırmacılar, profesyonel araştırmacılar, iş dünyasından profesyoneller, üniversite öğrencileri ve konulara ilgili mesleki, akademik kurum ve kuruluşlar oluşturur.

EDİTORYAL POLİTİKALAR VE HAKEM SÜRECİ

Yayın Politikası

Dergi yayın etiğinde en yüksek standartlara bağlıdır ve Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), Directory of Open Access Journals (DOAJ), Open Access Scholarly Publishers Association (OASPA) ve World Association of Medical Editors (WAME) tarafından yayınlanan etik yayıncılık ilkelerini benimser; Principles of Transparency and Best Practice in Scholarly Publishing başlığı altında ifade edilen ilkeler için: <https://publicationethics.org/resources/guidelines-new/principles-transparency-and-best-practice-scholarly-publishing>

Gönderilen makaleler derginin amaç ve kapsamına uygun olmalıdır. Orijinal, yayınlanmamış ve başka bir dergide değerlendirme sürecinde olmayan, her bir yazar tarafından içeriği ve gönderimi onaylanmış yazılar değerlendirilmeye kabul edilir.

Makale yayınlanmak üzere Dergiye gönderildikten sonra yazarlardan hiçbirinin ismi, tüm yazarların yazılı izni olmadan yazar listesinden silinemez ve yeni bir isim yazar olarak eklenemez ve yazar sırası değiştirilemez.

İntihal, duplikasyon, sahte yazarlık/inkar edilen yazarlık, araştırma/veri fabrikasyonu, makale dilimleme, dilimleyerek yayın, telif hakları ihlali ve çıkar çatışmasının gizlenmesi, etik dışı davranışlar olarak kabul edilir. Kabul edilen etik standartlara uygun olmayan tüm makaleler yayından çıkarılır. Buna yayından sonra tespit edilen olası kuraldışı, uygunsuzluklar içeren makaleler de dahildir.

İntihal

Ön kontrolden geçirilen makaleler, iThenticate yazılımı kullanılarak intihal için taranır. İntihal/kendi kendine intihal tespit edilirse yazarlar bilgilendirilir. Editörler, gerekli olması halinde makaleyi değerlendirme ya da üretim sürecinin çeşitli aşamalarında intihal kontrolüne tabi tutabilirler. Yüksek benzerlik oranları, bir makalenin kabul edilmeden önce ve hatta kabul edildikten sonra reddedilmesine neden olabilir. Makalenin türüne bağlı olarak, bunun oranın %15 veya %20'den az olması beklenir.

Çift Kör Hakemlik

İntihal kontrolünden sonra, uygun olan makaleler baş editör tarafından orijinallik, metodoloji, işlenen konunun önemi ve dergi kapsamı ile uyumluluğu açısından değerlendirilir. Editör, makalelerin adil bir şekilde çift taraflı kör hakemlikten geçmesini sağlar ve makale biçimsel esaslara uygun ise, gelen yazıyı yurtiçinden ve /veya yurtdışından en az iki hakemin değerlendirmesine sunar, hakemler gerek gördüğü takdirde yazıda istenen değişiklikler yazarlar tarafından yapıldıktan sonra yayınlanmasına onay verir.

Telif Hakkında

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Açık Erişim İlkesi

Dergi açık erişimlidir ve derginin tüm içeriği okura ya da okurun dahil olduğu kuruma ücretsiz olarak sunulur. Okurlar, ticari amaç haricinde, yayıncı ya da yazardan izin almadan dergi makalelerinin tam metnini okuyabilir, indirebilir, kopyalayabilir, arayabilir ve link sağlayabilir. Bu HYPERLINK "<https://www.budapestopenaccessinitiative.org/translations/turkish-translation>" BOAI açık erişim tanımıyla uyumludur. Derginin açık erişimli makaleleri Creative Commons Atıf-GayriTicari 4.0 Uluslararası (HYPERLINK "<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/deed.tr>") CC BY-NC 4.0) (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/deed.tr>) olarak lisanslıdır.

İşleme Ücreti

Derginin tüm giderleri İstanbul Üniversitesi tarafından karşılanmaktadır. Dergide makale yayını ve makale süreçlerinin yürütülmesi ücrete tabi değildir. Dergiye gönderilen ya da yayın için kabul edilen makaleler için işleme ücreti ya da gönderim ücreti alınmaz.

Hakem Süreci

Daha önce yayınlanmamış ya da yayınlanmak üzere başka bir dergide halen değerlendirmede olmayan ve her bir yazar tarafından onaylanan makaleler değerlendirilmek üzere kabul edilir. Gönderilen ve ön kontrolü geçen makaleler iThenticate yazılımı kullanılarak intihal için taranır. İntihal kontrolünden sonra, uygun olan makaleler baş editör tarafından orijinallik, metodoloji, işlenen konunun önemi ve dergi kapsamı ile uyumluluğu açısından değerlendirilir. Baş editör, makaleleri, yazarların etnik kökeninden, cinsiyetinden, cinsel yöneliminden, uyruğundan, dini inancından ve siyasi felsefesinden bağımsız olarak değerlendirir. Yayına gönderilen makalelerin adil bir şekilde çift taraflı kör hakem değerlendirmesinden geçmelerini sağlar.

Seçilen makaleler en az iki ulusal/uluslararası hakeme değerlendirmeye gönderilir; yayın kararı, hakemlerin talepleri doğrultusunda yazarların gerçekleştirdiği düzenlemelerin ve hakem sürecinin sonrasında baş editör tarafından verilir.

Hakemlerin değerlendirmeleri objektif olmalıdır. Hakem süreci sırasında hakemlerin aşağıdaki hususları dikkate alarak değerlendirmelerini yapmaları beklenir.

- Makale yeni ve önemli bir bilgi içeriyor mu?
- Öz, makalenin içeriğini net ve düzgün bir şekilde tanımlıyor mu?
- Yöntem bütünlüklü ve anlaşılır şekilde tanımlanmış mı?
- Yapılan yorum ve varılan sonuçlar bulgularla kanıtlanıyor mu?
- Alandaki diğer çalışmalara yeterli referans verilmiş mi?
- Dil kalitesi yeterli mi?

Hakemler, gönderilen makalelere ilişkin tüm bilginin, makale yayınlanana kadar gizli kalmasını sağlamalı ve yazar tarafında herhangi bir telif hakkı ihlali ve intihal fark ederlerse editöre raporlamalıdır. Hakem, makale konusu hakkında kendini vasıflı hissetmiyor ya da zamanında geri dönüş sağlaması mümkün görünmüyorsa, editöre bu durumu bildirmeli ve hakem sürecine kendisini dahil etmemesini istemelidir.

Değerlendirme sürecinde editör hakemlere gözden geçirme için gönderilen makalelerin, yazarların özel mülkü olduğunu ve bunun imtiyazlı bir iletişim olduğunu açıkça belirtir. Hakemler ve yayın kurulu üyeleri başka kişilerle makaleleri tartışamazlar. Hakemlerin kimliğinin gizli kalmasına özen gösterilmelidir.

YAYIN ETİĞİ VE İLKELER

Istanbul Management Journal, yayın etiğinde en yüksek standartlara bağlıdır ve Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), Directory of Open Access Journals (DOAJ), Open Access Scholarly Publishers Association (OASPA) ve World Association of Medical Editors (WAME) tarafından yayınlanan etik yayıncılık ilkelerini benimser; Principles of Transparency and Best Practice in Scholarly Publishing başlığı altında ifade edilen ilkeler için adres: <https://publicationethics.org/resources/guidelines-new/principles-transparency-andbest-practice-scholarly-publishing>. Gönderilen tüm makaleler orijinal, yayınlanmamış ve başka bir dergide değerlendirme sürecinde olmamalıdır. Her bir makale editörlerden biri ve en az iki hakem tarafından çift kör değerlendirilmeden geçirilir. İntihal, duplikasyon, sahte yazarlık/inkar edilen yazarlık, araştırma/veri fabrikasyonu, makale dilimleme, dilimleyerek yayın, telif hakları ihlali ve çıkar çatışmasının gizlenmesi, etik dışı davranışlar olarak kabul edilir. Kabul edilen etik standartlara uygun olmayan tüm makaleler yayından çıkarılır. Buna yayından sonra tespit edilen olası kuraldışı, uygunsuzluklar içeren makaleler de dahildir.

Araştırma Etiği

Dergi araştırma etiğinde en yüksek standartları gözetir ve aşağıda tanımlanan uluslararası araştırma etiği ilkelerini benimser. Makalelerin etik kurallara uygunluğu yazarların sorumluluğundadır. - Araştırmanın tasarlanması, tasarımın gözden geçirilmesi ve araştırmanın yürütülmesinde, bütünlük, kalite ve şeffaflık ilkeleri sağlanmalıdır.

- Araştırma ekibi ve katılımcılar, araştırmanın amacı, yöntemleri ve öngörülen olası kullanımları; araştırmaya katılımın gerektirdikleri ve varsa riskleri hakkında tam olarak bilgilendirilmelidir.
- Araştırma katılımcılarının sağladığı bilgilerin gizliliği ve yanıt verenlerin gizliliği sağlanmalıdır. Araştırma katılımcıların özerkliğini ve saygınlığını koruyacak şekilde tasarlanmalıdır.

- Araştırma katılımcıları gönüllü olarak araştırmada yer almalı, herhangi bir zorlama altında olmamalıdır. - Katılımcıların zarar görmesinden kaçınılmalıdır. Araştırma, katılımcıları riske sokmayacak şekilde planlanmalıdır.
- Araştırma bağımsızlığıyla ilgili açık ve net olunmalı; çıkar çatışması varsa belirtilmelidir.
- Deneysel çalışmalarda, araştırmaya katılmaya karar veren katılımcıların yazılı bilgilendirilmiş onayı alınmalıdır. Çocukların ve vesayet altındakilerin veya tasdiklenmiş akıl hastalığı bulunanların yasal vasisinin onayı alınmalıdır.
- Çalışma herhangi bir kurum ya da kuruluştta gerçekleştirilecekse bu kurum ya da kuruluştan çalışma yapılacağına dair onay alınmalıdır.
- İnsan ögesi bulunan çalışmalarda, “yöntem” bölümünde katılımcılardan “bilgilendirilmiş onam” alındığının ve çalışmanın yapıldığı kurumdan etik kurul onayı alındığı belirtilmesi gerekir.

Yazarların Sorumluluğu

Makalelerin bilimsel ve etik kurallara uygunluğu yazarların sorumluluğundadır. Yazar makalenin orijinal olduğu, daha önce başka bir yerde yayınlanmadığı ve başka bir yerde, başka bir dilde yayınlanmak üzere değerlendirilmediği konusunda teminat sağlamalıdır. Uygulamadaki telif kanunları ve anlaşmaları gözetilmelidir. Telifle bağlı materyaller (örneğin tablolar, şekiller veya büyük alıntılar) gerekli izin ve teşekkürle kullanılmalıdır. Başka yazarların, katkıda bulunanların çalışmaları ya da yararlanılan kaynaklar uygun biçimde kullanılmalı ve referanslarda belirtilmelidir. Gönderilen makalede tüm yazarların akademik ve bilimsel olarak doğrudan katkısı olmalıdır, bu bağlamda “yazar” yayınlanan bir araştırmanın kavramsallaştırılmasına ve dizaynına, verilerin elde edilmesine, analizine ya da yorumlanmasına belirgin katkı yapan, yazının yazılması ya da bunun içerik açısından eleştirel biçimde gözden geçirilmesinde görev yapan birisi olarak görülür. Yazar olabilmenin diğer koşulları ise, makaledeki çalışmayı planlamak veya icra etmek ve / veya revize etmektir. Fon sağlanması, veri toplanması ya da araştırma grubunun genel süpervizyonu tek başına yazarlık hakkı kazandırmaz. Yazar olarak gösterilen tüm bireyler sayılan tüm ölçütleri karşılamalıdır ve yukarıdaki ölçütleri karşılayan her birey yazar olarak gösterilebilir. Yazarların isim sıralaması ortak verilen bir karar olmalıdır. Tüm yazarlar yazar sıralamasını Telif Hakkı Anlaşması Formu’nda imzalı olarak belirtmek zorundadırlar. Yazarlık için yeterli ölçütleri karşılamayan ancak çalışmaya katkısı olan tüm bireyler “teşekkür / bilgiler” kısmında sıralanmalıdır. Bunlara örnek olarak sadece teknik destek sağlayan, yazıma yardımcı olan ya da sadece genel bir destek sağlayan, finansal ve materyal desteği sunan kişiler verilebilir. Bütün yazarlar, araştırmanın sonuçlarını ya da bilimsel değerlendirmeyi etkileyebilme potansiyeli olan finansal ilişkiler, çıkar çatışması ve çıkar rekabetini beyan etmelidirler. Bir yazar kendi yayınlanmış yazısında belirgin bir hata ya da yanlışlık tespit ederse, bu yanlışlıklara ilişkin düzeltme ya da geri çekme için editör ile hemen temasa geçme ve işbirliği yapma sorumluluğunu taşır.

Editör ve Hakem Sorumlulukları

Baş editör, makaleleri, yazarların etnik kökeninden, cinsiyetinden, cinsel yöneliminden, uyruğundan, dini inancından ve siyasi felsefesinden bağımsız olarak değerlendirir. Yayına gönderilen makalelerin adil bir şekilde çift taraflı kör hakem değerlendirmesinden geçmelerini sağlar. Gönderilen makalelere ilişkin tüm bilginin, makale yayınlanana kadar gizli kalacağını garanti eder. Baş editör içerik ve yayının toplam kalitesinden sorumludur. Gereğinde hata sayfası yayınlamalı ya da düzeltme yapmalıdır. Baş editör; yazarlar, editörler ve hakemler arasında çıkar çatışmasına izin vermez. Hakem atama konusunda tam yetkiye sahiptir ve Dergide yayınlanacak makalelerle ilgili nihai kararı vermekle yükümlüdür.

Hakemlerin arařtırmayla ilgili, yazarlarla ve/veya arařtırmanın finansal destekçileriyle çıkar çatıřmaları olmamalıdır. Deęerlendirmelerinin sonucunda tarafsız bir yargıya varmalıdırlar. Gnderilmiş yazılara iliřkin tm bilginin gizli tutulmasını saęlamalı ve yazar tarafında herhangi bir telif hakkı ihlali ve intihal fark ederlerse editre raporlamalıdırlar. Hakem, makale konusu hakkında kendini vasıflı hissetmiyor ya da zamanında geri dnř saęlaması mmkn grnmyorsa, editre bu durumu bildirmeli ve hakem srecine kendisini dahil etmemesini istemelidir. Deęerlendirme srecinde editr hakemlere gzden geirme iin gnderilen makalelerin, yazarların zel mlk olduęunu ve bunun imtiyazlı bir iletiřim olduęunu aıka belirtir. Hakemler ve yayın kurulu yeleri bařka kiřilerle makaleleri tartıřamazlar. Hakemlerin kimlięinin gizli kalmasına zen gsterilmelidir. Bazı durumlarda editrn kararıyla, ilgili hakemlerin makaleye ait yorumları aynı makaleyi yorumlayan dięer hakemlere gnderilerek hakemlerin bu srete aydınlatılması saęlanabilir.

YAZILARIN HAZIRLANMASI

Dil

Dergide Trke ve İngilizce dilinde makaleler yayınlanır. Trke makalelerde İngilizce z, anahtar kelimeler ve geniřletilmiş zet olmalıdır. Ancak İngilizce yazılmış makalelerde geniř zet istenmez.

Yazıların Hazırlanması ve Yazım Kuralları

Aksi belirtilmedike gnderilen yazılarla ilgili tm yazıřmalar ilk yazarla yapılacaktır. Makale gnderimi online olarak ve <http://imj.istanbul.edu.tr> zerinden yapılmalıdır. Gnderilen yazılar, yazının yayınlanmak zere gnderildięini ifade eden, makale trn belirten ve makaleyle ilgili detayları ieren (bkz: Son Kontrol Listesi) bir mektup; yazının elektronik formunu ieren Microsoft Word 2003 ve zerindeki versiyonları ile yazılmış elektronik dosya ve tm yazarların imzaladıęı Telif Hakkı Anlařması Formu eklenerek gnderilmelidir.

1. alıřmalar, A4 boyutundaki kaęıdın bir yzne, st, alt, saę ve sol taraftan 2,5 cm. bořluk bırakılarak, 10 punto Times New Roman harf karakterleriyle ve 1,5 satır aralık ls ile ve iki yana yaslı olarak hazırlanmalıdır. Paragraf bařlarında tab tuřu kullanılmalıdır. Metin iinde yer alan tablo ve řemalarda ise tek satır aralıęı kullanılmalıdır.
2. Metnin bařlıęı kk harf, koyu renk, Times New Roman yazı tipi, 12 punto olarak sayfanın ortasında yer almalıdır.
3. Metin yazarına ait bilgiler bařlıktan sonra bir satır atlanarak, Times New Roman yazı tipi, 10 punto ve tek satır aralıęı kullanılarak sayfanın soluna yazılacaktır. Yazarın adı kk harfle, soyadı byk harfle belirtildikten sonra bir alt satıra unvanı, alıřtıęı kurum ve e-posta adresi yazılacaktır.
4. Giriř blmnden nce 150-200 kelimeelik alıřmanın kapsamını, amacını, ulařılan sonuları ve kullanılan yntemi kaydeden makale dilinde ve ingilizce z ile 600-800 kelimeelik İngilizce geniřletilmiş zet yer almalıdır. alıřmanın İngilizce bařlıęı İngilizce zn zerinde yer almalıdır. İngilizce ve makale dilinde zlerin altında alıřmanın ierięini temsil eden, makale dilinde 5-8 adet, İngilizce adet anahtar kelime yer almalıdır. Makale İngilizce ise İngilizce geniřletilmiş zet istenmez.
5. alıřmaların bařlıca řu unsurları iermesi gerekmektedir: Makale dilinde bařlık, z ve anahtar kelimeler; İngilizce bařlık z ve anahtar kelimeler; İngilizce geniřletilmiş zet (makale İngilizce ise İngilizce geniřletilmiş zet istenmez), ana metin blmleri, son notlar ve kaynaklar.

6. Çalışmalarda tablo, grafik ve şekil gibi göstergeler ancak çalışmanın takip edilebilmesi açısından gereklilik arz ettiği durumlarda, numaralandırılarak, tanımlayıcı bir başlık ile birlikte verilmelidir. Demografik özellikler gibi metin içinde verilebilecek veriler, ayrıca tablolar ile ifade edilmemelidir.
7. Yayınlanmak üzere gönderilen makale ile birlikte yazar bilgilerini içeren kapak sayfası gönderilmelidir. Kapak sayfasında, makalenin başlığı, yazar veya yazarların bağlı oldukları kurum ve unvanları, kendilerine ulaşılacak adresler, cep, iş ve faks numaraları, ORCID ve e-posta adresleri yer almalıdır (bkz. Son Kontrol Listesi).
8. Kurallar dâhilinde dergimize yayınlanmak üzere gönderilen çalışmaların her türlü sorumluluğu yazar/yazarlarına aittir.
9. Yayın kurulu ve hakem raporları doğrultusunda yazarlardan, metin üzerinde bazı düzeltmeler yapmaları istenebilir.
10. Dergiye gönderilen çalışmalar yayınlansın veya yayınlanmasın geri gönderilmez.

KAYNAKLAR

Derleme yazıları okuyucular için bir konudaki kaynaklara ulaşmayı kolaylaştıran bir araç olsa da, her zaman orijinal çalışmayı doğru olarak yansıtmaz. Bu yüzden mümkün olduğunca yazarlar orijinal çalışmalarını kaynak göstermelidir. Öte yandan, bir konuda çok fazla sayıda orijinal çalışmanın kaynak gösterilmesi yer israfına neden olabilir. Birkaç anahtar orijinal çalışmanın kaynak gösterilmesi genelde uzun listelerle aynı işi görür. Ayrıca günümüzde kaynaklar elektronik versiyonlara eklenebilmekte ve okuyucular elektronik literatür taramalarıyla yayınlara kolaylıkla ulaşabilmektedir.

Kabul edilmiş ancak henüz sayıya dahil edilmemiş makaleler Early View olarak yayınlanır ve bu makalelere atıflar “advance online publication” şeklinde verilmelidir. Genel bir kaynaktan elde edilemeyecek temel bir konu olmadıkça “kişisel iletişimlere” atıfta bulunulmamalıdır. Eğer atıfta bulunulursa parantez içinde iletişim kurulan kişinin adı ve iletişimin tarihi belirtilmelidir. Bilimsel makaleler için yazarlar bu kaynaktan yazılı izin ve iletişimin doğruluğunu gösterir belge almalıdır. Kaynakların doğruluğundan yazar(lar) sorumludur. Tüm kaynaklar metinde belirtilmelidir. Kaynaklar alfabetik olarak sıralanmalıdır.

Referans Stili ve Formatı

Istanbul Management Journal, metin içi alıntılama ve kaynak gösterme için APA (American Psychological Association) kaynak sitilinin 6. edisyonunu benimser. APA 6. Edisyon hakkında bilgi için:

- American Psychological Association. (2010). Publication manual of the American Psychological Association (6th ed.). Washington, DC: APA.
- <http://www.apastyle.org/>

Kaynakların doğruluğundan yazar(lar) sorumludur. Tüm kaynaklar metinde belirtilmelidir. Kaynaklar aşağıdaki örneklerdeki gibi gösterilmelidir.

Metin İçinde Kaynak Gösterme

Kaynaklar metinde parantez içinde yazarların soyadı ve yayın tarihi yazılarak belirtilmelidir. Birden fazla kaynak gösterilecekse kaynaklar arasında (;) işareti kullanılmalıdır. Kaynaklar alfabetik olarak sıralanmalıdır.

Örnekler:

Birden fazla kaynak;

(Esin ve ark., 2002; Karasar 1995)

Tek yazarlı kaynak;

(Akyolcu, 2007)

İki yazarlı kaynak;

(Sayıner ve Demirci, 2007, s. 72)

Üç, dört ve beş yazarlı kaynak;

Metin içinde ilk kullanımda: (Ailen, Ciambune ve Welch 2000, s. 12–13) Metin içinde tekrarlayan kullanımlarda: (Ailen ve ark., 2000)

Alti ve daha çok yazarlı kaynak;

(Çavdar ve ark., 2003)

Kaynaklar Bölümünde Kaynak Gösterme

Kullanılan tüm kaynaklar metnin sonunda ayrı bir bölüm halinde yazar soyadlarına göre alfabetik olarak numaralandırılmadan verilmelidir.

Kaynak yazımı ile ilgili örnekler aşağıda verilmiştir.

Kitap

a) Türkçe Kitap

Karasar, N. (1995). *Araştırmalarda rapor hazırlama* (8.bs). Ankara: 3A Eğitim Danışmanlık Ltd.

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Bassett, C. (2006). Cultural studies and new media. In G. Hall & C. Birchall (Eds.), *New cultural studies: Adventures in theory* (pp. 220–237). Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.

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h) Yayıncının ve Yazarın Kurum Olduğu Yayın

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h) Düzenli Olarak Online Yayımlanan Bildiriler

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SON KONTROL LİSTESİ

Aşağıdaki listede eksik olmadığından emin olun:

- Editöre mektup
 - ✓ Makalenin türü
 - ✓ Başka bir dergiye gönderilmemiş olduğu bilgisi
 - ✓ Sponsor veya ticari bir firma ile ilişkisi (varsa belirtiniz)
 - ✓ İstatistik kontrolünün yapıldığı (araştırma makaleleri için)
 - ✓ İngilizce yönünden kontrolünün yapıldığı
 - ✓ Yazarlara Bilgide detaylı olarak anlatılan dergi politikalarının gözden geçirildiği
 - ✓ Kaynakların APA6'ya göre belirtildiği
- Telif Hakkı Anlaşması Formu
- Daha önce basılmış ve telifle bağlı materyal (yazı-resim-tablo) kullanılmış ise izin belgesi
- Kapak sayfası
 - ✓ Makalenin türü
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a) Turkish Book

Karasar, N. (1995). *Araştırmalarda rapor hazırlama* (8th ed.) [Preparing research reports]. Ankara, Turkey: 3A Eğitim Danışmanlık Ltd.

b) Book Translated into Turkish

Mucchielli, A. (1991). *Zihniyetler* [Mindsets] (A. Kotil, Trans.). İstanbul, Turkey: İletişim Yayınları.

c) Edited Book

Ören, T., Üney, T., & Çölkesen, R. (Eds.). (2006). *Türkiye bilişim ansiklopedisi* [Turkish Encyclopedia of Informatics]. İstanbul, Turkey: Papatya Yayıncılık.

d) Turkish Book with Multiple Authors

Tonta, Y., Bitirim, Y., & Sever, H. (2002). *Türkçe arama motorlarında performans değerlendirme* [Performance evaluation in Turkish search engines]. Ankara, Turkey: Total Bilişim.

e) Book in English

Kamien R., & Kamien A. (2014). *Music: An appreciation*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Education.

f) Chapter in an Edited Book

Bassett, C. (2006). Cultural studies and new media. In G. Hall & C. Birchall (Eds.), *New cultural studies: Adventures in theory* (pp. 220–237). Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.

g) Chapter in an Edited Book in Turkish

Erkmen, T. (2012). Örgüt kültürü: Fonksiyonları, öğeleri, işletme yönetimi ve liderlikteki önemi [Organization culture: Its functions, elements and importance in leadership and business management]. In M. Zencirkıran (Ed.), *Örgüt sosyolojisi* [Organization sociology] (pp. 233–263). Bursa, Turkey: Dora Basım Yayın.

h) Book with the same organization as author and publisher

American Psychological Association. (2009). *Publication manual of the American psychological association* (6th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Article

a) Turkish Article

Mutlu, B., & Savaşer, S. (2007). Çocuğu ameliyat sonrası yoğun bakımda olan ebeveynlerde stres nedenleri ve azaltma girişimleri [Source and intervention reduction of stress for parents whose children are in intensive care unit after surgery]. *Istanbul University Florence Nightingale Journal of Nursing*, 15(60), 179–182.

b) English Article

de Cillia, R., Reisigl, M., & Wodak, R. (1999). The discursive construction of national identity. *Discourse and Society*, 10(2), 149–173. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0957926599010002002>

c) Journal Article with DOI and More Than Seven Authors

Lal, H., Cunningham, A. L., Godeaux, O., Chlibek, R., Diez-Domingo, J., Hwang, S.-J. ... Heineman, T. C. (2015). Efficacy of an adjuvanted herpes zoster subunit vaccine in older adults. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 372, 2087–2096. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa1501184>

d) Journal Article from Web, without DOI

Sidani, S. (2003). Enhancing the evaluation of nursing care effectiveness. *Canadian Journal of Nursing Research*, 35(3), 26–38. Retrieved from <http://cjr.mcgill.ca>

e) Journal Article with DOI

Turner, S. J. (2010). Website statistics 2.0: Using Google Analytics to measure library website effectiveness. *Technical Services Quarterly*, 27, 261–278. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/07317131003765910>

f) Advance Online Publication

Smith, J. A. (2010). Citing advance online publication: A review. *Journal of Psychology: Advance online publication*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a45d7867>

g) Article in a Magazine

Henry, W. A., III. (1990, April 9). Making the grade in today's schools. *Time*, 135, 28–31.

Doctoral Dissertation, Master's Thesis, Presentation, Proceeding

a) Dissertation/Thesis from a Commercial Database

Van Brunt, D. (1997). *Networked consumer health information systems* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 9943436)

b) Dissertation/Thesis from an Institutional Database

Yaylalı-Yıldız, B. (2014). *University campuses as places of potential publicness: Exploring the politicals, social and cultural practices in Ege University* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Retrieved from: <http://library.iyte.edu.tr/tr/hizli-erisim/iyte-tez-portali>

c) Dissertation/Thesis from Web

Tonta, Y. A. (1992). *An analysis of search failures in online library catalogs* (Doctoral dissertation, University of California, Berkeley). Retrieved from <http://yunus.hacettepe.edu.tr/~tonta/yayinlar/phd/ickapak.html>

d) Dissertation/Thesis abstracted in Dissertations Abstracts International

Appelbaum, L. G. (2005). Three studies of human information processing: Texture amplification, motion representation, and figure-ground segregation. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B. Sciences and Engineering*, 65(10), 5428.

e) Symposium Contribution

Krinsky-McHale, S. J., Zigman, W. B., & Silverman, W. (2012, August). Are neuropsychiatric symptoms markers of prodromal Alzheimer's disease in adults with Down syndrome? In W. B. Zigman (Chair), *Predictors of mild cognitive impairment, dementia, and mortality in adults with Down syndrome*. Symposium conducted at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, Orlando, FL.

f) Conference Paper Abstract Retrieved Online

Liu, S. (2005, May). *Defending against business crises with the help of intelligent agent based early warning solutions*. Paper presented at the Seventh International Conference on Enterprise Information Systems, Miami, FL. Abstract retrieved from http://www.iceis.org/iceis2005/abstracts_2005.htm

g) Conference Paper - In Regularly Published Proceedings and Retrieved Online

Herculano-Houzel, S., Collins, C. E., Wong, P., Kaas, J. H., & Lent, R. (2008). The basic nonuniformity of the cerebral cortex. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *105*, 12593–12598. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0805417105>

h) Proceeding in Book Form

Parsons, O. A., Pryzwansky, W. B., Weinstein, D. J., & Wiens, A. N. (1995). Taxonomy for psychology. In J. N. Reich, H. Sands, & A. N. Wiens (Eds.), *Education and training beyond the doctoral degree: Proceedings of the American Psychological Association National Conference on Postdoctoral Education and Training in Psychology* (pp. 45–50). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

i) Paper Presentation

Nguyen, C. A. (2012, August). *Humor and deception in advertising: When laughter may not be the best medicine*. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, Orlando, FL.

Other Sources

a) Newspaper Article

Browne, R. (2010, March 21). This brainless patient is no dummy. *Sydney Morning Herald*, *45*.

b) Newspaper Article with no Author

New drug appears to sharply cut risk of death from heart failure. (1993, July 15). *The Washington Post*, p. A12.

c) Web Page/Blog Post

Bordwell, D. (2013, June 18). David Koepp: Making the world movie-sized [Web log post]. Retrieved from <http://www.davidbordwell.net/blog/page/27/>

d) Online Encyclopedia/Dictionary

Ignition. (1989). In *Oxford English online dictionary* (2nd ed.). Retrieved from <http://dictionary.oed.com>

Marcoux, A. (2008). Business ethics. In E. N. Zalta (Ed.). *The Stanford encyclopedia of philosophy*. Retrieved from <http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/ethics-business/>

e) Podcast

Dunning, B. (Producer). (2011, January 12). *in Fact: Conspiracy theories* [Video podcast]. Retrieved from <http://itunes.apple.com/>

f) Single Episode in a Television Series

Egan, D. (Writer), & Alexander, J. (Director). (2005). Failure to communicate. [Television series episode]. In D. Shore (Executive producer), *House*; New York, NY: Fox Broadcasting.

g) Music

Fuchs, G. (2004). Light the menorah. On *Eight nights of Hanukkah* [CD]. Brick, NJ: Kid Kosher.

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