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CONTENTS

Kaizen and Productivity: The Mediating Effect of the Customer-supplier Relationship Using Smart-PLS

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ABSTRACT

As the global market has shifted rapidly in recent years, the debate over whether kaizen is a prerequisite to organizational effectiveness for continuously identifying new opportunities and gaining competitive advantages has increased. In addition, the effect of the customer-supplier relationship on organizational culture and productivity has gained substantial attention in recent studies, largely due to the expanding gap and misunderstanding of the benefits of continuous improvement (kaizen). The current study examines the mediating effect of customer-supplier relationships on organizational culture, continuous improvement, and productivity. Target respondents consisted of 240 Ethiopian manufacturing companies located in multiple industrial parks and used to collect the required data. Partial least squares-based structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) was used to examine the mediating effect of customer-supplier relationship on kaizen and productivity. The outcome suggested that the customer-supplier relationship mediates kaizen and productivity. It also indicated that, in order to maintain organizational productivity, firms must differentiate themselves through cultivation of organizational culture and customer-supplier relationships.

Keywords: Continuous improvement, customer-supplier relationship, organizational culture, PLS-SEM

JEL Code: M10, M19

Introduction

Market competition is closely related to the productive function, which necessitates the development of reliable, solid customer-supplier relationships, organizational culture, and the capacity to produce products without defects by implementing continuous system and structural improvement in any organization (Hong, Guo, Chen, & Li, 2022; Anand, Ward, Tatikonda, & Schilling, 2009; Aurel, Andreea, & Simina, 2015; Boer & Gertsen, 2003; Hashim, Zubir, Conding, Jaya, & Habidin, 2012; Lee, Woo, & Joshi, 2017) . The development of a competitive edge is encouraged by the development of reliable, solid customer-supplier relationships and organizational culture conditions Carvalho & Pereira, 2015).

Recent studies, e.g., Danese, Romano, & Boscari (2017), Hartini & Ciptomulyono (2015) and Pearce and Pons (2017), emphasize the need for businesses to determine continuous improvement on organizational system and structure that improve firm productivity and support organizational culture. The relationship between continuous improvement and supplier-customer relationship, organizational culture, and firms' productivity was studied independently to examine the effects on efficiency and effectiveness. The result indicated that continuous improvement (kaizen) is a precondition for organizational effectiveness (Lendzion, 2015; Asaad, Rohaizah, & Yusoff, 2015; Carvalho & Pereira, 2015; Zarinah, Farhana, & Nadiah, 2017; Mishra & Gupta, 2010). Kaizen philosophy has its roots in post-World War II Japan and is derived from the words kai (change) and zen (for the better) (Palmer, 2001; Asaad, Rohaizah, & Yusoff, 2015).

The continual improvement strategy known as kaizen can be applied to all facets of work and social life (Imai, 1997; Carvalho & Pereira, 2015). It was seen as a strategy for resolving issues and boosting business efficiency (Imai, 1997; Asaad, Rohaizah, & Yusoff, 2015). (Zarinah, Farhana, & Nadiah, 2017). Numerous studies have revealed that continuous improvement has a favorable and significant impact on firm productivity and enhances employee performance. When there is a positive organizational culture, organizational innovation and performance will improve, and businesses will be able to continue competitiveness over the long term (Asaad, Rohaizah, & Yusoff, 2015; Garcia, Maldonado, Alvarado, & Rivera, 2014; Aurel, Andreea, & Simina, 2015; Shah, Ganji, & Coutroubis, 2017; Zarinah, Farhana, & Nadiah, 2017).

According to Farris, Van Aken, Doolen, and Worley (2008) and Poksinska, Fialkowska-Filipek, and Engström (2016), continuous improvement of system and structure is an organized project within a set timescale carried out by a team with the goal of achieving improvements in a particular process or work area. Continual system and structural improvement not only help to improve the working environment, but also help people to build their problem-solving skills and attitudes in a particular business (Danese, Romano, & Boscari, 2017; Sobek II & Smalley, 2011). Continuous improvement (kaizen) is regarded as a viable strategy for building organizational culture and fostering positive employee experiences. (Hashim, Zubir, Conding, Jaya, & Habidin, 2012; Venkataiah & Sagi, 2012).

According to earlier research, there is a connection between organizational culture and productivity (Schein, 1983; Oki, 2012; Mishra & Gupta, 2010). Moreover, early research indicates that companies that encourage kaizen programs will increase organizational productivity (Imai, 1997; Boer & Gertsen, 2003; Anand, Ward, Tatikonda, & Schilling, 2009; Lee, Woo, & Joshi, 2017; Suarez-Barraza & Smith, 2012; Satsomboon & Pruetipibultham, 2014; Sondakh, Christiananta, & Ellitan, 2017; Stock, Six, & Zacharias, 2013). Additional research demonstrates the beneficial effects of organizational culture on productivity in automotive and other industries (Asaad, Rohaizah, & Yusoff, 2015; Garcia, Maldonado, Alvarado, & Rivera, 2014; Hartini & Ciptomulyono, 2015). According to Coelho, Mojtahedi, Kabirifar, and Yazdani (2022) and McDermott, Antony, Sony, and Healy (2022), organizational culture, which is described as a set of beliefs, expectations, and practices that guide and inform the activities of all team members, affects total quality management.

Although a manufacturing system requires a broader vision to succeed through the development of corporate culture, customer-supplier relationships, and continuous improvement, these elements alone are insufficient (Fullerton, Kennedy, & Widener, 2013). The kaizen philosophy requires constant changes at all levels and in a variety of ways, including encouraging employees to be innovative, to demonstrate their skills, abilities, and experience, to reduce waste and eliminate obstacles that prevent them from performing their jobs effectively, and to improve the process and quality control that maximizes production value (Pearce & Pons, 2017; J. de Haan & Overboom, 2012). Notwithstanding the obstacles, there are manufacturing success stories in less developed nations on the implementation of lean systems as a strategy for creating a wining competitive business environment (Barton, 2013; Garcia, Maldonado, Alvarado, & Rivera, 2014; J. de Haan & Overboom, 2012).

In Sub-Saharan Africa, the service and agricultural industries are typically more economically prominent than the manufacturing sector. The same is true for Ethiopia. Ethiopia's manufacturing sector contributed 24.77 percent to GDP in 2019, compared to 33.88 percent and 36.87 percent for the agricultural and service sectors, respectively (UNID, 2019; Plecher, 2020). According to AACCSA & DAB DRT (2014) and UNIDO (2018), Ethiopia has 2,610 manufacturing establishments units, the majority of which have been applying kaizen in their businesses. Kaizen was introduced to Ethiopia by the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) in 2009; since then, it has been a vital tool for change in the country's public and private sectors (Otsuka, Jin, & Sonobe, 2018). Notwithstanding the hurdles, numerous businesses have adopted and implemented the kaizen principle (Getachew, 2017; Assefa G., 2016; Otsuka, Jin, & Sonobe, 2018). Questions remain about the applicability of kaizen in developing nations such as Ethiopia and others in Africa (Tadesse, 2018; Asayehgn, 2011).

Insufficient research has been undertaken on kaizen, particularly considering the connection between continuous improvement and organizational culture, customer-supplier interaction, and business efficiency (Hartini & Ciptomulyono, 2015; Sanchez-Ruiz, Gomez-Lopez, & Rojo, 2022). In Ethiopia, despite the presence of a significant study on the implementation of kaizen, no empirical data have been collected about the influence of customer-supplier relations on productivity and kaizen (Getachew, 2017; Assefa G., 2016; Girma, 2016; Ephraim, 2014; Assefa, 2011).

Based on a review of early research in local contexts (such as Getachew (2017), Assefa G., (2016), Girma (2016), Ephraim, (2014), and Assefa (2011)) it is possible to conclude that there is no research that has been done on how continuous improvement (kaizen) relates to organizational culture, supplier-customer relationships, and productivity in the Ethiopian context. In this vein, academics note that comprehension of the socio-technical system is necessary for an effective transformation in the kaizen implementation process (Yadav, Nepal, Rahaman, & Lal, 2017). Therefore, the overall continuous improvement of the system and structure of the organization, customer-supplier relationships, organizational culture, and productivity of Ethiopia's manufacturing sector were the main area of this study, which covers the socio-technical systems of the kaizen philosophy in detail.

Literature review

Kaizen is a method for solving problems that is focused on people and helps businesses grow continuously and gradually (Asaad, Rohaizah, & Yusoff, 2015). It has been described as any process of continuous improvement in any aspect of life, including personal, social, domestic, and professional, especially when used in the workplace (Imai, 1997; Pearce & Pons, 2017). Kaizen refers to continuous improvement, brought about by both managers and employees, for a successful outcome (Imai, 1997; Aurel, Andreea, & Simina, 2015; Carvalho & Pereira, 2015). It is a two-word combination that refers to a Japanese notion that is described as long-term improvement (Zehir, Ertosunb, Zehir, & Müceldilli, 2012; Asaad, Rohaizah, & Yusoff, 2015).

The kaizen philosophy looks at any improvement or modification that is believed to be ongoing and will increase organizational productivity rather than looking for rapid or dramatic adjustments to progress the organization (Bolatan, Gozlu, Alpkan, & Zaim, 2016). Thus, industry and service sectors have embraced kaizen as CIPs to increase productivity and performance (Gonzalez-Aleu & Van Aken, 2016). There is, however, a dearth of research that specifically examines how organizational culture, customer-supplier relationships, and continuous improvement relate to company productivity. The lack of research is a result of the majority of kaizen implementation studies placing a heavy emphasis on technical systems (Barton, 2013; Gonzalez-Aleu & Van Aken, 2016; Carvalho & Pereira, 2015; Dombrowski, Mielke, & Engel, 2012; Glover, Farris, Aken, Van, & Doolen, 2011).

Few studies have taken into account the effects of the social system, and the most of them have focused on improving employee attitudes, knowledge, and skills while ignoring SCR, organizational culture, and businesses' overall productivity (Farris, 2006; Glover, Farris, Aken, Van, & Doolen, 2011; Carvalho & Pereira, 2015). According to literature, many businesses struggle to implement a sustainable lean production system if they see the manufacturing sector as a purely technical system and fail to recognize that kaizen events result in improvements to both the technical (improved cycle times) and social systems (Farris, 2006; Anand, Ward, Tatikonda, & Schilling, 2009).

As a method for continuous improvement, kaizen enables firms to make their business processes adaptable to changes in both economic and social contexts (Radnor, 2010). Despite its alleged efficacy as a method for continuous improvement, kaizen implementation in the public sector is limited (Suárez-Barraza, Ramis-Pujol, & Estrada-Robles, 2012), especially in the context of policing, and it lacks empirical evidence (Antony, Rodgers, & Cudney, 2017). Even when implemented, it is done on a small scale and has only temporary success (Barton, 2013).

Kaizen and firms' productivity

Kaizen is a method of continual improvement that may be applied to all facets of business and social life (Imai, 1997). According to Imai (1997), Danish, Munir, and Butt (2012), and Alexandra Jancikova (2009), kaizen is a method for resolving issues and increasing a company's productivity (Zarinah, Farhana, & Nadiah, 2017). Numerous studies found that continuous improvement had a favorable and significant impact on firm productivity, enhanced the performance of the organization's members, and reinforced the performance of the organization as a whole, all of which contributed to the creation and maintenance of competitive advantage (Asaad, Rohaizah, & Yusoff, 2015; Garcia, Maldonado, Alvarado, & Rivera, 2014; Aurel, Andreea, & Simina, 2015; Shah, Ganji, & Coutroubis, 2017; Zarinah, Farhana, & Nadiah, 2017).

Continuous improvements and firms' productivity

According to Farris, Van Aken, Doolen, and Worley (2008) and Poksinska, Fialkowska-Filipek, and Engström (2016), continuous improvement of system and structure is an organized project carried out by a team within a set time frame, with the goal of improving a particular process or work area. Continuous system and structure improvement not only helps to improve the working environment but also helps to build employees' problem-solving skills and mindset inside a particular firm (Danese, Romano, & Boscari, 2017; Sobek II & Smalley, 2011; Ahmed, Loh, & Zairi, 1999; Jager, et al., 2004). Additionally, it is viewed as a useful strategy for implementing adjustments to company culture and the experiences of employees (Hashim, Zubir, Conding, Jaya, & Habidin, 2012; Venkataiah & Sagi, 2012; Huang, Rode, & Schroeder, 2011; Nguyen & Robinson, 2015).

Organizational culture and continuous improvement

There is a link between corporate culture and productivity, according to studies (Schein, *The role of the founder in creating organizational culture*, 1983; Oki, 2012; Mishra & Gupta, 2010). Findings from various studies show that a culture that encourages kaizen activities will result in effective organizational productivity (Imai, 1997; Boer & Gertsen, 2003; Anand, Ward, Tatikonda, & Schilling, 2009; Lee, Woo, & Joshi, 2017; Suarez-Barraza & Smith, 2012; Satsomboon & Pruetipibultham, 2014; Sondakh, Christiananta, & Ellitan, 2017). They demonstrate how organizational culture and production are positively correlated.

Customer-supplier relationship and productivity

Most manufacturing industries are undergoing significant changes as they attempt to maintain long-term, sustainable partnerships with their customers in the face of fierce global competition (Boulding, Staelin, Ehret, & Johnson, 2005; Fahed & Maged, 2013). In addition, manufacturing firms are realizing the necessity of implementing customer-centered strategies in order to obtain a competitive edge and satisfy needs of their customers at the global level (Ko, Kim, Kim, & Woo, 2008; Lien & Li, 2013). According to studies (Ko, Lee, & Woo, 2004; Lindgreen, Palmer, Vanhamme, & Wouters, 2006; Kang, 2004; O'Leary, Rao, &

Perry, 2004), CRM improves management efficiency, lowers costs, enhances customer services, increases instances of customer repurchase, and increases the organization's sales and profits, all of which lead to greater customer loyalty and retention. Despite this, businesses spend a lot of money on CRM implementation, which is scarcely worth the money spent because of the harm that shoddy planning and communication cause to the organization's relationships with its clients (Rigby, Reichheld, & Schefter, 2002; Zablah, Bellenger, & Johnston, 2004; Lindgreen, Palmer, Vanhamme, & Wouters, 2006).

Organizational culture and customer relationship

A strategic and cultural shift from a culture that is centered on products or processes to one that is customer-oriented is necessary for customer relationship management (Christopher, Payne, & Ballantyne, 1991; Roh, Ahn, & Han, 2005; Stein & Smith, 2009). The generation and transmission of customer knowledge must be done in a way that prioritizes the needs of the customer (Tzokas & Saren, 2004; Schein, 2004; Fahed & Maged, 2013). Customer connection orientation has an impact on company culture, according to Stein and Smith (2009). According to another study, there is a connection between CRM and organizational information and knowledge sharing, cross-functional teams, performance-based rewards, encouraging relationships, adaptable and responsive attitudes toward change, and a higher level of risk-taking and innovativeness of an organization system (Iriana & Buttle, 2006; Iriana, Buttle, & Ang, 2013).

Imran, Ismail, Arshad, Zeb, and Zahid (2022) indicated innovation mediates organizational culture and performance in the banking sector. Shuaib and He (2022), Franco, Benitez, de Sousa, Neto, and Frank (2022), Wahab (2022), Rizzi, Gigliotti, and Annunziata (2022), and Inuwa, Islam, and Male (2022) examined the mediating effect of organizational learning and the moderating role of organizational culture on the relationship between total quality management and innovation among manufacturing companies. The result indicated that TQM does affect the interlinkage among the study variables (organizational learning, organizational culture, TQM and innovation). (Shuaib & He, 2022; Franco, Benitez, de Sousa, Neto, & Frank, 2022; Wahab, 2022; Rizzi, Gigliotti, & Annunziata, 2022; Inuwa,Islam, & Male, 2022).
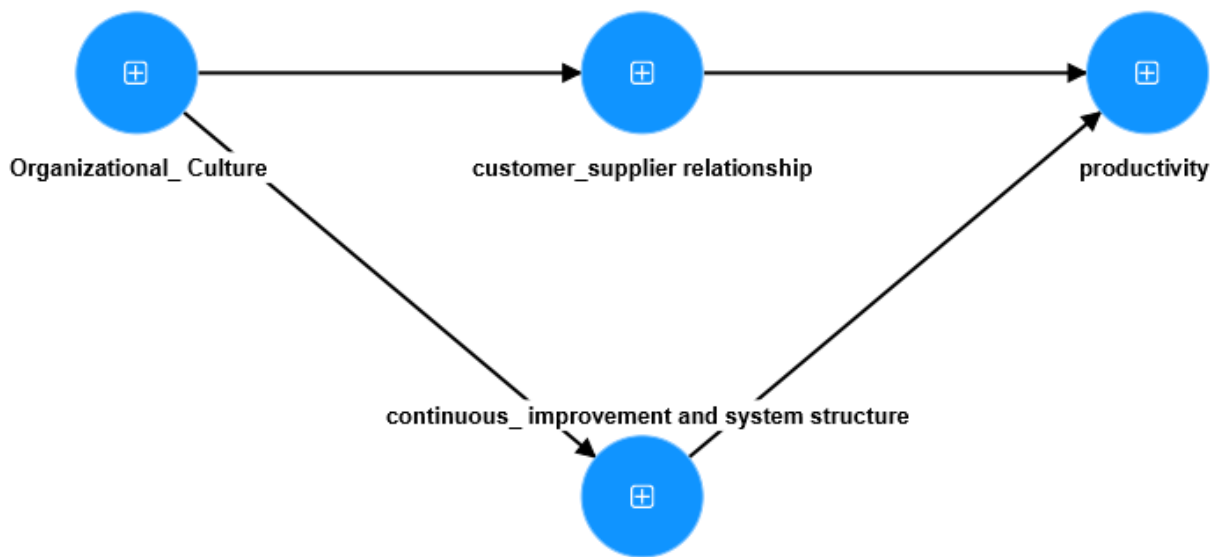
Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

Material and method

A questionnaire survey was used to gather the data for the current investigation. The study uses the identified organizations as a whole as its unit of analysis. The survey's target audience was Ethiopian manufacturing companies that were registered with the country's ministry of industry and targeted Ethiopian industrial parks. Cold calls were made to these 500 firms to inquire on the status of their kaizen applications, and a total of 340 firms located in the industrial parks of Hawassa, Dire Dawa, Yirgalem, Combolcha, Debire Birhan, and Bole Lemi were responded. 280 companies asserted that they were employing kaizen effectively.

To determine the ideal sample size, G power software was utilized (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016; Cohen, 1992). The minimum sample size needed for the study's design is 120 because Cohen (1992) advised a large effect size of 80 percent for social science research and the maximum number of predictors on a single construct of six (Cohen, 1992). 280 questions were

distributed through an email survey, and 240 of them—or 67 percent—were returned. According to Saldivar, a 40% response rate for an email-based survey would be considered ordinary, 50% would be good, and 60% would be extremely good (Saldivar, 2012; Fowler, 2002; Morgan & Krejcie, 1970). In this study, the response rate was significantly higher than the necessary sample size of 120. The measurement tool used to operationalize the theoretical framework's constructs was a multi-item measure that was validated and adopted from the literature. Each item was evaluated using a "five-point" standardized Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 to 5.

An analysis of the link between observable factors and their latent components on productivity was carried out in smart-PLS (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015). PLS-SEM is mostly used in exploratory research for the creation of theories (Bamgbade, Kamaruddeen, Nawi, Yusoff, & Bin, 2018). A multivariate analysis using PLS-SEM is currently accepted and favored in social science research (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013; Peng & Lai, 2012; Hinton, Brownlow, & McMurray, 2004). SEM can be used to do path analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, second-order factor analysis, regression models, covariance structure models, and correlation structure models (Lin & Jeng, 2017).

The suggested structural model in Figure 1 was examined using Smart-PLS, which has advantages over regression-based approaches in evaluating multiple latent constructs with various manifest variables (Gefen, 2000; Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015; Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015). Both the inner structural model and the outer measurement model were computed to test the proposed model as presented in Figure 1.

Consideration was given to CA scores over the accepted level of 0.70 (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016; Hinton, Brownlow, & McMurray, 2004). A confirmatory factor analysis (CF) result between 0.50 and 0.75, according to Hinton et al. (2004), denotes a fairly dependable construct. Though the CA is "sensitive to the number of items in the scale and typically tends to underestimate the internal consistency dependability," PLS-SEM "prioritizes the indicators according to their individual reliability," as stated by Hair et al. (2016).

They suggested using Composite Dependability (CR), a measure of internal consistency reliability that is said to be technically more appropriate because it takes into consideration the various outer loadings of the indicator variables, given the constraint and condition, respectively (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015; Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016). In an exploratory study, CR values between 0.60 and 0.70 are considered acceptable, whereas values between 0.70 and 0.90 are regarded as satisfactory, according to Hair et al. (2016). A cautious reliability measurement, CA typically yields low reliability values, while CR reflects the dependability's top bound (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015).

Data analysis

Evaluation of outer measurement model

The questionnaire is used to measure both observable and unobservable variables, and the outer measurement model is designed to assess the validity, internal consistency, and reliability of these measurements (Ho, 2013). Single observed and construct reliability tests are used to evaluate consistency, while convergent and discriminant validity are used to estimate validity (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012).

The variance of an individual observed variable relative to an unobserved variable can be labeled using a single observed variable reliability by looking at the standardized outer loadings of the observed variables (Götz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2010). Observed variables with an outer loading of 0.7 or higher are predicted to be noticeably satisfactory, while those with a value of less than 0.7 should be ignored, according to Ho (2013) and Henseler, Hubona, and Ray (2016). However, observed variables with an outer loading of less than 0.7 should be ignored. Despite this, 0.7 was the appropriate outer loading cut-off number for this inquiry.

Table 1 shows a range of outer loadings from 0.688 to 0.896. Cronbach's alpha and Composite Reliability were used to evaluate the internal consistency of the construct reliability (CR). However, Cronbach's alpha is considered to be a more accurate indicator of internal consistency since it captures the standardized loadings of the observed variables (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Cronbach's alpha and CR values for all constructs were greater than 0.70, as shown in Table 1. As a result, Cronbach's alpha and CR indicated that the scales were statistically reliable. They also showed that all latent construct values were above the minimal threshold value of 0.70. To ensure the variables' convergent validity, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each latent construct was calculated (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The latent constructs in the model should absorb the lowest 50% of the variance from the observable variables. Therefore, this suggests that the average extracted variance (AVE) for each construct should be greater than 0.5. (Barclay, Thompson, & dan Higgins, 1995; Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). The results demonstrated the measurement model's strong internal consistency and proved its convergent validity. As can be shown in Table 1, all of the average extracted variance values were greater than 0.5.

Table 1. Outer loadings and quality criteria

	Outer loading	**T-TEST**	**Cronbach's Alpha**	**rho_A**	**CR**	**AVE**
Continuous improvement of system and structure			0.869	0.882	0.902	0.607
CISS2	0.889	17.182				
CISS2	0.719	39.893				
CISS3	0.843	37.956				
CISS4	0.843	30.487				
CISS5	0.813	20.141				
CISS6	0.774	14.763				
Customer-supplier r/ship			0.656	0.759	0.782	0.548
CSR1	0.660	9.307				
CSR2	0.701	9.879				
CSR3	0.847	31.575				
Organizational culture			0.901	0.904	0.931	0.771
OC1	0.889	57.448				
OC2	0.875	42.993				
OC3	0.854	27.724				
OC4	0.893	47.500				
Productivity			0.904	0.907	0.929	0.724
PR1	0.795	23.655				
PR2	0.848	30.177				
PR3	0.897	57.038				
PR4	0.816	16.537				
PR5	0.895	53.328				
Sources: Survey 2022						

Discriminant validity

The discriminant validity of the study's latent constructs will be tested in the following analysis. When a variable's cross-loading value in the latent variable is higher than that in any other constructs, it is said to have discriminant validity, making it different from other constructs in the route model (Sarstedt, Ringle, Smith, Reams, & Hair, 2014).

Cross-loadings and the Fornell and Larcker criterion were employed to assess the discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). A construct should not exhibit the same variance as any other construct that exceeds its AVE value, according to the specified criterion (Sarstedt, Ringle, Smith, Reams, & Hair, 2014). The Fornell and Larcker criterion test of the model, which compared the squared correlations with the correlations from other latent components, is shown in Table 2. The observation that all correlations were lower than the average variance exerted along the diagonals (square root) suggests excellent discriminant validity. This demonstrated that each construct's observed variables indicated the relevant latent variable, supporting the model's discriminant validity.

Table 2. Discriminant validity fornell-larcker criterion

	OC	**CISS**	**FPCSR**	**PR**
Organizational culture	0.878			
Continuous improvement and system structure	0.359	0.779		
Customer-supplier relationship	0.745	0.587	0.740	
Productivity	0.349	0.477	0.446	0.851
Sources: Survey 2022				

Average coefficient correlation coefficient

Table 3 displays the correlation coefficient for latent variables. HTMT criterion measures the average correlations of the indicators across constructs. The model in Table 3 shows that all variables were less than .85, indicating that it fits well with the acceptable levels of discriminant validity (< 0.85/0.90), as suggested by Henseler et al. (2015)

Table 3. Heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT)

Paths	Heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT)
continuous_ improvement and system structure <-> Organizational_ Culture	0.395
customer_supplier relationship <-> Organizational_ Culture	0.766
customer_supplier relationship <-> continuous_ improvement and system structure	0.826
productivity <-> Organizational_ Culture	0.386
productivity <-> continuous_ improvement and system structure	0.531
productivity <-> customer_supplier relationship	0.581
Sources: Survey 2022	

Cross loading

Table 4 demonstrates that the cross loading of all observed variables in the model was greater than the construct's inter-correlations for all other observed variables. These results therefore offer confirmation that the discriminant validity of the measurement model is well fitted with the threshold suggested by Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2016). In addition, the recommended conceptual model was valid, with sufficient reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity as suggested by Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt (2016) thresholds.

Table 4. Cross loading

	CISS	CSR	OC	PR
CISS1	0.239	0.719	0.411	0.293
CISS2	0.305	0.843	0.448	0.388
CISS3	0.378	0.843	0.568	0.417
CISS4	0.287	0.813	0.456	0.416
CISS5	0.202	0.774	0.351	0.322
CISS6	0.229	0.668	0.474	0.366
CSR1	0.249	0.512	0.660	0.279
CSR2	0.257	0.566	0.701	0.428
CSR3	0.857	0.372	0.847	0.327
OC1	0.889	0.382	0.689	0.314
OC2	0.875	0.308	0.665	0.274
OC3	0.854	0.287	0.604	0.324
OC4	0.893	0.277	0.654	0.314
OC5	0.324	0.434	0.354	0.795
PR1	0.292	0.367	0.382	0.848
PR2	0.297	0.432	0.408	0.897
PR3	0.251	0.375	0.339	0.816
PR4	0.315	0.416	0.409	0.895
PR5	0.239	0.719	0.411	0.293
Sources: Survey 2022				

Evaluation of the inner structural model

The results of the present study reveal that the measurement model was an accurate predictor of the hypothesis that was put forth. The outcomes of the Inner Structural Model were then measured. This included looking at the relevance of the model's projections and the connections between the constructs. The correlation between two variables (R^2), Path coefficient (β value) and T-statistic value, Effect size (f^2), the Predictive relevance of the model (Q^2), and Goodness-of-Fit (GOF) index are the key standards for evaluating the inner structural model.

Measuring the value of R^2

The general effect size and variation explained in the endogenous construct for the structural model are measured by the coefficient of determination, which also serves as a predictability indicator for the model. The inner path model for the endogenous latent variable of businesses' productivity in this study was 0.559. These results showed that the five independent variables effectively account for 35.9% of the variation in the firms' productivity, meaning that about 55.9% of the change in the firms' productivity was due to five latent constructs in the model. An R^2 value of 0.75 is considered substantial, an R^2 value of 50 is considered moderate, and an R^2 value of 0.26 is measured as weak. Hence, the R^2 value in this study was moderate (Table 6) (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009; Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013).

Table 5. Path coefficients

	Total effects	T statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P values
Organizational_ Culture -> continuous_ improvement and system structure	0.359	5.205	0.000
Organizational_ Culture -> customer_supplier relationship	0.745	26.990	0.000
Organizational_ Culture -> productivity	0.307	5.925	0.000
continuous_ improvement and system structure -> productivity	0.328	4.798	0.000
customer_supplier relationship -> productivity	0.253	3.528	0.000
	Specific indirect effects	**T statistics (|O/STDEV|)**	**P values**
Organizational_ Culture -> customer_supplier relationship -> productivity	0.189	3.559	0.000
Organizational_ Culture -> continuous_ improvement and system structure -> productivity	0.118	3.575	0.000
Sources: Survey 2022			

Estimation of path coefficients(β) and T-statistics

The standardized β coefficient in the regression analysis and the path coefficients in the PLS were comparable. The significance of the hypothesis was examined using the β value. For a unit variation in the independent construct, the symbol β represented the predicted variation in the dependent construct (s). Every path in the proposed model had its values computed; the higher the values, the more significant the impact on the endogenous latent construct. The significance level of the value has to be confirmed, though, using the T-statistics test.

The significance of the model was assessed using the bootstrapping technique (Chin, 1998). The researcher assumed that the structure and method for continuous improvement would have a significant, favorable impact on the firm's productivity. As expected, the results in Table 4 and Figure 2 confirmed that system and structural factors that were continuously improved had a significant impact on a firm's productivity ($\beta = 0.328$, T = 4.797, p= 0.00) hence, the model is well supported.

Table 5 indicated organizational culture significantly affects continuous improvement system and structure ($\beta = 0.389$, T = 5.205, p= 0.00), and confirms that organizational culture affects continuous improvement system and structure of the organization. Organizational culture was supported since there was a positive and significant influence of customer and supplier relationships ($\beta = 0.745$, T = 26.990, p= 0.000). The customer and supplier connection factor had a substantial impact on organizational productivity ($\beta = 0.253$, T = 3.528, p = 0.000).

The influence of an exogenous latent construct on the endogenous latent construct is stronger the higher the beta coefficient (β). When compared to other values in the model, Table 4 and Figure 2 indicate that the customer and supplier connection-related component had the top path coefficient of $\beta = 0.745$, indicating that it had a higher value of variance and a high influence with regard to altering the businesses performance. The graphical representation of every path coefficient in the model is shown in Figure 3.

Measuring the effect size f^2

The magnitude of each exogenous latent construct's influence on the endogenous latent construct is represented by the value f^2 (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016). The coefficient of determination (R^2) changes when an independent construct is removed from the path model, indicating whether the removed latent exogenous construct had a significant impact on the latent endogenous construct's value. The values of the f^2 were 0.35 for a high influence, 0.15 for a moderate effect, and 0.02 for a weak effect (Cohen, Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences, 1988)..
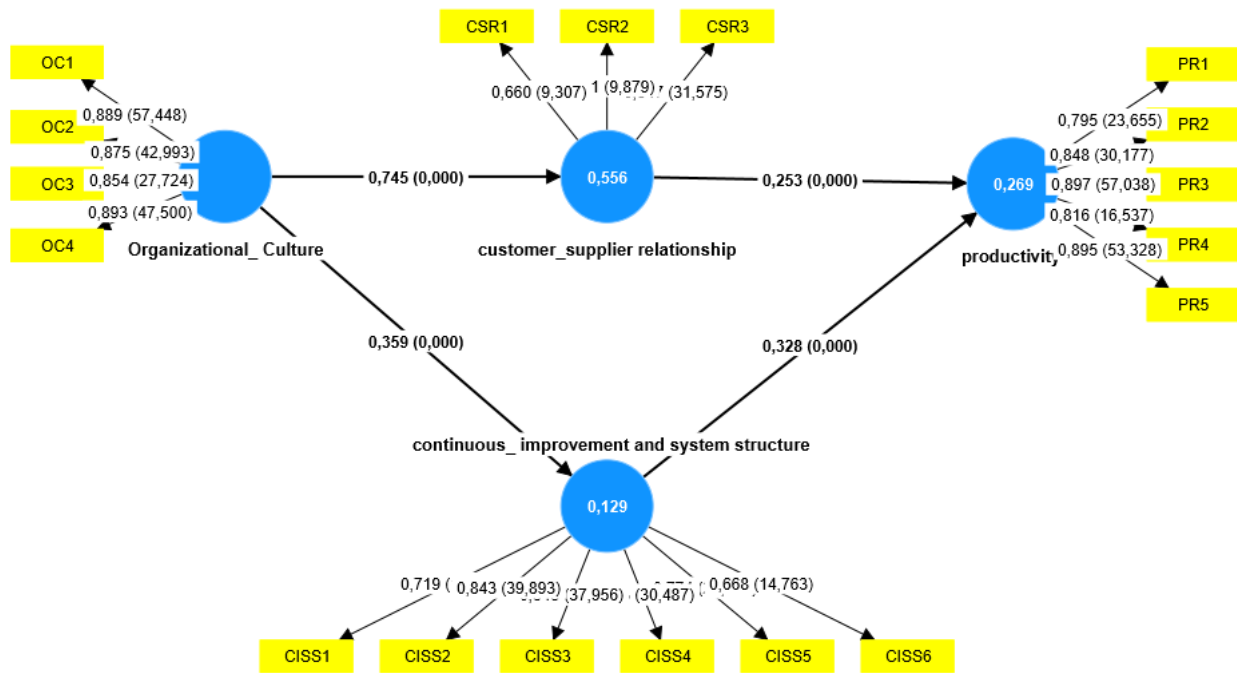
Figure 2. Model tested using partial least square / Sources: Survey 2022
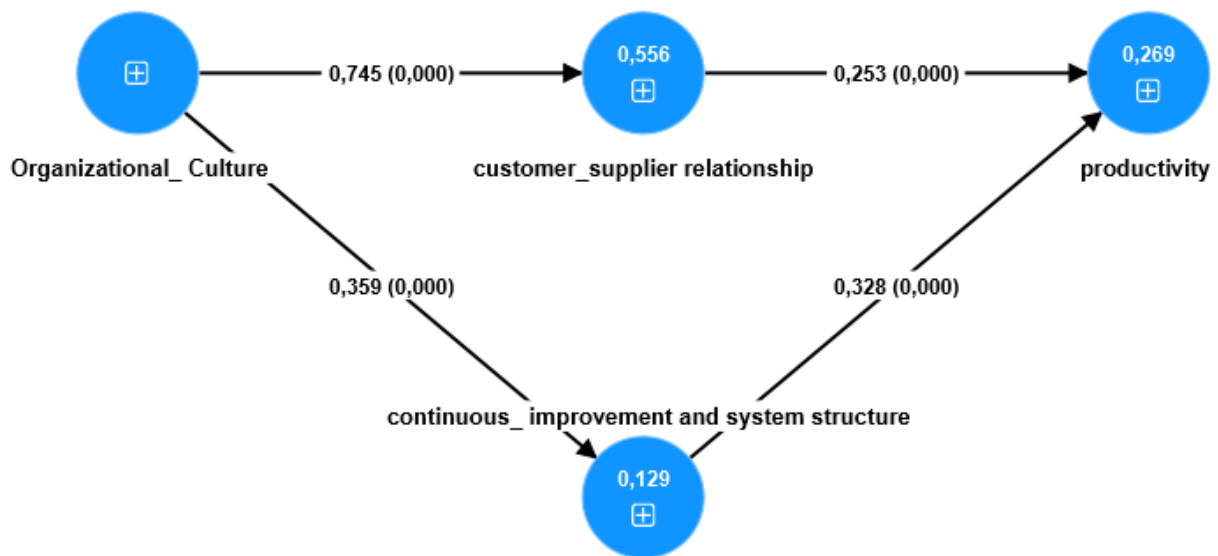
Figure 3. Proposed model result of outer loading and p-value / Sources: Survey 2022

As shown in Table 6, the association between organizational culture and performance, customer-supplier interactions, and continuous improvement systems and structure all had small to moderate effect sizes. As a result, three of the four exogenous latent variables on productivity, according to Cohen's advice, had a minimal impact on the value of R^2 (Cohen, 1988; Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016).

Readings for the variance inflation factor (VIF) are below the critical value of 3.33, demonstrating that the structural model is free of multicollinearity issues (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000).

Model fit

Goodness-of-Fit (GOF) is used as an index for the whole model fit to make sure the model effectively accounts for the empirical data (Tenenhaus, Esposito Vinzi, Chatelin, & Lauro, 2005). The GOF values range from 0 to 1, with small, mid, and large values of 0.10, 0.25, and 0.36, respectively, denoting the path model's overall validity. A good model fit shows how practical and plausible
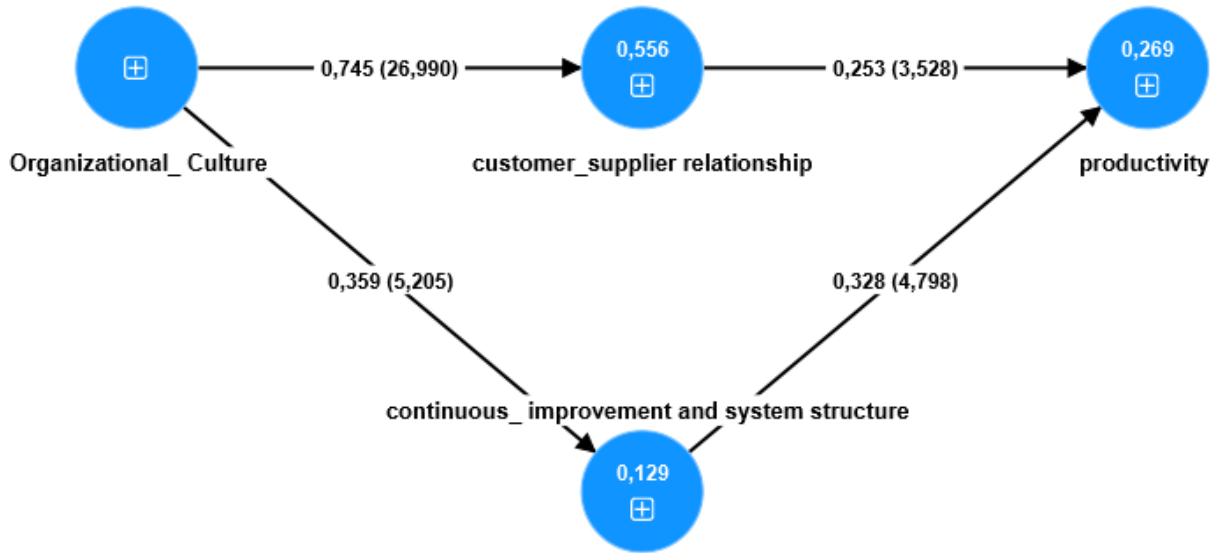
Figure 4. Proposed model result of T-test and path outer loading / Sources: Survey 2022

Table 6. Effect size (f^2) and VIF

	f^2	VIF
Organizational_ Culture -> continuous_ improvement and system structure	0.148	2.139
Organizational_ Culture-> customer_ supplier relationship	1.251	2.417
continuous_ improvement and system structure -> productivity	0.097	2.513
Customer _supplier relationship-> productivity	0.057	2.107
Sources: Survey 2022		

a model is (Henseler, Hubona, & Ray, 2016). The study model's computed GOF score was 0.943, showing that empirical data fits the model satisfactorily and has a strong ability to predict outcomes when compared to baseline values.

Table 7. Model fit measurements

	AVE	R2	SRMR	d_ULS	d_G1	d_G2	Chi-Square	NFI
CISS	0.869	0.127	0.075	1.622	0.943	0.943	978.51	0.862
CSR	0.656	0.554						
PR	0.904	0.265						
OC	0.869							
Sources: Survey 2022								

The standardized residual of root mean square (SRMR) is a measure of the average of the residuals between the hypothesized and observed covariance matrices (Chen, 2007). The SRMR is a measurement of estimated model fit. According to Hu and Bentler (1998), the research model fits the data well when the SRMR is less than 0.08; a lower SRMR indicates a better match. Table 6 demonstrates that the SRMR for this study model was 0.075, indicating a strong fit, while the Chi-Square value was 978.51 and the NFI value was 0.862, respectively, where all fitted well to the thresholds suggested by Chen (2007).

Conclusion and managerial implication

Conclusion

The results of this study showed that system and structure improvement over time had a favorable impact on organizational productivity. Aktaa, Içekb, and Kyakc, 2011, Alexandra Jancikova, 2009, Assefa, 2011, Ahmed, Hassan, and Fen, 2005, and Sondakh, Christiananta, and Ellitan, 2017 support the current finding. Additionally, early research has shown a positive correlation between customer-supplier relationships and organizational productivity and culture. Culture affects customer-supplier relationship, system structure and organizational productivity (Boulding, Staelin, Ehret, & Johnson, 2005; O'Leary, Rao, & Perry, 2004; Iriana & Buttle, 2006; Stein & Smith, 2009).

The current findings indicate that as system improvement increases, organizational cultures become more supportive and customer-focused, which is also supported by early findings i.e. Ahmed, Loh, & Zairi, (1999), Anand, Ward, Tatikonda, & Schilling, (2009), Anand, Ward, Tatikonda, & Schilling (2009), Asaad, Rohaizah, & Yusoff (2015), and Alexandra Jancikova (2009). In addition, the finding in this study indicate that organizational culture affects customer-supplier relationship, system structure improvement and organizational productivity. The finding is consistent with Akta, Içekb, & Kyakc (2011), Alexandra Jancikova (2009), Satsomboon & Pruetipibultham (2014), and Danish, Munir, & Butt (2012)

Managerial and theoretical implications

The study provides organizations and their managers with a greater understanding of the connections between productivity, customer relationships, organizational culture, and continual system and structure improvement. By analyzing the moderating effect of customer-supplier relationships on organizational culture and ongoing organizational productivity, managers will be able to make smarter and more successful decisions. In addition, the study can help organizations decide which performance measures are more strategically vital to improve and how to prioritize the execution of continuous improvement. By analyzing the effects of all the most important lean approaches on the most crucial metrics of organizational productivity and organizational culture, this study adds to the body of prior research in this field in terms of its theoretical significance.

Research limitations and further research

There were a number of issues that need to be taken into account when doing such investigations in the future. First, only workers in the manufacturing sector were called to obtain the necessary information. There are many other factors that may have been included, but they were not included in the study's variables because of the limited scope of the research. As a means of advancing this field, researchers should look beyond the manufacturing business and into a variety of other industries where the lean strategy can be applied, taking into account both the social and technical aspects of the process.

These factors' varied boundaries must be identified in order to be taken into account in future investigations of the same nature. Only employees in the manufacturing sector who were actively engaged in certain industrial parks were contacted in order to begin obtaining the essential data. Even though a number of other hindrances may be identified, the variables in the study were restricted to productivity, organizational culture, customer-supplier relationships, and continuous improvement. We need research that not only focuses on manufacturing, but also takes into account other industries where a lean strategy could be beneficial by considering both the social and technical aspects of implementing kaizen.

It is also possible to investigate the impact of lean methods and tools on organizational culture and CRM, taking into account the importance that governments, non-governmental organizations, civil societies, international unions and institutions, and industry and society as a whole place on the "green" and sustainable area and preservation. A mixed method approach, which incorporates both quantitative and qualitative data sets that can be rigorously verified using statistical techniques like the non-response bias test, can be used in future empirical investigations in order to improve data reliability.

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Intellectual Capital and Chaos of Innovation: Antagonist Coalition in Organizations

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ABSTRACT

As a critical resource of human capital, employees might be the leading supporters of innovation management considering the integrated intellectual capital. In addition to the formal organizational structure, employees in an organization usually group informally within the institution. They conflict by taking an opposing role to other informal groups. When a manager/leader comes from outside or "someone from within the organization" takes a new position, conflicting groups quickly take a stand against the newcomer and even come together spontaneously with other groups. Hence, opposition groups' unity against this newcomer within the organization has been defined as an "Antagonist Coalition in Organizations". The antagonist action structure that is the subject of this article plays a role in innovation management and negatively affects the process. This research examines the chaotic effect of antagonist coalitions on innovation. The semi-structured observation questionnaire was used as a data collection tool in the research. The tables containing the frequency values were used to analyze the survey data. The answers to the open-ended question were analyzed by qualitative data analysis. As a result of the research, most of the participants expressed a positive opinion on an antagonist coalition in organizations and that this would drive innovation into chaos. Study findings indicate a significant relationship between the antagonist coalition in organizations and the chaos of innovation.

Keywords: Antagonist, Antagonist Coalition, Chaos, Innovation, Intellectual Capital.

JEL Code: M12

Introduction

Nowadays, where innovation is the main factor that enables businesses to have a sustainable structure, it is not enough to see businesses only with tangible assets. In modern management understanding, organizational memory, experience, business structure, innovative thinking structure and employee inclusion in business creativity have corporate value. Enterprises' knowledge and innovation capability underlie this information's processing and transformation into intellectual capital. The relationship between innovation and intellectual capital has been examined many times in the literature, and it has been found that there is a significant relationship between them (Subramaniam & Youndt, 2005).

The international dimension of the economy, the need to continuously innovate, and more use of information technologies have obliged companies to operate in an intensely competitive environment businesses that should differentiate them from their competitors to survive and create value for their customers; they should offer customer-oriented products and services to the market (Aragón-Sánchez & Sánchez-Marín, 2005). The realization of all these differentiation and value-creating products and services is possible with innovation

Considering that the company's information is somehow human-sourced, it is expected that the information that the employees have will contribute to the enterprise's innovative work. The most crucial step to be taken toward the wealth of intellectual capital will be to increase the number of people with a high level of innovative literacy (Yüksel *et al., 2022*). Therefore, businesses want to activate this structure by making changes in their organizations and choosing innovative managers to achieve their goals. Employees mostly resist or behave silently to this change targeted by the administrations. Most of the literature studies confirm that employees do not adapt quickly to change during organizational change. This study explicitly shows that the resistance that develops against the organizational change moves in the enterprises dealing with innovation management interrupts the innovation studies.

Recently, an observation that reveals the conflict or inaction encountered in organizations in innovation management has formed the purpose of the conflict. This antagonist effect structure, which is the subject of the article, has been described in the literature. The issue of antagonism is an important component of innovation management. In addition, the antagonist coalition's chaotic effect on innovation is examined. This research identified the antagonist's concept in other disciplines, but depicted that the antagonist coalition's concept had not been used in the field of innovation, and no similar work had been done before.

The observation form and questionnaire, which were stipulated in the research methodology, were applied. An open-ended question was added to the questionnaire to increase the quality of the research. To create the research sample, experts experienced in R&D and innovation, and management were carefully selected. In the conclusion section, the antagonist coalition's effect on organizations and innovation is discussed. Antagonism is an important issue of chaos management. Also, it is interesting that until now this topic has not been applied to "innovation management".

Literature Review

Innovation behavior is of principal significance for understanding how organizations can benefit from human capital (Anderson *et al*., 2014; Montag *et al*., 2012; Liu *et al*., 2017; Wu *et al*, 2018). Innovation means leading to the competitive advantage of companies. It is a process of management that, to be effective, requires specific tools and management systems (Jardon, 2015).

A modern business depends on the preponderance of which resides in the skills of employees, their experiences, insights and intuitions, and their relationships. Knowledge management has therefore increasingly recognized workers as important contributors to the intellectual capital of businesses (Gorry, & Westbrook, 2013).

Data from several studies have identified that intellectual capital also refers to the integrated value consisting of innovation efforts with customers and partners, relationships with company infrastructure, and organization members' knowledge and skills (Roos *et al*.,1997). The information owned by transactions might be transformed into value for businesses by intellectual capital (Edvinsson and Sullivan, 1996), which is defined as a determining factor in businesses' future gains.

Wu *et al*., (2008) stated that intellectual capital accumulation increases the innovation performance of the enterprise. Considering that human beings have a unique and infinite creative capacity, it can be stated that intellectual capital has an important place in guiding enterprises' innovative processes.

According to Wilson (1966), the innovation process is divided into the idea stage, suggestion and adoption, and implementation. According to (Damanpour, 1991; Katila *et al*., 2005; Wolfe, 1994), innovation itself is a process, whereas (Yoo *et al*., 2016) it can be defined as the result of a process. Innovation and knowledge management are determining factors for the success and continuity of organizations. However, because they are considered intangibles, their measurement becomes a challenge (Dickel & de Moura, 2016). Knowledge is required for innovation, depending on the definition of innovation, which is the transformation of new ideas within the business into outputs that create value for stakeholders; it comes from the company's internal and external stakeholders such as employees, suppliers, and customers. All value-oriented products and services offered by businesses are not obtained by accident, but by processing the information from these sources and converting them into know-how. Managing the enterprise's knowledge base and converting intellectual capital into useful products and services is fast becoming the critical executive skill of the age (Cormican & O'Sullivan, 2003).

Most studies in the literature have only been carried out on innovation performance. A considerable amount of literature shows that businesses with valuable and skilled human resources have a higher potential to find new product ideas and implement them. According to Merriam-Webster (2023) dictionary sources, the word antagonism means enemy. Antagonism in philosophy; means "opposition" and "being a cause for a certain purpose". It is also known as the opponent or opponent enemy.

The term antagonism, first used by Bonacich (1972), expresses any discriminatory behavior or prejudiced attitude from one group to another. Labovitz and Hagedorn (1975) explain in the theory of antagonism that using social power, competition and labor structure directly affect intergroup relations based on structural and behavioral orientations. Otherhand, the term "antagonism" is intended to encompass all levels of intergroup conflict, including ideologies and beliefs (such as racism and prejudice), behaviors (such as discrimination, lynchings and riots), and institutions (such as laws perpetuating segregation).

Antagonism has been evaluated as the adverse meaning of agreeableness to one of the elements of the big five personality traits as extroversion vs. introversion, agreeableness vs. antagonism, conscientiousness vs. lack of direction, neuroticism vs. emotional stability and openness vs. closeness to experience in the psychology literature (Turan, 2015; John and Srivatava, 1999; Costa and McCrae, 1985). Parks et al. (2013) claimed antagonism is a multifaceted concept needed to be evaluated. One of the facets is power and its abuse use. For instance, an individual can behave as a gatekeeper of collective goods or evaluate it as a common-pool resource that could be utilised for individual needs so it is protected or harmed.

Even more broadly, antagonism can be characterized as individual differences in the motivation to maintain positive social

relations with others (Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997). Antagonistic individuals place less value on interpersonal harmony, being more likely to sacrifice interpersonal harmony for other goals. Agreeable individuals, on the other hand, are likely to be motivated to maintain harmonious relations across many interpersonal contexts. Antagonism, the low pole of agreeableness, references traits related to immorality, combativeness, grandiosity, callousness, and distrustfulness (Lynam & Miller, 2019).

Behaviors can be characterized as "the internally coordinated responses (actions or inactions) of whole living organisms (individuals or groups) to internal and/or external stimuli. Many patterns may arise in organizations' and companies' performance in organizations, which may be in organizational behavior, business relations, team production, organizational culture, decision-making, and other well-established management areas that affect business performance (Levitis *et al*., 2009). Employees' tendency to maintain the status quo in strong organizational cultures opposes the initiation of change or an innovative guest. The visible result of mutual interactions between employees who show this resistance is chaos in the organizational system. Managing innovation in such structures is almost impossible due to problems arising from dealing with daily problems.

Businesses innovate to keep up with change. According to the author's comment, "*they mostly use new human resources to mobilize and manage innovation in their business processes. This person may be from within the organization or from outside the organization. This selected person is given new business-related goals. There is also time to achieve these goals. The new person faces antagonistic obstacles if there are power centers in the organization. This pressure also damages the efficient management of time. Without the support of human resources, organizational innovation becomes unsustainable. Considering the rapid change rate of the external environment in which the organization is located, the enterprise cannot keep up with this change rate*".

A corporate organization is essentially a kind of complex system. Innovation is a complex construct and overlaps with a few other prevalent concepts such as technology, creativity, and change. Research on innovation spans many fields of inquiry including business, economics, engineering, and public administration. The organizational innovation process is the combination of subsystems, a set of complex systems that change various aspects of the business. Changes in the external environment show that organizational innovation is essential for the development of the firm. This is a must for the survival of the business (Damanpour, 2017).

Crain *et al*. (2008) assume that synergy's cumulative effect occurs less than the sum of these opposing effects in organizations with opposing personal effects. Conflict lowers energy and is chaotic. Because some behaviors are unpredictable, it is impossible to know where the system's boundary will shift at any moment (Dolan & Garcia, 2003). Organizations are potentially chaotic due to the merging of counter forces, as organizations are also defined as non-linear dynamical systems subject to forces of stability and the forces of instability that push them towards chaos (Thiétart & Forgues, 1995).

If there is too much criticism in an organization, the development team may not generate enough product ideas. In such cases, the role of antagonists emerges. The antagonist's role in innovation projects is the role in which an individual strongly opposes a project and evokes negative emotions even when the project receives organizational support. These antagonists try to influence innovation with their support or opposition to specific projects. Conflict and political behavior occur when individuals oppose innovations (Markham, 2000).

An organization's ability to use information depends mostly on the human resources that effectively create, share, and use it (Antunes & Pinheiro, 2019). Information stagnates in uncertain and difficult environments (Smith & Paquette, 2010). This creates chaos of information. Information not supported by human resources cannot turn into an innovation. Human-made chaos is the enemy of innovation.

It has been demonstrated that there are various unforeseen situations in the innovation process; if any phase is not well coordinated, the entire organizational innovation system will be confused. Especially the chaos experienced in periods of change will disrupt the firms dealing with innovation. Promoting internal cooperation among members of organizations can be a powerful resource for generating organizational knowledge. The interaction is necessary to transform personal knowledge into collective knowledge, otherwise, innovation will be chaotic. The research has tended to focus on antagonist structures in organizations that should be examined.

Research Method

The first phase was to identify the prerequisites for using semi-structured interviews. The aim of this phase was to evaluate the appropriateness of the semi-structured interview as a rigorous data collection method in relation to the selected research question(s). According to the selected studies, the researcher needed to be able to determine some areas of the phenomenon based on previous knowledge before the interview (Turner, 2010).

This study employed a systematic methodological review. The review was conducted by adapting the theory review method. Based on our results, the semi-structured interview guide development included five phases: (1) identifying the prerequisites for using semi-structured interviews; (2) retrieving and using previous knowledge; (3) formulating the preliminary semi-structured

interview guide; (4) pilot testing the interview guide; and (5) presenting the complete semi-structured interview guide (Campbell *et al.* 2014).

The data were collected through a semi-structured questionnaire prepared by the researcher. The semi-structured questionnaire combines structured and unstructured questionnaires with closed and open-ended questions that try to reveal purposeful views (Sarantakos, 2005). The semi-structured interview technique was chosen because it has proven to be both versatile and flexible as well as being a popular data collection method (Dearnley, 2005). After the questionnaire was prepared in two parts, it was first given to two experts, one of whom was an R&D specialist and the other an academic, and they were asked to examine whether the questions were understandable or not and their adequacy within the scope of the subject. The questionnaire prepared after the arrangements based on the recommendations of the experts was sent to the participants. Following the expert opinions, the following items were formed:

Items 1. When organizations want to change, they bring in a new person.

Items 2. The newcomer creates new business methods to be accepted by the organization.

Items 3. Organization employees show individual resistance to newcomers' business practices.

Items 4. Employees of the organization, who show individual resistance, first evaluate the newcomer's corporate goals within their informal groups.

Items 5. In organizations, these informal groups spontaneously cooperate with other informal groups and develop a counter-attitude when they feel that they will be negatively affected by the change.

Items 6. The antagonistic coalition in organizations keeps the newcomer busy with unnecessary daily problems. Items 7. Daily pursuits hinder the innovative goals of the newcomer.

Items 8. The antagonist inhibitions create chaos in innovation management.

Items 9. Chaos reduces innovative moves.

Items 10. Decreases in innovative movements negatively affect intellectual capital.

Item 11. This study poses a research question. Based on this research question, a survey was created.

Research Question: Antagonist coalition in the organization; negatively affects innovation.

Styhre (2007) stated that the relationships between professionals and managers are intricate, and parties can take the other group's role and see a broader perspective than just individual interests. In the emerging knowledge society, a significant challenge for human resource management theory and practice is how to lead professionals and experts in daily work. The literature on professionals shows that the relationship between professionals and managers is complicated, as professional ideologies, practices, and interests tend to conflict with organizational and managerial goals.

It is also challenging to find the right balance and define the right balance between soft and hard actions on which innovation success is built. Long-term and full benefits can only be recognized if the problematic aspects complement sensitive actions that give momentum to the underlying dynamics and innovation. Indeed, these delicate actions make the organization innovative in the long run (Pervaiz, 1998). From this point of view, the newcomer to a senior position usually leads to a change in behavior. Individuals in businesses react to events instead of analyzing the situation and developing an antagonist attitude with their informal groups.

It should not be forgotten that innovation management is fed by the collaborative practices of innovation activity. These new practices, which are not accepted and understood by the employees, create obstacles created by opposing attitudes and hinder the innovation efforts of the management. From this point of view, the newcomer to a senior position usually leads to a change in behaviour. Individuals in businesses react to events instead of analyzing the situation and developing an antagonist attitude with their informal groups. If the employees' acceptance and understanding of innovation in this organization are not realized, this will negatively affect the innovation management. One of the reasons for this may be the reaction to the change in organizational structure. For employees, the focus is still on the coordination of activities caused by this restructuring. At such times, opposition groups can turn into unity.

This study was conducted to investigate the opposing structures in companies that strengthen with cooperation and drag innovation into chaos. The participants' opinions on whether a survey created based on this issue drag innovation into chaos or not will be useful to confirm these findings.

Data Collecting

The observation form and questionnaire, which were stipulated in the research methodology, were applied. An open-ended question was added to the questionnaire to increase the quality of the research. The survey consists of 19 questions with 11 main statements and 8 demographic information supporting the research question. A 19-item electronic questionnaire was applied to sector and R&D managers (n = 40). Data were collected in 2020. Managers, directors, academics, and R&D managers were informed by phone calls to complete the survey correctly. The data from the questionnaire sent electronically were transferred to the SPSS program. For semi-structured interviews, the last question was added to the questionnaire, and they were asked to write a detailed answer. It was ensured that only volunteer participants answered the semi-structured questionnaire. It was emphasized that a name should not be written in the questionnaire to express valid opinions easily. It was stated to the participants that expressing their valid opinions was essential for the validity of the research results. The questionnaire was created electronically.

During the data collection process, all 40 questionnaires were returned (n = 40). Different samples were selected as directors, managers, TÜBİTAK (The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey) R&D managers, employees, academicians, public and private sector senior representatives, and the results were analyzed based on categories. The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Türkiye (TÜBİTAK) is the leading agency for the management, funding and conduct of research in Türkiye. TÜBİTAK is responsible for promoting, developing, organizing, conducting and coordinating research and development in line with national targets and priorities. TÜBİTAK acts as an advisory agency to the Turkish Government on science and research issues, and is the secretariat of the Supreme Council for Science and Technology (SCST), the highest S&T policy-making body in Türkiye. Setting its vision as to be an innovative, guiding, participating and cooperating institution in the fields of science and technology, which serves to improve the living standards of our society and sustainable development of our country, TÜBİTAK not only supports innovation, academic and industrial R&D studies but also in line with national priorities develops scientific and technological policies and manages R&D institutes, carrying on research, technology and development studies. The Gebze Campus, located in Tübitak Marmara Region, was chosen for this study. Approximately 2700 personnel work in this campus. Since the author has done many R&D studies in the Tübitak Marmara campus, it is known that the institution is suitable for this type of research. The sample consists of senior employees in various units of the institution. Therefore, this sample is sufficient in terms of qualitative and quantitative representation for the semi-structured questionnaire.

According to Morse (2012), such analysis is amenable to non-parametric statistical analysis. Sampling for Semi-Structured Interviews research must be guided. This research followed Morse's principle. The data collected are adequate according to the literature. A minimum of 30 participants is recommended for initial recruitment to ensure adequate data collection. Adequacy of data in this type of research is defined in both qualitative (i.e., the depth of data collected) and quantitative terms (i.e., the number of data collected). The data may be thin. Although participants know they are free to respond to questions as they wish, they are also aware that they are to respond to scheduled questions. Hence, participants may respond to categorical questions in kind. The second aspect of adequacy, however, is the sufficiency of the data for quantitative analysis. Because Semi-Structured Interviews data are collected with an interview schedule in which each participant is asked the same questions, data analysis proceeds by item. A sample size of 30 is the minimum number recommended for such statistical analysis to be meaningful. Finally, in addition to qualitative and quantitative analysis, data derived from Semi-Structured Interviews may be used in a mixed-method design. In this case, the sample size needs to be a minimum of 30 for adequacy of the quantitative analysis (Morse & Niehaus, 2009; McIntosh, & Morse, 2015)

The questions that make up the first part of demographic information were transferred to the SPSS (Social Science Statistic Program); frequency and percentage values were calculated. For each question in the second part, separate analyses were made using the content analysis technique. Content analysis is expressed as identifying, enumerating, and interpreting recurring issues, problems, and concepts within the qualitative data obtained (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Silverman, 2000). In the next step, repetitive codes were categorized and themed with an inductive approach (Baxter, 2003; Stake, 1995). According to the obtained themes, the data decomposed are presented in tables with frequency and percentage values provided that they are separate for each question and reflect gender differences. Due to the limited number of participants and expressions, advanced research techniques could not be applied.

Findings

When the demographic characteristics of the participants are examined in Table 1. data; participants' characteristics when the data are examined; 40% of the participants are women, 60% are men, 2.5% of the participants are between the ages of 18-25, 12.5% are between 26-35, and 32.5% are between 36-45 years. 45% were between the ages of 46-55, and 7.5% were between the ages of 56-65. Over the age of 65, there was no participant. When the participants' education level is examined, the highest education level is 37.5% with a master's degree.

Other levels are specified as 32.5% with a bachelor's degree, % 37.5 with a master's degree, 27.5% with a doctorate, and 2.5%

with an associate degree. In addition, the management experience of the participants is 40% for 0-5 years. It is 7.5% for 6-10 years, 12.5% for 11.15 years, 22.5% for 16-20 years, and 17.5% for 21 years. Considering the type of sector the participants work in, it is seen that 62.5% of them work in the public sector, 35% in the private sector, and 2.5% in the project-based sector. This ratio can be attributed to the fact that the participants are among the R&D employees and that they are TÜBİTAK and R&D-based public institutions. The profiles of the participants consisted of qualified employees working in different sectors.

The area of the sector in which we work is stated as service with 25%. The education sector followed this rate at 17.5%. In selecting the education sector, the opinions of academic staff working in the field of R&D were also wanted to be taken. The percentages of other sectors: Health and Social Services 10 %, Automotive 2.5 %, Service 25 %, Manufacturing 10 %, Chemical, Mining, Petroleum, Rubber and Plastic 7.5 %, Electricity, Electronics and Energy 10 %, Food 2.5 %, Business and Management 7.5%, Information Technologies 5 %, Glass, and Cement and Soil 2.5 %.

On the other hand, it was observed that the answer as yes was 67.5% in the question "Did you take part in innovative projects". In the answers given to the question of "antagonist groups", which is one of the key questions of this study, have you heard before, we see that the no option is in the majority with 92.5%. The 'no answer" given to this question reveals that the study is a previously unknown concept in literature. Although it is included in a linguistic sense as an antagonist word, it has been determined that it does not exist as a human dimension concept in research in the management discipline.

The main aim of this research based on the theme of how important internal cooperation between the members of the organization is for innovation; to produce organizational innovation, has tried to draw attention to the antagonist coalition formed against the newcomer during the high level of change in the enterprises.

Table 2 shows that the participants agree that there may be an antagonist coalition in organizations and that this will create chaos in innovation.

When Table 3 is examined, the items with the highest participation percentage are;
* "to the statement the newcomer has created new business methods to be accepted by the organization" (85%),
* "to the statement "organization employees who show individual resistance first evaluate the corporate goals set by the newcomer within their informal groups" (90.0%),
In the question that constitutes the semi-structured part of the questionnaire;

The question "Do you agree with the view Antagonist Coalition Creates Chaos in Innovation in Organizations?" was asked, and it was declared that writing your opinion besides yes or no to this question will make a significant contribution to innovation. Answers from the participants are shown in Table 4. Participants are numbered from "1 to 40". The answers are directly transferred to the table.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Research Participants

Variable	Category	f	%
Gender	Man	16	40
	Female	24	60
	18-25	1	2.5
	26-35	5	12.5
Age range	36-45	13	32.5
	46-55	18	45
	56-65	3	7.5
	65 >	0	0
	High School	0	0
	Vocational School	1	2.5
	Faculty	13	32.5
Education	Master's	15	37.5
	Doctorate	11	27.5
	0-5	16	40
	5-10	3	7.5
	11-15	5	12.5
Management Experience	16-20	9	22,5
	21 >	7	17.5
	Public	14	35
Sector Type	Private	25	62.5
	Project Based	1	2,5
	Education	7	17.5
	Building	0	0
	Health and Social Services	4	10
	Automotive	1	2.5
	Service	10	25
	Production	4	10
	Agriculture, Hunting and Fishing	0	0
	Textile, Ready-to-Wear, Leather	0	0
	Chemical, Mining, Petroleum, Rubber and Plastic	3	7.5
Sector Branch	Electricity, Electronics and Energy	4	10
	Food	1	2.5
	Business and Management	3	7.5
	Information technologies	2	5
	Glass, Cement and Soil	1	2.5
	Tourism, Accommodation, Food and Beverage Services, Transportation	0	0
Have you taken part in innovative projects?	Yes	27	67.5
	No	13	32.5
Have you heard of "Antagonist Groups" in Business?	Yes	7	17.5
	No	33	82.5

When Table 4 is examined, it was observed that 3 people out of 40 participants left this question unanswered, 6 people disagreed with this opinion, 5 people partially agreed, 1 person thought that it could trigger otherwise, and 1 person did not have in-depth knowledge.

The rest of the participants agreed that the antagonist coalition could be in firms, expressed their opinion that this would lead innovation to chaos, and used statements supporting the research question.

Conclusion

This chaotic situation caused by antagonist coalitions often leads to an individual inability to take innovative action and organizational ineffectiveness. This dilemma also hinders the generation of new ideas as they find it easier not to act when action is required.

This research is based on the theme of how important internal cooperation between the members of the organization is for innovation. In order to generate organizational innovation, attention should be drawn to the opposing coalition formed against the newcomer during periods of high change in businesses. Data from this study explicitly show that the resistance that develops against the organizational change moves in the enterprises dealing with innovation management interrupts the innovation studies.

Table 2. Participants' Opinions on the Antagonist Coalition and the Chaos of Innovation

No	Items	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	When organizations want to change, they bring in a new person	1	2.5	3	7.5	5	12.5	24	60	7	17.5
2	The newcomer creates new business methods to be accepted by the organization.	1	2.5	1	2.5	4	10	27	67.5	7	17.5
3	Organization employees show individual resistance to newcomers' business practices.	0	0	1	2.5	6	15	23	57.5	10	25
4	Employees of the organization, who show individual resistance, first evaluate the newcomer's corporate goals within their informal groups.	0	0	1	2.5	3	7.5	30	75	6	15
5	In organizations, these informal groups spontaneously cooperate with other informal groups and develop a counter-attitude when they feel that they will be negatively affected by the change.	0	0	2	5	5	12.5	23	57.5	10	25
6	The antagonistic coalition in organizations keeps the newcomer busy with unnecessary daily problems.	0	0	4	10	10	25	18	45	8	20
7	Daily pursuits hinder the innovative goals of the newcomer.	0	0	4	10	7	17.5	23	57.5	6	15
8	The antagonist inhibitions create chaos in innovation management.	0	0	2	5	9	22.5	24	60	5	12.5
9	Chaos reduces innovative moves.	0	0	5	12.5	2	5	23	57.5	10	25
10	Decreases in innovative movements negatively affect intellectual capital.	0	0	1	2.5	10	25	22	55	7	17.5

Table 3. Participants Agree on Rates

Antagonist Coalition and the Chaos of Innovation	Agree+ Strongly Agree
When organizations want to change, they bring in a new person	77.5
The newcomer creates new business methods to be accepted by the organization.	85.5
Organization employees show individual resistance to newcomers' business practices.	82.5
Employees of the organization, who show individual resistance, first evaluate the newcomer's corporate goals within their informal groups.	90
In organizations, these informal groups spontaneously cooperate with other informal groups and develop a counter-attitude when they feel that they will be negatively affected by the change.	82.5
The antagonistic coalition in organizations keeps the newcomer busy with unnecessary daily problems.	65
Daily pursuits hinder the innovative goals of the newcomer.	82.5
The antagonist inhibitions create chaos in innovation management.	72.5
Chaos reduces innovative moves.	82.5
Decreases in innovative movements negatively affect intellectual capital.	72.5

There are multivariate relationships that affect innovation management. Innovation is an activity that includes uncertainties in terms of its characteristic features. Employees are important in the realization of innovation activities. However, employees'

Table 4. Open-ended question (with participant number)

Unanswered	Disagree	Without in-depth Knowledge	Agree	Strongly Agree
(35.)	(39.) No, I disagree. Change is continually happening in companies (especially in the last 20 years). A senior executive is always exposed to inertia for the company and knows how to avoid it. A reaction, as mentioned, cannot stop a government that has made a decision. Change and innovation are different things. I cannot see a consistent chain of argumentation here. Chaos is a particularly preferred prerequisite in some innovative sectors. (28.) The antagonist coalition can sometimes also create an opposition benefit to sense the problem and save the situation with minimal damage.	(12.) I do not have in-depth knowledge.	(30.) Partially agree (29.) Whether it creates chaos or not, in my opinion, depends on the attitude of the innovative leader. If a leader is fully committed, he knows how to motivate employees and overcomes the barriers to innovation. (26.) It the depends (19.) Yes, he can, even partially. However, to change, this chaotic environment must occur.	(40.) Yes, there is a reaction against change (38.) Every change faces resistance, but not every change creates innovation. (37.) It creates chaos in the innovation process as a common goal is not adopted, and it prevents participation at all levels. (36.)Yes, it is necessary to prepare the working groups before the change for this change. (34.) Yes, it does. In innovation, the spirit of group work / acting together is at the forefront rather than individual activities. An antagonistic activity or grouping prevents the institution's sense of unity or solidarity for innovative activities or at least prolongs the process.
(32.) (6.)	(27.) (16.) (13) No		(14.) Yes (8.) It can also trigger	(33.) Yes. The antagonist coalition, which does not want its status to change, is completely closed to new views. The main thing for them is to preserve their status. If they were already open to change and development, they would provide the business's necessary innovation, and no new would be needed. In any case, the status quo is the biggest obstacle to innovation and the primary source of all kinds of chaos. (32). (31), (25), (21), (20), (17), (15), (10) yes
				(24.) It is true because ambitions, not ideas, compete on uncooperative grounds. In the war of ambitions, nothing but a Pirus victory can be achieved. (23.) Yes, but innovation thrives if the manager manages the chaos. (22.) Absolutely yes. Individuals' antagonistic attitudes damage collective progress and corporate interests, while employees in corporate belonging and motivation are also negatively added. Splinter groups act in line with the interests of the group they feel belong to, rather than the institution's goals and objectives, damaging the institutional structure, excluding people who are not from their "group", and even causing an unfavorable deviation of their career goals.

thinking of innovations as a risk for themselves will reduce the manager's impact on innovative activities. As innovation exists with uncertainties due to its nature, the new manager's processes to deal with these groups will blind the intellectual capital.

If there is too much criticism in an organization, the development team can face chaos in generating good product ideas. In such cases, the antagonists' role is that in innovation projects, the employee strongly opposes the workflows and causes negative emotions by disrupting or silencing the work. These antagonists try to influence innovation with their opposition. The scarcity,

Table 4. Open-ended question (with participant number) Page.2

Unanswered	Disagree	Without in-depth Knowledge	Agree	Strongly Agree
	(4.) No, The monotony of the antagonistic effect increases innovation by creating an effect against self-repetition and banality.			(18.). Continuous opposition can create frustration and counter-cooling in managers and other employees, and a sense of failure may spread.
				(11.) Yes. It causes a loss of energy, capital, labor, and motivation. An idealist starting manager, thinking that innovation will not happen with this team, can suspend or postpone the project or even cancel it.
				(9.) Coalitions always face self-interest. Innovative agreements are not accepted.
				(7.) It certainly creates chaos for a newcomer to have his own rules and procedures implemented before a specific adaptation process is completed. Following the adaptation process is passed in the first place, and after the team spirit is formed, the necessary ideas and evaluations should be made to create a cooperative environment. Then, innovative activities should be handled as a team. Today, it is impossible for individual innovation activities to reach the result/success without spreading it to the team. This is only possible with the coordination of a leader and a team-oriented towards the same goal with effective communication and respect.
				(5.) I agree that informal groups of employees in the organization act for the benefit of the daily self, not for the organizational benefit. They are not rational but reactive.
				(3.) The incompatible work of organizations and their efforts to abandon the past naturally cause chaos.
				(2.) Yes, it creates chaos. People become so much time and effort that they cannot even concentrate on their work with the rightful or unjust opposing structures in the organization, managing human relations. Unable to follow innovations, they move away from vision, and as a result, they become blunted in innovation. This process in businesses always causes chaotic and troubled environments, such as falling into a dead end.
				(1.) I agree with this view. Employees resist change. If you do not direct the innovative needs of the institution, they may not see it.

interdependence, and heterogeneous conditions of innovation goals are broad causes of innovation chaos. Conflict and political behavior stall innovative activities when individuals oppose innovation.

The results of the research show that an antagonist attitude toward the newcomer is formed in enterprises. This attitude negatively affects innovation. It will be difficult for managers to struggle with these cooperative antagonist groups, and as a result, the disruption of intellectual accumulation will create chaos in innovation.

Survey results can vary widely according to different education, sectors, and cultures. In other countries, with a larger sample,

the questionnaire's administration may be useful to validate the hypothesis. Besides, studies from a broader perspective can be conducted to introduce the concept of "antagonist coalition in organizations", which the researcher tried to emphasize in the literature.

In the literature review, no similar study has been found on these antagonist structures that drive innovation into chaos. Since a scale measuring this structure could not be found, a new concept was created to fill the gap. In this study, some expressions were developed to analyze this.

This concept, introduced by the researcher, can be made widespread by transforming the questionnaires into a scale. An in-depth investigation of such analyses that will remove similar innovation barriers in organizations will contribute to innovation management.

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How cite this article

A Qualitative Research on the Determination of Toxic Personality Traits

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ABSTRACT
Personality is a concept used to describe individual differences based on the consistent and continuous behavior of the individual. There are many positive and negative (dark) personality traits that can create these differences. In this context, it is possible to define toxic personality as a manifestation of negative personality traits that can be characterized by skeptical, angry, bossy, egocentric, interest-oriented attitudes and opportunistic habits by using methods such as pressure, manipulation, and impression management. It is possible for individuals with personality disorders and/or negative personality traits to negatively affect their environment. Although it is seen that personality disorders and negative personality traits are discussed in the national and international literature, there is a limited concept unity and measurement tool to generalize negative personality traits. In this direction, as a result of interviews with individuals over the age of 18, it was aimed to present toxic personality traits within the framework of a model. Within the scope of the research, interviews were conducted with 36 participants through a semi-structured questionnaire based on different criteria such as gender, age, marital status and level of education. The data obtained from the interviews were coded and categorized using the MAXQDA qualitative data analysis program. Frequency analysis and comparative analysis were used to visualize codes and categories. In the light of the analysis results, within the framework of the main theme of toxic personality traits, there are seven sub-dimensions as "aggressive traits", "depressive traits", "hysterical traits", "reactive traits", "role model traits", "ego dominant traits" and "ego passive traits" classified by theme.

Keywords: Personality, Personality Traits, Toxic Personality, Dark Personality, Qualitative Research
JEL Code: E71, Y80

Introduction

Personality is defined as a dynamic organization of psychophysical systems within a person that creates an individual's unique behavior, thought and emotion patterns (Carver and Scheier, 2017: 2). Personality is also defined as a characteristic integration of structures, behavior styles, interests, mental structures and abilities in the person (Munn, 1958: 393). In popular usage, personality is often equated with social skills and effectiveness. Less superficially, personality can be defined as the most striking or dominant feature of an individual (Mischel, Shoda, & Ayduk, 2008:1).

One reason people use the word personality is a sense of consistency or continuity about a person; The second reason is to convey the feeling that whatever the person is doing (or thinking or feeling) comes from within. In this context, the term personality refers to a causal sense of power within the person that affects how a person behaves. The word personality is used as it summarizes a few features those are very evident in the behavior of the person (Carver and Scheier, 2017: 1-2). Personality traits, on the other hand, are defined as permanent patterns of perceiving, relating to and thinking about one's self and his environment, and are exhibited in various ways in social and personal contexts (Baker, Capron, & Azorlosa, 1996: 82).

It is possible to examine personality in terms of its positive and negative characteristics. The positive aspect of personality encompasses the attributes characterized by adjectives such as emotional balance, proactivity, responsibility, extroversion, openness to innovations and adaptability at the individual and organizational level. When the negative aspect of personality is examined, it represents the factors that cause the individual to act without any restrictions on his impulses and motives, contrary to the norms and expectations in the social and organizational environment. The negative aspect of personality, which is characterized by adjectives such as disorder, destructive, abnormal, toxic, is also the basic element of many organizational and individual outputs (Gümüştekin et al., 2016: 147-148). It is possible to show toxic elements within the organization as the sources of toxicity in the

workplace. This observation has led to the use of terms such as toxic leader, toxic manager and toxic culture, which are appearing with increasing frequency in the business world, leadership, management and psychology literature, to describe the toxins that create toxic organizations (Appelbaum and Roy-Girard, 2007: 17).

In this context, although there are many negative personality traits and disorders, the number of comprehensive scales for negative personality traits is quite limited. Therefore, research is an important requirement in order to fill the gap in the literature and to lead to the development of a comprehensive scale in the future. Within the scope of the study, it is aimed to determine the toxic personality traits based on the basic characteristics of personality disorders that affect many individuals and take place in the psychiatry literature.

Personality Disorders and the Concept of Toxic Personality

Personality disorder is a structure used by scientists working in the social and clinical fields to cope with the complex phenomenon that occurs when the personality system does not work optimally (Magnavita, 2004: 5). Personality disorder, according to ICD 11 (International Classification of Disease) published on 01.01.2022, refers to persisting over a long period of time; problems in the functioning of self-characteristics (identity, self-worth, self-view, emergence of self-direction, etc.) and/or interpersonal dysfunction (relationships, ability to understand others' perspectives and manage conflict in relationships, etc.). Personality disorders are manifested in cognitive, emotional experience, emotional expression, and maladaptive behavior patterns, and in personal and social situations, and are associated with significant distress or significant impairment in the person, family, community, education, occupation, or other important functional areas (WHO, 2022).

Paranoid personality disorder is a disorder characterized by widespread distrust and suspicion that others may interpret as malicious. Schizoid personality disorder is a disorder that begins in early adulthood and presents in a variety of contexts, characterized by a limited expression of emotions and disconnection from social relationships in interpersonal settings. Schizotypal personality disorder is a disorder characterized by a pervasive social and interpersonal disability, manifested by cognitive or perceptual distortions and unusual behavior patterns, as well as acute discomfort and a reduced capacity for close relationships. Antisocial personality disorder is a disorder that appears from the age of 15 and is characterized by a pattern of disregard and violation of the rights of others. The main feature of borderline personality disorder is a pervasive pattern of instability in interpersonal relationships, self-perception, and affects, and marked impulsivity that begins in early adulthood and is present in a variety of contexts. Histrionic personality disorder is a disorder characterized by a pervasive pattern of excessive emotionality and attention seeking. Narcissistic personality disorder is a disorder characterized by a pattern of grandiosity (in fantasy or behavior), a need for admiration, and a lack of empathy. Avoidant personality disorder is a disorder characterized by a pattern of social inhibition, feelings of inadequacy, and hypersensitivity to negative evaluation. Dependent personality disorder is a disorder characterized by a pervasive and excessive need for attention, leading to submissive and sticky behaviors and fears of separation. Obsessive compulsive personality disorder is a disorder characterized by a pattern of preoccupation with orderliness, perfectionism, mental and interpersonal control at the expense of flexibility, openness, and efficiency (DSM V, 2013). Passive-aggressive personality disorder is characterized by a pervasive pattern of negative attitudes and passive resistance to demands for adequate performance (Beck vd., 2004: 348). Sadistic personality disorder is characterized by a pervasive pattern of cruel, humiliating, and aggressive behavior. Sadistic personality disorder was excluded from the DSM-IV due to scientific concerns, such as the relatively low prevalence of the disorder in many settings (Millon vd., 2004: 530-531).

In this context, the following research questions were asked to the participants within the scope of the research;

1. What meanings does the word personality recall to individuals?
2. What are the personality traits of paranoid individuals?
3. What are the personality traits of addicted individuals?
4. What are the personality traits of avoidant individuals?
5. What are the personality traits of borderline individuals?
6. What are the personality traits of antisocial individuals?
7. What are the personality traits of schizotypal individuals?
8. What are the personality traits of histrionic individuals?
9. What are the personality traits of obsessive-compulsive individuals?
10. What are the personality traits of schizoid individuals?
11. What are the personality traits of passive-aggressive individuals?

Individuals who are not sufficient for a full clinical diagnosis but exhibit many characteristics associated with a personality disorder may have significant negative effects on their environment and people around them (Mathieu, 2021: 2). Similarly, individuals with personality traits called dark personality in the literature can negatively affect their environment and show

deviant behaviors. Most of the deviant behaviors develop in toxic environments, and the most costly of these behaviors can show themselves in organizations in the form of absenteeism, theft, inefficiency and unethical practices (Appelbaum and Roy-Girard, 2007: 18). Dark personality generally includes personality traits of narcissism, psychopathy, machiavellianism and sadism. While narcissism is characterized by grandiosity, selfishness, egocentrism, and authority; psychopathy is defined as a tendency towards apathy and interpersonal manipulation, as well as irregular, antisocial and impulsive behaviors by nature (Southard et al., 2015: 557). The structure of Machiavellianism (in short, the manipulative personality) emerged from Richard Christie's selections from Machiavelli's original books. Christie transformed these statements into a normal personality measure, showing that there were reliable differences in agreeing with the items (Paulhus & Williams, 2002: 556). Sadism, on the other hand, includes patterns of cruelty and humiliating behavior, as well as humiliating others, and physically, sexually or psychologically harming others for personal pleasure. Although the aforementioned concepts are very similar to each other, they represent different structures due to their important differences (Southard et al., 2015: 558). There has been a lot of research on dark personality traits, however, no clear consensus or any criteria has emerged among scientists as to what exactly is necessary or sufficient for a personality trait to be considered dark (Marcus & Zeigler-Hill, 2015: 434). Narcissism differs from other dark triads in that it is associated with more positive outcomes and dimensions than both machiavellianism and psychopathy. Alternatively, the inclusion of sadism in the dark cluster (ie, the dark triad) is advocated, because in some cases sadism progressively predicts external consequences on dark triad traits and emerges as a separate factor in factor analyses. Although these features are numerous that define different shades of darkness, they do not fully represent the catalog of dark personality traits (Rogoza et al., 2022: 2). In this context, the following research questions were asked to the participants;

12. What are the personality traits of tolerant individuals?
13. What are the personality traits of selfish individuals?
14. What are the personality traits of Machiavellian individuals?
15. What are the personality traits of narcissistic individuals?
16. What are the personality traits of sadistic individuals?

Since the concept of personality evokes different meanings, it is aimed to determine and examine in depth the factors that make up the toxic personality and differ according to the individuals. Within the scope of the research, answers are sought for the research questions given above in order to determine the toxic personality traits by using personality disorders.

Research Methodology

Method and Sampling of the Research

The research was designed using phenomenology, one of the qualitative research designs. Phenomenology is a method that aims to reach a deeper understanding about the nature or meaning of our daily experiences and is based on the examination of phenomena as experienced rather than conceptualized (Van Manen, 1984: 37). Within the scope of the research, phenomenological design was used in order to obtain in-depth information about the phenomenon investigated in the interviews.

Within the scope of the research, saturation and sufficiency criteria were taken into consideration in the data and purposive sampling method was used. In this context, individuals who can easily express their opinions about personality traits were included in the sample. In order to avoid any difference in the number of men and women in the selection of the sample, 36 participants were interviewed by paying attention to gender; It has been observed that data saturation and data sufficiency are provided. Detailed information about the participants is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Information about the Participants

Gender	Number of people	Age	Number of people	Marital status	Number of people	Education level	Number of people
Female	17	18-24	3	Married	16	Highschool	3
		25-32	19	Single	20	Associate degree	4
		33-40	4			Bachelor	17
Male	19	41-48	7			Postgraduate	12
		49 ve üzeri	3				

According to Table 1, the majority of the participants are male. While the majority of the participants are between the ages of

25-32; single participants and undergraduate graduates are in the majority. The minority among the participants are 18-24 years old, 49 years old and over and high school graduates.

Ethics Permission

Ethical permission of the study was obtained from Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University Postgraduate Education Institute Scientific Research Ethics Committee (02.03.2021, E-84026528-050.01.04-2100032087).

Data Collection Technique

In qualitative research, methods such as observation, interview and document analysis are used (Sığrı, 2018: 77-78). Within the scope of the research, data were obtained through face-to-face, online interview and tele-interview by using semi-structured interview technique. The interview form was prepared by using the literature and existing studies. Expert opinion was sought to ensure the validity of the form. The interview form consists of 39 open-ended questions about personality traits, as well as 4 demographic questions: gender, age, education level and marital status. Interviews were held between 1 March-30 May 2021, with prior appointments and between 60-130 minutes. No voice recorder was used in the interviews, and a note-taking method was used.

Analysis of Data

The data obtained within the scope of the study were evaluated by using the MAXQDA 2020 program and a content analysis method. Content analysis aims to encode data using an inductive approach, to determine the concepts underlying the codes and the relations between concepts. In this context, the codes determined by the content analysis method are classified under certain categories and themes are formed. The main goal in content analysis is to conceptualize, organize, thematize the data and reveal the findings (Kanten et al., 2019: 481). In this context, in the analysis of the data obtained by the note-taking method within the scope of the research, the obtained data were analyzed in detail and open codes were created within the framework of the research purpose. Main categories and subcategories were created after open coding; Data that were thought to be related to each other were brought together. Then, by selective coding, the subcodes were narrowed to be compatible with the main categories, and the findings were interpreted by making comparative and relational analyses. In order to ensure the reliability of the research, a categorization process was made by an academician who has experience in the field; Reliability was provided by comparing the categories made by the researcher and the expert. Asking people who have general knowledge about the research subject and who are specialized in qualitative research methods to examine the research in various dimensions, is another precaution that can be taken in terms of credibility. This method is called peer debriefing (Başkale, 2016: 24). According to Miles and Huberman (1994), definitions become sharper when two researchers code using the same data set. In this way, it is possible to reach a common vision about what the encodings mean and which piece of data belongs to which code. Whether the encoders use similar codes for the same pieces of data is the key point of this technique. Conflicts indicate that definitions need to be expanded or corrected. The intercoder reliability ratio can be calculated by dividing the number of agreed codes by the total number of agreed and disagreed codes. Initially, intercoder reliability is not expected to be higher than 70%. However, it is recommended that this ratio be close to 80%, or even more than 90% depending on the size of the data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In this context, agreement was determined in 3802 coding, and disagreement in 618 coding. Miles and Huberman (1994) Reliability = ((Consensus):(Agreement+Disagreement))x100" using the formula "Reliability = 0.86" was calculated.

Findings

Based on the data obtained within the scope of the research, codes for the concept of personality were created. Among the structure created by the relations between the codes, 4420 open codes were determined, including 5 categories (definition of personality, characteristics of tolerant people, characteristics of selfish people, psychiatric disorders, toxic personality traits). In the visualization phase of the codes, frequency (f) tables and graphics and code maps were used.

Findings Related to the Analysis of the Personality Concept

Within the scope of the study, the meanings of the concept of personality, which expresses the main theme, were attempted to be determined. According to the data obtained in this context, it is seen that the word personality evokes 14 different meanings. Accordingly, the word personality is encoded with characteristic features at the highest level (23.46%); followed by behavior pattern (17.28%), changeable features (8.64%), bad upbringing (7.41%), environmental effects (7.41%), human structure (7.41%),

reactions to events (6.17%) and temperament (4.94%) codes. The frequency and percentage distributions of the participants' expressions about the word personality are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Expressions Which the Word Personality Reminds the Participants

	Frequency	**Percent**
characteristic features	19	23,46
behavioral pattern	14	17,28
changeable features	7	8,64
bad upbringing	6	7,41
environmental effects	6	7,41
human structure	6	7,41
reactions to events	5	6,17
temperament	4	4,94
way of perception	3	3,70
genetic influence	3	3,70
human values	2	2,47
person's signature	2	2,47
frame of mind	2	2,47
openness to learning	2	2,47
TOTAL	81	100,00

Findings Regarding the Psychiatric Disorders of the Participants

Questions were asked to the participants in order to identify psychiatric disorders that are thought to have an effect on personality traits. In Figure 1, the percentage distribution of the answers given by the participants regarding their psychiatric disorders is given in a pie chart. Accordingly, the participants mostly (60%) stated that they were healthy, followed by medication (18%), therapy (12%), anxiety (4%), depression (2%), and hyperactivity (2%) and bipolar disorder (2%).

Findings Regarding the Characteristics of Tolerant People

The participants were asked questions about tolerance, which is considered one of the positive personality traits. In Figure 2, the percentage distribution of the answers given by the participants regarding the characteristics of tolerant individuals is given with a bar graph. Accordingly, while tolerant individuals are thought to be affectionate at the highest level (17.5%); It is seen that it is followed by understanding (10.7%), optimistic (9.1%), empathetic (8.3%), benevolent (8.3%), benevolent/helpful, extroverted (6%), open-minded (5.6%), and kind/respectful (5.6%).

Findings Regarding the Characteristics of Selfish Persons

The participants were asked questions about selfishness, which is considered one of the negative personality traits. In Figure 3, the percentage distribution of the answers given by the participants regarding the characteristics of selfish individuals is given with a bar graph. Accordingly, while selfish individuals are thought to be egocentric at the highest level (30.2%), It is seen that it is followed by (20.8%) insensitive/indifferent, (19.8%) machiavellian, (6.3%) narcissist, (5.2%) disliked in society, (5.2%) devoid of empathy, (4.2%) have had negative experiences, sly (4.2%) and ambitious (4.2%).

psychiatric disorder state
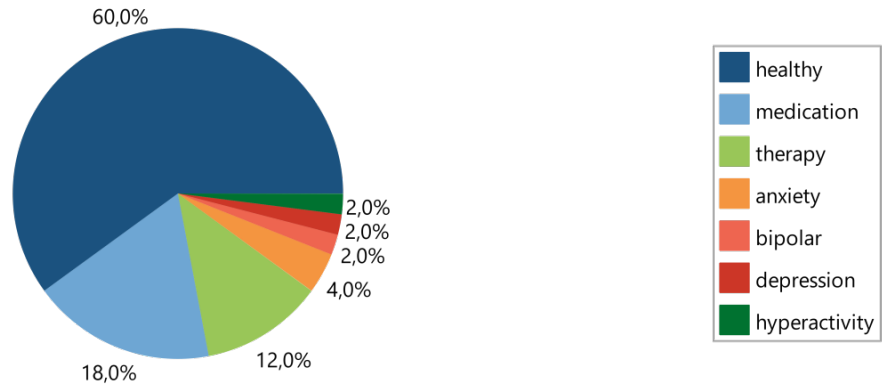
Figure 1. Findings Regarding the Psychiatric Disorders of the Participants

characteristics of tolerant people
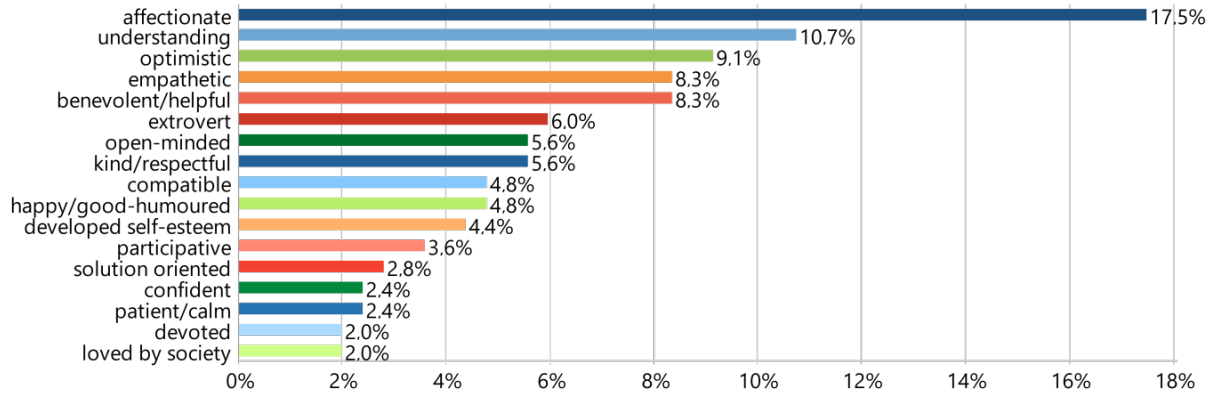
Figure 2. Findings Regarding the Characteristics of Tolerant People

traits of selfish people
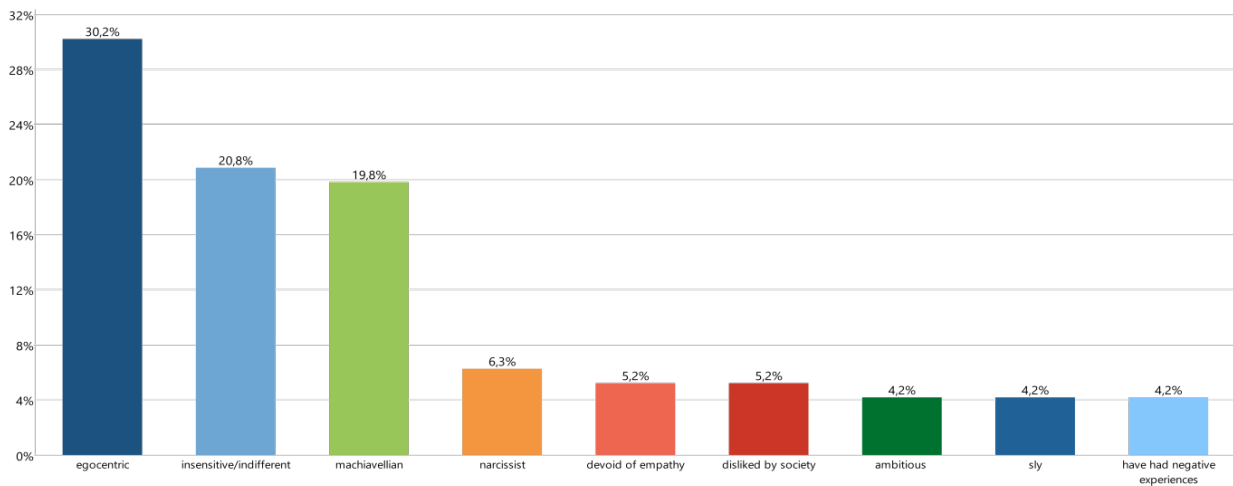
Figure 3. Findings Regarding the Characteristics of Selfish Persons

Findings Regarding the Determination of Toxic Personality Traits

Personality traits are accepted as an important determinant of the behavior of individuals; It also directs their social and business lives. It is seen that the negative elements of personality traits come to the fore in personality disorders caused by physical, mental

or environmental factors. Negative personality traits can be caused by any personality disorder; It can also be seen completely depending on the individual. In this context, it is possible to say that individuals such as negative, aggressive, narcissistic, antisocial, impulsive, egoistic, etc., who are frequently encountered in social and working life, exhibit a toxic structure in general. These individuals can also cause an increase in negative behaviors in their environment and experience feelings such as uneasiness, anger, conflict, hatred, and sadness. Therefore, it is very important to determine the characteristics of toxic individuals that can be encountered in all areas of life. In this framework, the codes related to the expressions for the determination of toxic personality traits were handled on the basis of the main theme of "toxic personality traits" and a relationship map including the main theme and sub-factors was created. According to the data obtained as a result of the interviews, toxic personality traits have seven sub-dimensions: "anxious features", "depressive features ", "hysterical features ", "role model features ", "reactive features ", "ego dominant features " and "ego passive features " shown with the relationship map containing the factor. In the context of toxic personality traits, anxiety traits are expressed as "having negative experiences" and "being anxious/delusional". Depressive features were expressed as "introverted", "dissatisfied/unhappy", "pessimistic" and "non-combatant/fatalistic". Hysterical features were expressed as "seeking attention", "needing to be loved/alone" and "desiring to be liked". Reactive characteristics "lacking moral values", "insensitive/thoughtless", "prone to violence", "psychological problems", "narrow-minded", "malicious/vindictive", "liar/hypocritical", "aggressive", "dangerous"/brutal", "incompatible/disliked by society", "distrustful of people" and "indifferent to those around them". Role model characteristics were expressed as "hardworking/decisive", "idealistic", "successful", "analytical thinking/strategic" and "high self-efficacy". Ego-dominant features are expressed as "selfish", "narcissist", "machiavellian", "ambitious", "perfectionist", "self-confident" and "oppressive". Ego passive features are expressed as "insecure", "undeveloped self", "weak character" and "unable to face their problems/coward".
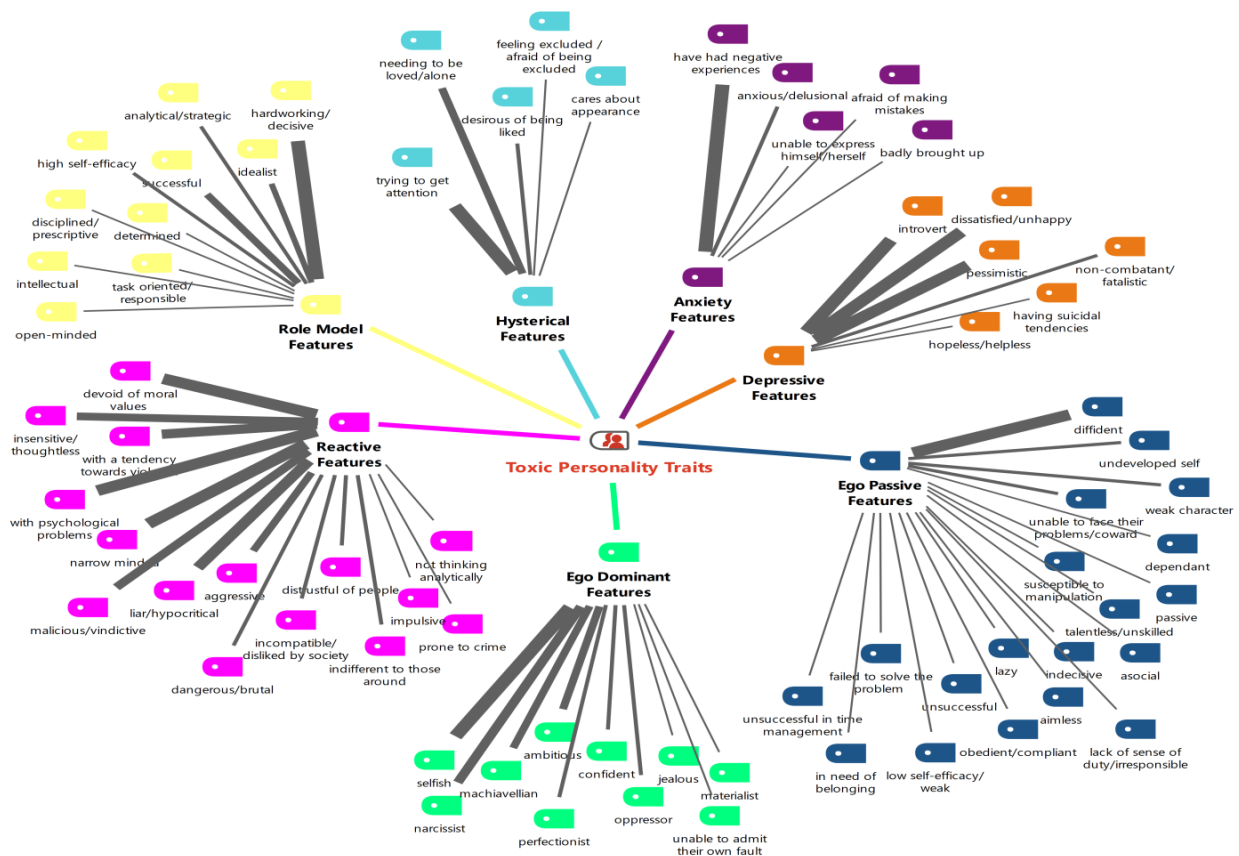
Figure 4. Model Proposal for Determining Toxic Personality Traits

Conclusion and Discussion

Within the scope of the research, it was attempted to determine the toxic personality traits, which are thought to be very important for the literature. In this context, interviews were conducted with individuals over the age of eighteen. According to the data obtained as a result of the interviews, it is seen that the participants within the scope of the research conceptualize personality as characteristic features, behavior style, changeable features and human structure. In addition to this, the tolerant individuals

of the participants; with positive expressions such as affectionate, understanding, optimistic, empathetic, benevolent, helpful and extroverted; On the other hand, it has been seen that they evaluate selfish individuals with negative expressions such as egocentric, insensitive, indifferent, machiavellian and narcissistic.

Determining toxic personality traits is important not only for individual well-being, but also for ensuring peace in both social life and working life, and preventing harmful actions such as committing crimes, suicide, alcohol/substance addiction caused by individuals who have negative behaviors due to their negative characteristics.

As a result of the research findings, it has been concluded that individuals with toxic personality traits are individuals with in the context of had negative experiences, anxious, delusional in the context of anxiety features; introverted, dissatisfied, unhappy, pessimistic, non-combatant, fatalistic within the framework of depressive features; trying to attract attention, needing and wanting to be loved, feeling lonely within the framework of hysterical features; devoid of moral values, insensitive, thoughtless, inclined to violence, having psychological problems, narrow-minded, malicious, vindictive, liar, hypocritical, aggressive, dangerous, cruel, incompatible, disliked in society, distrustful of people, not caring about those around them within the framework of reactive features. At the point of determining toxic personality traits, it is seen that some of the participants attribute positive traits such as self-confidence, perseverance, success, and idealism to the toxic personality. As Kaufman et al. have pointed out, there is both a light and a dark side within every individual (Kaufman et al., 2019: 1). Since it is not possible to expect any personality trait to be completely good or bad and in this context to have completely good or bad features, different characteristics are seen together in the scope of the research. In addition, it has been concluded that these individuals have hardworking, determined, idealistic, analytical thinking, strategic, successful, high self-efficacy within the framework of role model features; selfish, narcissistic, machiavellian, ambitious, perfectionist, self-confident, oppressive and oppressor within the framework of ego-dominant characteristics; insecure, undeveloped self, weak character, unable to face his problems, coward within the framework of ego passive features. In parallel with the results of the research, according to the 2022 study of Amos et al., while dark personality traits are not necessarily pathological, they increase susceptibility to cognitive distortions, antisocial beliefs, utilitarian relationships, lack of perspective, lack of empathy, and apathy (Amos et al., 2022: 2).

It is thought that individuals with toxic personality traits will undermine values such as organizational climate, discipline, teamwork, motivation, performance, productivity, organizational justice, trust in the organization and commitment to work; will increase unproductive and negative behaviors such as quitting, slacking, sabotage, revenge, workplace incivility, gossip, theft, and organizational conflicts. In this context, in the light of the findings reached within the scope of the research, it is recommended to, in order to prevent organizational negativities, making practices to detect the presence of toxic personality traits in employee recruitment and selection processes, carry out studies aimed at prevention, rehabilitation (in case of accompanying psychotic disorders), psychological support, education and improvement for individuals who can be detected both in organizational and social terms. Motivating introverted, anxious and insecure individuals, supporting them with methods such as teamwork and sharing authority; On the other hand, practices aimed at increasing the adaptation, harmony, confidence and satisfaction levels of ambitious, interest-oriented and machiavellian individuals are also recommended.

It is recommended that researchers determine the antecedents and consequences of the toxic personality for future research and contribute to the gap in the field by developing a comprehensive measurement tool.

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How cite this article

The Role of Emotional Labor in Facility Management

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ABSTRACT

Facility management, one of the sub-branches of management science, is a relatively new concept in our country. In a broad sense, facility management is a field of study that aims to ensure and maintain the ideal safety, efficiency, comfort and, proper use of buildings in human and social life. At the center of facility management is the service orientation of buildings of all types and characteristics, both technically and theoretically. Facility management offers a complex set of services at every stage, from project to implementation, from control and improvement to operation. In order for facility management to achieve its objectives and deliver the expected value, the service dimension involves human elements on both the supply and demand sides. Therefore, the emotional labor phenomenon, which has a close relationship with many variables in the quality of the services provided, is of particular importance. This research aims to examine emotional labor, which consists of three dimensions: surface acting, deep acting, natural behavior and also demographic factors in terms of facility management. The research was carried out with 427 participants working in companies operating in Istanbul between October-November 2022. As a result of the research, it was seen that emotional labor is an effective factor in facility management services and that demographic characteristics differ among themselves in emotional labor sub-dimensions. Accordingly, it has been revealed that companies providing facility management services and managers in this field should act by recognizing the impact and importance of emotional labor and its sub-dimensions. The findings obtained are a reference for future studies in the field of facility management to test the relationship between emotional labor and other variables.

Keywords: Facility Management, Emotional Labor, Business, Management.

JEL Code: M00, M1, M10

Introduction

The primary purpose of facility management, which focuses on facility and human interaction, is to develop facilitating, value-adding and sustainable solutions and strategies at every stage from architecture to engineering, ergonomics to ecology, transportation to mobility, valuation to real estate management at every point where people are present and benefit, from residences to factories, from official institution buildings to public residential areas. In this respect, in terms of the dimensions it addresses and covers, the services offered within the scope of facility management are of particular importance in terms of providing employment and creating new business areas, creating human, economic and social value, developing urban and urban consciousness and being part of the development process.

Facility management is a solution tool that has long been utilized, known and applied to create value in developed countries, but it is a relatively new field of practice and study in Türkiye. Facility management is an interdisciplinary approach that seeks to solve problems, meet expectations, identify synergies and develop solutions in the context of increasingly diverse building systems, greater user participation and diversity, the requirements expected from buildings as living spaces, and the complexity of operational processes.

Facility Management

Facilities Management (FM) has been developing since the 1970s as a branch of service aimed at facilitating and providing comfort in the relationship between buildings and people (Regterschot, 1990: 151), but in recent years it has become one of the topics that have attracted attention both in practice and in the literature.

Facility management is not a one-dimensional and ordinary business model such as maintenance and repair of buildings. On the contrary, facility management is a branch of service that covers all public and civilian buildings, facilities and areas where people spend their business and private time, receive services, use for entertainment and recreation and travel (Kwok and Warren, 2005: 2; Then, 2004: 4; Alexander, 1994: 8-9). Facility management can be defined as "the activity of harmonizing the physical workplace with people and work through the integration of principles related to business, architecture, behavior and engineering sciences" (Amaratunga and Baldry, 2004: 324-326). Thompson (1990) argued that facility management is not a one-dimensional process such as construction, real estate, building operations, maintenance, repair, housekeeping, etc., and that facility management is a comprehensive management discipline that includes facilitating people's daily life and business life with the services provided to buildings, providing quality of life and sustainability (Thompson, 1990: 9-10).

Facility management offers a wide range of integrated services such as facilitation, comfort generation, solution development, problem-solving, innovation, planning and design development between space and people wherever there are buildings and campuses, from residences to offices, from factory buildings to storage areas, from health to education, from tourism to art (Araszkiewicz, 2017: 1034-1035; Roper, 2017: 236; Cotts, Poper and Payant, 2010: 175). The mediating role of facility management between physical spaces, people and society is illustrated in Figure 1.
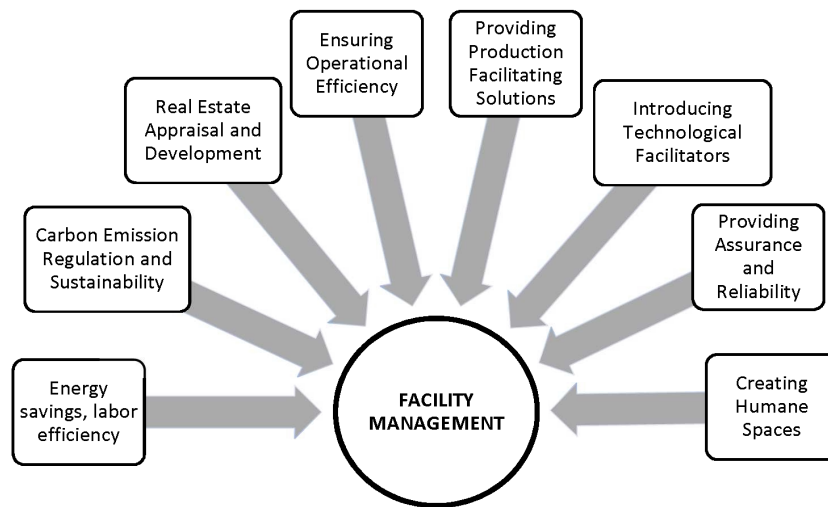
Figure 1. Facility Management's Harmonizing Role

Based on Figure 1, it can be stated that facility management is a management function that focuses on how to develop, maintain and improve the physical assets needed to support and add value to the work and life processes of people and organizations, as well as creating and maintaining the structures that provide the most appropriate support for them (Drion, Melissen and Wood, 2012: 255). The European Facility Management Network (EuroFM) has recognized facility management as a management approach in 6 dimensions (Table 1).

According to the approach of the Facility Management Association (TRFMA), which operates in Türkiye, Facility Management is defined as "a new concept, a new profession that combines people, space, technology and processes and requires expertise and experience covering multiple disciplines in order to sustain and develop all buildings, business centers, plazas, sites, residences, shopping malls, factories, hospitals, airports, hotels, schools, etc. where people live or work" (TRFMA, 2019).

Facility management represents a much broader range of activities rather than narrowly focused building services. As a matter of fact, the most important contribution of facility management practices to real estate is that they add tangible and intangible value to people's living spaces in residences and workplaces. Especially in modern offices and their buildings, residences and residential complexes, facility management practices can offer people unique experiences such as comfort, quality, peace of mind, etc. in their business and private lives.

Emotional Labor

Emotions also significantly affect the value or labor that a person adds to abstract or concrete work. The factors that a person feels, encounters or perceives internally or externally in the labor process can affect his/her performance and productivity. Therefore, emotions and labor factors are closely related (Uysal & Mammadov, 2020: 34; Çoban & Seymen, 2019: 9). Hochschild (1983:

Table 1. Demographic Findings

Understanding work organization	Managing people	Managing Buildings
Understanding the structure and behavior of organizations **Understanding business and organizational strategy** Development of FM Strategy	People Management Communication Working with Suppliers and Experts	Property Portfolio Management Understanding Building Design Building Fabric/Structure Maintenance
Managing services	**Managing the work environment**	**Managing resources**
Managing building services **Managing support services** **Project Management** Managing Customer Service	Environmental Issues Space Management	Procurement Risk Management Financial Management Quality Management Information Management

Resource: (EuroFM, 2011).

325-327), one of the pioneering researchers who revealed the importance of the relationship between labor and emotions, argued that there are some common expectations regarding the emotional reactions that service providers should show in accordance with the service they provide. In addition, Hochschild (1983) defined emotional labor as the work done by face-to-face service providers to manage their own emotions in order to fulfill the emotional roles determined by the organization.

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993: 90) have discussed emotional labor from a broad perspective and explained emotional labor as the right behaviors appropriate to the right situation exhibited by employees according to the needs of the organization. While Hochschild focuses on the emotions underlying the behavior, Ashforth and Humphrey focus on the behavior itself.

Morris and Feldman (1996: 988) define emotional labor as the reflection of the emotions desired by the organization on customer service processes. Grandey (2000: 8) defines emotional labor as the regulation of both emotions and behaviors in a way to serve the goals of the organization by emphasizing the rules of displaying emotions. Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003: 945) accepted emotional labor as the process of psychological behavior that the employee performs by combining his/her emotional expressions and organizational needs.

In a broad sense, emotional labor is the expression of employees' emotions according to the requirements of working conditions and organizational goals, and showing these emotions to them with the help of gestures, mimics and body language in a way that can be observed by the interlocutors. The purpose of emotional labor is to make customers/service recipients feel good or bad (Güler & Marşap, 2019: 64; Güngör Delen, 2017: 44).

Emotional labor is examined in four dimensions: surface acting, deep acting, natural behavior and display rules. Surface acting is behaviors that are expected from the employee by the company but not internalized by the employee. Surface acting is not that the emotion is not revealed, but that the emotion revealed and reflected to the customer is not felt sincerely (Çoban & Seymen, 2019: 8). In such behaviors, the employee reflects the emotions required by the profession to the customer by changing or suppressing his/her real emotions within the framework of the emotional rules required by the profession (Basım & Begenirbaş, 2012, 79). Deep acting requires displaying the behavior by feeling and adopting it. In deep acting, the employee can motivate himself/herself by thinking positively and remembering good memories (Pala & Sürgevil, 2016: 775). Deep acting is the adaptation of employees' inner emotions to the emotions they need to exhibit (Eroğlu, 2014: 149). While the employee acts like an actor on the stage while conveying his/her emotions as in surface acting, in surface acting, the employee fulfills only the requirements of the role without feeling the need for the role, while in deep behavior, he/she acts like an actor or actress (Kaya & Serçeoğlu, 2013: 316). Therefore, unlike surface acting, the employee who exhibits deep acting changes his/her inner feelings as well as his/her external appearance. Natural behavior is the type of behavior that is performed sincerely and expected by the business. In natural behavior, the employee performs the behavior expected from him/her in any situation and comes from within himself/herself (Çoban & Seymen, 2019: 13). Display rules, on the other hand, refer to the standards created by businesses to display the appropriate emotional state; it is related to the display of emotion that the staff reflects rather than what they feel. These rules explain how to apply emotions (Güler & Marşap, 2019: 64).

Emotional labor behavior can lead to negative consequences such as exhaustion, stress and resignation (Arı & Bal, 2008:132; Chu & Murrmann, 2006:1182). In particular, it is stated that the dimensions of natural and deep acting exhibited by employees have consequences such as alienation from work, distancing and, intention to leave (Eren & Yılmaz, 2020: 221; Türkay, Ünal, Taşar, 2011: 203). In order for emotional labor to yield desired results and to reduce its negative effects on employees, emotional

labor should be managed effectively (Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008: 153). In the service sector, where emotional labor is performed the most, the behaviors, attitudes and emotional displays performed by the employee who interacts face-to-face with customers or service recipients are perceived as representing the organization. This creates a relationship between the emotional labor of the employee and his/her task performance (Misican & Türkoğlu, 2019: 30-31; Çoban & Seymen, 2019: 9-10). Witt, Andrews and Carlson (2004) stated in their study that there is a close relationship between the emotional attitude of the employee and general job performance and that this relationship also affects organizational performance in the service sector.

As a result of research on occupational groups that require emotional labor, three prominent characteristics of these occupational groups have been identified. The first of these is that employees who exhibit emotional labor communicate face-to-face with customers. Secondly, employees in these occupational groups have to influence the emotions of the other party. The last common feature is that employers have control over the emotional activities of employees (Polatcı & Özyer, 2015: 134).

Methodology

Aim

Facility management is one of the sub-business lines of the service sector (Araszkiewicz, 2017: 1034-1035). In the service sector, speech and body language displays, general attitudes, etc. are considered among the elements that represent the organization in the perceptual context for service recipients (Şahin & Şen, 2017: 1177-1178; İzci, 2013). When facility management is also service-oriented, the emotional labor factor, which has an impact on the attitudes and behaviors of employees, is important. In this context, the study aims to reveal the perception of emotional labor, which is closely related to many variables in the facility management process. In the study, the relationship between the emotional labor behaviors of the participants and the variables of age, gender, marital status, income status, educational status, and professional experience was examined. Hence, it is aimed to reveal the nature and importance of emotional labor for future researchers who will study the facility management literature. The research was prepared in the survey model. Survey models are models that allow us to examine the events and phenomena that are the subject of the research as they exist. The relational survey model is used to determine the change and level of the relationship between the variables determined by the researcher (Şimşek, 2012: 92; Büyüköztürk et al. 2020: 24).

Convenience sampling was used to measure the emotional labor behaviors of 427 participants working in facility management services. Analyses of the findings were conducted using SPSS Version 26 package program at a 95% confidence level by assuming α=0.05. Since the data were not normally distributed (p=0.0001<0.05), nonparametric tests were used. The Mann-Whitney U test was used to investigate the statistical differences in the mean scores of paired groups, and the Kruskal-Wallis test was used for more than two groups.

Population and Sample

The study was conducted with 427 participants working in companies operating in Istanbul and providing facility management services. Convenience sampling was used and this method was preferred due to its time and application advantage. In addition, with the convenience sampling method, the cluster that is thought to represent the universe can be easily reached (Haşıloğlu, Baran, & Aydın, 2015; Gürbüz & Şahin, 2017: 135). Demographic findings regarding the sample are presented in Table 2.

As can be seen in Table 2, 56.9% of the participants were male and 43.1% were female, and more than half of these participants were between the ages of 18-25, while participants aged 55 and over constituted the smallest group with a rate of 1.4%. Only 31.6% of the respondents, who are predominantly young, are married. The highest proportion of the participants stated that they received a salary in the range of 5 thousand-7 thousand TL, the second highest group was the other participants with a salary in the range of 7 thousand-9 thousand TL, and the third group was the group that earned the highest income with a salary of 13 thousand TL and above with 19.2%. While 52.2% of the participants were undergraduates, 6.3% were postgraduate, and 30.2% did not continue their education after high school. Almost 70% of the participants are within the first 5 years of their professional life. The second group is those who have been working for 6-10 years with 10.1% and then those who have been working for 11-15 years with 8.7%. The proportion of those working for more than 20 years is higher than those working for 16-20 years, but this rate is 7.5% of the respondents.

Reliability Analysis

In the study, the "Emotional Labor Scale" developed by Diefendorff, Croyle and Grosserand (2005) and adapted into Turkish by Basım and Beğenirbaş (2012) was used as 12 Items to measure emotional labor. As a result of their analyses, Basım and Beğenirbaş (2012) showed that the scale revealed a three-factor structure consisting of superficial role-playing, deep role-playing and natural

Table 2. European Facility Management Network (EuroFM) Facility Management

Gender Distribution	n	%
Male	243	56,9
Female	184	43,1
Total	427	100,0
Age Distribution	**n**	**%**
18-25	246	57,6
25-35	82	19,2
35-45	74	17,3
45-55	19	4,4
55 and over	6	1,4
Total	427	100,0
Marital Status Distribution	**n**	**%**
Married	135	31,6
Single	292	68,4
Total	427	100,0
Income Status Distribution	**n**	**%**
5.000 TL -7.000 TL	139	32,6
7.000 TL - 9.000 TL	90	21,1
9.000 - 11.000 TL	72	16,9
11.000 TL - 13.000 TL	42	9,8
13.000 TL and over	82	19,2
Missing data	2	99,5
Total	425	0,5
Total	427	100,0
Education Status Distribution	**n**	**%**
High School	129	30,2
Associate degree	48	11,2
Bachelor's degree	223	52,2
Postgraduate	27	6,3
Total	427	100,0
Professional Experience Distribution	**n**	**%**
1-5 Years	294	68,9
6-10 Years	43	10,1
11-15 Years	37	8,7
16-20 Years	21	4,9
20 Years and more	32	7,5
Total	427	100,0

behavior sub-dimensions consistent with the original scale. The Emotional Labor Scale, which has a Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.80, has been stated as a valid and reliable scale that can be used to measure emotional labor behaviors in business life in Türkiye (Basım & Beğenirbas, 2012). The Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient of this 12-item scale used in the study was found to be 0.778, in line with (Table 3), and the sub-dimensions of the scale (Table 4) are presented below.

Table 3. Reliability Analysis

	Cronbach's Alpha	N
Emotional Labor Scale	0,778	12
Superficial Role Playing	0,873	7
Deep Role Playing	0,852	3
Natural Behavior	0,685	2

As can be seen in Table 5, as a result of the analysis, it is understood that employees sometimes tend to use emotional labor. While the mean score of emotional labor of the respondents is 3.16, it is understood that the participants only rarely resort to superficial role-playing and most of the time they exhibit deep role-playing behavior. The mean score of the natural behavior subdimension is 3.51.

There was no statistically significant difference between the two groups in the comparison of the mean emotional labor scores in terms of the whole scale according to gender (p=0,793>0,05). In the Mann-Whitney U test conducted to investigate the differences in terms of sub-dimensions according to gender variable, it can be said with a 5% margin of error that women resort to superficial role-playing behavior more frequently than men (p=0,0071<0,05). It can be said that men exhibit deep role and natural behaviors

Table 4. Normality Test

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Emotional Labor	0,124	427	0,000	0,928	427	0,000
Superficial Role Playing	0,28	427	0,000	0,839	427	0,000
Deep Role Playing	0,302	427	0,000	0,799	427	0,000
Natural Behavior	0,155	427	0,000	0,932	427	0,000

Table 5. Findings Related to Emotional Labor and Its Dimensions

	n	Min.	Max.	Ort.	SS
Emotional Labor Scale	427	1,00	5,00	3,16	0,58277
Superficial Role Playing	427	1,00	5,00	2,75	0,77095
Deep Role Playing	427	1,00	5,00	3,89	0,96131
Natural Behavior	427	1,00	5,00	3,51	1,09087

Table 6. Relationship between Gender Factor and Emotional Labor Dimensions

		Number	Average	Standard Deviation	Mann-Whitney U Tes
Emotional Labor	Male	243	3,1735	0,64010	
	Female	184	3,1549	0,49857	p=0,793
	Total	427	3,1655	0,58277	
Superficial Role	Male	243	2,69	0,8773	
	Female	184	2,84	0,5929	p=0,0071
	Total	427	2,75	0,7709	
Deep Role	Male	243	3,93	1,0226	
	Female	184	3,84	0,8739	p=0,022
	Total	427	3,89	0,9613	
Natural Behavior	Male	243	3,74	1,0615	
	Female	184	3,21	1,0576	p=0,0001
	Total	427	3,51	1,0909	

at a higher rate in the other two sub-dimensions, and the difference between these two dimensions is statistically significant in terms of gender variable (p=0,022<0,05 p=0,0001<0,05).

Table 7. Relationship between Gender Factor and Emotional Labor Dimensions

		Number	Average	Standard Deviation	Mann-Whitney U Test
Emotional Labor	Married	135	2,95	0,6996	
	Single	292	3,26	0,4910	p=0,0001
	Total	427	3,16	0,5827	
Superficial Role	Married	135	2,34	0,9471	
	Single	292	2,95	0,5842	p=0,0001
	Total	427	2,75	0,7709	
Deep Role	Married	135	3,61	1,1823	
	Single	292	4,02	0,8103	p=0,004
	Total	427	3,89	0,9613	
Natural Behavior	Married	135	4,10	0,9015	
	Single	292	3,24	1,0645	p=0,0001
	Total	427	3,51	1,0909	

When the participants are compared in terms of emotional labor in terms of marital status, it can be stated that single individuals

perform more intensive emotional labor than married individuals (p=0,0001<0,05). The difference between married and single individuals in terms of displaying natural, natural behavior is statistically significant and it can be said that married individuals exhibit natural behaviors more often than single individuals (p=0,0001<0,05).

In the Mann-Whitney U test performed on the data examined in terms of role-playing, it can be said that the difference between the mean scores of married and single individuals in terms of superficial role-playing behavior according to marital status is statistically significant and single individuals exhibit superficial role-playing behavior more often than married individuals (p=0,0001<0,05). Similarly, in terms of deep role-playing behavior, it can be said that singles have a higher mean score than married individuals (p=0,004<0,05).

Table 8. Relationship between Age Factor and Emotional Labor Dimensions

		Number	Average	Standard Deviation	Kruskal Wallis Test
Emotional Labor	18-25	246	3,35	0,3835	p=0,0001
	25-35	82	2,98	0,7552	
	35-45	74	2,94	0,6604	
	45-55	19	2,60	0,4516	
	55 and over	6	2,60	0,8683	
	Total	427	3,17	0,5828	
Superficial Role	18-25	246	3,08	0,4319	p=0,0001
	25-35	82	2,47	0,9540	
	35-45	74	2,27	0,9097	
	45-55	19	1,92	0,4911	
	55 and over	6	2,07	0,7967	
	Total	427	2,75	0,7709	
Deep Role	18-25	246	4,15	0,6234	p=0,0001
	25-35	82	3,61	1,1923	
	35-45	74	3,64	1,1312	
	45-55	19	3,19	1,2086	
	55 and over	6	2,61	1,8429	
	Total	427	3,89	0,9613	
Natural Behavior	18-25	246	3,12	1,0529	p=0,0001
	25-35	82	3,82	1,0011	
	35-45	74	4,26	0,6836	
	45-55	19	4,05	1,0527	
	55 and over	6	4,42	0,5845	
	Total	427	3,51	1,0909	

After the Kruskal-Wallis Test, which was performed on the data analyzed according to the age variable and used to investigate the differences between more than two groups, it can be argued that the difference between the groups is statistically significant in terms of average scores in the whole scale and all sub-dimensions (p=0.0001<0.05). In order to determine between which age groups these differences are, the Mann-Whitney U test was performed by comparing all groups with each other in pairs. As a result, it can be said that there is no difference between the "25-35 and 35-45" age groups and the "45-55 and 55 and over" age groups in terms of mean emotional labor scores, while the mean emotional labor score decreases with increasing age (p=0.0001<0.05).

When the natural behavior sub-dimension was examined, the situation was the opposite and although it was seen that the frequency of natural behavior increased with increasing age, as a result of the Mann-Whitney U test used to determine which age groups the difference between the groups originated from, it can be said that there is no statistically significant difference between any group after the age of 35 in terms of mean scores, and this difference is due to randomness (p=0,656>0,05). However, it can be argued that individuals over the age of 35 exhibit natural behavior more frequently than younger individuals (p=0,005<0,05).

It can be said that individuals between the ages of 25-35 show natural behavior more frequently than individuals between the

ages of 18-25 (p=0,0001<0,05). When the superficial role sub-dimension is analyzed, it can be said that the group between the ages of 18-25 has the highest mean score differentiating from all other groups (p=0,0001<0,05). Apart from that, it is understood that the only group in which the difference between the mean scores between the groups is statistically significant is between the ages 25-35 and 45-55, and it can be said that individuals between the ages of 25-35 exhibit more superficial role-playing behaviors than individuals between the ages of 45-55 (p=0,0001<0,05).

On the other hand, it can be said at a 95% confidence level with a margin of error of α=0.05 that there is no statistical difference in terms of mean scores of surface acting in any group over the age of 35 (p=0.182>0.05 p=0.482>0.05). In the deep role sub-dimension, it can be said that the mean score of only one individual in the 18-25 age group is higher than all other groups (p=0,0001<0,05). As a result of the analysis performed among other age groups, it can be said that the difference between the groups in terms of deep role sub-dimension mean scores is not significant (p=0,993>0,05 p=0,135>0,05 p=0,424>0,05).

Table 9. Relationship between Professional Experience Factor and Emotional Labor Dimensions

		Number	Average	Standard Deviation	Kruskal Wallis Test
Emotional Labor	1-5 Years	294	3,26	0,490	
	5-10 Years	43	3,04	0,627	
	10-15 Years	37	2,97	0,668	p=0,0001
	15-20 Years	21	2,90	0,838	
	20 Years and over	32	2,83	0,752	
	Total	427	3,17	0,583	
Superficial Role	1-5 Years	294	2,96	0,56485	
	5-10 Years	43	2,45	0,89554	
	10-15 Years	37	2,30	0,98330	p=0,0001
	15-20 Years	21	2,24	1,14209	
	20 Years and over	32	2,12	0,86231	
	Total	427	2,75	0,77095	
Deep Role	1-5 Years	294	4,00	0,81085	
	5-10 Years	43	3,72	1,10537	
	10-15 Years	37	3,83	0,97062	p=0,084
	15-20 Years	21	3,60	1,24997	
	20 Years and over	32	3,31	1,46632	
	Total	427	3,89	0,96131	
Natural Behavior	1-5 Years	294	3,20	1,06822	
	5-10 Years	43	4,09	0,68362	
	10-15 Years	37	3,98	0,93159	p=0,0001
	15-20 Years	21	4,14	0,98923	
	20 Years and over	32	4,56	0,51977	
	Total	427	3,51	1,09087	

It can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the groups when comparing the mean emotional labor scores of the participants in terms of their professional experience (p=0.0001<0.05). As a result of the Mann-Whitney U test used to investigate the difference between the paired groups, it can be said that this difference only differs from all other groups with individuals working in the 1-5-year range and has a higher average (p=0,0001<0,05). It can be said that there is no statistical difference between the remaining groups in terms of emotional labor mean scores (p>0.05). When the natural behavior sub-dimension is examined, it can be said that while there is no statistically significant difference between those with "20 years and more" experience in the profession and those with "15-20 years" experience (p=0,105>0,05), this group shows natural behaviors more frequently than individuals with less than 10 years of experience (p=0,02<0,05).

It can be said that those with experience between 1-5 years, which includes participants who are in the first years of their profession, show the least natural behavior among all other groups (p=0,0001>0,05). It can be said that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of natural behaviors of individuals with experience between 5 years and 20 years (p=0,403>0,05 p=0,422>0,05).

As a result of the two-way comparisons made in terms of the superficial role sub-dimension in terms of the professional experience variable, it is understood that the only difference between the groups stems from the individuals with 1-5 years of experience in the first years of the profession and that these individuals resort to a superficial role more frequently than the individuals in the other groups (p=0.0001<0.05). It is said that there is no statistically significant difference in terms of surface role mean scores in any of the other groups according to the duration of experience in the profession (p>0.05). In terms of the deep role-playing sub-dimension of the scale, it can be said that the difference between the groups is not statistically significant (p=0,084>0,05).

Table 10. Relationship between Income Status Factor and Emotional Labor Dimensions

		Number	Average	Standard Deviation	Kruskal Wallis Test
Emotional Labor	5.000 TL -7.000 TL	139	3,18	0,5825	P=0,005
	7.000 TL - 9.000 TL	90	3,17	0,6262	
	9.000 - 11.000 TL	72	3,32	0,4592	
	11.000 TL - 13.000 TL	42	3,29	0,3714	
	13.000 TL and over	82	2,95	0,6640	
	Total	425	3,17	0,5832	
Superficial Role	5.000 TL -7.000 TL	139	2,71	0,8230	P=0,0001
	7.000 TL - 9.000 TL	90	2,72	0,8430	
	9.000 - 11.000 TL	72	3,01	0,5886	
	11.000 TL - 13.000 TL	42	2,99	0,4647	
	13.000 TL and over	82	2,53	0,7945	
	Total	425	2,76	0,7726	
Deep Role	5.000 TL -7.000 TL	139	3,98	1,0086	p=0,003
	7.000 TL - 9.000 TL	90	3,92	1,0131	
	9.000 - 11.000 TL	72	3,98	0,7471	
	11.000 TL - 13.000 TL	42	4,05	0,7006	
	13.000 TL and over	82	3,59	1,0410	
	Total	425	3,90	0,9582	
Natural Behavior	5.000 TL -7.000 TL	139	3,60	1,1312	p=0,206
	7.000 TL - 9.000 TL	90	3,62	1,0522	
	9.000 - 11.000 TL	72	3,43	1,0458	
	11.000 TL - 13.000 TL	42	3,19	1,1840	
	13.000 TL and over	82	3,48	1,0509	
	Total	425	3,51	1,0932	

When the mean emotional labor scores of the participants are compared according to income status, it can be said that the difference in the mean scores between the groups is statistically significant only between the individuals with the highest salary and the individuals in all other groups, and only those who receive a salary of 13 thousand TL have a lower mean emotional labor score by differentiating from the other groups (p<0.05). It can be said that there is no significant difference between the mean emotional labor scores in any of the remaining groups and this difference is due to randomness (p>0.05). It can be said that there is no statistical difference between the groups in terms of the mean score of natural behavior according to income status (p=0,206>0,05).

While there is no statistically significant difference between those earning less than 9 thousand TL and those earning 13 thousand TL and above in terms of the mean scores of superficial role-playing (p=0.09>0.05 p=0.105>0.05), the difference between the mean superficial role-playing score of this group can be said to be significant and lower (p=0.02<0.05), although there is no difference between those participants earning between 13 thousand and 9 thousand TL in terms of their mean scores of superficial behavior (p=0.945>0.05). In other words, it can be said that individuals with middle-income status resort to superficial role-playing behavior more frequently than those who receive less wages or those who receive higher wages.

As a result of examining the data and making pairwise comparisons, we can say that the difference between the groups is statistically significant only for individuals earning 13 thousand TL and above and that they exhibit deep role behavior less frequently (p=0.001<0.05). In terms of other groups, it can be said that there is no difference between the groups in terms of income status variable in the deep role sub-dimension (p>0.05).

In the analysis conducted in terms of emotional labor score averages and superficial role sub-dimension in the examination of the participants by classifying them according to their educational status, it can be said that the difference between the groups is only due to the individuals with a bachelor's degree level of education and these individuals have a higher mean emotional labor score average than the other groups (p=0.0001<0.05).

It can be said that there is no statistically significant difference between the other groups in the education variable in terms of mean scores (p>0.05). When the natural behavior sub-dimension is examined, it can be said that only those with a bachelor's degree differ from the other groups and exhibit natural behaviors less frequently (p=0,0001<0,05). When the education variable was examined in the natural behavior sub-dimension, it was seen that the difference in mean scores between the other groups was not statistically significant (p>0.05).

In examining the relationship between the deep role-playing behavior, which is another sub-dimension of the scale, and the educational variable, it can be said that the only group in which the difference between the groups was statistically significant was the individuals with postgraduate education and these individuals exhibited deep role-playing behavior less frequently than the individuals in the other groups (p=0,039<0,05).

Conclusion

Facility management is a constantly evolving and changing management function that provides multidimensional services for the effective and efficient use of buildings for human and community life. Facility management is generally outsourced to provide comfortable, sustainable and rational operation of residential and commercial real estate. The fact that facility management is relatively new in Türkiye has led to a limited number of studies. Therefore, in this field, first of all, facility management should be based on a service-centered management function, and the emotional labor factor, which is one of the main determinants in the provision of services, should always be kept in the foreground. Because emotional labor can direct many important variables such as satisfaction, quality, competence, word-of-mouth marketing, repurchase, etc. between the parties in the provision of services. The other effect of emotional labor on the aforementioned variables is that it directly affects the overall performance of the company providing facility management services. Emotional labor is one of the concepts that should be emphasized the most in the facility management process, as it refers to the attitude, behavior and style exhibited by employees in the service process. In this study, the emotional labor behaviors of 427 participants working in facility management companies operating in Istanbul between October-November 2022 were examined.

There was no significant difference between the groups according to the gender variable, and it was found that women resorted to superficial role-playing behavior more frequently than men in the sub-dimensions of surface role, deep role and natural behavior. Men, on the other hand, were found to exhibit deep roles and natural behaviors at a higher rate than other women. Accordingly, it has been observed that women working in facility management services show the emotional labor behavior expected from them by the organization, while men do not naturally feel the emotion they reflect. In the study, it was determined that single individuals spent emotional labor more intensely than married individuals, there was a significant difference between married individuals and single individuals in terms of displaying natural and natural behaviors, and married individuals tended towards natural behaviors more often than single individuals. According to the age variable, it was observed that there was no difference between the "25-35 and 35-45" age groups and the "45-55 and 55 and over" age groups in terms of mean emotional labor scores, and the mean emotional labor score decreased with increasing age. In the natural behavior sub-dimension, it was observed that the frequency of natural behavior increased with increasing age.

When we look at professional experience, which was discovered to be an important variable in emotional labor and facility management services, it was seen that individuals working in the range of 1-5 years had a higher average by differentiating from all other groups. It was seen that employees who are new in the profession differed in natural behavior and surface role behaviors compared to others. On the other hand, in terms of income status variable, emotional labor behavior was found to be different only for those who received the highest wage. In the analyses conducted in terms of emotional labor score averages and surface role sub-dimension according to the education variable, it was determined that the difference between the groups was only due to the individuals with a bachelor's degree level of education and that these individuals had a higher mean emotional labor score average than the other groups.

As a result, it was seen that emotional labor is an effective factor in facility management services and that demographic characteristics differ among themselves in emotional labor sub-dimensions. Accordingly, it has been revealed that companies

providing facility management services and managers in this field should act by recognizing the impact and importance of emotional labor and its sub-dimensions. There is a wide field of study for future researchers on the effects of emotional labor factors in facility management and its relationships with other variables.

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A Study to Determine The Antecedents of The Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour: A Qualitative Practice for Hotel Businesses

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ABSTRACT

Prosocial behaviours are considered as pro-social behaviours that contribute to social welfare, benevolent, and do not consider individual interests. Prosocial behaviours are basically shaped by the motive of providing benefit and helping the society. While the employees exhibiting these behaviours in the social sense engage in pro-social behaviours, the social and institutional benefit-oriented mindset can sometimes result in behaviours that can bend the rules of the institutions. For this purpose, nine 4 and 5 star hotels operating in the city centre of Bursa were included in the study. Data were collected by conducting face-to-face interviews with 37 hotel employees with at least two years of experience working in different departments. The data obtained from the interviews were coded, categorized and interpreted using the MAXQDA qualitative data analysis program. According to the results of the qualitative analysis, it was determined that the hotel employees expressed the prosocial rule breaking behaviour intensively behaviour required by the industry, customer orientation, benefiting the business, etc.). However, the antecedents of the prosocial rule breaking behaviours of the employees were classified under 3 main themes as individual, organizational and environmental. According to the results of our study, it can be stated that there is no sense of personal interest behind the prosocial behaviour of hotel employees, and the basis of this behaviour is reinforced by customer-oriented and organizational-oriented benefits and/or benevolence feelings.

Keywords: Prosocial Behaviour, Rule Breaking, Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour.

JEL Code: D23, Y10, Y20, Y80

Introduction

The rule, in terms of terms, encompasses all organizationally defined policies, regulations, or prohibitions that describe how members of the organization should conduct their business, where legitimacy and enforcement are in question. A rule break is defined as a breaking of an explicit institutionally defined policy, regulation or prohibition (Morrison, 2006: 6). The rules do not have a flexible nature (John and Shafi, 2020: 2). Situations where there is a contradiction between strict rules and rigid organizational structure and flexible employee behaviours; Sustainable development of employees' organizations can harm and prevent the organization from adapting to rapid changes in the external environment. For this reason, employees may break official rules in order to achieve good results for their organizations and other individuals. For example; The waiter can offer a free dessert to the angry customer to improve a bad situation and satisfy the customer (Wang et. al., 2020: 1). Formal organizational rules are generally consistent with the values and goals of organizations. Therefore, formal organizational rules significantly affect organizational viability and success. Despite this, some of these rules are basically inflexible, they can prevent employees from responding quickly in some cases during the business process, and they can hinder corporate effectiveness under certain conditions; may not produce the expected results in practice for customers, colleagues, and the organization. Therefore, in some cases, it is likely that behaviour contrary to certain rules will emerge in constructive ways with the intention of increasing the interests of the organization (Zhu vd., 2018: 60). Organizational processes might be adversely affected if the rules and policies set by the business do not meet the results expected by the stakeholders. Thus, employees may deviate from formally established rules in order to protect the benefits of customers, colleagues and the business and also to meet the situational demands under the necessary conditions (John and Shafi, 2020: 2). Organizational factors that may cause deviant behaviours of the employee include; job stress

factors, organizational frustration, lack of control in the working environment, light sanctions for rule breakings, organizational change-downsizing (Appelbaum et. al., 2007: 592).

Regardless of the result, practices in which employees have good intentions for stakeholder groups and socially pro-social rule breaking are considered (Majeed et. al., 2018: 42). Most organizational studies examine breaking rules under a broad umbrella of behaviour. Related concepts include workplace deviance, unproductive work behaviour, and organizational misconduct (Fleming, 2020: 1193). The most frequently compared and discussed subject in the literature about the concept of rule breaking is organizational misbehaviour. Vardi and Weitz (2004) stated in their research on literature that organizational misbehaviour is "an intentional behaviour in the workplace and the result of this behaviour constitutes a breaking of rules". In the agency theory, Eisenhardt (1989) emphasized that the rules can be ignored in cases where there are insufficient institutional controls to comply with the rules in order to benefit from the employee's own will (Morrison, 2006: 7). Rule breaking is defined as a workplace behaviour that may cause negative effects or have deviant characteristics resulting from the hostile attitude of the employee, employee diversity, social exclusion or job dissatisfaction. Based on this traditional definition, Morrison (2006) introduced the concept of "prosocial rule breaking behaviour" to explain rule breaking that are not motivated by negative intentions towards the organization (Bryant et. al., 2010: 102).

Morrison (2006) defines prosocial rule-breaking behaviour as "the deliberate breaking or stretching of formally regulated organizational policy, regulation or set prohibitions with the aim of contributing to the well-being of the business or its stakeholders". This type of behaviour is usually caused by the individual's desire to do her job better or to do good, due to his organizational role (Morrison, 2006: 7). Prosocial rule breaking behaviour is the deliberate disregard of organizational rules and standard procedures in order to protect the interests of the employee, business and stakeholders (Majeed et. al., 2018: 41).

Prosocial rule-breaking behaviour has been defined as constructive and positive deviant behaviour in literature. Spreitzer and Sonenshein (2004) defined positive deviation as the disregard of organizational norms in order to improve the organization and its stakeholders (Dahling et. al., 2012: 22). However, prosocial rule-breaking behaviour is basically the act of the employee's obligations and actions based on social interests in order to be beneficial to the group he is in (Li, 2015: 179). DeHart-Davis (2007) defines rule-breaking behaviour as "rule breaking, the desire to bend (break) rules and procedures". In general, prosocial rule breaking behaviour (PSRB) has been considered as a breaking of the rules to protect the benefit of the customer, patient, citizen or other service areas. While evaluations of rule-breaking behaviour in the public sector are not in line with normative values, prosocial rule-breaking behaviour (PSRB) is generally conceptualized as rule-breaking with positive consequences in mind (Borry and Henderson, 2019: 2-3).

It has been determined, in studies on bending or breaking the rules, that individual and organizational antecedents lead employees to engage in prosocial rule breaking behaviour (Borry and Henderson, 2019: 2). Studies in literature have shown that antecedents such as empathy, risk taking, proactive personality, and conscientiousness are among the individual factors of prosocial rule breaking behaviour. However, the studies carried out revealed that antecedents such as job demands, co-worker's prosocial rule-breaking behaviour, and transformational leadership are among the organizational factors of prosocial rule-breaking behaviour (Chen et. al., 2019: 1). It has been determined that the antecedents of prosocial rule breaking behaviour are not considered as a whole in the reviewed literature, and although there are various studies on the subject in international literature, there are limited studies in literature in Turkish. However, it is possible to state that the concept is not sufficiently recognized in literature in Türkiye.

Labour-intensive accommodation businesses operate in the service sector. Attitudes of employees in accommodation establishments are complementary and determining quality in service delivery (trans. Alkış, 2008: 13). The personnel working in the accommodation sector, on the other hand, are not only limited to behaviours in accordance with the basic rules and guidelines in meeting customer demands, but also provide quality service beyond the expectations of their customers (Cheng and Chen, 2017: 2670). In the studies conducted in the field of accommodation in the literature, it has been concluded that the prosocial behaviour of service employees has a significant impact on the service evaluation and the long-term success of the enterprise (Kim and Qu, 2020: 645). In this context, it was found appropriate for the employees of the hotels operating in the tourism and hotel industry to participate in the research. Therefore, this study was carried out on hotel employees working in various departments of 4 and 5 star hotels in Bursa. In the study, in-depth research was conducted using qualitative study method. The study aims to answer questions such as "what is the scope of employees prosocial behaviour", "how is rule breaking behaviour evaluated by the employees?", "how does one make sense of the prosocial rule breaking behaviour for hotel employees?", "what are the factors that cause the employees to exhibit such behaviour?". In the research, it is important to determine the antecedents of prosocial rule breaking behaviour with the help of a model by examining the individual, organizational and environmental factors that cause employees to act in prosocial rule breakings. In line with the determined purpose, the basis of the research is to answer the following questions:

1. What does rule breaking behaviour mean?
2. What are the causes of rule breaking behaviour?
3. What does prosocial rule breaking behaviour mean?

4. What are the types of prosocial rule breaking behaviour?
5. How often is prosocial rule-breaking behaviour exhibited?
6. What is the importance of exhibiting prosocial rule breaking behaviour?
7. What are the positive and negative aspects of prosocial rule breaking behaviour?
8. Under which conditions does a person exhibit prosocial rule breaking behaviour?

Literature Review

In the process of examining workplace behaviours, it is important whether positive deviance behaviours can be classified as a type of prosocial behaviour. Types of prosocial behaviour in the literature are organizational citizenship behaviours, whistleblowing, corporate social responsibility, creativity and innovation. In the evaluation of prosocial behaviour types in the literature on the basis of positive deviant behaviour, it is important that the behaviours are based on voluntariness and include honourble intentions, and that the individual's behaviours differ from organizational norms (Appelbaum et. al., 2007: 589). Brief and Motowidlo (1986) conceptualized the situation as "prosocial", where employee behaviour requires going beyond the individual's usual job responsibilities and needs in order to benefit others. The term prosocial is conceptually based on an individual's behaviour attempting to help others, regardless of the end result. In the conceptualization of the term prosocial the act of helping itself and whether those who exhibit helping behaviour would breaking organizational policies were not taken into account. Within the framework of these evaluations, Morrison (2006) brought up the prosocial rule breaking behaviour, which is a functional concept, based on the idea that a business can be helpful not only to its stakeholders but also to the business itself at a level that can reflect positively (Baskin et. al., 2016: 73). At the same time, the emergence of positive psychology and the fact that researchers began to focus on prosocial motivations behind rule breakings also helped to increase the importance of the concept of prosocial rule-breaking behaviour (Chen et. al., 2019: 1).

In the literature, breaking of official rules are generally considered as deviant behaviours exhibited by annoyed or self-interested employees and employees who do not identify with the goals of the business (Morrison, 2006: 6). Rule breaking behaviour is examined under the umbrella of deviant behaviours and is included in the intentional breaking of official organizational rules by employees. In the literature, the destructive aspects of misbehaviour, deviant behaviour and counterproductive behaviour in the workplace have been focused and the possible harms of these behaviours to the business have been emphasized. However, the deviant behaviour of the employee does not always show destructive features. Deviant behaviours also show constructive features (Asadullah et al., 2019: 4).

Interpersonal constructive deviant behaviour is the whole of actions that are done to help individuals and that include breaking the regulations determined by the management to improve organizational processes. Organizational constructive deviance behaviour is the behaviour exhibited towards the business. Organizational constructive deviation can be observed as innovative behaviours aimed at helping the business (for example, finding creative solutions to solve problems) and behaviours that break existing norms to help the business (for example, when customers break rules to solve their problems) (Bodankin and Tziner, 2009: 550). Morrison (2006) used the term "prosocial rule breaking" to describe constructively deviant behaviour. It refers to the term prosocial rule breaking which refers to "those employees deliberately breaking organizational rules and policies that may prevent them from doing their jobs effectively". Unlike other deviant behaviours that have destructive and negative consequences, prosocial rule breaking behaviour is considered as a constructive behaviour that has positive effects for the organization that helps solidarity, productivity, cooperation, and customer retention (Asadullah et al., 2019: 4). Prosocial rule breaking behaviour is the breaking (bending) of policies, regulations and laws in order to improve the well-being of the employee, business or stakeholders. At the same time, prosocial rule breaking behaviour generally focuses on the positive side of rule breaking and emphasizes the initiative aspect of the employee (Morrison, 2006: 6).

When the theoretical framework of prosocial rule breaking behaviour is examined, it is seen that the behaviour is based on two theories. These are Social Cognitive Theory and Job Characteristics Theory. According to Bandura (1986), Social Cognitive Theory emphasizes the importance of cognitive processes that explain the effects of external factors on individual behaviour. Social Cognitive Theory provides guidance on how individuals should act, observes role models and cognitively evaluates the information that role models carry, and evaluates the individual's normative beliefs and behaviour schemes. In this context, prosocial rule breaking behaviour can be evaluated within the framework of social cognitive theory (Zhu et al., 2018: 63). However, prosocial rule breaking behaviour can also be evaluated with job characteristics theory. Job characteristics theory specifies job design principles that can be evaluated in terms of the degree of employee autonomy, task complexity, feedback, skill variety, and job importance. The way jobs are designed can cause a complex job to emerge from time to time due to results that are not related to the characteristics of the job and employee behaviours that remain in dilemma. In this case, the employee may ignore some rules and procedures or act against the rules while performing his duties. As a result, prosocial rule breaking behaviour may occur (Kahari et al., 2017: 2). Morrison (2006) examined the factors affecting the prosocial rule breaking behaviour of employees under three headings. These are (Fleming, 2020: 1195):

1. Enabling employees to fulfil their duties more effectively as per their job roles,
2. Employees' willingness to help their subordinates and colleagues,
3. It is the desire to provide better customer service.

Morrison (2006), Dahling et al. (2012) and Vardaman et al. (2014) listed the factors that may cause prosocial rule breaking behaviour of the employees as; the personality of the individuals, the characteristics of the job and social factors. In terms of personality traits, it has been determined that individuals with low conscientiousness, neurotic personality and employees with high risk taking tendency are more likely to participate in prosocial rule breaking behaviour. Dahling et al. (2012), Huang et al. and Morrison (2006) indicate that jobs with high job demands, job autonomy, and job meaningfulness encourage prosocial rule-breaking behaviour by employees (Shum et al., 2019: 101). Morrison (2006), in his study on prosocial rule breaking, concludes that if the employees have a high level of autonomy in their work and have acted in prosocial rule breakings in the past, they are more likely to exhibit the prosocial rule breaking behaviour again. However, in the study, it was determined that there is a relationship between the risk-taking tendency of the employee and the prosocial rule breaking behaviour. Mayer et al. (2007) reemphasized the relationship between customer orientation and prosocial rule-breaking behaviour with reference to early studies (Dahling et al., 2012: 22-23). Morrison (2006) determined that an individual's risk-taking tendency, co-workers' behaviours, and work autonomy are the antecedents of prosocial rule-breaking behaviour (Bryant et al., 2010: 102). At the same time, it has been concluded that individual characteristics (acting with a sense of responsibility, conscientiousness, tendency to take risks, etc.) are the factors that significantly affect the prosocial rule breaking behaviour of the employees (Zhu et al., 2018: 60). Various studies have been carried out to support the prosocial rule breaking behaviour and point at the positive consequences of such behaviour. Prosocial rule breaking behaviour is among the supportive behaviours (taking initiative, taking responsibility, employee voice, whistleblowing and innovative behaviours). In the studies on supportive behaviours, it is emphasized that the employees go beyond the limits of their job roles, deal with the problems with a proactive approach and produce solutions (Morrison, 2006: 8).

Dahling (2012) and Morrison (2006), in their studies concerning individual factors that are the precursors of prosocial rule breaking behaviour conclude that the meaning of work is the tendency to take risks, conscientiousness (John and Shafi, 2020: 2). Lipsky (1980, 2010), Lazarus (1966), and Tummer et al. (2015) emphasized that frontline employees with high interaction with customers may resort to rule breaking behaviour as a behavioural coping method in order to manage demands in case of work stress and conflict that may arise during their communication with customers (Fleming, 2020: 1193). Chen et al. (2019) found that there is a positive relationship between the leader's prosocial rule breaking behaviour and the employees' prosocial rule breaking behaviour (Chen et al., 2019: 2-5). In the study conducted by Harrison (2015), it was concluded that employees who feel gratitude towards their managers and co-workers may exhibit prosocial rule breaking behaviours as encouraging these relationships (Harrison, 2015: 60). According to the research conducted by Kahari et al., (2017) it was determined that the antecedents of prosocial rule-breaking behaviour include job characteristics, job autonomy and task complexity (John and Shafi, 2020: 2). Kahari et al., (2017) also determined in their study on the role of risk-taking in the effect of job characteristics on prosocial rule breaking behaviour that job characteristics affect prosocial rule breaking behaviour. Employees who have autonomy in their jobs show social rule breaking behaviour in order to carry out their work more efficiently, to provide better service to their customers and to help their colleagues (Kahari et al., 2017: 8). Morrison (2006) tried to determine the antecedents of prosocial rule breaking behaviour with his research. As a result of his study, Morrison (2006) revealed that if the employee has high autonomy and the employee's co-workers have acted in prosocial rule breaking in the past, the probability of the employee to commit prosocial rule breaking behaviour may be high (Dahling et al., 2012: 23).

Research Method

The information, which was conducted on hotel employees working in 4 and 5 star hotels in Bursa, information about the method, sample, data collection technique and data analysis of the study was presented followed by research findings, results and discussion.

Research Design

In this study, phenomenology, which is one of the qualitative research designs, was used. Phenomenology, which is a qualitative research approach, was first introduced by Husserl (1931). Husserl (1931) conceptualized phenomenology as a way of making sense of the 'lived experiences' of individuals (research participants) and their experiences (Alase, 2017: 10). Phenomenology is a method used to determine the meanings of facts and to reveal an individual's perception of a situation. However, phenomenology helps to understand a subject that we have an idea about but do not have a detailed understanding of. In this research design answers to questions such as "what are the perceptions/experiences related to this phenomenon?" and "what are the environments and conditions in which experiences of this phenomenon occur?" are pursued (Sığrı, 2018: 186). In this context, it is considered that employees frequently resort to prosocial rule breaking behaviour in the private sector for providing customer satisfaction,

contributing to business interests and increasing productivity, also for helping their colleagues. Moreover, phenomenological research design was used in view of the different meanings of prosocial rule breaking behaviour for the employees, the differences in the types of prosocial rule breaking behaviour, the determination of the importance of prosocial rule breaking behaviour, and an in-depth understanding of the factors causing the rule breaking behaviour.

Participants and Procedures

Purposive sampling technique is generally used in qualitative research. In qualitative research, the relationship of the sample to the research question is important, not representativeness. Purposive sampling is the process of selecting units (such as an individual, a collection of individuals, or an institution) based on specific objectives associated with answers to research questions (Sığrı, 2018: 129-130). The sample of the research consists of 37 hotel employees with at least two years of professional experience working in 4 and 5 star hotels, which have received "Tourism hotel management certificate" in the city centre of Bursa. The province of Bursa was preferred for gathering the research sample as the city has several city hotels equipped to host domestic and foreign tourists for all four seasons, ranks high among developed cities of Türkiye in terms of industry and trade, and also on the grounds that Bursa is one of the important cities of Turkey in terms of cultural and religious tourism, as well as thermal tourism and winter tourism. Cresswell (1998) emphasizes that the sample size in qualitative research can vary between 10-30 individuals (Kanten et al., 2021: 3). However, data saturation and data adequacy must be taken into account in determining the sample size. With multiple groups, it is necessary to identify not only greater diversity of ideas, but also ideas that are consistent across groups. Although the number of groups to be performed varies according to the research question, the rule of thumb is to terminate the study when theoretical saturation is reached (i.e., when no new data are available) (Kalof et al., 2008: 132). In this context, hotel employees were included in the sample, taking into account different characteristics such as professional experience, department, age, gender and education level. After interviewing 37 people, it was concluded that data saturation and data adequacy were achieved. Figure 1 provides detailed information on the gender and education level of the participants.
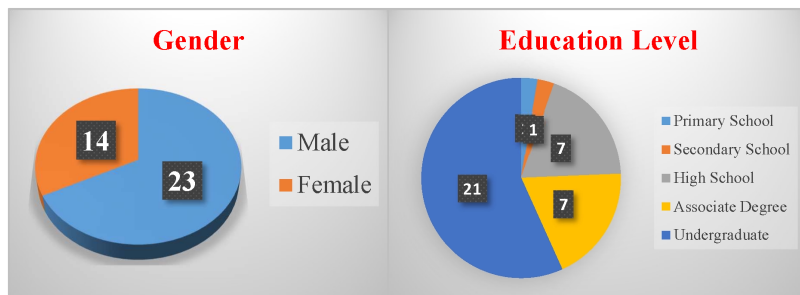
Figure 1. Information of the Gender and Education Level of the Participants

In the ranking of the participants according to their education level, it is seen that the majority (21 people) have undergraduate education. However, male participants (23 people) predominate in the study.

Figure 2. Ranking of Participants According to the Unit They Work

According to the unit worked in Figure 2, the majority of the participants work as food & beverage-service-kitchen (14 people).

In addition, 11 participants are at the front desk (receptionist, reservation manager, bellboy); 4 participants work in the sales-public relations department, 4 participants in accounting, 4 participants in housekeeping.
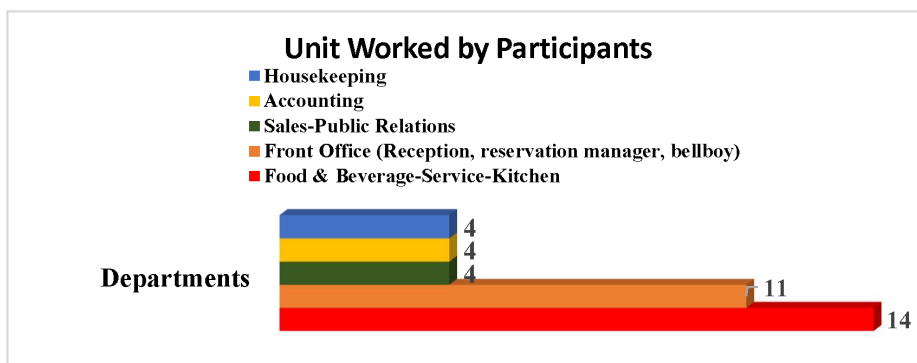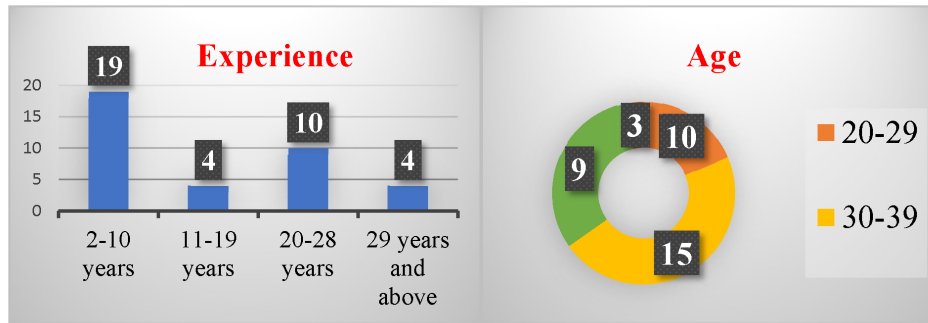

Figure 3. Information of the Age and Work Experience of Participants

In Figure 3, in ordering the participants according to their experience, it is stated that the majority of the hotel staff (19) with 2-10 years of experience; It is observed that personnel with 20-28 years (10), 11-19 years (4) and 29 years and above (4) personnel are followed. However, the majority of them are hotel employees (15) between the ages of 30-39; 40-49 age range (9), 20-29 age range (10), 50 and above age group (3) personnel follow.

Ethical Consent of the Research

Ethical permission of the study was obtained from the Scientific Research Ethics Committee of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University Graduate Education Institute (No. 08.02.2021, E-84026528-050.01.04-2100021088).

Data Collection Technique

In qualitative research, document review, archive analysis, interview, focus group interview, direct observation, participant observation, critical incident method, biography, examination of abstract elements and daily data collection techniques are preferred (Sığrı, 2018: 78-79). Within the scope of the research, interview data collection technique was used. With the help of a semi-structured interview form, data were obtained by taking one-to-one notes in face-to-face interviews in an environment where each participant could express himself freely outside of working hours. Before the interview form was created, the relevant literature was extensively scanned, the conceptual and theoretical framework was drawn, the studies that were similar to the subject were examined and the final model of the interview form was given. The validity of the interview form (Sığrı, 2018: 143-144);

1. increasing the number of participants, equal in number from each department,
2. collecting deep and focused data,
3. by including participants with different characteristics in the research,
4. it was tried to be provided by taking the opinion of 2 experts who have extensive knowledge about the research subject.

The interview form includes 22 open-ended questions to determine the antecedents of prosocial rule breaking behaviour; It also includes 5 demographic questions: gender, age, education level, experience, and unit of work. The interview was held between March and July 2021 in the working environment of the employees, taking into account the short work and workload, and taking an appointment within the framework of the permission obtained from the hotel management in the afternoon and at the end of the working hours. The interviews were recorded for a period of 35-50 minutes, taking into account the reservations of the participants about taking voice recordings, only by taking one-to-one notes.

Analysis of Data

The MAXQDA program and content analysis method during the evaluation of the data obtained in the study Holsri (1968) defined content analysis as "a technique for making inferences by systematically and objectively determining the meaning and characteristics of participant statements" (Berg, 2001: 240). The purpose of content analysis is to reach concepts and relationships that can help explain the data obtained. Moreover, the obtained data is compared to the previous data and examined within the framework of 4 stages: open coding, axis coding (categorization), selective coding (thematization), category reduction and model

proposal. In this context, primarily the data obtained as a result of the interviews were examined line by line, and open codes were determined in accordance with the research purpose. As the second step, axis coding was done, and after open coding, main categories and subcategories were determined, and data that were related to each other were brought together. The data were selectively coded, and the sub-codes were narrowed down in line with the main categories in the third stage. Finally in the last stage, comparative and relational analysis was applied to the data, and a model was developed within the framework of the relevant literature (Kanten et al., 2021: 4). However, for the reliability of the research, a descriptive approach was used in the data, a strong conceptual framework was used in the research, a categorization process was performed by an academician who is an expert in the analysis of the data, and the categories obtained by the researcher were compared with the categories created by the researcher. Furthermore, in order to ensure the reliability and validity of the research the research results were evaluated within the framework proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Guba and Lincoln (1989) in terms of reliability, transferability, credibility and confirmability (Kalof et al., 2008: 162).

Research Findings

As a result of the analysis of the research data, 8 categories within the framework of the structure were formed by the relations between the codes; (the meaning of rule-breaking behaviour, the meaning of prosocial rule-breaking behaviour, reasons for rule-breaking behaviour, types of prosocial rule-breaking behaviour, frequency of exhibiting prosocial rule-breaking behaviour, the importance of exhibiting prosocial rule-breaking behaviour, positive and negative aspects of prosocial rule breaking behaviour, departments where prosocial rule breaking behaviour is frequently exhibited, cases where prosocial rule breaking behaviour is exhibited) 246 open codes were determined. Frequency tables and graphs, density tables and code maps were used to categorize these codes.

Findings Regarding the Analysis of the Concept of Rule Breaking Behaviour

Within the scope of the study, it was tried to determine what meanings the behaviour of breaking of the rule evokes to the participants. The data obtained show that rule breaking behaviour behaviour evokes 17 different meanings. According to this, rule breaking behaviour is coded with the highest level (20.6%) of customer focus; This is followed by solution orientation (16.6%), benefiting the business (10.8%), taking initiative (7.8%), providing flexibility in rules (6.9%), accelerating work (5.9%), and being able to harm the workflow (3.9%), protecting corporate reputation, effective service delivery and reactive behaviour codes. Table 1 shows the frequency and percentage distributions of the expressions evoked by the rule breaking behaviour.

Table 1. Expressions Connoted by Rule Breaking Behaviour

MEANING OF RULE BREAKING BEHAVIOUR	Frequency	Percent
Customer Focus	21	20. 6
Solution Focused	20	16. 6
Benefiting the Business	11	10. 8
Taking Initiative	8	7. 8
Providing Flexibility in the Rules	7	6. 9
Speeding up Business	6	5. 9
Potential Damage to the Business and Workflow	4	3. 9
Protecting Corporate Reputation	4	3. 9
Effective Service Delivery	4	3. 9
Reactive Behaviour	4	3. 9
Cooperation	3	2. 9
Orientation	3	2. 9
Extra Role Behaviour	2	2. 0
Sectoral Features	2	2. 0
Complaint Management	1	1
Risk Taking Tendency	1	1
Reduction in Service Quality	1	1
TOTAL	102	100,00

Findings Related to the Analysis of the Concept of Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour

Within the scope of the study, it was tried to determine what meanings the prosocial rule breaking behaviour evokes to the participants. The data obtained show that prosocial rule breaking behaviour evokes 19 different meanings. Accordingly, prosocial rule breaking behaviour is coded with the behaviour required by the sector at the highest level (20%); followed by customer orientation (16%); benefiting the business (13.6%), being flexible (12.8%), being solution-oriented (7.2%), helping each other (5.6%), gaining experience of the employee (4%) and (2.4%) It is observed that the codes of not having a corporate structure, providing qualified service, ensuring the continuity of business processes, and customer's behaviour and reactions are followed by. Table 2 gives the frequency and percentage distributions of the expressions evoked by prosocial rule breaking behaviour.

Table 2. Expressions Connoted by Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour

MEANING OF PROSOCIAL RULE BREAKING BEHAVIOUR	Frequency	Percent
Behaviour Required by the Industry	25	20. 0
Customer Focus	20	16. 0
Benefiting the Business	17	13. 6
Being Flexible	14	12. 8
Solution Focused	9	7. 2
Cooperation	7	5. 6
Employee Gaining Experience	5	4
Not Having an Institutional Structure	3	2. 4
Quality Service Delivery	3	2. 4
Ensuring Continuity of Business Processes	3	2. 4
Customer Behaviour and Reactions	3	2. 4
Employee's Responsibility	3	2. 4
Cultural Features	2	1. 6
Complaint Management	2	1. 6
Exemplary Behaviour	2	1. 6
Using Initiative	2	1. 6
Quick Decision Making	1	0. 8
Policies and Procedures	1	0. 8
Protecting Corporate Reputation	1	0. 8
TOTAL	125	100

Findings for Determining the Antecedents of Rule Breaking Behaviour

The coding for the expressions related to the determination of the factors that cause the participants to exhibit breaking behaviour was handled within the framework of three main themes: "environmental reasons", "organizational reasons" and "individual reasons", and a relationship map including the main themes and sub-factors was created. According to the data obtained as a result of the interviews, the individual reasons causing the breaking of the rules; The personality traits of the employees were expressed as stress and tension, not accepting the job, and responding to the employer's attitudes. With this; having experience and skills, impression management, frivolous attitude of the employee and dissatisfaction with working conditions are also stated among the individual reasons that cause breaking of the rules. In addition, it has been concluded that organizational factors such as customer focus, accelerating business, contributing to corporate reputation, helping, increasing efficiency, solution orientation, taking initiative, work intensity, being a regular customer, customer's attitude behaviours, and benefiting the institution cause breaking of the rules. Within the scope of environmental reasons, it is possible to state that factors such as culture and family conditions may cause breaking of the rules. Accordingly, in Figure 4, the factors that cause the hotel employees to act in breaking of the rules have been tried to be summarized within the framework of main and sub-elements.

Findings on Determining the Types of Exhibiting Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour

The coding of the participants' expressions for determining the types of prosocial rule breaking behaviour was handled within the framework of three main themes: "organization-oriented", "colleague-oriented" and "customer-oriented", and a relationship map including main themes and sub-factors was created. The data obtained as a result of the interviews show that there are types of prosocial rule breaking behaviour towards the customer such as customer satisfaction, customer retention, meeting customer needs, providing extra service, courtesy, providing effective service, providing price flexibility and not victimizing the customer. As for
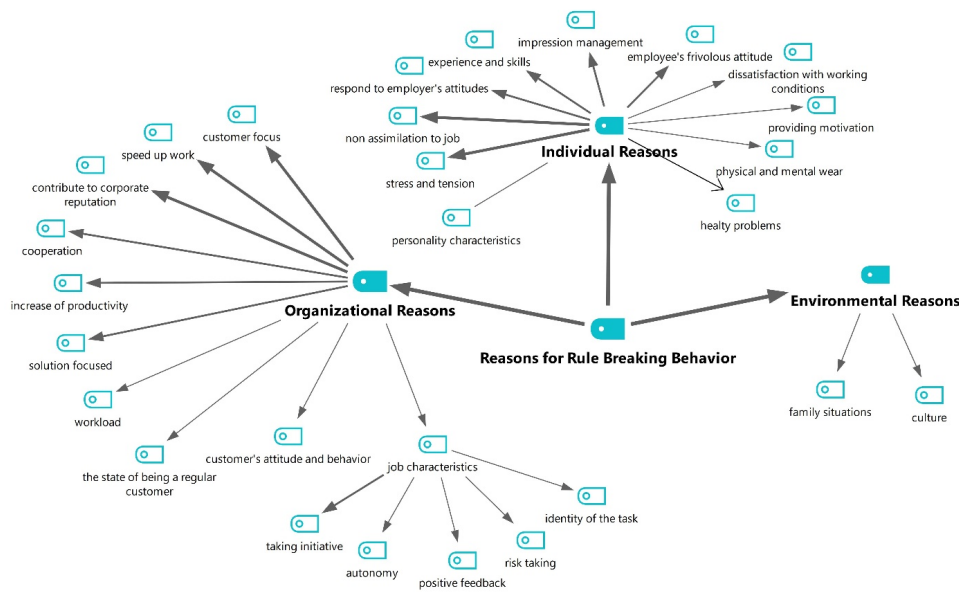
CAUSES OF PROSOCIAL RULE BREAKING BEHAVIOR

Figure 4. Model Suggestion Regarding Factors Causing Employees to Behave in Breaking of Rules

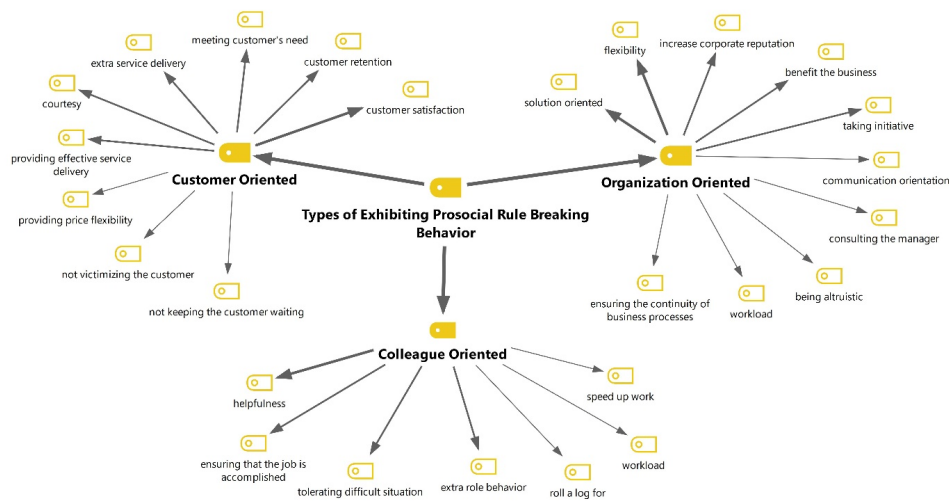# Types of Exhibiting Prosocial Rule Breaking Behavior

Figure 5. Model Suggestion Regarding the Types of Participants Exhibiting Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour

the colleague, helpfulness, ensuring that the job is accomplished, tolerating difficult situation, extra role behaviour, roll a log for, workload and speeding up the work are among the types of prosocial rule breaking behaviour of the hotel employees. In addition, solution-oriented, flexibility, increasing corporate reputation, benefiting the business, communication-oriented, consulting the manager, being altruistic, work intensity, speeding up business processes, ensuring the continuity of business processes, complaint management, providing an environment of trust, eliminating business deficiencies, It is possible to state that various types of behaviour such as lack of personnel, reducing bureaucracy, and ensuring the training of qualified personnel are among the types of prosocial rule breaking behaviour of hotel employees towards the organization. Accordingly, in Figure 5, the types of prosocial rule breaking behaviour of hotel employees were tried to be summarized within the framework of main and sub-elements.

Findings Regarding the Importance of Exhibiting Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour

After determining the meanings of the concepts of rule breaking behaviour, prosocial rule breaking behaviour, the causes of rule breaking behaviour and the types of prosocial rule breaking behaviour, the participants were asked "the importance of exhibiting

prosocial rule breaking behaviour" and the main codes regarding the importance of exhibiting prosocial rule breaking behaviour were determined based on the literature. Figure 6 includes the statements of the participants regarding the importance of exhibiting prosocial rule breaking behaviour within the scope of the main codes.
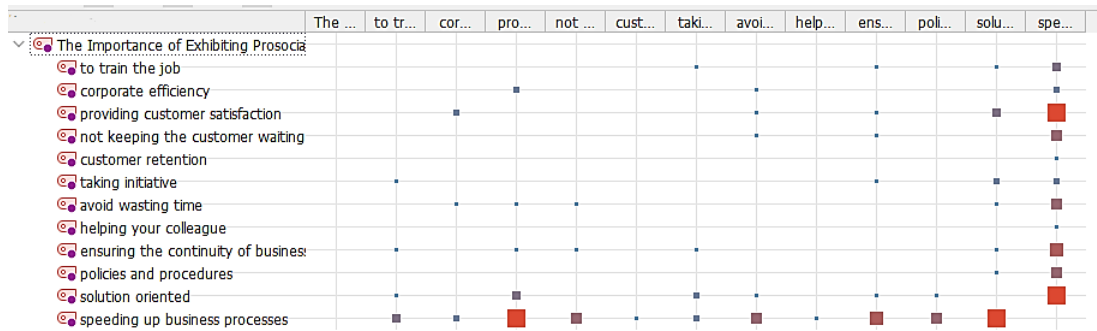

Figure 6. Code Relationship Map Regarding the Importance of Participants Exhibiting Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour

As can be seen in Table 6, the importance of participants' prosocial rule breaking behaviour is mostly concentrated within the framework of the theme of accelerating business processes. According to the findings, accelerating business processes has the highest intensity (97.00%); This is followed by expressions such as solution orientation and customer satisfaction (24.02%), ensuring the continuity of business processes (18.02%), policies and procedures (15.02%), and taking initiative (12.01%). According to the research findings, it is important for hotel employees to think that prosocial rule breaking behaviour is important, as a result of exhibiting this behaviour, it will accelerate business processes. It is important for the employee to act to solve any problem that the customer may experience during the time he receives service from the hotel. However, the employee thinks that it is important to exhibit prosocial rule breaking behaviour in order to satisfy the customer in every aspect. The fact that employees try to ensure the continuity of service delivery without interrupting their business processes is another important factor in exhibiting prosocial rule breaking behaviour. At the same time, the scope of the policies and procedures implemented by the enterprise, ensuring that the working personnel can use the initiative, the employee's thought to prevent the customer's loss of time, the employee's desire not to keep the customer waiting, the employee's effort to train the business and the desire to make the institution more efficient are important in exhibiting prosocial rule breaking behaviour.

Findings Regarding the Positive and Negative Aspects of Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour

The codings for the expressions of the participants for determining the positive and negative aspects of prosocial rule breaking behaviour were divided into two main themes as "negative aspect" and "positive aspect"; A relationship map including sub-factors, positive aspects of which are positive for the employee and positive for the customer, was drawn. The data obtained as a result of the interviews reflect some of the negative aspects of prosocial rule breaking behaviour, negatively affecting the workflow, damaging the business, the behaviour becoming a habit, the behaviour being abused, the ability to interfere with someone else's field of duty and the different evaluation of the customer's behaviour. Accordingly, in Figure 7, the negative aspects of hotel employees' prosocial rule breaking behaviour were tried to be summarized within the framework of the main elements.

The data obtained as a result of the interviews show that the positive aspects of prosocial rule breaking behaviour are; contributing to the interests of the institution, providing an environment of cooperation, ensuring corporate reputation, solution-orientedness and increasing efficiency are those mostly expressed. At the same time, the positive aspects of the behaviour towards the customer are concentrated in the framework of satisfying the customer, acquiring new customers and ensuring customer continuity. The positive aspects of exhibiting prosocial rule breaking behaviour in terms of hotel employees are; solution-oriented working, contributing to the personal development of the employee, getting positive feedback from the customer, the opportunity to have experience, ensuring the continuity of the work, getting the positive evaluation of the manager, reducing the workload, financial gain and increasing the motivation of the employee. Accordingly, in Figure 8, the positive aspects of hotel employees' prosocial rule breaking behaviour were summarized within the framework of main and sub-elements.

Situations of Exhibiting Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour

In which situations do participants exhibit prosocial rule breaking behaviour? The intensity of their answers to the question is given in Figure 9 within the scope of the main codes.

In Figure 9, the answers for the question "In which situations do the participants exhibit prosocial rule breaking behaviour?"

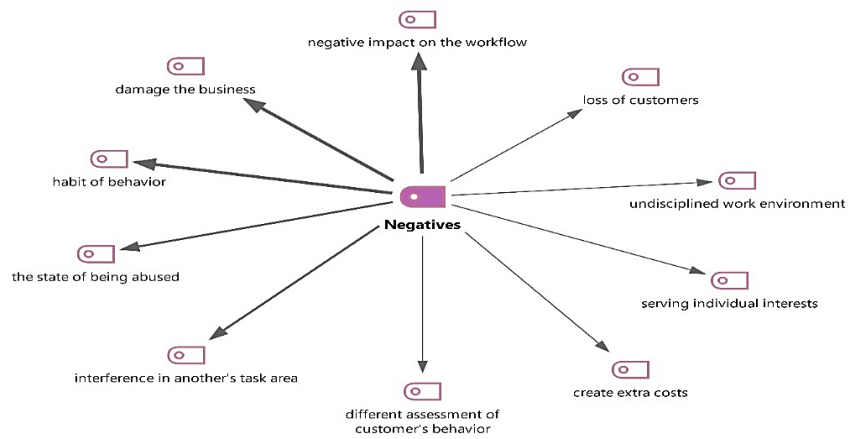## NEGATIVE ASPECTS OF PROSOCIAL RULE BREAKING BEHAVIOR

Figure 7. Model Suggestion Regarding Negative Aspects of Participants' Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour

POSITIVE ASPECTS OF PROSOCIAL RULE BREAKING BEHAVIOR
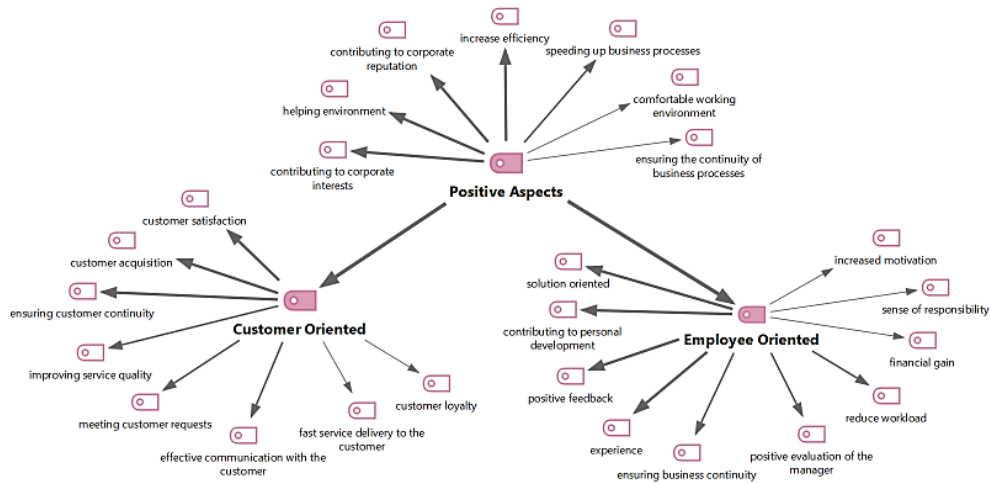
Figure 8. Model Suggestion Regarding the Positive Aspects of Participants' Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour
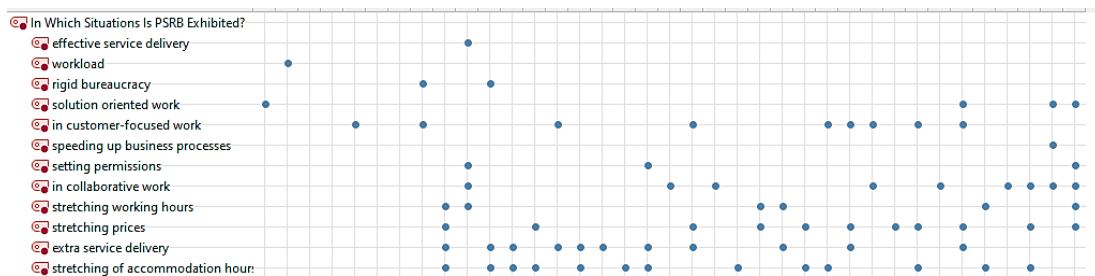
Figure 9. Model Suggestion Regarding the Positive Aspects of Participants' Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour

are seen. The codings for the question are determined as focused on the theme of providing flexibility in accommodation hours as a result of relationship scanning. With this; it can be stated that hotel employees may exhibit prosocial rule breaking behaviour in situations such as stretching prices, providing extra services, being customer-oriented, jobs that require cooperation between employees and stretching working hours.

Findings Regarding the Frequency of Exhibiting Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour

According to the data obtained, the frequency of the participants to exhibit prosocial rule breaking behaviour was categorized in 6 different ways such as "every day", "spontaneously", "annual", "monthly", "weekly" and "not very often". In Figure 10, the percentage distribution of hotel employees regarding the frequency of prosocial rule breaking behaviour is given. Accordingly, "every day" is the highest coding (30.07%) value, which expresses the frequency of prosocial rule breaking behaviour.
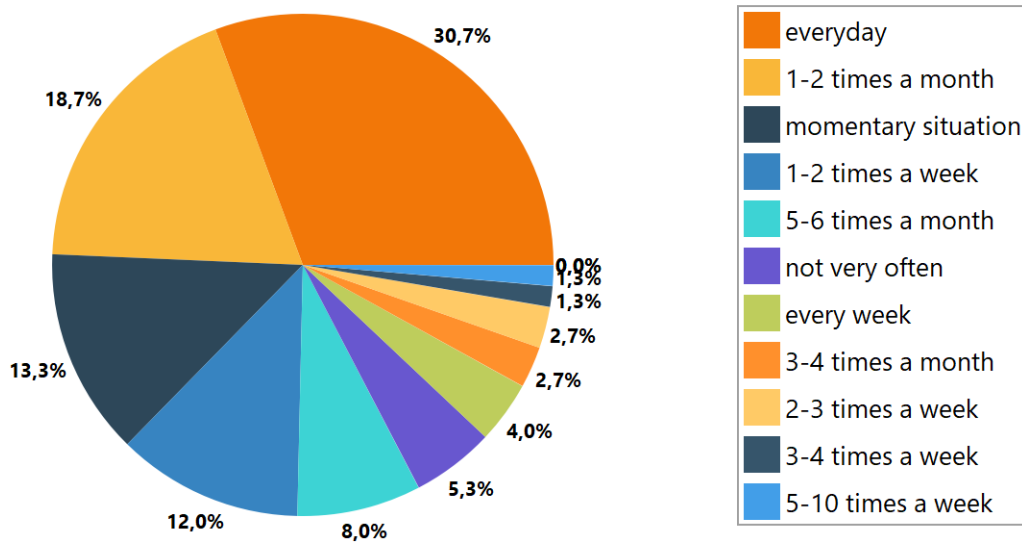
Figure 10. Percentage Distribution of Participants by Frequency of Exhibiting Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour

Findings Regarding the Departments where Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour is Exhibited Frequently

In the data obtained regarding the departments where the prosocial rule breaking behaviour of the participants is exhibited frequently, 6 different categories were categorized as "front office", "housekeeping", "food and beverage department", "service", "kitchen" and "technical department". In Figure 11, the percentage distribution of the departments where prosocial rule breaking behaviour is frequently exhibited is given. Accordingly, the "front office" has the highest coding (43.08
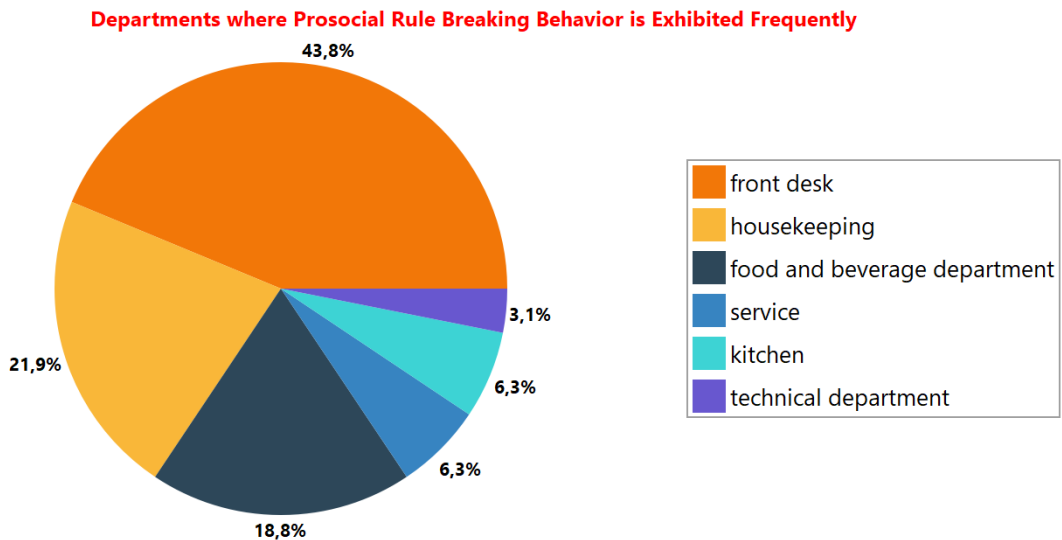

Figure 11. Percentage Distribution of Participants by Departments where Prosocial Rule Breaking Behaviour is Mostly Exhibited

Conclusion and Discussion

Prosocial rule breaking behaviour is out of the employee's own benefit. It is shaped within the framework of tolerating difficult situations, desiring to help the employee's colleagues in an individual sense. In the organizational sense, it can be stated that primarily customer satisfaction, business interests and benefits are important in displaying the behaviour. Concerning the prosocial rule breaking behaviour, which is evaluated under deviant behaviour in the literature, it is important to reveal the self-interested, unselfish and helpful aspects of it. However, it is thought that determining the individual, organizational and environmental antecedents that can lead employees to engage in this behaviour will contribute to the literature.

Rule breaking behaviour is intense for those in the working environment and for them it means being solution-oriented and customer-oriented, benefiting the business, taking initiative, providing flexibility in rules, speeding up the work. Although rule breaking behaviour has a conceptually different meaning from individual to individual, this concept has been extensively evaluated within the scope of providing customer and organization-oriented benefits and accelerating business processes for employees. In the study, rule breaking behaviour has two negative meanings according to the employees. These are expressed by employees as behaviours that may harm the business and the workflow, and a decrease in service quality. It may also evaluate the rule-breaking behaviour of hotel employees as behaviour that may harm the business and the workflow. Behind this assessment, it is considered that some policies and procedures may be ignored for the sake of providing flexibility in rules and speeding up business processes as customer, organization and solution oriented.

It is observed that the hotel employees consider the behaviour as an action required by the industry in their responses to how they make sense of the prosocial rule breaking behaviour. It was determined that this was followed by expressions such as customer focus, benefiting the business, being flexible, solution-oriented and helpful. In this context, it has been stated extensively that hotel staff can act flexibly in the rules when situations require due to the nature of service delivery. In addition, it can be stated that the prosocial rule breaking behaviour of the employees is the behaviour exhibited by the employees by acting flexibly and taking the initiative within the framework of providing organization-oriented benefits and producing quick solutions to the problems. In the findings, it was seen that the frequency of prosocial rule breaking behaviour by hotel employees was "every day" and the behaviour was mostly exhibited by the front desk. It can be stated that the reason for prosocial rule breaking behaviour is a behaviour that can be exhibited every day lies in the fact that one-to-one communication with the customer every day is a natural feature of this department and meeting customer expectations is the first priority in hotel service provision. At the same time, the fact that the number of front office personnel is high compared to other departments in hotels is thought to be an indicator of the fact that prosocial rule breaking behaviour is observed more intensely in front office department employees. The importance of exhibiting prosocial rule breaking behaviour by hotel employees is explained in relation with accelerating business processes, being solution-oriented, ensuring customer satisfaction, ensuring the continuity of business processes, and dealing with procedural and bureaucratic obstacles when appropriate. It is considered that there are two important factors on the basis of the employees' classification of prosocial rule breaking behaviour that are important. The first of these is that the behaviour accelerates the work processes where work density is experienced. Secondly, it is considered as a behaviour that can help solve the existing problems with the customer and the business in organizational processes.

According to the research findings, the types of prosocial rule breaking behaviours of hotel employees differ in terms of customer orientation, colleague orientation and organization orientation. The reasons for hotel employees' exhibiting prosocial rule breaking behaviour towards customers are customer satisfaction, customer retention, customer acquisition, meeting customer needs, extra service provision and replacement. It has been determined that exhibiting prosocial rule breaking behaviour towards customers is shaped within the framework of service orientation. At the same time, it can be stated that meeting the expectations of the customer in the best way is a priority. The types of prosocial rule breaking behaviour towards the organization are being solution-oriented, flexible behaviour, increasing corporate reputation, providing benefits to the business, taking initiative, communication-oriented. The types of prosocial rule breaking behaviours of employees towards the organization are shaped around the reputation and benefit of the business. At the same time, this behaviour of employees is considered to be taking action in the form of trying to solve the problems in hotels, acting flexibly, taking initiative, and acting in a communication-oriented manner. The types of prosocial rule breaking behaviours of hotel employees towards their colleagues are expressed as helpfulness, enabling the colleague to train the job, tolerating the difficult situation, and extra role behaviour. In this context, it can be stated that employees act in prosocial rule breakings with benevolent motives without selfish thoughts. It can be thought that the employees support the colleague in their difficult situation and help the colleague to contribute their professional development, taking into account the benefit of the organization. Prosocial rule breaking behaviours against a colleague also result in the employee's extra role behaviour.

It can be stated that individual, organizational and environmental antecedents are effective in the necessity of prosocial rule breaking behaviour by the employee. The employee engages in prosocial rule breaking behaviour in order to help his colleague with a benevolent attitude and to help his colleague to complete the job. At the same time, it exhibits prosocial rule breaking behaviour in order to satisfy customers with a customer-oriented attitude, to gain customers, to retain customers, and to provide

effective service to customers. With a solution-oriented approach, prosocial rule breakings take place in order to offer solutions that will satisfy both the hotel and the customer, taking into account the customer complaints about the hotel. In addition, employees may exhibit prosocial rule breaking behaviour for reasons such as contributing to the reputation of the business, speeding up the work, increasing efficiency and ensuring the continuity of the processes in the workload. Within the scope of the research, "What do you think are the factors that cause employees to ignore the rules in service processes?". "For what reasons do you think one might ignore rule breaking (for example, while serving a customer, helping a colleague, or solving a problem) in the work environment?". By asking the questions to the participants, the factors causing the prosocial rule breaking behaviour of the employees were tried to be determined. Hotel employees engage in prosocial rule breaking behaviour due to individual factors such as personality traits, having stress and tension, not being able to adopt the job, employer's attitudes, having experience and skills, and need for impression management. It is considered that the employee's proactive personality and helpful nature may cause them to take actions to meet the needs of the customer and the organization. It has been observed in the literature that there are studies in parallel with the results of our study. Morrison (2006) emphasized that prosocial rule breaking behaviour is among the supportive behaviours such as using initiative, taking responsibility, vocalizing, disclosing and innovative behaviours. Studies on supportive behaviour emphasize that employees go beyond the boundaries of their job roles, deal with problems with a proactive approach and produce solutions. In their studies, Dahling (2012) and Morrison (2006) determined that the meaning of work, tendency to take risks, and conscientiousness are among the antecedents of prosocial rule breaking behaviour. Lipsky (1980, 2010), Lazarus (1966), and Tummer et al. (2015) emphasized that hotel employees may resort to rule breaking behaviour as a behavioural coping method in order to manage demands in case of work stress and conflict that may arise during communication with customers. Chen et al. (2019) found in their study that there is a positive relationship between the leader's prosocial rule breaking behaviour and the employees' prosocial rule breaking behaviour.

Customer orientation, accelerating business, contributing to corporate reputation, helping, increasing productivity, solution orientation, workload and being a regular customer are organizational factors that cause employees to exhibit prosocial rule breaking behaviour. In the literature supporting the results of our study, Mayer et al. (2007) found that there is a relationship between customer orientation and prosocial rule breaking behaviour. In his study, Harrison (2015) concluded that employees who feel grateful to their managers and colleagues may engage in prosocial rule breaking behaviours by encouraging such relationships with their colleagues and managers. However, in our study, it was observed that the characteristics of the job are among the organizational antecedents of prosocial rule breaking behaviour. According to Morrison's (2006) study, it was revealed that if the employee has high autonomy and the employee's co-workers acted in prosocial rule breakings in the past, the probability of the employee's prosocial rule breaking behaviour may be high. According to Kahari et al. (2017), among the precursors of prosocial rule-breaking behaviour are job characteristics, job autonomy and task complexity. Kahari et al. (2017) concluded that employees who have autonomy in their work engage in social rule breakings in order to carry out their work more efficiently, to provide better service to their customers and to help their colleagues. At the same time, in our study it was stated by the participants that health, family situations and culture are within the scope of environmental factors that cause hotel employees to behave in breaking of rules. Accordingly, it is thought that if the relatives of the employee have problems with a health-related issue and encounter a family problem, it may lead the individual to act in prosocial rule breakings in order to continue the work process. However, it can be stated that the cultural structure may be one of the environmental factors that determine the flexibility of the rules.

Exhibiting prosocial rule breaking behaviour was evaluated in two aspects, as positive and negative, within the scope of the study. Within the scope of this evaluation prosocial rule breaking behaviour may have negative effects in various aspects such as adversely affecting the workflow, the possibility of harming the business, the behaviour becoming a habit, being abused, creating extra costs. However, the positive aspects of the prosocial rule breaking behaviour, which has a structure based on organizational benefit and efficiency and where individual interests are eliminated, predominate. In general, the positive aspects of prosocial rule breaking behaviour were expressed by the participants in an organization-oriented manner. Accordingly, it is expressed as contributing to the interests of the institution, riveting the cooperation environment, providing corporate reputation, increasing efficiency, and accelerating business processes. The positive aspects of prosocial rule breaking behaviour towards customers are shaped within the framework of satisfying customers, gaining customers and ensuring customer continuity, and increasing customer service quality. The positive aspects of prosocial rule breaking behaviour towards the employee are solution-oriented working, contributing to the personal development of the employee, and receiving the manager's positive evaluation. At the same time, prosocial rule breaking behaviour includes positive aspects for the employee, such as the opportunity to have experience, the ability to ensure the continuity of the employee's job, and the opportunity to receive the positive evaluation of the manager.

In this study, the concept of prosocial rule breaking behaviour, which is included in the foreign literature but has not yet been clarified in the literature in Türkiye, and the premises that cause this behaviour have been clarified through in-depth interviews. It was revealed that the first priority of the personnel working in the tourism sector, where interaction with the customer is intense and customer-oriented service delivery is very important, is to satisfy the customer. It was observed that hotel employees sometimes act as prosocially flexible in rules in order to ensure customer satisfaction and continuity, to solve customer and business problems, to provide benefit to the institution, to accelerate business processes and to ensure the continuity of business processes.

According to the results of our study, it can be stated that there is no sense of personal interest behind the prosocial behaviour of hotel employees, and the basis of this behaviour is reinforced by customer-oriented and organizational-oriented benefits and/or benevolence feelings. At the same time, it can be stated that organizational reasons have more weight in the emergence of prosocial rule violation behaviour. Although Turkish culture has a collectivist structure; It can be stated that individuals can ignore the rules for both the person and the institution who need help, and the benefit of the organization is a priority for the individuals. In this context, the most important factor that paves the way for prosocial rule breaking behaviour in hotel businesses is customer satisfaction. It can be stated that the prosocial rule breaking behaviour for customer satisfaction indirectly benefits the business, helps to increase the reputation of the business and contributes to creation of a climate of cooperation in the organizational environment. In this context, it is important for hotel businesses to be informed about the behaviours classified under the umbrella of prosocial behaviours and to prevent the creation of an environment that restricts hotel employees from taking prosocial actions. As a result of our work, it can be suggested that businesses would benefit from providing an organizational environment that supports hotel employees' customer and organization-oriented behaviours, increasing leader-member interaction, having employees take initiative within certain limits (which will not damage the reputation of the business and the customer, will not exceed the financial audit of the business, etc.) in the decisions to be taken for the benefit of the customer and the organization. This study was carried out with 37 participants in 7 4-star and 2 5-star hotels in Bursa city centre. In the future, it may be suggested to researchers that the results of hotels located in different regions should be compared and more participants should be reached. At the same time, it is possible to work with retail sector vendors, which is another sector where interaction with the customer is observed intensively.

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REVIEW ARTICLE

The Impact of Organizational Neuroscience and Self-determination Theory on Neuro-Leadership Theory

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ABSTRACT

This article illustrates the way in which the fields of organizational neuroscience (ON), psychology, and leadership can be brought together to address how leadership skills in a business environment can be improved and leadership behavioural patterns can be shaped. This conceptual paper explores how Neuro-leadership will serve as a link between psychological theories and organizational neuroscience. ON studies also enhance opportunities to extend the leadership approach by applying a new-found understanding of neural activation pathways to decision-making. Self-Determination Theory (SDT) offers a detailed explanation of intrinsic motivational factors that are the key to the success of leaders. The neuro-leadership approach uses the SDT factors of autonomy, relatedness, and competence to improve upon leadership theories. In addition, the importance of emotion regulation for leaders is expressed.

Keywords: Organizational neuroscience, Social cognitive and affective neuroscience, Self-determination theory, neuro-leadership.
JEL Code: M19

Introduction

Recent technological advances in the field of brain research have facilitated the investigation of the relationship between the changes in context and the nature of behaviour in organizations (Rock and Schwartz, 2006). Organizational neuroscience (ON) has an enormous potential to play an important role in human resources research by filling the gaps in what is known about the connection between human behaviour and the decision-making process. ON encompasses the areas of management and organizational psychology and delves into the role of the brain in the behavioural patterns exhibited by employees. ON is mainly interested in the functions of neurons in their relationship to social, cognitive, and affective phenomena in organizations. Neuroimaging technologies such as EEG (Electroencephalography), fMRI (functional magnetic resonance imaging), and eye-tracking have been used to examine leadership behaviours (Lindenbaum and Zundel, 2013). Balthazard et al. (2012) conducted research to verify that neurological imaging technology could be used to classify leaders into transformational and non-transformational types. They also used psychometric assessment tools to identify the leadership styles of the subjects. They found that transformational and non-transformational leaders can be distinguished via qEEG (quantitative EEG) data. Neuroscience has great prospects for providing meaningful insights into the working mechanisms of leaders' brains as well as what their decision-making patterns look like in business settings.

Variations in human behaviour in the workplace are thought to mainly stem from differences in perception of environmental stimuli and personal motivational styles (Angrave et al., 2016). Failing to appreciate these variations may create problems that will eventually lead to organizational changes, loss of key employees, and elimination of some capabilities. Accordingly, the central objective of this article is to understand how particular aspects of psychology (e.g., intrinsic motivation) and social cognitive and affective neuroscience can be integrated in the light of ON to explain the added value of neuro-leadership for the well-being of the business environment.

Leadership studies still have a long way to go in analysing the implicit stages of followers' needs and leaders' responses to them. The Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (Deci and Ryan, 1985) may serve as a bridge between leadership studies and ON. Without psychological theories behind the leadership approach, it might not be possible for ON to explain organizational behaviour and contribute to the expansion of knowledge in future leadership theories. The aim of this article was to combine what is known in

the field of ON with existing leadership theories by discussing the crucial contributions made by SDT (Deci et al., 1989) to the neuro-leadership approach.

SDT focuses on the fascinating ways in which the internalization of motivation occurs in human beings. Deci and Ryan (1985) offered two influence mechanisms for this internalization process: self-regulation and the social context. According to SDT, different forms of motivation have the potential to result in different attitudes and behaviours (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Levesque et al., 2008). Non-consciously determined regulations coming from unconscious triggers may result in researchers and professionals misinterpreting workplace behaviours and their explanations for them (Levesque et al., 2008). In this regard, since neuroscience provides an understanding of the network systems of the brain, the application of neuroscience in organizations can be extremely useful for studying workplace behaviours. Neuroscience can unlock the implicit mechanisms inside the brain originating in its primal parts (Becker, Cropanzano, and Sanfey, 2011). Waldman and colleagues (2017) offered a model that integrates neuroscience and moral psychology to explicate the moral reasoning of ethical leaders. Understanding the leadership approach through neurological studies is expected to clarify the intrinsic motivation and internalization that SDT explains and is mostly used by the neuro-leadership approach (Rock, 2011). This approach encompasses the competence, relatedness, and autonomy dimensions of SDT. Competence is related to cognitive motor and social growth. Relatedness is a state that increases motivational sources for internalization and guarantees a more effective transmission of group knowledge which, in turn, helps to create a more cohesive social organization. Lastly, is autonomy, which is the propensity toward self-regulation of action and coherence in the individual's behavioural aims (Deci and Ryan, 2000).

The main purpose of this article is to clarify the contributions of ON to understanding human behaviour and then to use these findings to improve the neuro-leadership approach while at the same time retaining SDT to explain intrinsic human motivation factors in the business environment. Therefore, first, the core concepts of ON, social cognitive and affective neuroscience, and neuro-leadership are described and what is meant by cognitive and affective neuroscience in organizational settings is clarified. Second, the main motivational factors of successful leadership approaches as seen through the lens of SFT theory are explained so as to understand how the neuro-leadership approach can use SDT to improve leadership theories. Neuro-leadership will be a way of combining psychological theories and organizational neuroscience. Overall, this article makes a contribution to the development of a new leadership approach in the field of neuro-leadership.

Theoretical Background

To provide theoretical clarity to organizational neuroscience as a form of predicting and modifying behaviours, the core concepts of organizational neuroscience, social cognitive and affective neuroscience, Self-Determination Theory, and neuro-leadership are explained and discussed.

Organizational Neuroscience

Neuroscience explicates the network systems of the brain and how the brain functions because of them. Combining the study of neuroscience with that of organizations creates a highly attractive domain for the examination and investigation of workplace behaviours. The essential part of its attractiveness comes from its ability to clarify intrinsic mechanisms inside the brain originating from the primal parts therein. To illustrate neuroscience's role in human behaviour, Hughes and Zaki (2015) use it to understand the role of motivation in cognition as it affects self-perception, perception of others, and intergroup relations. In addition, Becker, Cropanzano, and Sanfey (2011) indicated that the investigation of the human brain's cognitive systems, which shape especially the intrinsic mechanisms behind human behaviour, will significantly expand the knowledge of organizational behaviour and industrial psychology. Organizational neuroscience is a multidisciplinary field that combines brings together neuroscience, organizational and cognitive psychology, management science, and neuro-economics. According to Becker et al., 2011, combining neuroscience and organizational behaviour as a research area will help management scholars to understand the primary reasons for employee behaviours by clarifying the neuron's activation process. In this regard, neuroscience provides greater details about the network systems of the brain. Neuroscience has an important role to play in studying and understanding workplace behaviours, and in explaining the relationship between cognition and behaviour.

Social cognitive and affective neuroscience

Developments in neuroimaging have made it possible to better understand the neural bases of behaviour and how decision-making occurs in the brain. Social cognitive and affective neuroscience (SCAN), while a new research area, it is not quite a discipline distinct from social cognitive neuroscience. Its utility lies in its adding the "affective" behavioural aspect in emotion regulation and self-control. As pointed out by Hassin, Ochsner, and Trope (2010), SCAN aims to elucidate the psychological facets

of human behaviour by taking into consideration the social aspects of behaviour, the cognitive features of the mental process, and the neural bases of the behaviour in question. The social component of behaviour takes into account the question of why there are differences in self-control in different types of personalities and situations. The cognitive element is concerned with information processing within the framework of how psychological processes, including memory, attention, emotion, and attitude, initiate social-level processes. The main objective of SCAN researchers is to understand how a person exercises self-control over his emotional response while cognitively reinterpreting his feelings by changing the reasoning behind the behaviour (Hassin et al., 2010).

Scholars have been focusing not only on the cognitive but also the affective aspect of human behaviour. Beugre (2018) described organizations as arenas of affect production. In these arenas, employees interact with one another with the objective of working together or for other people. While employees interact with each other, they experience a variety of emotional states. Emotions will determine their immediate reactions, long-term attitudes, and behaviour towards co-workers, subordinates, or top managers. The field of affective neuroscience, which focuses on the neural basis of emotions and the effects of brain structure on emotions and emotional regulations, emerged at the beginning of the 21st century (Davidson et al., 2000; Phan et al., 2005; Vul et al., 2009). Since emotions at work are a very crucial concept for organizational behaviour research, several studies have focused on the reasons for the human emotions that affect attitudes and actual behavioural patterns in the work environment (Hatfield et al., 1993; Waldman and Reina, 2014).

In this regard, it is essential to describe the function of the amygdala in the brain. The amygdala is part of the limbic system of the brain and plays an important role in shaping a person's attitudes, perceptions, emotions, and stereotyping. The reactions of the amygdala, especially to emotional stimulus, are extremely rapid, without taking into consideration any objective or rational aspect of the existing circumstances. Hence, emotions will have a critical impact on the decision-making process and a person's reactions toward other people. In addition, emotions will change people's thinking patterns about specific subjects. For example, when a person is calm, the frontal lobes, which govern rational thinking, will slow down the decision-making process. In contrast, when a person is angry, stressed, or scared, the amygdala takes over and accelerates decision-making. Behaviours are generated using only a small amount of information that is based on feelings. These types of quickly made decisions are generally off the mark or inappropriate. As indicated by Phelps (2006), a person's ability to regulate his emotional responses is a very important competency skill enabling formal social function in an environment and adaptive interactions in society.

The neuro-leadership approach is based on the idea that the success of leaders depends on how they regulate their emotions as well as those of the other employees. So, understanding emotions in a work environment will help regulate and control those emotions.

Self-determination theory

Leadership research has been based on quite different perspectives. Such theories of leadership as transactional leadership, servant leadership, and resonant leadership are grounded on a primal human factor called satisfaction of psychological needs. The satisfaction of psychological needs will mainly result in job satisfaction, motivation, and employee well-being. Gomez-Baya and Lucia-Casademunt (2018) stress that the inner resources of an individual, such as his potentialities, capacities, and sensibilities, are crucial to his improvement, integration with a group, and involvement in the challenging tasks faced in the work environment. Therefore, the inner potentials of a person and the satisfaction of his basic needs are essential to creating successful business environments. The foremost mentioned theory on need satisfaction is Self-Determination Theory, which has begun to acquire greater importance in improving work efficiency in a business environment.

Deci, Connell, and Ryan (1989) also argued that the satisfaction of people's psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness is critical for optimal human development.

Moreover, Self-Determination Theory maintains that these psychological needs are universal. According to Deci & Ryan (2000, p. 229), "SDT regards needs as specific innate psychological nutriments that are essential for ongoing psychological growth, integrity, and well-being." The neglect of any of these psychological needs will have a very significant effect on life. Similarly, Deci and Ryan (2000) highlight that on the basis of SDT, if the psychological needs of competence, relatedness, and autonomy are not met, the deeper needs of human psychology, such as reaching effectiveness, connectedness, and coherence can be compromised.

Gagne and Deci (2005) point out that the roots of SDT extend to the main natural processes that work with basic psychological needs for intrinsic motivation and internalization. Gagne and Deci (2005, p.6) stated that "people need to feel competent and autonomous to maintain their intrinsic motivation." They add that the satisfaction of the need for relatedness is also vital for the internalization of values or tasks.

STD considers competence to be a psychological need that can galvanize human activity. Relatedness is described as a person's desire to feel connected to other people. This concept includes giving and receiving love and caring and being cared about

(Baumeister and Leany, 1995). Autonomy refers to the desire for self-organized experiences and behaviours. These experiences are integrated with a sense of self (Ryan, Connell, and Ryan, 1989; Sheldom and Elliot, 1999). SDT explains that competence is imperative for optimal challenges, practical achievement, and approval in social settings. Relatedness has to do with looking for attachment, feelings of security, and belongingness to a group. These are mainly the result of seeking intimacy with others. Autonomy is to be self-organized and preferred to having one's behaviour controlled from the outside. These psychological needs will assist people in becoming more competent in fulfilling their tasks and more socialized with other people within an organizational setting or in their social lives.

SDT Theory and Neuro-leadership

How can SDT contribute to the development of neuro-leadership studies? The answer lies in two separate mediums: leader behaviour and follower motivation. The motivational processes and the tenets of SDT both focus on conscious and unconscious mechanisms (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Gagne and Deci (2005) also explained that the satisfaction of the needs for relatedness and competence are crucial to the internalization of value and regulations. However, the degree of satisfaction of autonomy will determine how effectively a person will achieve this internalization. Accordingly, the level of autonomy developed by a person, along with his/her level of internalization, can be further understood by using neuroscientific methods.

Interestingly, neuro-leadership, which was developed by Dr. David Rock (2008), is rooted in SDT. The neuro-leadership approach of David Rock is mainly explained by the SCARF model. This model contains components of SDT, e.g., competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Expanding the components of SCARF:

- S for Status: Individuals pay more attention to determining their social status in the social environment so as to be able to understand their social influence vis-à-vis others. Social status will determine the strength of their influence and the respect others have for them in society or the work environment. Ringleb, Rock, and Ancona (2013) discussed an FMRI experiment that measured brain activities in the ventral striatum, which is responsible for value and reward processing. In this experiment, participants having dissimilar social statuses were exposed to different information coming from somebody having a relatively higher or lower status. This study showed that individuals pay more attention and respect to information coming from people with higher status. So, it can be said that a person would like to improve and not lose his/her social status in society. Having a higher status improves their intrinsic motivation to enhance their cognitive and social skills in order to be a more respected person. This can be explained by the competence part of SDT.

- C for Certainty: People need clarity and predictability while avoiding ambiguity, which activates the threat circuitry in the brain. Rock (2008) states that the brain looks for familiar situations in order to conserve brain energy. The human brain prefers to be on an auto-pilot by using already wired neural connections for similar situations. In contrast, ambiguity will create a threat response, which stops a person in his tracks and makes him focus all his attention on a new situation. The novel situation may encourage a person to find creative solutions for any problems arising, but excessive, long-lasting uncertainty will decrease performance and make people anxious. This will lead a person to make poor decisions, mainly based on pre-existing prejudices (Ringleb, Rock, and Ancona, 2013), and past experiences. This is a basic need of human beings that must be satisfied.

- A for Autonomy: Autonomy enables a person to establish a sense of control over events. Thus, it reflects an individual's power over other people and his ability to make their own decisions as they related to his personal life (Inesi et al., 2011). In addition, autonomy activates the ventral striatum, which is key to the brain's reward system (Leotti and Delgado, 2011). By providing response options to a situation or event, autonomy makes people feel more confident and less stressed. This is consistent with SDT's approach towards propensities in the area of self-regulation of action and coherence in the organism's behavioural aims.

- R for Relatedness: A basic human need is to be a part of a social environment. People continually seek a sense of safety while interacting with others and try to understand whether the person they encounter is a "friend" or "foe" (Ringleb, Rock, and Ancona, 2013). Kogan et al. (2011) stated that a person will decide whether a stranger is trustworthy, kind, or compassionate within 20 seconds of meeting him. In the business setting, developing teams place a high priority on improving relatedness among team members. As put forth by SDT, relatedness improves belongingness and enhances motivation among team members. Moreover, relatedness among team members facilitates the transmission of knowledge to others in the group; it enables it to become a more cohesive social organization through trust among team members.

- F for Fairness: Fairness has to do with a person's perception of how available sources are distributed among the other members of the group to which he belongs. A perception of unfairness results in hostile behaviours and a lack of collaboration among the team members. Research done by Ringleb, Rock, and Ancona (2013) showed that emotions become intense when an unfair situation is perceived and that the amygdala takes control over both the emotions and the decision-making process. In contrast, the prefrontal cortex, which mainly controls rational decision-making, becomes inactive. The transparency of information is essential to developing a perception of fairness and certainty.

In short, fairness will improve trust and relatedness among team members. This will enhance the autonomy in making decisions. Finally, a person is more likely to have better internal motivation to acquire new skills and abilities so as to achieve a better status in society. Neuro-leadership shows how the fields of psychology, neuroscience, and leadership are interlaced in management studies. However, in addition to SDT, outcomes of organizational neuroscience studies have shown that another fundamental approach to the development of leadership skills may be focusing on emotions.

Discussion

The leadership approach has been studied for decades from different perspectives, including transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1993; Eisenbach et al., 1999), charismatic leadership (Conger and Kanungo, 1994), and resonant leadership (Boyzatzis and Mckee, 2006). Future leaders are expected to be more responsive, flexible, and adaptive while accomplishing company targets. A new direction in leadership studies has arisen with the recent advances in brain research, which aims at finding a relationship between the changes in context and organizational transformation (Rock and Schwartz, 2006).

Previous management studies focused on left brain and right brain differences. They included, for example, research on "planning on the left side and managing on the right side" Mintzberg (1976), "left brain/right brain mythology and implications for management and training" Hines (1987), and "how hardwired is human behaviour?" Nicholson (1998). Analyses of leadership behaviours began to use new technologies in the field of neuroscience, such as EEG (Electroencephalography), fMRI, and eye-tracking. For example, Edison, Juhro, Avlia, and Widiasih (2018), pointing to the expectation that future leaders be more agile while accomplishing the company targets, investigated aspects of leadership together with cognitive functions and brain activity patterns. They looked at the impact of neurofeedback on brain activities and concluded that leadership style was related to a person's brain activity pattern.

In addition, cognition and emotion were theorized and examined concurrently in order to fully understand the neurological basis of effective leadership. For example, Waldman, Balthazard, and Peterson (2011) were interested in finding out whether neuroscience could provide data relevant to underlying brain patterns associated with inspirational leadership. Their research demonstrated that right frontal coherence was positively associated with an improvement in socialized vision. If the coherence of socialized vision is high, followers may perceive leaders as inspirational or charismatic leaders. Overall, the high neurological coherence with respect to socialized vision will be an indication of "effective leadership." Therefore, neuroscience may prove useful in uncovering how a leader's brain is working and how he is going to make decisions in business life.

Furthermore, using what is discovered about brain functioning in the domain of management and organization has the potential to simplify and reduce explanations of human behaviours to molecular, hormonal, or neural levels (Becker et al., 2011). Thibault and colleagues (2015) drew attention to the placebo effects of neurofeedback, which means providing real-time illustrations to shed light on the activities of the brain when there are stimuli. Thus, while neuroscience has the potential to add a complementary level to organizational analysis to explain the relationship between cognition and behaviour, this article aimed at extending this to the leadership domain through the addition of Self-Determination Theory.

Many leadership perspectives, for example, transformational leadership, address such variables in the workplace as motivation, employees' self-identification with the group, improvement in self-efficacy, and combination of work values with follower's values (Shamir, Zakay, Breinin and Porpper, 1998). As shown in the previous sections, the theory put forth in this article uses STD theory to improve work efficiency in business settings. In order to increase people's inner motivation to learn and grow, basic psychological needs (e.g., competence, autonomy, and relatedness) should be satisfied. According to SDT, open-mindedness, interest in the environment, and keenness to learn are key to a person being able to better adapt to new, constantly changing conditions. When people do not get satisfaction from learning new things on their own, they will be less likely to use their own potential to develop new skills to adapt to new environmental conditions (Deci and Ryan, 2000).

David Rock (2011) maintained that strong analytical thinking and intelligence are not enough for effective management. Social interaction is much more important than technical skills and mental capacity. Recent developments in technology within the field of organizational neuroscience have helped throw light on how human brains perceive situations. As Liberman and Eisenberger (2008) have shown, many social experiences share the same brain connections to maximize reward and minimize threats in order to stay alive. Hence, the brain sees social threats in much the same way as it does threats to satisfying such essential needs for food and water. David Rock (2008) created what is referred to as the SCARF model to clarify common factors that will lead to generating a reward or threat response in a business situation. While the SCARF model comes from social neuroscience, it uses SDT to explain which psychological needs must be met to ensure effective leadership capability. These universal psychological needs can be observed in any business entity in the world. The SCARF model details how status, certainty, relatedness, autonomy, and fairness will trigger either primal reward or primal threat responses in the brain. Effective management relies on an environment

where situations are easily understood, remembered, and recognized in order to organize employees in such a way that they work more efficiently and are more motivated to achieve business goals.

However, the SCARF model is not sufficient to handle all problematic situations that leaders face daily in their professions. The basic principle of minimizing danger and maximizing reward, as discussed by Gordon (2008), helps people stay alive by means of quick responses to environmental stimuli. This response is primarily handled via the amygdala, which is a part of the limbic system and responsible for emotional responses. When the human brain senses a threat from an outside situation, the functions of the prefrontal cortex decrease while the functions of the amygdala increase. Arnsten (1988) highlighted this negative relationship and said that there will be less oxygen and glucose available for the brain functions of working memory and conscious processing. This gives rise to the inhibition of the perception of important signals or information needed to solve the problem at hand. The amygdala usually pays more attention to a generalization of a situation while believing coincidental connections of details for it. Moreover, when the amygdala is activated, a person usually shows defensive reactions to a stimulus. For example, the non-smiling face of the boss may be perceived by an employee as a threat. This may result in the tendency to avoid risk taking by not meeting with the boss to ask questions. Ochsner (2008) stated that strong emotions may reduce the capacity for the self-regulation of emotional responses. The SCARF model will help to identify the main threat stimuli that may produce emotional responses and to label them in order to start reappraising situations as non-threat situations.

Although emotional regulation is usually associated with self-control in the fields of psychology and philosophy, cutting-edge neuroimaging technologies have enabled neuroscience researchers to investigate the neural basis of the emotional regulation process. Therefore, social cognitive and affective neuroscience assists in linking the social, cognitive, and affective processes that compromise a person's self-control and shows how the neural system works during this process. Neuroscience has been used in studies dealing with emotional regulation in educational settings (Martin and Ochsner, 2016), emotions, plasticity, context, and regulations (Davidson et al., 2000), and aversive emotion regulation via social buffering achieved through the neural process model (Bratec et al., 2020). Kross and Ochsner (2010) indicated that several different brain areas are engaged at the same time while forming emotions and detecting conflicts in a situation, within self-referential processing. These components work together as a person attempts to come to terms with his emotions. Researchers have looked at how reappraising negative emotions can affect neural systems and differentiate brain activities (Ochsner et al., 2002). Lang, Bradley, and Cuthbart (1990) conducted a study that dealt with how the cingulate and prefrontal cortex play important roles in assisting a person in reappraising stimuli and regulating responses resulting from negative emotions. They used fMRI imaging to study changes in neural paths during attempts at reappraisal aimed at increasing or decreasing negative emotions. The study results showed that in both strategies there was modulated activity in the left amygdala. Activation of the amygdala increased during attempts at increasing and decreased during attempts at decreasing (Ochsner et al., 2004). Kross and Ochsner (2010) showed that if people can change how they feel, they can direct themselves to think differently. So, in light of these studies, a new approach in leadership development studies should provide self-training in reappraising stimulus in a positive way while dealing with problems in the business environment instead of only dealing with standard leadership development training.

Therefore, organizational neuroscience has a significant potential to become a major part of organizational theory by using human brain functions to understand behaviour. This article aimed at demonstrating how the fields of neuroscience, psychology, and leadership studies can be combined to create a new way of understanding effective management behaviour under conditions of intense business competition. Psychological theories can be considered a bridge between leadership and neuroscience studies. In order to portray successful leadership attributes, psychological theories like self- determination theory should be well analyzed while explaining the effect of organizational neuroscience on contemporary leadership theories such as neuro-leadership. In addition, the critical impact of emotional regulation ability on leadership behaviour patterns should receive more attention in developing new leadership training programs.

Implications for HR

In today's world, businesses are faced with fast-moving changes on the economic, political, and environmental fronts. More recent HR studies have placed importance on such leadership capabilities as agility and adaptability. However, HR professionals have to bear in mind the results of the study done by Deci and Ryan (2000). They showed that if the basic psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness are not satisfied by management, employees will not pay attention to learning new skills to adapt to new conditions; they will unwillingly use their potential to solve the difficult problems suddenly faced due to very dynamic business conditions. HR professionals should pay more attention to understanding brain functions and the cognitive aspects of the decision-making process. Cognitive and affective neuroscience research points to critical aspects of brain function during specific behaviour in the business environment. These outcomes can help HR professionals understand the behavioural patterns of leaders and how to improve their specific leadership abilities. The neuro-leadership approach covers mostly the satisfaction of basic skills plus fairness. In addition to neuro-leadership, recognition of the need for emotional regulation is another critical concept that needs

to be incorporated into HR studies. Contemporary leadership training should cover self-training in reappraising environmental stimuli in a positive way while dealing with managerial problems in the business setting.

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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://cjnr.mcgill.ca

e) Journal Article wih 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/10.1080/0731713 1003765910

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 Pro-Quest 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 cul-*

tural practices in Ege University (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Retrieved from: http://library.iyte.edu.tr/tr/hizli-erisim/iyte-tez-portali

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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.html

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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