



NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION PROGRAM

**TIME AND STRESS MANAGEMENT: COMPARATIVE SAMPLE OF
NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY AND HAKKARI UNIVERSITY**

HİKMET YAŞAR

PhD THESIS

NICOSIA
2020

**TIME AND STRESS MANAGEMENT: COMPARATIVE SAMPLE OF
NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY AND HAKKARI UNIVERSITY**

HİKMET YAŞAR

NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION PROGRAM

PhD THESIS

THESIS SUPERVISOR
PROF. DR. MUSTAFA SAĞSAN

NICOSIA
2020

ACCEPTANCE/APPROVAL

We as the jury members certify the '**Time and Stress Management: Comparative Sample of Near East University and Hakkari University**' prepared by the HİKMET YAŞAR defended on 20/06/2020 has been found satisfactory for the award of degree of Phd.

JURY MEMBERS

.....
Prof. Dr. Mustafa SAĞSAN (Supervisor)
Near East University
Information and Document Management

.....
Prof. Dr. Oğuz ÖZYARAL (Head of Jury)
İstanbul Rumeli University
Department of Health Sciences

.....
Prof. Dr. Şerife EYÜPOĞLU
Near East University
Department of Business Administration

.....
Assoc. Prof. Behiye ÇAVUŞOĞLU
Name of University
Department of Economics

.....
Asst. Prof. Dr. İlknur BİLGİN
Hakkari University
Department of Business Administration

.....
Prof. Dr. Mustafa SAĞSAN
Graduate School of Social Sciences
Director

DECLARATION

I undertake that the thesis I have prepared is entirely my own work and that I provided reference for each citation. I confirm that I have allowed the paper and electronic copies of my thesis to be kept in the archives of the Near East University Graduate School of Social Sciences under the conditions stated below.

- The full extent of my Thesis can be accesible from anywhere.
- My Thesis can only be accesible from Near East University.
- My Thesis cannot be accesible for two(2) years. If I do not apply for extention at the end of this period, the full extent of my Thesis will be accesible from anywhere.

.../.../2020

Signature

Hikmet YAŞAR

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I present my eternal gratitude to Prof. Dr. Mustafa SAĞSAN, my esteemed teacher, who guided me to work on this subject, presented me with his knowledge and experience in my studies. Due to the support provided by granting the necessary permits throughout my thesis, I acknowledge Mr. Rector Prof. Dr. Mr. Ömer PAKIŞ. I want to express my feelings of loyalty and my gratitude to Prof. Dr. Oğuz ÖZYARAL, who accepted the jury presidency of my thesis despite the difficulties of the pandemic environment, and to jury members, Prof. Dr. Şerife EYUPOĞLU, Assoc. Prof. Behiye ÇAVUŞOĞLU, Asst. Prof. Dr. İlknur BİLGİN.

I owe a debt of gratitude to Mr. Mustafa ŞEKER, especially for his contributions to execution of statistical analyses in this dissertation. I give my sincere thanks to my family that never fails in sending their prayers and support in every aspect of my life as in every aspect of my life, especially to my wife, Zühal Yaşar, to my dear daughter Ezel Ikra Yaşar who always misses me when I am abroad and who is growing like my dissertation, and to my son Mohammad Baha Yaşar for his patience.

I express my faithfulness to all academic and administration personnel from Near East University and Hakkâri University due to their willingness, patience and understanding in their assistance to survey application and data collection at the field research phase of my dissertation.

ABSTRACT

TIME AND STRESS MANAGEMENT: COMPARATIVE SAMPLE OF NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY AND HAKKARI UNIVERSITY

Peter F. Drucker, one of the authorities of the field of management, said: "Time is the scarcest resource. If it cannot be managed correctly, nothing can be considered correctly managed", emphasizing the importance of time management. One of the indispensable factors of organizational efficiency is efficient use and management of time. Time has been an effective phenomenon in all phases of management process and in flow of all functions as the most important element of a successful management.

Using time planned and effectively reduces corporate stress as well as strengthening organizational culture. Undoubtedly, like any educational institutions whose core output is to produce services, universities are to use time management, stress management and organizational cultural phenomena effectively as an instrument of management.

Objective: The aim of this study is to compare the time and stress management skills of Hakkâri University and Near East University employees. In this study, while exploring differences between the two universities with diversity tests, it will also be examined to determine the extent to which the organizational culture predicts the time management attitudes and the mediating role of organizational stress in the prediction procedure.

Method: The universe of this research, which is in definitional quality, consists of the academic and administrative personnel working in the Near East University and Hakkari University. In the study, easy sampling methods were preferred among non-incidental sampling methods. In this context, the study was carried with a sample group of 638 people who were willing to participate in the research. The survey method, among quantitative methods, was used in data collection. In addition to the demographic information form, the survey form used the time management scale, perceived stress, organizational stress and Hofstede organization culture scale. Relations

between time and stress management and culture have been tested both by regression analysis and a model of structural equality.

Results: It was determined that there were significant differences between time planning, perception of stress, perceived stress, workload, organizational stress, masculinity/fission, long-term focus between the two universities; between power distance, avoidance of uncertainty, long-term focus; between Hofstede culture and organizational stress, Hofstede culture and time management; between time management and perceived stress, and time management and organizational stress; it was determined that Organizational culture statistically and significantly predicted time management and organizational stress of university employees; and organizational stress statistically and significantly predicted the time management of university employees. It was also determined that organizational stress had an intermediary role between university organization culture and university employees' time management.

Discussion: Organizational culture in a university was thought to guide employees towards time management through organizational stress. In addition to organizational culture effect, it was observed that changes occurring in organizational stress sources were also important in leading to time management. In this context, the current study is thought to provide beneficial information to experts on this subject since it contributes to the relevant literature by addressing university organizational culture, organizational stress and university employees' time management together.

Keywords: Time management, stress management, Hofstede culture, Organizational culture, Organizational stress, Perceived stress, Structural equality model, Intermediary role

ÖZ

ZAMAN VE STRES YÖNETİMİ: YAKIN DOĞU ÜNİVERSİTESİ VE HAKKÂRİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ KARŞILAŞTIRMALI ÖRNEĞİ

Yönetim alanının otoritelerinden Peter F. Drucker'ın "Zaman en az bulunan kaynaktır. Eğer o doğru yönetilemiyorsa hiçbir şey doğru yönetilmiş sayılamaz" ifadesi, zaman yönetiminin önemini ortaya koymaktadır. Örgütsel verimliliğin vazgeçilmez faktörlerinden birisi, zamanın etkili olarak kullanılması ve yönetilmesidir. Zaman, başarılı bir yönetimin en önemli unsuru olarak yönetim sürecinin tüm aşamalarında ve tüm fonksiyonların akışında etkili bir olgu olmuştur.

Zamanı planlı ve etkin kullanmak, kurumsal stresi azalttığı gibi örgütsel kültürün de güçlenmesini sağlar. Şüphesiz, merkezinde insan olan ve temel çıktısı hizmet üretmek olan her eğitim kurumu gibi üniversiteler de zaman yönetimi, stres yönetimi ve örgütsel kültür olgularını birer yönetim enstrümanı olarak etkin kullanmak durumundadırlar.

Amaç: Bu çalışmanın amacı, Hakkâri Üniversitesi ve Yakın Doğu Üniversitesi çalışanlarının zaman ve stres yönetimi becerilerini karşılaştırmalı olarak incelemektir. Bu çalışmada farklılık testleri ile iki üniversite arasındaki farklılıklar araştırılırken örgüt kültürünün zaman yönetimi tutumlarını ne ölçüde yordadığının belirlenmesi ve yordamada örgütsel stresin aracılık rolü de irdelenmektedir.

Yöntem: Tanımsal nitelikteki bu araştırmanın evrenini Yakın Doğu Üniversitesi ve Hakkari Üniversitesi'nde görev yapan akademik ve idari personeller teşkil etmektedir. Çalışmada, tesadüfi olmayan örnekleme yöntemlerinden kolayda örnekleme yöntemi tercih edilmiştir. Bu kapsamda, araştırmaya katılmaya gönüllü olan 638 kişilik bir örneklem grubuyla çalışılmıştır. Veri toplamada nicel yöntemlerden anket yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Anket formunda demografik bilgi formunun yanı sıra zaman yönetimi ölçeği, algılanan stres, örgütsel stres ve Hofstede örgüt kültür ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Zaman ve stres yönetimi ile kültür arasındaki ilişkiler hem regresyon analizleri hem de yapısal eşitlik modeli ile test edilmiştir.

Sonuçlar: İki üniversite arasında zaman planlaması, stres algısı, algılanan stres, iş yükü, örgütsel stres, erillik/dişillik, uzun zamana odaklanma arasında; akademik ve idari unvan gruplarına göre güç mesafesi, belirsizlikten kaçınma, uzun zamana odaklanma arasında anlamlı farklılar bulunduđu; Hofsete kültürü ile örgütsel strese arasında, Hofstede kültür ile zaman yönetimi arasında, zaman yönetimi ile algılanan stres arasında ve zaman yönetimi ile örgütsel stres arasında anlamlı ilişkiler olduđu; Örgüt kültürü, üniversite çalışanlarının zaman yönetimi ve örgütsel stresi; örgütsel stres de üniversite çalışanlarının zaman yönetimini istatistiksel olarak anlamlı biçimde yordadığı görülmüştür. Örgütsel stresin, üniversite örgüt kültürü ile üniversite çalışanlarının zaman yönetimi arasında kısmi aracılık rolü olduđu da tespit edilmiştir.

Tartışma: Üniversite örgüt kültürünün çalışanların zaman yönetimine örgütsel stres aracılığıyla yöneldiđi düşünölmektedir. Örgüt kültürü etkisine ek olarak örgütsel stres kaynaklarında meydana gelen deđişikliklerin zaman yönetimine yol açmada önemli olduđu görölmektedir. Bu bağlamda mevcut çalışmanın üniversite örgüt kültürü, örgütsel stres ve üniversite çalışanlarının zaman yönetimini birlikte alarak ilgili literatüre katkı yaparak konunun uzmanlarına fayda verecek bilgiler sağladığı düşünölmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Zaman yönetimi, Stres yönetimi, Hofstede kültürü, Örgüt kültürü, Örgütsel stres, Algılanan stres, Yapısal eşitlik modeli, Aracılık rolü

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACCEPTANCE/APPROVAL	
DECLARATION	
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZ.....	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	viii
TABLE LIST	xvii
FIGURE LIST.....	xxiii
ABBREVIATIONS	xxiv
CHAPTER 1	
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Problem Status.....	1
1.2 Objective of the Research	3
1.3 Importance of the Research.....	4
1.4 Limitations.....	4
CHAPTER 2	
TIME MANAGEMENT AND THEORIC FOUNDATIONS	5
2.1. An Overview of the Concept of Time and the Importance of Time ...	5
2.1.1. Time Concept and its Importance.....	5
2.1.2. Time Management Concept	7
2.1.3. Time Management Concept	8
2.1.3.1. Time Usage Analysis	9
2.1.3.2. Defining Time Problems	10
2.1.3.3. Self-Identification	10
2.1.3.4. Setting goals and priorities	11
2.1.3.5. Transferring program goals to implementation plans	11
2.1.3.6. Preparing daily programs and guides.....	11
2.1.3.7. Improving time management techniques	11

2.1.3.8. Monitoring and rebuilding the process	11
2.1.4. Time Management and Pareto Policy Analysis	12
2.2. Time Types	13
2.2.1. Real (Objective) Time.....	13
2.2.2. Psychological (Subjective) Time	13
2.2.3. Biological (Instinctive) Time	14
2.3. Classic Approaches in Time Management and Analysis	14
2.3.1. Regular Life Approach.....	14
2.3.2. Warrior Approach.....	15
2.3.3. ABC Approach.....	16
2.4. Classic Approaches in Time Management and Analysis	17
2.4.1. Magic Tool Approach.....	17
2.4.2. Skill Approach.....	17
2.4.3. Goal Setting Approach	18
2.4.4. Improvement Approach.....	18
2.4.5. Drop Yourself in the Current Approach	18
2.5. Advantages and Disadvantages of Time Management Approaches	19
2.5.1. Regular Life Approach.....	19
2.5.2. Warrior Approach.....	19
2.5.3. ABC Approach.....	20
2.5.4. Magic Tool Approach.....	20
2.5.5. Skill Approach.....	21
2.5.6. Goal Setting Approach	21
2.5.7. Improvement Approach.....	21
2.1.5.8. Drop Yourself in the Current Approach	22
2.6. Time Management Types	22
2.6.1. Management of Personal Time	22
2.6.2. Management of Work Time	24
2.6.3. Management of Managerial Time.....	24
2.6.4. Management of Organizational Time.....	25
2.7. Problems and Time Traps Encountered in Organizational Time Management	26
2.7.1 Time Traps Arising from Person.....	26

2.7.1.1. Uncertainty of Priorities	26
2.7.1.2. Postponement and Distraction	27
2.7.1.3. Not Being Able to Say No	28
2.7.1.4. Stress	28
2.7.1.5. Negative Personal Attitude	28
2.7.1.6. Hastiness	29
2.7.1.7. Instability	29
2.7.1.8. Avoiding the Difficult	30
2.7.1.9. Being under the Control of Habits	30
2.7.1.10. Underestimating and Prejudices	30
2.7.1.11. Excessive Self-Confidence / Insecurity	31
2.7.1.12. Uncertainty of Individualistic Targets	32
2.7.1.13. Lack of Self-Discipline	32
2.7.1.14. Irregularity	33
2.7.1.15. Over-Recruiting Oneself to Work	33
2.7.1.16. Paperwork Fondness	34
2.7.1.17. Perfectionism	34
2.7.2. Time Traps Arising from Work	35
2.7.2.1 Inadequate Secretarial Services	36
2.7.2.2. Visitors	36
2.7.2.3. Frequent and Long Phone Calls	37
2.7.2.4. Organizational Uncertainty and Crisis Situations	37
2.7.2.5. Routine and Unnecessary Work	38
2.7.2.6 Business Trips	38
2.7.2.7 Device Faults	39
2.7.2.8 Meetings	39
2.7.3 Time Traps Arising from Management Mentality	41
2.7.3.1. Inadequate Communication	42
2.7.3.2. Open Door Policy	42
2.7.3.3. Uncertainty of Individualistic Targets	43
2.7.3.4. Lack of Coordination	43
2.7.3.5. Avoiding the Transfer of Authority	44
2.7.3.6. Inadequate Planning	45

2.7.3.7. Uncertainty of task and job definitions	46
2.7.4. Time Traps Arising from Organizational Structures and Policies	46
2.7.4.1. Central and Hierarchical Organizational Structure	46
2.7.4.2. Office Pathology.....	47
2.7.4.3. Non-Ergonomic (Unhealthy) Working Environment	47
2.7.4.4. Officialism.....	48
2.8. Instruments for Effective Time-Use.....	48
2.8.1. Planning.....	49
2.8.2. Benefiting from Technology	50
2.8.3. Learning Fast Reading Techniques.....	51
2.8.4. Memory Development and Increase Memory Efficiency	52
2.8.5. Selection of Efficient Time and Energy Periods.....	55
2.9. Some Studies Conducted on Time Management in Turkey and Abroad	56

CHAPTER 3

CONCEPT of STRESS, STRESS MANAGEMENT AND THEORETICAL APPROACHES.....	65
3.1. Concept of Stress in General, its Discovery.....	65
3.1.1. Types of Stress Concept	67
3.1.1.1 Physical Stress.....	67
3.1.1.2 Emotional Stress.....	67
3.1.2. Positive and Negative Stresses	68
3.1.2.1. Positive Stress	68
3.1.2.2. Negative Stress	69
3.2. Stress-Forming Factors.....	69
3.2.1. Individual Factors	69
3.2.1.1. Personality Factors.....	69
3.2.1.2. Stress-Friendly Personality Types	71
3.2.1.2.1. Properties of Type A Behavior Type	71
3.2.1.2.2. Properties of Type A Behavior Type	72
3.2.1.3. Personal Attitudes and Behaviors Causing Stress.....	73
3.2.2. Organizational Stress Factors	74

This subtitle describes the types of organizational stress factor.	74
3.2.2.1. Stress Factors related to the Structure of the Work	75
3.2.2.1.1. Excessive and Low Workload	75
3.2.1.1.2. Job Control	76
3.2.1.1.3. Working Time	76
3.2.2.1.4. Shift Work	76
3.2.2.1.5. Wage and Career Management	77
3.2.2.1.6. Job Insecurity	77
3.2.2.1.7. Job stress	77
3.3. Stress Factors related to Organizational Culture, Climate and Structure	78
3.3.1. Stress Factors related to Organizational Culture	78
3.3.2. Stress Factors related to Organizational Climate	79
3.3.3. Stress Factors related to Organizational Structure	80
3.3.4. Mobbing as Organizational Stress Factor	81
3.3.5. Stress Factors Caused by Organizational Role.....	83
3.3.5.1. Role Uncertainty.....	83
3.3.5.2. Role Clash	84
3.4. Stress Management	84
3.4.1. Stress Management Concept	85
3.4.2. Stress Management Strategies	85
3.4.2.1. Problem-Oriented Coping Strategies	86
3.4.2.2. Emotion-Oriented Coping Strategies	87
3.4.3. Stress Management Techniques	88
3.4.3.1. Individual Stress Management Techniques.....	88
3.4.3.1.1. Physical Exercise and Sports	88
3.4.3.1.2. Change-Accept-Let Go-Manage Lifestyle (CALML)	89
3.4.3.1.3. Yoga, Zen and Meditation.....	91
3.4.3.1.4. Biofeedback.....	91
3.4.3.1.5. Social Support.....	92
3.4.3.1.6. Personal Time Management.....	92
3.4.3.1.7. Worship and Prayer	92
3.4.3.1.8. Communication	94
3.5. Organizational Stress Management and Management Techniques	94

3.5.1. Determination of Organizational Roles and Reducing Conflicts .	95
3.5.2. Improving working conditions	96
3.5.3. Redesign of Jobs	96
3.5.4. Work Rotation	97
3.5.5. Business Enrichment	97
3.5.6. Staff Strengthening.....	98
3.5.7. In-service Training Programs	99
3.5.8. Social Support Systems	99
3.6. Selye’s Systemic Stress Theory (General Compliance Syndrome)	
.....	100
3.6.1. Alarm stage	100
3.6.2. Resistance Stage	101
3.6.3. Exhaustion Phase	101
3.7. Cannon’s Approach to Fighting or Escaping	101
3.8. Lazarus’ Psychological Stress Theory.....	102
3.8.1 Consequences of Stress	104
3.9. Consequences of Stress	104
3.9.1. Individual Consequences of Stress.....	104
3.9.1.1. Physiological Results	105
3.9.1.2. Psychological Results	106
3.9.1.2.1. Anxiety	106
3.9.1.2.2. Depression and Symptoms	106
3.9.1.2.3. Insomnia	107
3.9.1.2.4. Burnout Syndrome and Symptoms	107
3.9.1.2.5. Personal Methods in the Fight against Burnout.....	109
3.9.1.3. Behavioral Results.....	109
3.9.2. Organizational Consequences of Stress	110
3.9.2.1. Poor Performance	110
3.9.2.2. Employee Circulation Speed.....	111
3.9.2.3. Absence to Work.....	112
3.9.2.4. Alienation to Work	113
3.9.2.5. Industrial Accidents	114
3.10. Some Studies on Stress and Organizational Stress Management at Home and Abroad	115

CHAPTER 4

HOFSTEDE'S THEORY of CULTURAL DIMENSIONS	119
4.1. An Overview of the Concept of Culture	119
4.2. Classification of Culture	120
4.2.1 Culture by Social Level.....	121
4.2.2. Material and Spiritual Culture	121
4.2.3. Culture on a Time Basis	121
4.3.2.4. Culture in terms of Relations with Organization and Management	122
4.3. The Concept of the Organizational Culture, and the Place of Culture in the Organization	122
4.4. Formation of Organizational Culture.....	124
4.5. Elements of Organizational Culture	125
4.5.1. Core values.....	125
4.5.2. Language	126
4.5.3. Stories and Tales	126
4.5.4. Ceremonies	127
4.5.5. Organizational Symbols	127
4.5.6. Organizational Applications.....	128
4.5.7. Assumptions	128
4.5.8. Religion and Beliefs.....	128
4.5.9. Norms.....	128
4.6. Organizational Culture Models	129
4.7. Hofstede Culture Model.....	129
4.7.1. Individualism/Communitarianism.....	131
Resource: Hofstede, 1980, p.48; 2001; Demirhan, 2017, p.90.	132
4.7.2. Power Distance	133
4.7.3. Avoiding Uncertainty	136
4.7.4. Masculinity/Feminine.....	140
4.7.5. Time Orientation.....	143
4.7.6. Tolerance and Restriction	145
4.8. Time Management in Individualist and Collectivist Culture	147

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN 148

5.1. Research Model 148

Some generally accepted information about dependent and interdependent variables is as follows. 148

5.1.1. Problem..... 149

5.1.2. Universe and Sample..... 149

5.1.3 Data Collection Tools 149

5.1.4. Process 151

5.1.4. Hypothesis..... 151

5.1.4. Analysis of Data 154

5.2. Findings..... 154

5.2.1. Frequency Tables..... 155

5.2.2. Cross Tables 158

5.2.3. One-Way Anova Tests 172

5.2.4. t-tests 254

5.2.5.1. Regression analysis for intermediary role..... 280

5.2.5.2. Analysis of Intermediary Role via Structural Equality Model.. 281

5.2.6. Correlation Analysis 292

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION..... 294

6.1. Discussion..... 294

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 302

7.1. Conclusion 302

7.2 Recommendations 316

7.2.1 Recommendations for Future Research 316

7.2.2 Recommendations for Practitioners 317

REFERENCES	319
APPENDIX.....	349
PLAGIARISM REPORT.....	355
ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL.....	356

TABLE LIST

Table 1. Eysenck Personality Sizes	70
Table 2. Causes of Organizational Stress	81
Table 3. Behavioral Physiological and Psychological Effects of Stress	110
Table 4. Differences in the Culture Dimension of Individualism and Communitarianism	132
Table 5. Social Norms of Power Distance	134
Table 6. Power Distance Dimension Corporate Norm differences.....	136
Table 7. Avoiding Uncertainty Culture Dimension Differences.....	138
Table 8: Masculinity / Feminine Culture Dimension Properties	142
Table 9: Differences between Long and Short Period-Oriented Societies	145
Table 10. Properties of Tolerance and Limitability Dimension	146
Table 11. Validity and reliability analysis of variables	155
Table 12. Age distribution	155
Table 13: Gender distribution	156
Table 14. Education level distribution	156
Table 15: Distribution of total work experience.....	157
Table 16: Title distribution.....	157
Table 17: Title Group Distribution.....	158
Table 18: University distribution.....	158
Table 19. Age Distribution by Gender	158
Table 20. Age Distribution as per Educational Field	159
Table 21. Age Distribution by Total Work Experience	160
Table 22. Age Distribution as per Task Title	161
Table 23. Age Distribution as per Title Group	162
Table 24. Age Distribution by University.....	162
Table 25. Gender Distribution as per Educational Field	163
Table 26. Gender Distribution by Total Work Experience.....	163
Table 27. Gender Distribution by Task.....	164
Table 28. Gender Distribution by University	164
Table 29. University Distribution as per Educational Field	165
Table 30. University Distribution by Total Work Experience	165
Table 31. University Distribution as per Task Title.....	166
Table 32. University Distribution as per Title Group	167
Table 33. Title Group Distribution as per Educational Field.....	167
Table 34: Title Group Distribution by Total Work Experience	168
Table 35. Title Group Distribution as per Task Title.....	169
Table 36: Educational Field Distribution by Total Work Experience ...	169
Table 37. Educational Field Distribution as per Task Title	170
Table 38. Task Title Distribution by Total Work Experience.....	171
Table 39. Time planning by age, f test results	172
Table 40. Tukey test results for which age group the differentiation in Time Planning originated	172
Table 41. Time Attitudes by age, f test results.....	173

Table 42. Tukey test results on which age group the differentiation in Time Attitudes originated.....	174
Table 43. Time-consuming by age, f test results.....	175
Table 44. Time management by age, f test results.....	175
Table 45. Tukey test results on which age group the differentiation in Time Management originated	176
Table 46. Inadequate self-sufficiency perception, f test results.....	177
Table 47. Perception of stress/discomfort by age, f test results	177
Table 48. Tukey test results for which age group the differentiation in stress/discomfort perception originated	178
Table 49: Perceived stress by age, f test results.....	179
Table 50. Work load f test results as per age.....	179
Table 51. Control by age, f test results.....	180
Table 52. Tukey test results for which age group the differentiation in control originated	181
Table 53: Social support by age, f test results	182
Table 54. Tukey test results for which age group the differentiation in social support originated	182
Table 55. Organizational stress by age, f test results	183
Table 56. Tukey test results for which age group the differentiation in organizational stress originated.....	184
Table 58. Power Distance by Age, f test results	185
Table 59. Avoiding uncertainty by age, f test results.....	185
Table 60. Individualism by age, f test results	186
Table 61. Long Time Focus by age, f test results.....	187
Table 62. Culture by age, f test results.....	187
Table 63. Organizational Stress_F1 by age, f test results	188
Table 64. Organizational Stress_F2 by age, f test results	189
Table 65. Organizational Stress_F3 by age, f test results	189
Table 66. Organizational Stress_F4 by age, f test results	190
Table 67. Organizational stress by age, f test results.....	191
Table 68. Perceived stress by age, f test results.....	191
Table 69. Time planning by educational field, f test results	192
Table 70. Time attitudes by educational field, f test results	193
Table 71. Time-consuming by Educational Field, f test results	193
Table 72. Time management by educational field, f test results.....	194
Table 73. Inadequate self-sufficiency by educational field, f test results	194
Table 77. Control by educational field, f test results.....	196
Table 78. Social support by educational field, f test results	197
Table 79. Organizational stress by educational field, f test results	197
Table 80. Masculinity by educational field, f test results.....	198
Table 81. Power distance by educational field, f test results	199
Table 82. Tukey test results for which educational field group the differentiation power distance originated from.....	199
Table 83. Avoiding uncertainty by educational field, f test results.....	200
Table 85. Long-time focus by educational field, f test results.....	201

Table 86: Culture by educational field, f test results.....	201
Table 87. Organizational Stress_F1 by educational field, f test results	202
Table 88. Organizational Stress_F2 by educational field, f test results	202
Table 89. Organizational Stress_F3 educational field, f test results....	203
Table 90. Organizational Stress_F4 educational field, f test results....	204
Table 91. Organizational stress by educational field, f test results	204
Table 93. Time planning by experience, f test results.....	205
Table 94. Time attitudes by experience, f test results.....	206
Table 95. Tukey test results on which experience group the differentiation in time attitudes originated from	207
Table 96. Time-consuming by experience, f test results	207
Table 97. Time management by experience, f test results	208
Table 98. Inadequate self-sufficiency perception by experience, f test results	209
Table 99. Perception of stress/discomfort by experience, f test results	209
Table 100. Tukey test results for which experience group the differentiation in stress/discomfort perception originated from.....	210
Table 101. Perceived stress by experience, f test results	210
Table 102. Work load as per experiences, f test results	211
Table 103. Control as per experiences, f test results.....	212
Table 104. Social support by experience, f test results	212
Table 105. Organizational stress by experience, f test results	213
Table 106. Masculinity as per experiences, f-test results.....	214
Table 107. Power distance by experience, f-test results	214
Table 108. Avoiding uncertainty by experience, f test results	215
Table 109. Individualism by experience, f-test results.....	216
Table 110. Long-time focus by experience, f-test results.....	216
Table 111. Culture as per experience, f-test results.....	217
Table 112. Organizational Stress_F1 by experience, f-test results.....	218
Table 113. Organizational Stress_F2 by experience, f-test results.....	218
Table 114. Organizational Stress_F3 by experience, f-test results.....	219
Table 115. Organizational Stress_F4 by experience, f-test results.....	220
Table 116. Organizational stress by experience, f test results	220
Table 117. Perceived stress by experience, f test results	221
Table 118. Time-planning by task title, f-test results	222
Table 119. Tukey test results for which Task/Title group the differentiation in time planning originated from.....	223
Table 120. Time-attitudes by task title, f-test results	224
Table 121. Tukey test results on which task/title group the differentiation in time attitudes originated	225
Table 122. Time-consuming by task title, f test results	226
Table 123. Time management by task title, f-test results	227
Table 124. Tukey test results on which task/title group the differentiation in time management originated from	228

Table 125. Inadequate self-sufficiency perception by task title, f-test results	229
Table 126. Perception of stress/discomfort by task title, f test results	230
Table 127. Tukey test results for which task/title group the differentiation in stress/discomfort perception originated from.....	231
Table 128. Perceived stress by task title, f test results.....	232
Table 129. Work load f test results as per task title	233
Table 130. Tukey test results on which task/title group the differentiation in work load originated from	233
Table 131. Control as per task title, f-test results.....	235
Table 132. Tukey test results for which task/title group the differentiation in control originated from.....	235
Table 133. Social support by task title, f-test results	237
Table 134. Organizational stress by task title, f-test results	237
Table 135. Tukey test results for which task/title group the differentiation in organizational stress originated from	238
Table 136. Masculinity as per task title, f-test results	239
Table 137. Power distance as per task title, f-test results	240
Table 139: Avoiding uncertainty as per task title, f-test results.....	242
Table 140. Tukey test results on which task/title group the differentiation avoiding uncertainty originated from	243
Table 141. Individualism as per task title, f-test results.....	244
Table 142. Tukey analysis was performed to determine which work title categories the differentiation in individualism originated from.....	245
Table 143. Long-time focus by task title, f-test results	246
Table 144. Tukey test results on which task/title group the differentiation in long-time focus originated from	247
Table 145. Culture as per task title, f-test results	248
Table 147. Organizational Stress_F3 by task title, f-test results.....	250
Table 148. Tukey test results for which task/title group the differentiation in organizational stress_F3 originated from	250
Table 149: Organizational stress_F4 by task title, f-test results	251
Table 150. Organisational stress by task title, f-test results	252
Table 151. Perceived stress by task title, f-test results	253
Table 152. Time planning by gender, t-test results	254
Table 153. Time attitudes by gender, t-test results	254
Table 154. Time-consuming by gender, t-test results.....	254
Table 155. Time management by gender, t-test results	255
Table 156. Inadequate self-sufficiency perception by task title, t-test results	255
Table 157. Perception of stress/discomfort by gender, t-test results..	255
Table 158. Perceived stress by gender, t-test results	256
Table 159. Work load as per gender, t-test results.....	256
Table 160. Control as per gender, t-test results	256
Table 161. Social support by gender, t-test results.....	257
Table 162. Organizational stress by gender, t-test results	257
Table 163. Masculinity as per gender, t-test results.....	257

Table 164. Power distance by gender, t-test results	258
Table 165. Uncertainty avoidance t-test results by gender	258
Table 166. Individualism as per gender, t-test results	258
Table 167. Long-time focus by gender, t-test results.....	259
Table 168. Culture by gender, t-test results.....	259
Table 169. Organizational Stress_F1 by gender, t-test results	259
Table 170. Organizational stress_F2 by gender, t-test results.....	260
Table 171. Organizational stress_F3 by gender, t-test results.....	260
Table 172. Organizational stress_F4 by Gender, t-test results	260
Table 173. Organizational stress by gender, t-test results	261
Table 174. Perceived stress by gender, t-test results	261
Table 175. Time planning by university, t-test results	261
Table 176. Time attitudes by university, t-test results	262
Table 177. Time-consuming by university, t-test results.....	262
Table 178. Time management by university, t-test results	263
Table 179. Inadequate self-sufficiency perception by university, t-test results	263
Table 180. Perception of stress/discomfort by university, t-test results	263
Table 181. Perceived stress by university, t-test results	264
Table 182. Work load by university, t-test results	264
Table 183. Control as per university, t-test results	265
Table 184. Social support by university, t-test results.....	265
Table 185. Organizational stress by university, t-test results	266
Table 186. Masculinity as per university, t-test results.....	266
Table 187. Power distance by university, t-test results	266
Table 188. Avoiding uncertainty by university, t-test results.....	267
Table 189. Individualism by university, t-test results.....	267
Table 190. Long-time focus by university, t-test results.....	268
Table 191. Culture by university, t-test results.....	268
Table 192. Administrative/academic staff by university, t-test results	268
Table 193. Organizational Stress_F1 by university, t-test results.....	269
Table 194. Organizational Stress_F2 by university, t-test results.....	269
Table 195. Organizational Stress_F3 by university, t-test results.....	270
Table 196. Organizational Stress_F4 by university, t-test results.....	270
Table 197. Organizational stress by university, t-test results	270
Table 198. Perceived stress by university, t-test results	271
Table 199. Masculinity as per title group, t-test results	271
Table 200. Power distance by title group, t-test results.....	271
Table 201. Avoiding uncertainty as per title group, t-test results.....	272
Table 202. T-test results regarding individualism levels by title group	272
Table 203. Long-time focus by title group, t-test results	273
Table 204. Organizational Stress_F1 as per title group, t-test results.	273
Table 205. Organizational Stress_F2 by title group, t-test results.....	274
Table 206. Organizational stress_F3 per title group, t-test results	274
Table 207. Organizational Stress_F4 by title group, t-test results.....	274
Table 208. Organizational stress per title group, t-test results	275

Table 209. Perceived stress by title, t-test results.....	275
Table 210. Time planning by title group, t-test results.....	275
Table 211. Time attitudes by title group, t-test results.....	276
Table 212. Time-consuming by title group, t-test results	276
Table 213. Time planning by title group, t-test results.....	277
Table 214. Inadequate self-sufficiency perception by task title, t-test results	277
Table 215. Perception of stress/discomfort by title group, t-test results	277
Table 216. Perceived stress by title group, t-test results	278
Table 217. Work load by title group, t-test results.....	278
Table 218. Control as per title group, t-test results.....	278
Table 219. Social support by title group, t-test results	279
Table 220. Organizational stress per title group, t-test results	279
Table 221. Culture as per title group, t-test results	279
Table 222. Regression analyses examining inter-variable effects.....	280
Table 223. Harmony indices for Hofstede culture scale	283
Table 224. Compliance indexes for time management scale	284
Table 225. KMO and Barlett Test Results for perceived stress scale..	284
Table 226. Factor Analysis for Perceived Stress.....	285
Table 227. Fit indices for perceived stress scale	286
Table 228. KMO and Bartlett Test Results for organizational stress scale	286
Table 229. Factor analysis results of organizational stress scale.....	287
Table 231. Fit indices for organizational stress scale.....	289
Table 232. Fit indices of scales.....	291
Table 233. Regression Coefficients of Relations between Variables ..	291
Table 234. Direct and indirect effect analysis results for intermediary role of Model 2.....	292
Table 235. Correlation analysis examining the relationship between perceived stress, organizational stress, time management and Hofstede culture	292
Table 236. Acceptance/rejection status of hypotheses	297

FIGURE LIST

Figure 1. Active Time Management Process	9
Figure 2. Pareto Time Policy	12
Figure 3. CALML Model	90
Figure 4. Research Model.....	148
Figure 5. Hofstede culture diagram	282
Figure 6. Time management diagram.....	283
Figure 7. Perceived stress diagram.....	285
Figure 8. 4-factor diagram of organizational stress scale	288
Figure 9. Test results of Model 1	290
Figure 10. Test results of Model 2	290

ABBREVIATIONS

AMOS	: Analysis of Moment Structures
US	: United States of America
AGFI	: Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index
CFI	: Comparative Fit Index
DFA	: Explanatory Factor Analysis
CALML	: Change-Accept-Let Go--Manage Lifestyle
GAS	: General Adaptation Syndrome
WHO	: World Health Organization
IBM	: International Business Machines
OSS	: Organizational Stress Scale
OCS	: Organizational Culture Scale
SPSS	: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
RMSEA	: Root Error of Approximation Mean Square
GFI	: Goodness of Fit Index
RMR	: Root Mean Square Residual
NFI	: Normed Fit Index
RFI	: Relative Fit Index
IFI	: Incremental Fit Index
KMO	: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
ER	: Masculinity
CEO	: Power Distance
AU	: Avoiding Uncertainty
AU	: Individualism/collectiveness
LT	: Long-Term

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Problem Status

Today, the event of change experienced rapidly and in an inadmissible way has confronted organizations and people with phenomenon of adapting to changes around them. In an environment of global competition, it depends on organizations being able to maintain their presence and perform well, to develop the right organizational and management strategies, make the right decisions, and make the most appropriate changes that need to be made in a timely and rapid manner. Universities, home of science, are also affected by all these developments and changes. However, business and activities that increase and get increasingly complex depending on changes and developments make works of university personnel, especially academicians, very difficult since they must carry out many works in a limited time. This challenge has brought along more time usage for all individuals in the academic world.

Time and stress management cannot be considered independent of each other, these two can be discussed as rings of an interconnected chain in a management sense. In time management, it is necessary to develop general skills such as goal setting and communication. Development of these skills can reduce anxiety and stress in both business life and private life. Therefore, there is a strong relationship between time and stress management (Özer, 2010). As an instrument for development of institutions, time and stress management contribute to individuals and managers and serve a purpose together with organizational culture. It is a fact that the stress of the individual also causes organizational stress. Therefore, the

problems of the organization affect people, as well as the problems of the people working in the organization naturally affect the organization (Güler et al., 2001). Organizational climate and work stress are factors that make time management mandatory. Organizational culture is the main facts about values and norms shared by members of the organization in the establishment of the management system and in the management of working employees. Every organization has its unique culture. In this sense, organizational culture can be specified as beliefs, values and meanings shared by members of the organization within the organization (Koyuncu, 2010).

In this study, the problem of time and stress management of the academic and administrative staff of universities was discussed. Within the scope of the research, it was examined within Near East University and Hakkari University whether academic and administrative staff were able to manage time effectively, whether they could cope with stress and how many of these elements were affected by the cultural structure.

This thesis study consists of six parts. In the first section, which is the entrance section, the problem status, purpose, importance and limitations of the research are included.

The second chapter includes time management and theoretical foundations. In this section with eight subheadings, in the first subheading: an overview of the concept of time and the importance of time are given. The second sub-section describes the types of time. The third sub-section includes classic approaches and analysis in time management. The fourth sub-section describes modern approaches and analysis in time management. The fifth sub-section consists of the advantages and disadvantages of time management approaches. The sixth subheading includes time management variants. The seventh sub-section specifies the problems encountered in organizational time management and time traps. The eighth sub-section contains the instruments for effective use of time.

In the third chapter of the study, the concept of stress, management and theoretical approaches are main titles. This section consists of nine

subheadings, respectively: Sub-sections such as stress concept and its discovery, stress-forming factors, stress factors related to organizational culture, climate and structure, stress management, organizational stress management and techniques, Selye's systemic stress theory (general compliance syndrome), Cannon's conflict or avoidance approach, Lazarus's psychological stress theory and the consequences of stress were discussed in general.

The fourth chapter of the dissertation is the main title of time management in individual and collectivist culture. This chapter contains eight sub-sections. The first sub-section contains an overview of the concept of culture. The second sub-heading describes the classification of culture, the third sub-heading summarizes the place of culture in the organization and the concept of organizational culture. The fourth sub-section is the formation of organizational culture. The fifth sub-section contains elements of the organizational culture. The sixth sub-section describes the models of organizational culture. In the seventh sub-section, the Hofstede culture model is discussed in sub-dimensions such as individualism/community, power distance, avoidance of uncertainty, time orientation, tolerance and restraint. In the eighth sub-section, time management is studied in individualist and collectivist culture.

The fifth chapter of the study includes comparative field research to study time and stress management skills at Near East University and Hakkari University. The Problem of Research, Universe and Sample, Limitations, Data Collection Tools, Processing and Hypotheses and Data Analysis are given in this section.

The sixth and final chapter of the study consists of Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations.

1.2 Objective of the Research

The aim of this research is to determine whether academic and administrative personnel at Near East University and Hakkari University are effectively managing time and stress, as well as whether the culture

(individualistic and collective) culture on stress management of time management had an intermediary role.

1.3 Importance of the Research

This study examined whether staff effectively manages time and stress and to the extent to which culture affects this situation, both at a foundation university and in a state university. Universities are one of the most important actors to shape social life. Therefore, time management, stress coping and cultural issues, often included in business research, demonstrate the importance of this research. Foundation and public universities can have some differences in corporate culture. At the same time, the fact that our Near East University is a well-established university operating in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus and Hakkâri University is a newly established university located in a relatively disadvantaged region undoubtedly brings with it some differences. In addition, in past studies in the literature, there is no mediating role of culture. Given all these aspects, it is thought that this study will make an important contribution to the literature.

1.4 Limitations

First, this research was conducted only on a working group of university employees who worked at Near East University in Cyprus and Hakkâri University and volunteered to participate in the research. Therefore, it can not be suggested that the study reflects the current situation at all universities around the world.

CHAPTER 2

TIME MANAGEMENT AND THEORIC FOUNDATIONS

In this section, theoretical information about time and time management will be given, and the literature studies on the subject will be discussed.

2.1. An Overview of the Concept of Time and the Importance of Time

2.1.1. Time Concept and its Importance

The concept of time is when an action has passed. In other words, there is no time if there is no action. Given that everything on earth and in the universe is stopped for a moment, in such a static environment, time cannot be mentioned (Sabuncuoğlu, 2002). Time according to Turkish Language Institution: Time is defined as a period in which a job and existence passes, will pass or is being passed (TDK, 2016).

For centuries, philosophers and scholars have worked hard to explain the time. Sir Isaac Newton says that time is absolute, it occurs regardless of whether or not the universe exists. On the other hand, Leibnitz said “Time is not an entity in its own right, it is just the order of events,” destructing the Newton’s definition. Like Leibnitz, Albert Einstein says “We measure the time according to the sequence of events, apart from these events, it has no presence”. According to this, the train will not come to the station at 7:00. The train arrives at the station as soon as the clock shows seven. Time is explained in such a way (Smith, 1998).

According to Mackenzie, most of us also sense another feature of time: Time is a source. Furthermore, time is an extremely excellent resource that is priceless to its value. However, time cannot be saved like money, and it cannot be stored like raw materials. Whether we want it or not, we have to

spend the time. Even minute by minute... And every minute at a certain speed of 60 seconds. We cannot stop and start it like a machine. Like an officer and a worker, we cannot replace them. Time is something that cannot be captured again. As Chaplin Tyler said "Time is the most brutal, rigid element in life" (Mackenzie, 1989).

Accordingly, renowned mathematics physicist, Roger Penrose, humans have a subjective feeling that the time passes. However, physicists agree that the sense of flow of time is only an illusion. What we call passing time is about our perceptions. The passing of time is a misleading feeling or illusion that is happening in our world of perception (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015).

Despite Einstein's relative theory of time, traditional acceptance is based on the assumption that man lives with memories of the past, with his actions and the present time, and with his hopes in the future. Man's life, in Leibniz's words; concludes that it is an entity that "carries the burden of human past and tending to the future" (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015).

Time, as the definitions suggest, is an unrenewed resource of great importance in human life, with social, economic and historical value. Today, economists and businesses consider time as "a resource that is among scarce resources and has economic value that is impossible to return, that cannot be accumulated, stopped and deferred, and should be well-evaluated due to all these factors" (Dalkıran, 2014).

A common perception of time tells us that it is the same amount for everyone. Indeed, time is a measurable thing. Time is independent of space and flows relentlessly forward (Atkinson, 1997). Thus, time is also a universal resource for all professional groups and individuals. There are no substitute materials for time. Time is impossible to stop; it is constant and it is lost as it flows. Time refers to only one-way flow from the past to the present and going to tomorrow, constantly and irreversible (Eren, 2003).

Therefore, whether we realize it or not, time, which passes, is like the rivers that flow. There is no way to wash twice in a river that flows, and there is no possibility of the same time happening twice. Because there is no way for

time to come back or stop. Therefore, what individuals need to do is to be able to fit more activity into this time by doing more work in the running time (Ardıç, 2010). All these definitions attributed to time emphasize that time is a unique object for all the work and processes that may be in life. Nothing can be done or succeeded without wasting time. Therefore, it is inevitable that time management instruments are effectively and efficiently evaluated by using them in the right places and for the right jobs.

2.1.2. Time Management Concept

The concept of time management is not in the sense of managing the real time that flows steadily; to manage ourselves in a harmonious way. Managing time is the most important element in the ability to perform all jobs and activities at the same time, as well as time, as much work and activity as possible can be fit. In short, time management is understood as the management of jobs and activities within a certain period of time (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2011).

According to Peter Drucker (Mackenzie, 1989), if an administrator cannot manage himself effectively, his talent, skill, experience, or knowledge is not enough to make him an administrator. Not every individual or manager who knows this fact should be able to understand the importance of managing himself over time, not the time.

Time management is a method that can be applied not only for our business life, but also for personal and family life. In fact, time management appeals to everyone from all professional groups, from women to men, young people to the elderly, or even from all professional groups that work or do not work (Atkinson, 1997). It is not enough for mankind to divide time and set limits, the important thing is to manage himself and his activities within the time limits. According to Hyrum Wrum (1998), "If you cannot constantly create the opportunity to do really important and meaningful things from your point of view, being more organized will only consume your time and make you more disappointed". Using time more effectively by prioritizing important jobs will bring success to the administrator.

In time management process, tools are used such as activity books, motion plans, priority to-do list, personal goal setting, effective programming, and general repetitions that prevent postponing in time management process and facilitate decision making to business priorities (Rivera, 2007). The main factors that determine or influence effective management of organizational time can be listed as setting priorities, planning, effective communication, decision-making, transfer of powers, managing the time of subordinates, managing the top manager, eliminating deductions (Toksoy, 2010). Factors that are caused by personal and cultural characteristics and lead to time losses or causing us to use time poorly are called time traps (Tengilimlioğlu et al., 2007).

Time is unstoppable and cannot be stored. Naturally, value of time varies depending on its right or wrong use. People know that it is better to use time correctly rather than wasting it and to have control over time while sparing time for activities. People who learn that time vary depending on their use, and are generally aware of the more effective use of time in which cases (Festjens and Janiszewski, 2015). In other words, people are aware that the value of time has changed. Changing value of time as per usage and knowing its importance indicate that there is more need for time management (Juhnke et al., 2013).

Many in the community think that money is the most vital source of organizations, most of the sources of governance. However, when time is not used effectively, both money and productivity loss are inevitable (Can, 2002). When managing time to achieve goals, it is necessary to determine and regulate what is intended to do.

2.1.3. Time Management Concept

In terms of time management, time management processes consist of eight stages. These include time usage analysis consists of defining time problems, identifying self-identification, identifying goals and priorities, transferring program goals to implementation plans, preparing daily programs and guides, developing time management techniques, monitoring and re-analysis of the process. Figure 1 shows these stages.

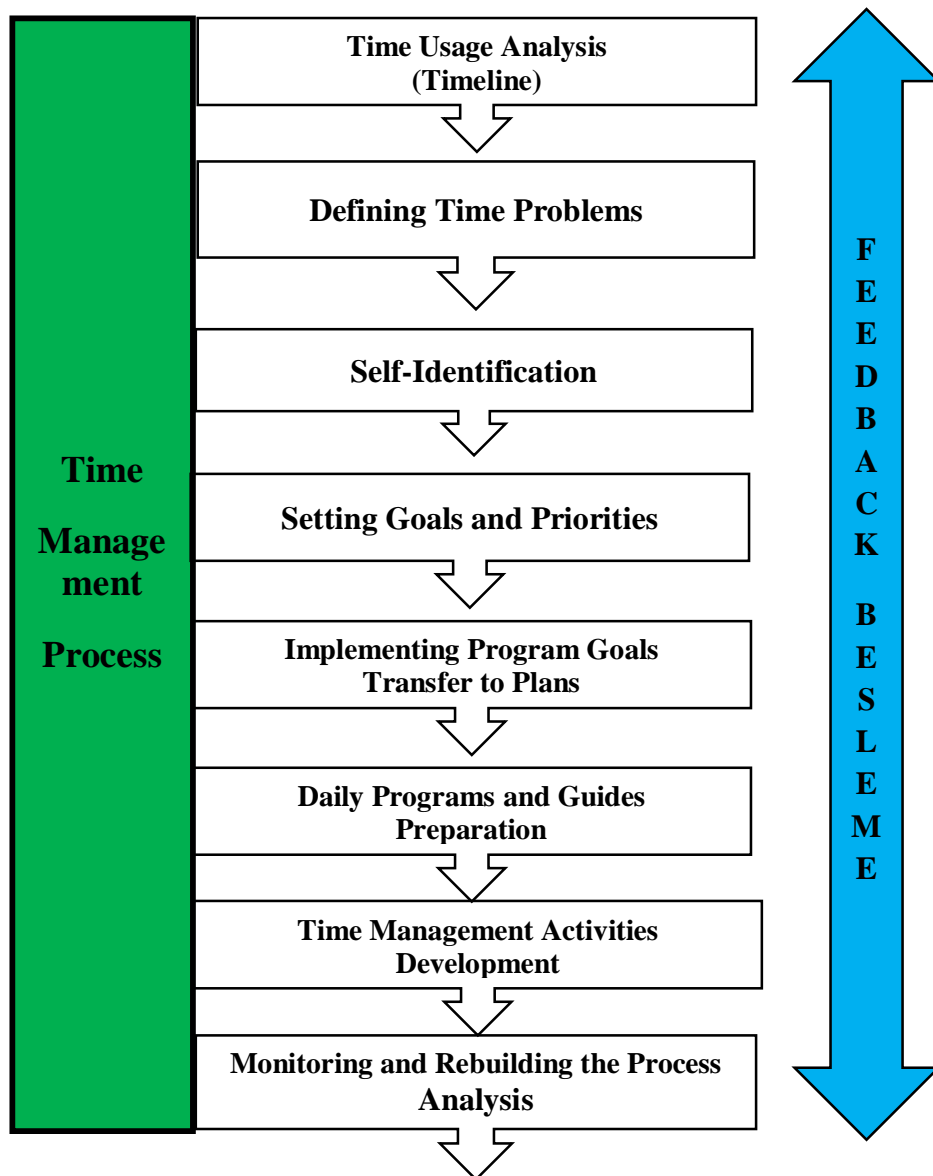


Figure 1. Active Time Management Process

Resources: Compiled from Gumusgul, 2013, 25.

2.1.3.1. Time Usage Analysis

The main goal in time usage analysis is what can be done for effective time management. Clearly revealing and improving objectives should be one of the priority jobs. Priorities should be determined and positive thoughts should be developed for their use. Atkinson (1997) indicates that “it is very easy to get lost in a swamp of mis-defined, uncertain targets. You should specifically specify what you mean when determining your goals.” When most people are

setting up the goals they want to achieve, a foggy-hazy picture emerges, so even when you say that you make your definitions well in any case, it actually emphasizes the fact that time usage should be analyzed very well. J. Atkinson indicates as follows: "Time control can be managed more effectively through short, medium and long-term plans". Time control can be managed more effectively through short, medium and long-term plans. Time-use rulers help determine whether the time is managed by the person himself or by habits or external factors, how much time he takes for which jobs, which jobs are unnecessary, which are important, thus creating a constant control over time, preventing time wasting, thus providing effective time management (Ardıç, 2010).

2.1.3.2. Defining Time Problems

The second phase of the time management process is to identify very clearly and clearly the real problems in losing time. Time traps that prevent efficient management of time can be discussed in four topics such as time traps originating from people, originating from jobs, originating from management approach, or originating from the structure of the organization or the policies implemented. At this stage of the time management process, time traps, which are primarily the reasons for time loss, must be identified and effectively controlled. Since the time phenomenon concerns today and tomorrow, planning should be done specifically at the point of how time should be used.

2.1.3.3. Self-Identification

The person must determine which of "A" or "B" personality categories he/she is included in. Without determining the personality type, time management is not scheduled (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015). At this stage, it is very important for people to get to know themselves and also to do situation analysis based on their abilities. An effective time planning is carried out according to personality determination and criteria.

2.1.3.4. Setting goals and priorities

At this stage of the time management process, the objectives are determined and priorities are determined that will lead to these purposes. An action plan is prepared for the adequacy and duration of human and physical resources that will lead to the goals. Objectives must be specific and in line with business life.

2.1.3.5. Transferring program goals to implementation plans

To achieve the predetermined targets at this stage of the time management process, the activity must be planned. Preparation of a basic activity plan is also created in this phase; in the plan, it is indicated how, when, where and by whom the task, which is specified why it should be done with a purpose expression formulated very well, is carried out (Ardıç, 2010).

2.1.3.6. Preparing daily programs and guides

In the sixth phase of the time management process, short-term plans and programs are prepared based on basic operational plans. Short-term planning and programming include two important steps. The first step is to plan a weekly period, and secondly, to prepare a daily activity plan based on this weekly plan (Samuk, 2014).

2.1.3.7. Improving time management techniques

At this stage, the instruments to be developed to overcome the individual and environmental problems that cause the loss of time come into play. Factors preventing the effective and efficient use of time can be eliminated by checking time thieves such as deductions, delays, poor planning, open door policy, appointments, unplanned meetings, which cause a large amount of time wasting.

2.1.3.8. Monitoring and rebuilding the process

At this stage, which is the final stage in the time management process, there is a return, i.e. a notification. In this phase, both the application and the post-application process are evaluated by the time managers. If the results are achieved in a way expected, the efforts of improvement in the process

continue, but if the results come out contrary to expectations, the process is examined to determine at what stage of disruption occurs, and re-enactment of these stages is made to ensure functionality of the process (Özdemir, 2006).

2.1.4. Time Management and Pareto Policy Analysis

Developed by Pareto, an Italian economist and sociologist who lived in the 19th century, “Pareto Policy” is one of the important works on what priorities are. According to Pareto Policy, important volumes in a group contain only a small fraction of the total volumes within that group. J. Juran, who implemented the Pareto principle to the administration, used “a few important” and “many trivial” phrases in practice.

While 20% of components deliver high returns, while 80% of them deliver low returns. Thus, for example, 20% of a factory's products produce 80% of its total profits. Likewise, 20% of the workforce does 80% of efficient work.

The time principle developed by Pareto is also known as the 80/20 rule. The policy points to the tendency of some elements in a system to provide more outputs than other elements. In terms of Time Management, 80% of success is due to 20% of the time allocated for that job. The purpose of this is to know which 20%-time frame provides productivity (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015). In practice, this principle is also known as the principle of concentration or condensation. Pareto time principle is given in Figure 2.

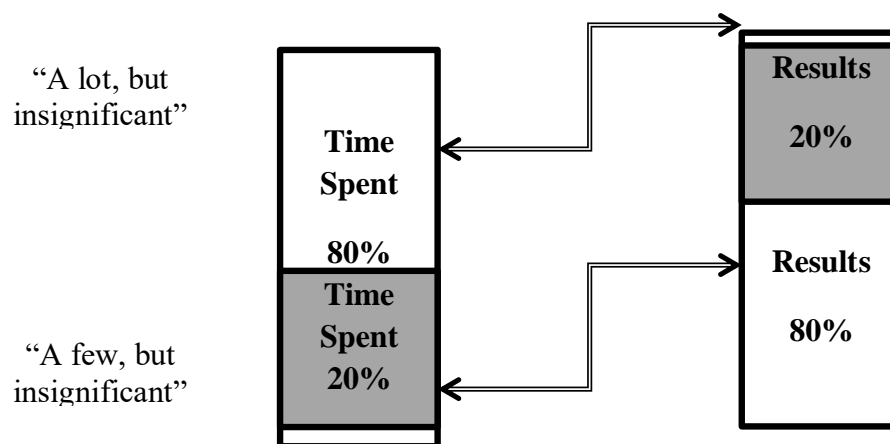


Figure 2. Pareto Time Policy

Resource: Mackenzie R.A. 1989.73.

The principle of concentration or condensation is an old principle. In the field of military logistics, it is always important to use force that is superior to the enemy at a vital time and decision point. In the past years, it is known that many naval wars were won by forces that are far behind in numerical perspectives. The most typical battle plan, which was implemented in the face of such situations where the powers are not equal, was intended to destroy enemy ships one by one by small ship groups. With the maneuvers, all power was gathered to one point, a powerful and destructive blow, aimed at achieving the supremacy temporarily (Mackenzie, 1989).

2.2. Time Types

Management science and time management literature contain various types of time. There are many types of time, such as real time, psychological time, biological time, managerial time, organizational time, economic time and sociological time. The objective time under this title, subjective time and biological time are generally contained as described below. Other types of time contain meaning according to various branches of science.

2.2.1. Real (Objective) Time

Objective time is the time that makes the actual physical effect. To better understand the physical effects of time, time is expressed by mankind by being divided into units. Objective time refers to time, time measurable with clock. The concept of real time is the concept of time that occurs as a result of the Earth's movements around the Sun. The concept of time is constant and in the same way for all people (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015). When approaching time management, good management of real time means that more jobs and activities are fit into time zones.

2.2.2. Psychological (Subjective) Time

Objective time is time-measurable, but subjective time is very difficult to measure and evaluate. Subjectivity can vary based on time, situation and conditions. For example, in chess, time is very slow in terms of those who have nothing to do with the game, while in terms of those who are players, it passes very quickly. In other words, subjective time is a type of time that

varies according to the work that people do and show interest (Erdem and Kaya, 1998). Psychological time is also known as the time felt or perceived. If individual passes time in a pleasant and funny way, it is perceived as short; if individual passes time in a boring way, time can be perceived as long.

2.2.3. Biological (Instinctive) Time

Natural rhythm due to the innate properties of individuals that can control their inner balance is defined as biological time. Biological time is linked to sunlight, temperatures, humidity, weather conditions and climates. However, there is no relationship between the biological time and the mechanical and chronological time that can be measured with the help of clock (Samuk, 2014). In fact, instinctive time is a time when it has an impact on living beings. There is a “body clock” that regulates the lives of living beings and ensures that organs perform their vital functions just in time. The behavior of some of the animals, such as mating during certain periods, hibernation during certain periods, can be explained in relation to this system in their body hours (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015).

2.3. Classic Approaches in Time Management and Analysis

There are different approaches developed in evaluating and managing individual time. Among these: While the regular life approach, the Warrior approach, the ABC approach are considered as classic approaches; the magic tool approach, skill approach, targeting approach, healing approach and self-discharge approach are considered as modern approaches.

2.3.1. Regular Life Approach

Personal time management begins with a classic time management approach, regular life or a self-recovery approach with another name. The self-recovery approach means that a significant number of problems in time management are due to irregularities in our lives. Usually, it is hard to find what we are looking for at the same time, and it constantly disappears by boiling things in between. For the most part, the answer is within the system: Systems in which filings, inbound-outbound documents, reminders and data

are saved. These systems focus mainly on the arrangements made in the three areas mentioned below (Sabuncuoğlu and Paşa, 2002).

- Arrangement of objects: It refers to the arrangement of everything in many other areas, such as keys, computer screens, filing systems, paper cabinets, office spaces and kitchen areas.
- Organizing tasks: It refers to arranging “to-do” in a regularity and specific order by means of using various tools such as basic lists, complex planning tables and project management software.
- Organizing people: Identification of the work that both we and other individuals can do, transfer of powers, establishment of monitoring and tracking systems to dominate the events that are taking place.

The layout approach transcends individual applications and switches to corporate applications. If a company falls into a difficult situation, they enter a period of “self-recovery” by making a shake-up with rearrangements and restructure. To be successful, managers must be able to start a business first, continue and succeed. In doing so, they should use the time in the most effective way (Sabuncuoğlu and Paşa, 2002).

2.3.2. Warrior Approach

The warrior approach focuses on preserving the time devoted to oneself. We are in an extremely intense and stressful business environment. As the name suggests, the warrior approach focuses on preserving the individual’s own time and production against all time traps. Here, it should be the basic philosophy that managers do not divide time into trivial and non-urgent jobs. The manager, who divides a significant part of his time into important and urgent work, will be able to use his thinking more effectively by doing very urgent and priority jobs.

The person who fights against time tries to eliminate the traps of time. Therefore, the warrior approach focuses on taking time with the aim of protecting oneself, working efficiently and independently enough. The strong methods contained in the warrior approach are as described below (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015).

- Isolating oneself: By commissioning his secretary, closing the doors, using an answering machine, refusing unmeaningful communications and unnecessary appointments.
- Being alone: To go to a place where you can stay alone to find a comfortable environment, i.e. retreating.
- Transfer of authority: To transfer tasks to others in order to find time for more effective work.

2.3.3. ABC Approach

This approach is based on determining priorities and managing time considering the values. At the core of the ABC approach is the phenomenon of “you can do what you want, but you cannot do everything.” The techniques of this approach are to intensify the most important tasks of the efforts, clarify values and rank the task.

The ABC approach is similar to the target approach and is inspired by it. Besides, sequence is added as an important concept, and its assertion is that “if we know which goal we want to achieve, we need to focus our efforts in that direction and on these tasks, we will succeed in that job and achieve happiness (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015). The most valuable of individuals is that checking their time provides the individual with the following conveniences (Sabuncuoğlu and Paşa, 2002).

- It helps minimize losses,
- It is always ready for meetings,
- It allows the extra workload to be rejected,
- It ensures that progress in projects is monitored and controlled,
- It ensures that days are planned effectively,
- It allows time to be allocated according to the importance of things,
- It ensures that long-term projects are taken into account without ignoring them.

2.4. Classic Approaches in Time Management and Analysis

2.4.1. Magic Tool Approach

The magic tool approach advocates the use of the right tools and equipment while managing time. It is based on the assumption that accurate planning, accurate calendars, accurate computer programs, right desktop slots will contribute to us by strengthening the quality of life. These tools allow us to plan and achieve our goals according to priorities. The use of the right tools can make significant differences in our lives, from building a home to building a life (Gümüřgöl, 2013). According to Tengilimođlu et al. (2015), they assume that if the desired features are found in the vehicles used in the Magic Vehicle Approach, this will make a magical contribution to time management and effectiveness.

In the magic vehicle approach, there are methods that can be used to improve quality of life and standards, and it states that if the right vehicle is used in the right place, it will give you the power to improve quality of life. These tools help us to truly follow our priorities, plan our businesses and get basic information easily.

2.4.2. Skill Approach

Time management is basically a skill and these skills are important for good use of time. There are techniques such as long and short-term plans, goals determination, revitalization in our eyes, positive thinking and self-motivation. It also includes proper use of time in place as well as in other efficient sources in effective time management (Gümüřgöl, 2013). It is not enough to work hard to succeed today, but success requires effective work. Effective work can only be possible by having knowledge and skill. Skill allows jobs to be seen without spending a lot of energy. According to Sabuncuođlu and Pařa (2002), the way to provide effectiveness within today's world is highlighted by emphasizing that it is necessary to specialize in the following skills (Sabuncuođlu and Pařa, 2002):

- Using a planner or appointment book,
- Creating a list of to-dos,

- Determination of targets,
- Transfer of powers,
- Planning,
- Making arrangement by determining priorities.

2.4.3. Goal Setting Approach

At the heart of this approach lies the idea that “know what you want and strive to achieve it.” Long, medium and short-term planning includes techniques such as setting goals, reviving them, self-motivation (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015). Continuous effort is essential to achieve the goals. According to H.W. Smith, when we do not make any efforts, naturally we are comfortable. However, getting rid of the lethargy of the comfort zone requires a great deal of effort. Goals based on values focus all our efforts at certain points and are strong enough to remove each of us from the uniformity we get stuck in (Smith,1998).

2.4.4. Improvement Approach

Also defined as “Rehabilitation Approach” or “Self-Consciousness Approach”, Improvement Approach is one of time management approaches that aspires to improving psychological and sociological inadequacies such as perfectionism, over-detailing, inability to use resources effectively, leaving things in dissipation, easily affected by past fragilities, fear of failure or success, fear of transfer of authority, tendency to enjoy others created by childhood and environmental pressure, which all prevent effective time management (Uyaniker, 2014). According to Tengilimoğlu et al. (2015), the improvement approach in time management is based on environmental, social, cultural or psychological reasons.

2.4.5. Drop Yourself in the Current Approach

In this approach, a number of different assumptions about time and life are produced compared to the traditional time method. Within the framework of the paradigm at its core, being able to return to the natural routines of life by learning to “get caught up in the current” causes spontaneous and unexpected opportunities that exist in our lives (Güçlü, 2001). Within the

scope of this approach, the main important thing is not to manage time, but to integrate oneself into natural flow over time.

2.5. Advantages and Disadvantages of Time Management Approaches

Under this title, the advantages (strengths) and disadvantages of classic and modern time management approaches are discussed together and explained.

2.5.1. Regular Life Approach

According to Güçlü (2001), the advantages and disadvantages of this approach are as described below.

Advantages: With this approach, we save time and cause us to work much more efficiently. We cannot waste time searching for keys, clothes or missing reports. We cannot waste our efforts.

Disadvantages: The regulations become a tool itself beyond being a tool for higher targets. That is what is dangerous about it. A significant part of the time is spent on planning rather than production. A lot of people think they are doing their job struggling with the plan. When exceeding the limit, the power of planning is weakened (Güçlü, 2001). Over-strictness and being mechanic can remove from flexibility. This is not useful for both individuals and institutions.

2.5.2. Warrior Approach

According to Sabuncuoğlu and Paşa (2002), the advantages and disadvantages of the warrior approach can be stated as follows.

Advantages: The strength of this approach is that time responsibility is based on the basis of individual undertaking. We can be more productive if we have a time when we are not calm and disturbed so that we can work effectively and independently. Creativity needs this kind of time.

Disadvantages: In this approach, others are mainly seen as enemies. "You interfere with other's program before they interfere with yours." It is a paradigm that considers survival: Isolate, segregate, digest, set a border. The

management of the meetings held without getting angry with participants. With the help of this approach, it can allow other people to get out of our way to do everything we want. However, these defensive reactive attitudes often lead to manipulations of other individuals and turn them into self-verifying prophecy (Sabuncuoğlu and Paşa, 2002).

2.5.3. ABC Approach

The weaknesses and strengths of this approach, based on the order of priorities and the idea of determining values, are described below.

Advantages: The ABC approach actually comes as a classic “priority for important jobs” approach. It enables the creation of a layout and pipeline. This approach allows us to understand the difference between the work planned and the priority tasks. Recently written works stop considering the priorities that can last for life. They emphasize that the important jobs are linked to our values and beliefs and the importance of clarifying our values (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015).

Disadvantages: Clarifying our values is that it ignores the fact that quality of life is determined by principles and natural laws. This neglect often leads people to adopt and monitor values that are often contradictory to the laws of nature. These values only lead to a sense of frustration and failure.

2.5.4. Magic Tool Approach

Advantages: There is a sense of order from holding something that evokes order. There is a sense of satisfaction from taking notes, marking the work done on the list, watching important things in our lives carefully.

Disadvantages: The basic assumptions about the fact that technology is the answer to everything is wrong. Even the tools that achieve the perfection at hand cannot replace vision, measurement, creativity, character or competence. Like the inability to create a good photographer with a good camera. A great planner does not create a great life either; however, a new planner or road map usually includes such promises. The current quality vehicle can help improve our ability to create quality of life, but it is certainly

not possible to create it for us (Sabuncuoğlu, Paşa, 2002: 39, Gümüşgöl, 2013).

2.5.5. Skill Approach

Advantages: The implementation of the skills approach in time management makes it easy to achieve goals by having a positive impact on improving people's performance. Skill allows you to see things by using a small amount of energy and taking limited time. The issue of good time management is nothing more than "time management" (Tutar, 2011; Karaoğlu, 2015).

Disadvantages: The subject of personal or institutional quality depends on the ability of individuals to align their characters and behaviors with principles, rather than skill and technical issues. Many of today's training programs on time management consist of mixed packs, which are interspersed into a few principles, such as some techniques and time-saving tricks and sorting of planning and priorities. However, it is rare that individuals are getting stronger by applying these principles. Skills cannot respond alone (Karaoğlu, 2015).

2.5.6. Goal Setting Approach

Advantages: It is that they can achieve success when a purpose is placed on their employees or organizations within a given period of time and achieve what is desired.

Disadvantages: The extraordinary efforts of the employees in order to reach the intended point constitute disappointments in their employees if success is not achieved or if the level of success achieved is not satisfied (Şahin, 2015).

2.5.7. Improvement Approach

Advantages: The positive aspect of this approach is that it considers cultural, social and environmental elements to the point of time management. By improving these factors, individuals can address their shortcomings and achieve their goals more effectively. The problem-oriented can bring with it improvement. This prepares individuals for changes and developments.

Disadvantages: The fact that there are cultural differences and the values of the judiciary are different from society to society, so that a standardization cannot be achieved. It does not include general principles for the solution, it is narrow and does not deal with scope and time management issues.

2.1.5.8. Drop Yourself in the Current Approach

Advantages: With this approach, the harmony of natural flow with internal consistency can perhaps provide people with comfort or motivation when considered together. Spending time in nature and extraordinary, spending hours away from daily stresses and everything is undoubtedly useful to man. Moving away from the constant pressure of urgent affairs and listening to yourself can add quality to our lives.

Disadvantages: Since there is an approach that lacks planning and goals, its effects can be considered to be neutral. It has no concrete contribution to time management. It can cause weakening of important facts such as duty and purpose. If a philosophy of reaction becomes a philosophy of reaction, it causes unhappiness because it supports constant escape.

2.6. Time Management Types

Mackenzie in his study, "The Time Trap" (1989), indicated as follows "Time management is a very special and personal thing. You can choose one of the hundreds of proposals offered and evaluate it according to your own needs; dominating time requires strength." When we consider the diversity of modern people's tastes and preferences today, it is clear that if individuals and managers do not evaluate their time decisively and planned, they will pay a great price. It is useful to explain the kinds of time management to manage the time we have more effectively.

2.6.1. Management of Personal Time

Personal time is the type of time that individuals have each of them equally and that they spend equally to carry out activities related to them both within and outside the organization where they work. Good use of personal time means that individuals can control their lives. All of this is necessary and

important for individuals to develop healthier from psychological perspectives and to be successful (Karaoğlu, 2015). Control of personal time is a phenomenon that is entirely in the person's savings. Efficient use of this time type makes the individual effective and successful.

Time management is the most appropriate type of concept that can be used to manage activities over a given period of time. "Time management is a conscious control of time to meet needs and achieve goals." Conscious efforts to manage time support the ability of individuals to reach the results of their activities in a much more efficient and efficient manner (Örörcü, Kanbur, Tikici, 2007). Individuals who do not manage their own time well are forced to stress due to the pressure of time. One of the most obvious and important features of the age we live in, and the one at the beginning is undoubtedly a waste of time (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015).

In order not to be a prisoner of time when managing personal time, we have to plan well and set our goals well so that we can be the master of time. Otherwise, the work will stress us, and we will be under pressure. The time to better manage your personal time must be controlled. According to Tengilimoğlu et al. (2015), the stages of personal time are as follows:

- Determination of personal time use
- Analysis of time usage problems
- Making a personal action plan and providing the resources needed
- Realizing the action plan

Time management basically refers to self-management; it allows us to control the events in our lives, and it is the ability of individuals to manage events by self-directing. How much of the events we are experiencing happen in the way we desire? How much formation of such event are we decisive? What is our influence in the occurrence of these events? The answers in these questions actually reflect our success in managing our own time (Güçlü, 2001). Human beings who are smart enough to control everything, even the world, must remember that they will not succeed unless they control their time.

2.6.2. Management of Work Time

Time is among the resources that mankind most complained about famine of which over the ages (Karaoğlu, 2015). It has become imperative that everyone who works professionally use their time effectively and efficiently by cleverly planning. Because time is our asset or presence that we cannot save, we cannot borrow, we cannot buy, we cannot replicate, we just use it. It also requires using time for each job and service (Eren, 2003). Work time is a time environment that occurs when performing functions other than the objectives of the organization and other than the administrative functions (Yıldırım, 2015).

Work time is the part of personal time in working life. In managing the work time, as much as individual, colleagues, managers and the structure of organizational functioning are also very effective. Managers have roles in guiding and overseeing employees' work time (Kılıç, 2015: 14). According to Business Week magazine editors, the most important source in an organization is time rather than money. Time certainly does not resemble other sources (Akatay, Yelkikalan, 2008). We have no choice but to use the time that is impossible to regain. Because the right time management gives the fact that all other resources are managed effectively and correctly.

2.6.3. Management of Managerial Time

Managerial time refers to the time that managers have allocated and used to perform management functions easily. At all levels of management, all managers define managerial time as time allocated to their managerial work other than rational processes (Akatay, Yelkikalan, 2008).

Managerial time is durations that are spent on the functional efforts that managers have put forward to achieve their goals in organizations. The most important resource for management is time. It is the responsibility of managers to use the time source in the most efficient and conscious way. Managers try to prevent their personal knowledge, experience and skills from wasting time by using this issue (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015). Well-trained, competent managers with leadership characteristics are the ones who have a

high level of competence in dominating time. Dominating time means controlling time and managing it. Managing time is to be able to order events and facts according to their priorities (Güçlü, 2001).

It is very important that managers answer the following questions about time management: What is most important among events? Which one can I easily postpone? Which ones can I hand over to others? Which ones do not have to be wasted, and if it is not done, nothing is lost? Which one can I do very quickly? How do I edit my daily plan to do the most urgent? (Fidan, 2011). These questions guide for effective use of managerial time.

Ensuring that managerial time is used effectively provides some advantages to organizations and managers. Effective use of management time in administrators can prevent stress that occurs primarily on them due to a lack of time and that creates negative effects. It allows them to find the time they need to achieve their goals both in private and related to their business lives, and to be able to perform much more work during their current working time. It will allow them to weigh on the work that contributes constructively to organizational studies, keep up with the changes, and gain time to follow developments with their competitors. In summary, the effective use of management times individually and essentially will result in a much faster, more efficient and efficient access to the results they desire (Kılıç, 2015; Akatay, Yelkikalan, 2008).

2.6.4. Management of Organizational Time

Organization and organizing can be expressed mainly as the organization of human and material factors, the objectives of enterprises by performing effectively and efficiently (Yıldırım, 2015). The concept of organizational time refers to the total amount of time spent by the personnel and machines in the specified time period to produce goods and provide services by the organization (Yılmaz and Aslan, 2002).

The management of organizational time is the development, production, decision making of new products by organizations, and the effective use of time in customer relations and relations with other organizations. The

purpose of organizational time management is to minimize the time used in the realization of business activities (Kılıç, 2015). However, the concept of time for each organization varies. Therefore, the period of reaching the purpose to be reached also varies. Therefore, it is difficult to talk about a certain standard in organizational time management. The important thing is to observe the harmony of decision-making processes and the administrative times of organizations.

Effective Administrators use the time source in an in-place and efficient manner, as in other sources; the reason is that the priorities are known and that they successfully implement the necessary planning in order to do so. Time planning ensures that a regularity, actions and tasks are carried out in jobs and habits on time (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015). Today, every manager acknowledges that time is an inseparable resource for organizations and takes care of the use of time to achieve organizational purposes.

2.7. Problems and Time Traps Encountered in Organizational Time Management

It is very important for time management to determine and control the time traps that cause managers to lose time. Under this title; time traps arising from the person, time traps caused by work, time traps arising from work, time traps arising from management mentality and time traps arising from organizational structures and policies will be explained briefly.

2.7.1 Time Traps Arising from Person

2.7.1.1. Uncertainty of Priorities

From the point of Managers, the time they have is usually not enough to do all the work they think. Therefore, the planned work must be done in order of priority and importance. Not paying attention to priorities and importance in doing things, and mixing urgent affairs and important works are actually a result of planlessness (Erdem, Kaya, 1998: 103). One of the most important time management skills that both individuals and managers should develop and have is to be able to set priorities. According to H.W.Smith (1995 44), "You probably have very little control in a workplace where priorities are

variable, and the only option is to leave it in the current or adapt.” The uncertainty and variability of priorities is one of the most important time thieves in a workplace. Non-stop front change can lead to fatigue and defeat.

2.7.1.2. Postponement and Distraction

Mackenzie indicated “Sometimes, we deliberately ignore tasks we do not like. Dragging it out ranks first on almost every manager’s list of time traps. This is a close relative of incompetence and inefficiency. Managers who have the habit of dragging things on are those who invite their work to be blocked” (Mackenzie,1989). To get rid of this habit, managers have to learn and eliminate the reasons for the postponement.

One of the key reasons for procrastination can be listed as follows: the lack of knowledge, fear of inability to succeed, irregularity and poor planning, excessive workload, uncertainty of the goals and the phenomenon of laziness. H.Smith says “Whatever the reason, it is a deadly time thief to procrastinate. The best way to overcome this is to add an element of urgency to the work we leave in the distraction” (Smith, 2007). And to avoid the habit of dragging, he makes the following suggestions:

- The detection of a deadline leads to the creation of a state of urgency that is not there.
- Doing the most unpleasant job first allows you to look at the more enjoyable work ahead and get excited and spend your day with positive emotions.
- Making a job a game turns annoying things into fun.
- Identifying a reward motivates you to finish the job quickly.

We might want to do some more work that you like done now. But the normal course of things may not always be gratifying. Not every job may be equally gratifying. Distraction is a bit of a pleasant, a little pleasant, putting it in front of the distresser (Atkinson, 1997).

2.7.1.3. Not Being Able to Say No

It is one of the time-saving methods for an administrator to learn to say No (Erdem, Kaya, 1998). Usually saying Yes creates an obligation and a case of undertaking. But we have to admit, it is easier to say No than say Yes, contrary to what is known. Administrators should act with the awareness that being able to say No in appropriate language in matters they do not want or cannot overcome will save them time, so that they should not allow others to steal their time.

2.7.1.4. Stress

In one of the definitions of stress, it is summarized as the distress people fall into because they cannot meet the demands above the human possibilities (Atkinson, 1997). Poor time management is an important factor that causes stress. Because every individual and manager under pressure from time means they are inviting stress. Stress can also lead to numerous health problems, which can leave individuals back from work and health problems in business and management life. It is important that we try to identify and control the stressors well to work efficiently and effectively we beat the trap of time.

2.7.1.5. Negative Personal Attitude

As a subjective stress dimension, negative sensation points to many negative situations such as anger, guilt, nervousness, boredom and humiliation (Sığırı ve Gürbüz, 2014). These situations cause people to have negative personal attitudes. Such behavior causes personal time traps to form.

Those who exhibit negative personal attitudes and behaviors are often those who cannot reconcile with themselves and constantly disturb those around them. However, the aforementioned negative personal attitudes and behaviors caused by the person himself and those around him will be negatively affected, and will reduce not only the person's own performance but also those nearby (Kılıç, 2015). Those who cannot make the best they are asked to do work out of capacity which leads to inefficiency. Inefficiency means that other resources, especially time, are not used effectively. Not

only seeing life white or black but also displaying a management style with all-or-nothing mindset also causes us to fall into a vortex of time. The positive personal attitude creates synergy because the manager will be a source of morale to those around him at first.

2.7.1.6. Hastiness

People rush because they rush as personalities, not because they do a lot of work. Time management should never be to do things in a panicked state. That is also not necessary. Hastiness does not make sense of using time effectively. Individuals are in a hurry because they are unable to manage their time, so they are under a time pressure. Those who establish the balance of work and life well do not feel the need to hurry due to timelessness (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015).

Managers can take important jobs away from emergency jobs and reduce time pressure. Because some of the things known as emergency may not really be important. Sensing the difference between both situations is also a skill of management. According to widespread beliefs, many of the crisis situations are assumed to be caused by time pressure and jobs that are thought to be urgent. Another way to get rid of hastiness is to spend time using a planned, otherwise the lure of urgent jobs will always deceive managers.

2.7.1.7. Instability

Every decision is a risk. There is no risk-free decision. Even if an administrator knows all the facts and details, he still faces risk, as Peter Drucer says, "most managers see the decision not as an opportunity, but as a problem. As a result of this, they seek a solution that is not very lucrative but will not cost as much as possible. Every decision is an effort to balance risks, gains and losses" (Mackenzie, 1989). One of the biggest time traps is indecision, brought with it fear and anxiety, so the person gets tired before he starts work and becomes unable to do business. Those who have the authority to make decisions should use the initiative to make decisions as accurate and as fast as possible, inspired by the fact that "even the worst

decision is better than not making any decisions at all.” Indecision or late decisions leave no chance of correcting the error. When you make a decision, do not make a rash judgment. Check the facts. Get your opinions from other people (Folino,1999).

2.7.1.8. Avoiding the Difficult

Seeing a job bigger is like suffering a pain in your back. Mental perceptions are closed. Your soul darkens and you get bored. You are constantly busy with that, and your productivity in other things that need to be done decreases. It is best to get this thing out of the way. By means of acting according to the proverb “Fear is of no use to the dead”, individuals should not avoid facing fears (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015). As a necessity of being human, social, emotional and mental comfort and relaxation points emerge in each individual. Finding a way of these spots and get rid of both them and physical comfort zones make it easier to avoid the difficult. The habit of delaying hard work and always prioritizing easy work put you deadlocked in this regard. Finishing easy jobs can give us pleasure, but it is going to get behind in important jobs.

2.7.1.9. Being under the Control of Habits

Habits are the key to success. Habits that work in your favor are good habits. These good habits are the mind programs that successful people use to keep themselves in front of the team (Allan, 1999). Changing is something we want. The proverb, “we cannot wash in a river twice” teaches that change is inevitable. We change quickly according to our nature as humans. We should be able to get rid of our bad habits without becoming stubborn because they are not in our favor. Because bad habits are habits that can resist change. Habits that lead to a waste of time are bad habits. Even if we like it because it prevents change, getting rid of bad habits will have positive consequences for time management.

2.7.1.10. Underestimating and Prejudices

Underestimating and prejudices occur either because people do not take the realities of life seriously and they do not care about life or because they do

not reach the factors they underestimate, or because they have over-self-confidence. Someone who does not care about the realities of life can find a reason to act on by underestimating everything about life and ignoring them. There is no other way to show that someone who cannot achieve the factors taken lightly is underestimated as a defense mechanism. Even if such a defense mechanism is used temporarily, those who underestimate the passing time will soon realize that time is not a value to be underestimated (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015). Those who reject time management techniques are the biased ones. However, time management techniques make their business easier. In cases such as postponement and future uncertainties, the importance of time management techniques is now indisputable.

2.7.1.11. Excessive Self-Confidence / Insecurity

A sense of self-confidence both within social life and in business life ensures that other people are one step ahead. However, unnecessary self-confidence or excessive self-confidence bring harm rather than benefit. A sense of self-over-confidence can occasionally be in the form of relying on mental strength, sometimes physical strength, and occasional memory power. Excessive trust in mind power is caused by a person compressing into a difficult time frame to do a job because he trusts the power of mind. The belief that a job will be done in a very short time causes those jobs to be postponed. As a result of a job that is trying to fit into a short period of time, the possibility of mistakes is inevitable. Due to excessive trust in physical power, it requires that work requiring the use of physical power be done in much less time. As a result, it causes the individual to get much more tired and feel more of the time pressure on it (Sword, 2015).

In the excessive confidence in memory power, forgetting the work that needs to be done causes the time to be wasted by not taking notes based on an approach of "I can keep all of this in my mind". However, because individuals are unsure about their achievements, performance and abilities, excessive insecurities against them and their ability to do business also eliminate significant levels of time are lost. It is like excessive self-confidence; it causes a waste of time in insecurity. Not being sure of our success, performance and

capabilities disrupts the first step that must be taken for success (Karaoglu, 2015). What individuals can achieve in life and what they cannot achieve will balance their balance of trust and insecurity. Self-confidence is undoubtedly useful, but extreme arrogance and stubbornness can also lead to failure.

2.7.1.12. Uncertainty of Individualistic Targets

A target indicates a planned conflict with the existing situation. So by definition, achieving a goal is to do something new, to come out of the familiar, comfortable geography of our comfort zones and walk around on new horizons. Sometimes navigating a new geography requires adventure. Sometimes we do not want to get out of our comfort zones. Abandoning old cozy patterns can be one of the hardest things in life. In fact, that is the biggest reason why so many people are not targeted. The goals often lead us to new behaviors that we do not want to worry about (Smith, 2007). We cannot prevent failure by avoiding the stops we may have failed. The uncertainty of the targets leads to failure of the individual. Every intelligent individual chooses goals for himself to succeed. The way to eliminate failure is through the obvious goals.

The focus on an effective goal is the primary results, not the activity. It defines where we want to be. It gives you important information about how to get there, and when you arrive it will inform you (Covey, 2001, Cited by Sabuncuoğlu and Paşa, 2002). It combines your efforts with your energy. It gives purpose and meaning to all your actions. As a result, it turns into daily activities, and that is how you are proactive. You control your life (Sabuncuoğlu and Paşa, 2002). The point that makes the goals stand out is that they are written. The written goals make it easy for us to reach them.

2.7.1.13. Lack of Self-Discipline

Controlling the behavior of workers, developing to direct in accordance with positive and organizational conditions is the subject and purpose of discipline (Eren, 2011). Self-discipline is the ability to choose the right behavior sits without the control and fear of an external authority, coming from within one and understanding its causes. This is not an innate characteristic, but is

earned by age, experience and education (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015). Self-disciplined individuals are more successful in personal time management. People who are free of external factors and have self-control of time management are people who have developed self-discipline. Individuals who have self-discipline determine their priorities and understand that they use time in their own right. Individuals with high self-discipline are also people who guide themselves well and question what they expect from the future.

2.7.1.14. Irregularity

Mackenzie (1989) emphasizes the importance of irregularity by saying, “If your goal is management, you must first perform self-management.” Because gaining the ability to organize daily work is an important habit from the bell of the manager. Being able to regulate is an important factor in achieving success. Being erratic is the most important and greatest culprit in wasted times. The most important indicator of irregularity is the working spaces of individuals. If a time is spent to search for individuals whose location has been changed or placed in the wrong places, or if there is a waste of time arising from confusion, then the person must evaluate the workplace. Managers should only have the necessary documents on their desks and should not spend a large part of their time editing documents (Sabuncuoğlu and Paşa, 2002).

2.7.1.15. Over-Recruiting Oneself to Work

Time is a resource that all people have as a partner and use it individually. The worst-consumers of time are often the ones that seem to be working the most and longest. Most individuals are used to long working hours without evaluating the use of time effectively and efficiently in this regard (Karaoğlu, 2015). Mackenzie quotes the dangers of overwork from Randall as follows: “The habit of overworking is not a proud occasion for the manager and the company to which it belongs, but a disaster. Pity the overworked manager! Behind that chaotic desk, he bravely struggles with responsibilities that seem to be superhuman. He is always going to have impossible tasks and he is always facing emergencies, so he will never get a chance to get things back on track. Pity him, but know what a source of danger he is” (Mackenzie,

1989). There are many workaholics among employees than they are thought. Years ago, people thought there would be less work in the future thanks to technological advances. But the opposite has occurred (Jandt, 2002).

Habit of doing everything yourself may be tempting, but over time, it can make the manager look like he cannot do business. The successful manager is not only a prisoner of his habits, but also the one who can establish the balance in private and business life. Managers should understand the fact that every hour worked with good planning will save more time in the future. Planning takes time, and it saves time, so it has more effective results.

2.7.1.16. Paperwork Fondness

Put your papers in the order of priority, just like your work. Separate documents as vital and trivial and stack them up, make shelves cabinets with drawers for A, B and C-type documents. Raise awareness of the classification of documents and ask for help (Smith, 2007). An effective file process will help the administrator. It is useful to take advantage of the filing system as part of the rule of "Good works are done with good tools". Another way to regulate paper work is to make quick decisions about them and round them up.

According to Atkinson (1997), here is how we can collect the papers;

DOCUMENT

Take action: T

Give: G

Shelve : S

Archive: A

Remove : R

2.7.1.17. Perfectionism

All people wish that things they do proceed on track and well. But occasional works may not proceed in the way individuals want; sometimes people can expect an extraordinary performance from themselves; sometimes their

purpose may not be realistic at all. Attitudes in this way are the most important indicator that people are perfectionists. Perfectionist individuals are very disappointed, they quit their work and despair if things do not work out. Likewise, people are not satisfied with the work they have done because they have set goals that are not very realistic to them, and they cannot act because of their high expectations. That is why even the jobs they can do well do the worst they can or cannot do at all with the fear of “not being able to achieve perfection.” Therefore, to be “perfect” within time management, it can result in **frustration** in this process (Yıldırım, 2015).

You can only do some things as much as you can, and they should be carried out in this way. Planes should be able to fly, trains should be able to go on the tracks, the thermal insulation of buildings should be good, but second-class surgery is not acceptable. This issue is actually entirely related to standards (Atkinson, 1997). People should do the best they would expect, or even everything, but they should never say “I am a perfectionist”. Because this concept evokes an important time trap.

A few time techniques for perfectionism (Karaoğlu, 2015)

- It is necessary to avoid being perfectionist in matters that do not matter.
- By marking detailed reading titles of books and magazines, they should not force themselves to read everything word for word.
- If time is being lost to find something, another thing must be put in its place.
- When wasting time, valuable work should be determined.
- A deliberate job must do at least one of the day away from perfection.

2.7.2. Time Traps Arising from Work

Time traps arising from work include: Inadequate secretarial services, visitors, frequent and long phone calls, organizational uncertainty and crisis situations, routine and unnecessary work, business trips, device failures, meetings. These elements must be used and managed in accordance with the rules in order that the opportunities given do not become traps.

2.7.2.1 Inadequate Secretarial Services

The administrator must benefit most effectively from secretarial services. In this process, it is imperative that they pay the necessary care and care for their secretaries on issues related to time management; If secretaries can manage their time, they can also help managers manage their time. Professional secretaries can make a very important contribution to managing executive times; however, managers must also respect the time of secretaries (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015).

In organizations, both the administrator and the secretary must comply with priorities, pre-agreed decisions and programs in order to use time efficiently. It is very important that secretaries can coordinate their time and the times of managers. Otherwise, time pressure and work stress can surround the whole institution from the top to bottom. Secretaries can more actively express their services using the time management matrix. The main task of secretaries is to ensure that their managers can spend their valuable time making decisions and on administrative affairs by recovering from some of their routine jobs, thus saving time with some means (Juniper, 2010).

2.7.2.2. Visitors

Managers must allocate some of the managerial times they use for organizational purposes for visitors coming from within or outside the organization. It is possible to prevent waste of time by paying attention to the way visitors are accepted, their attitudes and behaviors during the visit in direct interviews with visitors who can come both from within the organization and from outside the organization. The purpose of the visits within the organization is usually to exchange information with the managers of the subordinates and to show themselves to their managers for similar reasons. The failure to accurately determine these places of conversation leads to a time trap for managers (Kılıç, 2015).

If the managers are treated loosely about their “I have come to say hello alone” visits, the managers’ time waste will also become inevitable. There are

ways to protect against visitors other than the circumstances (Can, 2002) as follows:

- To give the secretaries problems in arranging appointments,
- To ensuring that visitors pass through the secretary first,
- To implement designated visiting hours,
- To speak by standing up and thus creating the feeling that you are busy,
- To prepare notes briefly about the subjects of which their subordinates ask him for advice, warning and encouraging them to not come,
- To take measures to restrict long visits.

2.7.2.3. Frequent and Long Phone Calls

Phones are the leading tools for contemporary communication. Frequent and unnecessary interviews are one of the main sources of time loss. As a result of the investigations, it is seen that the work of the managers is interrupted every five minutes because of their phones (Tengilimoğlu, 2015). Phone calls made every day and for similar purposes are nothing more than a waste of time. To use time efficiently, the secretary becomes an important time-restrictor between the phone and the administrator. The secretary is selective among incoming phones, deciding the phones that should be connected to and not connected to the administrator. Thus, the phone's time is not a trap in the management process.

2.7.2.4. Organizational Uncertainty and Crisis Situations

In the event of uncertainty of the organization's goals or program, or in the event of frequent changes, uncertainty and crisis environments for managers are among the factors that cause time traps. In addition, the failure to define the organization's objectives as clear and understandable is another time trap (Dalkıran, 2014). The nonlinear trend of social events and relationships taking place on or off the business leads to uncertainty in terms of future forecasts and expectations. Especially periods of crisis are a period of time when uncertainties are constantly encountered. The concept of uncertainty; factors that affect and affect decision-making or conclusions on any issue

may be described as inability to fully identify (Tekin, Zerenler, 2008). According to Eren, the risk is not directly lost. It is a danger of casualties. An organization that does not face risk is unthinkable (Eren, 2009). The important thing is to take precautions against risk, in other words, to manage it.

The Oxford dictionary describes the crisis as “a turning point for getting better or worse.” Oxford Learner's Dictionary explains crisis as “a vital turning point that arises due to difficult times, future anxiety and danger” (Pira, Sohodol, 2004). In times of crisis, organizations are under extreme time pressure. Decisions made very quickly under uncertainty and time pressure may sometimes not be accurate. Unexpected and sudden decisions can put the manager in a difficult position. Therefore, managers who have to perform important tasks quickly should not overlook the initiative to make very patient and consistent decisions during crisis periods. The crisis causes poor productivity and fears to be created with mental fatigue on employees. Therefore, due to the turmoil in businesses with the crisis, the effective use of employees' time is prevented (Samuk, 2014).

2.7.2.5. Routine and Unnecessary Work

Most of the time management is often taken into account routine things. Over time, they become more mechanical, rigid and soulless and cause a waste of time. By this stage, you start to feel sorry for the time spent on them. We also do not pay enough attention to them when it becomes a habit (Karaoğlu, 2015).

2.7.2.6 Business Trips

Rather managers of organizations, they have to travel as a requirement of their work. To achieve organizational development, the ability to turn the time that appears to be lost during the journeys into a win requires the organization to be organized by the managers with very effective planning to get a better result from the business trips required. Managers should first question the requirements of business trips, if they think that these trips will not contribute anything to the organization, business trips should not be

carried out. By making effective planning by the managers, they can go on business trips and prevent time losses that may occur as long as trips may be extended (Kılıç, 2015). The manager also has a diplomat role for his business. He has to research and develop the new one, follow it like a diplomat and share it with his employees. However, business trips for this purpose should not lead to job cuts and pauses. The time he spends on business trips to his manager makes sense as long as it serves organizational purposes.

2.7.2.7 Device Faults

Keeping our technological devices always interoperable, which have an important place in our lives and are used in almost every field and are also an important part of our business, is one of important issues that should be considered by all employees and followed meticulously. This is because if there is a deterioration in these devices, the work that needs to be done will be done for much longer. As a result, it will result in a waste of time, which is one of the most valuable sources for businesses. For example, failure to achieve adequate measures for computers with broken systems, defective printers, phones that have not been repaired or a machine that has not yet been repaired, our time is stolen due to our retention if necessary, measures are not taken (Özdemir, 2006). Due to the costs of fixing and waiting for the device, organizations not only waste time, but also have to endure enormous costs. The way to address these severe consequences for organizations of the devices is preventive maintenance and timely failure detection.

2.7.2.8 Meetings

Meetings are among the very important tasks that managers at all levels often have to organize. As a matter of fact, thanks to meetings arranged, a number of functions such as distribution of tasks, sharing powers and responsibilities, making decisions, establishing communications, motivation, taking part in management, revealing creativity are fulfilled (Sabuncuoğlu, Paşa, 88). But in addition to all this, non-purpose and unnecessary meetings are a time trap.

There have been some truths that may be considered almost universal. Most people do not have time to keep up with all the meetings they need to attend. Meetings usually waste time. They are boring, confusing, new ones are arranged nonstop, arranged at inappropriate times and last too long (Atkinson, 1997). People attend meetings since they are invited or they seem doing things despite above-mentioned issues. Meetings are a social environment for them to express themselves or feel cared about.

Most meetings are classic time traps. From the discourses that are not relevant to the subject, the participants who are not prepared, the meeting president who lost control of the meeting, the meetings, which are held in order to have a meeting, not when necessary, are important time traps that confiscate the precious times of managers' precious times (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015). In addition to its benefits, meetings are one of the activities that waste over the time of the manager at all levels. Meetings that take longer than necessary are meetings that result in a waste of time. Mackenzie (1989) describes this as follows: "Take half or all-day research and development meetings and staff meetings. The prolongation of these combinations becomes a habit over time. One of the reasons the usual meetings last so long is that people may be willing not to get out of a comfortable seat."

Atkinson (1997) lists the meeting's organizing objectives as below.

- Informative meeting: It is usually for people to communicate general developments and innovations.
- Innovative meeting: New policies, strategies, projects, product methods are discussed about the future.
- Action-oriented meeting: It is meetings where a job is best discussed how to work.
- Persuasion meetings: Meetings aimed at changing people's perspectives, ideas or providing alliances.
- In meetings, the official framework is drawn for innovations and actions.
- Socialization-oriented meetings
- These are habitual meetings.

Rules for making meetings more beneficial (Mackenzie, 1989):

- Investigate if there are other options from the meeting
- Limit the number of attendees
- Choose a suitable time
- Choose a suitable place
- Before you have a meeting, determine its purpose well
- Pre-distribute the agenda
- Calculate the cost of the meeting
- Limit agenda and meeting over time

During the meeting

- Start the meeting in time
- Give someone the responsibility for time-keeping
- Stand the meeting if appropriate
- Start the meeting with an agenda and stay away from it
- Achieve your goal
- Avoid interruptions that will disrupt the meeting
- Remind and ensure everyone's consensus, restate the result and deployed tasks
- Finish on time
- Use a meeting evaluation list for control purposes.

After meeting

- Ensure that the meeting minutes are prepared immediately
- Ensure the implementation of decisions and preparation of development reports
- Take an inventory of the rules. Review all rules

2.7.3 Time Traps Arising from Management Mentality

The following subheadings are covered by this title.

2.7.3.1. Inadequate Communication

Although people live alone with their communities, they can only achieve their goals through communicating. In particular, in organizational and group communications, communication is the indispensable tool for controlling the behavior of individuals working together and directing them for a specific purpose. In this respect, communication is not only an exchange of a message, but also in the process of socialization of people. Quality communication is required to achieve coordinated results. Effective communication is of fundamental importance to all management activities (Tutar, Yilmaz, Erdönmez, 2008).

To blame communication for the negativity in any business may be easy, but communication is at the core of many problems. Poor communication leads to waste of time, inefficient communication takes a lot of time (Allan,1999). When communication is bad, too many hours, days, weeks, even years are lost to be told. This depends on the clarity of the picture in the individual's head. A clear picture of expectations in the manager's mind should exist (Smith, 2007). There are time traps in personal and organizational life due to incomplete communication. Most of the time in organizations is spent on written or oral communications with other people. Even problems caused by communication glitches during this consumed process are a time-consuming factor. Interruptions, difficulties in language and expression, insufficient listening or perceptions, lack of knowledge, different statuses, message barrier, physical distance, time pressure are mainly inadequate communication reasons (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015).

2.7.3.2. Open Door Policy

It is not true that open door policy increases the effectiveness of the administrator. Being always a negotiable person does not guarantee the success of the manager. One of the worst things is that manager is not flexible. The administrator should be given the freedom to close the door according to different situations, the needs of subordinates and the conditions that change during the task. In fact, this problem is not the door, it

is the manager himself and the point of view of the subject (Mackenzie, 1989).

Management can be expressed as the ability to effectively coordinate financial, manpower, physical and other existing resources in organizations to use all resources more efficiently and efficiently at the same time. The time source contained in these organizational resources and which is very important should not be wasted. Together with the open-door policy, it will bring together the demands for visitors to attack and do business. Therefore, if visitors are not eliminated or regulated by an appointment system, there will be chaos for important managers who are more critical (Ardıç, 2010).

2.7.3.3. Uncertainty of Individualistic Targets

Failure to determine the objectives of the organization by the senior administration, the failure of managers to fully define their duties, powers and responsibilities, will lead to managers' inability to manage time effectively and therefore time losses (Dalkıran, 2014). Targets should be clearly and selectively stated at every stage of management. According to Sabuncuoğlu and Paşa (2002), three features of the managerial targets are listed below.

- Administrative objectives must be made within a hierarchical structure.
- With the help of managerial objectives, it is individually strengthened.
- There is a link between goals and time.

2.7.3.4. Lack of Coordination

Coordination, which is also expressed by the words such as coordination, harmonization and regulation, is considered by contemporary management science writers as a purpose of management rather than a function in its own. In coordinating, the manager's job can be likened to the situation of a conductor. Just as a conductor allows us to adapt to the use of different instruments and listen to good music, the situation in management is the same (Balçık, 2002).

The lack of coordination and communication between individuals and units prevent work to be done at the right time and correctly. Many times, different

units on the same subject can also cause conflicts with each other. Coordination refers to the quality of cooperation between departments (Sabuncuoğlu and Paşa, 2002). Co-ordination is the provision of harmony between all actions and departments to facilitate the work of an initiative and increase the chances of success (Şimşek, 1996).

2.7.3.5. Avoiding the Transfer of Authority

Authority makes things easier. Facilitation is that people take control and responsibility for their own efforts and achievements as a result of authorizing them. It is closely related to the power powers that people have (Bentley, 2003). It is one of the ways that can help managers use their own time much more effectively through the transfer of authority. Transfer of authority can be expressed the transfer of the executives' or their own decision-making powers on any issue during their duties to the subordinate, depending on the conditions set out by their own wishes. However, this right, given by the administrators if deemed necessary, can be reclaimed. The important point about the transfer of authority is that managers still have responsibilities at the end of the business. If it is necessary or if it is thought that much better outcomes may be achieved, it is for the transfer of a manager's right to the subordinate temporarily (Kılıç, 2015). Considering the applications, it is seen that managers are stingy when it comes to transferring powers. Authority migration saves managers time in many cases and helps effective management. However, it is also a fact that managers avoid the transfer of authority for different reasons. The following are the reasons for this.

Why to transfer authority (Akinson, 1997):

- Thus, you can spend more time on your priorities and do some things you want.
- It motivates your officers and awakens the team spirit in them.
- It helps people develop their talents.
- Some other people can do a job faster or better than you.
- When things become unbearable, there is someone to help.

Why to avoid Authority Transfer (Eren, 2003):

- Some managers think and believe that they are the best.
- Administrators plan, schedule and transaction use and refrain from announcing to subordinates.
- Not being able to have sufficient knowledge of subordinates and not trusting them
- Lack of special controls to warn subordinates
- Fear of entering risk
- They avoid the transfer of authority, worried that its importance will be reduced and authority will be shaken.

2.7.3.6. Inadequate Planning

Is it really possible to manage time? If possible, what features and methods do you require? What are the factors that prevent time-efficient and efficient use and how do they occur? The most effective solution that can be used to eliminate these factors, without doubt, is to plan the time. Planning is to manage time in a sense (Karaoğlu, 2015). "If you do not know where to go, no way will lead you there." Our conclusion from this form of expression is whether it is individual or organizational, and unplanned work will be ineffective. Planning is to pre-determine future works with the most general meaning (Sabuncuoğlu, Paşa, 2002).

Before the administrator does anything, you must do a planning work on that job. The plans made by the administrator draw a framework for what is performed and what will not be performed in the institution. The applicable plans have positive consequences, such as high customer satisfaction, high morale in employees and high profits that can finance the growth of the institution. If weak planning leads to late delivery of goods, causes machinery and people stand idle, causing overtime at high costs, inefficiency and repetition, unrest and reluctance among employees (Thompson, 2002). Atkinson emphasizes the benefit of planning with the following sentence (1997): "The biggest misconception of people's planning is the additional time this planning brings to the project. But let us take it the other way, it actually shortens the total time. Because everything is coordinated and nothing has been forgotten." Mackenzie (1989) emphasizes that "Every minute allocated

for planning saves three or four minutes in practice.” This refers to the comfort of planning.

2.7.3.7. Uncertainty of task and job definitions

The mandate means giving authority and responsibility to others so that they can do what is necessary to complete the job (Clayton, 2000). By transferring powers to others, responsibility is shared and time management activity is provided. The uncertainty of the task and job definitions will naturally cause turmoil and therefore a waste of time in organizations. Devoting enough time to give clear orders provides more effective communication and higher efficiency. The author must make it clear to the person who will serve what is expected of him and when his mission will be completed (Mackenzie, 1989).

2.7.4. Time Traps Arising from Organizational Structures and Policies

The elements under this heading are as described below.

2.7.4.1. Central and Hierarchical Organizational Structure

If there is centralism in an organization, this results in the collection of all powers and decision-makers at the highest levels. Its powers for making decisions in centralized structures cover a limited and narrow area. Since subordinates who do not have powers have the obligation to transfer all the problems they encounter to the executives, decisions will take a long time to make and their activities will be reduced (Sabuncuoğlu and Paşa, 2002). In this case, it will naturally lead to a waste of time and inefficiency. While written communication is used mainly, formal rules are applied very seriously in central and hierarchical organizational structures; decisions are collected at the highest levels and certainly there is not transfer of authority. The more the centralization is, the narrower the control area will be (Samuk, 2014).

Today, it is seen that bureaucratic structures are getting away from bureaucratic structures with each passing day to make communication more effective. To avoid disadvantages arising from communication, hierarchical levels are reduced in organizations and a lean and flexible outlook is tried to give the organization a lean and flexible appearance. The most important

contribution of this will be time management. Because every level of hierarchy is also a communication barrier and a time trap (Tengilimoğlu et al.,2015).

2.7.4.2. Office Pathology

Widely known as a concept of medical science, pathology refers to a “disease”. According to “office pathology” developed by Victor H. Thampson, after a while, those who work at all levels of the organization begin to see themselves as “vital assets” within the organization, and some authoritarian tendencies are beginning to emerge from this perspective (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015). Such ideas lead these people to the display of authoritarian attitudes towards other employees. Such feelings and behaviors can occur in the upper echelon employees of the organization, or they can also be observed in the lower level employees. This phenomenon is now considered a disease in today's world and is defined as “Office Pathology” (Kılıç, 2015). This is not desirable for offices. Bureaucracy, which has been the logic of continuous deferral of urgent and important work that needs to be answered immediately, is a fatal waste of time for organizations. Because the phenomenon of using initiatives in organizations disappears, things become complicated and waste time. In organizations where the normal communication of the bureaucracy is carried out effectively, the atmosphere of chaos is rare.

2.7.4.3. Non-Ergonomic (Unhealthy) Working Environment

Ergonomics, which means job design or making the work in accordance with the individual, is based on the assumption that the work is prepared to take into account the skills and shortcomings of employees. The primary purpose of ergonomics is to increase job satisfaction and to ensure that employee works in biological, physiological and psychologically healthy environments (Tutar and Altinoz, 2004). Organizations should create the appropriate working environment for employees at all levels.

Quality tools and equipment should be provided in order for the personnel to do their job well. Good work is done with good equipment. The working

environment and environmental order should be planned in accordance with human health; while detecting the creature air of ergonomic environments for today's offices, Mackenzie (1989) indicated: "Changing the working environment has created a radical environmental change. To create a peaceful effect, an uninterrupted image with decorative round holes; spaciousness and wide viewing angle of vivid colors to provide harmony, low and upright angled compartments, a silence obtained with decorative round holes, low and upright angled compartments all together facilitated work, reduced the factors that prevented work, increased the desire to work." With such statement, Mackenzie both emphasize the importance of ergonomic work environments and indicates their difference from traditional workplaces. Unhealthy work environments negatively affect motivation as well as threaten human health. In these cases, it causes a waste of time because it leads to interruptions.

2.7.4.4. Officialism

Today, excessive number of documents and bureaucracy required from many processes and works are among the reasons for an important time trap and waste. Officialism and bureaucracy, which are used with old management approach instead of taking advantage of developments and technologies, are among the main causes of the problem (Dalkiran, 2014). Due to officialism and bureaucratic processes, employees are preventing them from being able to focus on the important tasks they need to do first, and as a result, jobs emerge in which they are generally dissatisfied with (Ardıç, 2010). These unpleasant jobs prevent the effective use of time, leaving a negative impact on employees.

2.8. Instruments for Effective Time-Use

When we look at the time management literature, we realize that many reasons that lead to waste of time are caused by us. On the other side, when time management issues and norms are discussed, we come across another reason: The enemy inside us! In this sense, the shock can be sorted, but the important thing is to be able to use the instruments to effectively use the time

by giving up laziness and deferral. The following elements are one of the most important of these.

2.8.1. Planning

Planning management is the most important management function that constitutes the first stage of the process (Bahar, 2011). Mackenzie (1989) explains the disadvantage of not planning with this striking sentence. "Strangely, one of the main reasons why not planning is to forget the plan to prevent tomorrow's fires while trying to put out today's fire. Thus, plenty of sparks will be stored for future fires." Time is not well managed if managers who are too busy with emergency jobs forget important jobs and plan. On the contrary, manager is caught up in emergency jobs and deceived. Under the section 1.10.3.5, inadequate planning has been described as an important time trap due to management. Making plans regardless of their type is considered as a correct step to be taken in order for time to be managed correctly. However, despite all this requirement, it is not easy to be able to plan because there are many obstacles in front of individuals. The uncertainties of targets and objectives, perfectionism, deferral behaviors are some of these obstacles. Some may not even want to take part in such an effort because they think that people are being robotized through planned life. However, the greatest share of people achieving success is undoubtedly due to their work within a plan and to manage their lives in a planned manner (Yıldırım, 2015). In planning, in relation to any subject;

- What
- When
- How
- Where
- By whom
- Why
- At what cost
- In what time
- What quality

Such questions are trying to be answered. Planning is a process. The plan is a result (Tamer, 2014). Being able to plan is one of the most important elements of effective time management. Planning daily activities a day before the day helps to carry out the activities within that day as planned. Pre-planning is the key to doing business according to plan. In order for planning to be effective, after determining the activities, they must be rated according to their significance level. Accordingly, we can plan time as follows (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015):

- To set priorities
- To plan activities
- To prevent ingesting interruptions during work
- To redirect time to the right activities
- To program time on a daily basis
- To determine the appropriate end times

2.8.2. Benefiting from Technology

In recent years, technology has been developing and progressing at a dizzying pace. Many technological tools, which were previously seen as luxury, have now become a necessity or even necessity both in terms of our business world and private lives. One of the most important keys to the proper use of time is that technological infrastructures can be adequate. This is yesterday's world; it has become a world that has avoided innovation and those who are unable to adapt to new developments will disappear by not being able to be present. Therefore, the technology should be used to the end. With evolving technology, so many things are presented at such a rapid pace that, as a result, organizations have begun to feel obligated to make a regeneration move by establishing the units needed to renew themselves. For example, the fact that the entry and exit of the workplace is done with fingerprint readers will contribute to reducing controls and preventing time loss. The use of e-mail or voice microphone communications in internal communications will benefit from lowering costs, as well as effective and efficient use of time. In this case, technological tools must be used effectively

in order to maximize the time we are using on a fixed daily basis (Kılıç, 2001).

The technology, which is a new method of information production, undoubtedly affects the use of time according to the needs. The most important phenomenon in this regard is the selection of beneficial technology. Some technological tools certainly save time, while others cause time loss. Useful technology selection will lead to more accurate results to make time more efficient. Information technology in organizations has an important function of obtaining all kinds of data, such as converting this data into useful information for the organization. By crossing the boundaries of national circles, the need for organizations to operate on a global scale increases the need to exploit information and communication technologies. Technology is needed in all management levels of organizations (Tutar, Yilmaz, Erdönmez, 2008). Technology stands as both a giving and an opportunity for the effective use of organizational and individual time.

2.8.3. Learning Fast Reading Techniques

In the working life, individuals began to feel the need to read much faster against the flood of paper that came in. Therefore, the development of these aspects by learning effective and fast reading techniques is a method that contributes to the more efficient use of time (Özdemir, 2006). From the individuals who make up a society; if we want to have contemporary, creative and free thinking, we have to instill reading awareness in individuals. Reading is the time people spare to themselves. Unfortunately, this time is thought to be lost. We often produce excuses not to read by saying sentences like “I cannot find time to read because of school, home, work, I do not understand how time flies” (Karaoğlu, 2015).

Generally, quick readings can change their bad reading habits, giving them better reading habits. To read faster, the following basic rules can be applied (Mackenzie, 1989):

- The head should not be moved from left to right when reading each line.

- Do not play or voice words aloud when reading words.
- Do not read it over and over again.
- Expanding the reading angle. In transitions to each new line, look at words in groups, not words one by one.
- To keep the eye from with margins, reading must start from the second or third words of each line.

One of the important ways to stop the habit of reading badly and get into the habit of reading fast is to start with publications in medium difficulty, starting with popular magazines and light books and reading continuously. You should determine test times and avoid reading the same lines over and over again. According to Tengilimoğlu et al. (2015), you need to implement the following strategies to develop fast reading habits and memory:

- Read for a purpose
- Be careful not to read word
- Summed it up by stopping
- Mark it freely
- Do not get stuck in words you do not know what it means, then look
- Create a specific rhythm
- Make scans
- Read selectively

Mackenzi (1989) recommends the following techniques for selective reading, to read quickly and avoid wasting time.

- Before reading the book, take a look at the contents section
- Then take a quick look at it from top to bottom. So, you can understand the author and the style.
- Read carefully the sections that you think include topics you are interested in.

2.8.4. Memory Development and Increase Memory Efficiency

If handled by time size, memory is basically divided into two short-term and long-term memory. Short-term memory is limited only to information found on

the roads conveyed by the sensory organs. Long-term memory can store information for minutes or even years. When we encounter any questions or problems, the information must be called to memory for a short period of time first. At this point, the ability to think quickly becomes very important. Because the information contained in the long-term memory of an individual who has the ability to think quickly is very well regulated, this information can be passed into short-term memory very quickly. If long-term memory did not have the ability to store, nothing could have happened; books, television, learning, communication. In fact, it is our ability to remember the past that allows interactions with my long-term memory environment (Engin, Calapoğlu, Gürbüzöğlü, 2008). Memory supports are systematic methods for improving our memory. The actual use of these strategies is that new information is learned in a much more easily remembered way, in the form of coding and repetitions. In studies, it has been revealed that, regardless of how much the learned information is repeated, it can still be forgotten. Therefore, to remember the information much more easily, coding must be the first thing to do (Korkmaz, Mahiroğlu, 2007). There are six basic techniques that can be used as memory-supporting strategies. These techniques are:

- Link Technique: In this system, information to be learned can be used when it should be remembered within a specified order.
- Keyword Technique: In the keyword technique, it is a memory supporter that can be used to make an unknowable word or a concept a much more concrete and meaningful shape, but also allows information to be recorded in a way that can leave a much deeper memory trail.
- Location (Loci) Technique: There are two main components in this technique. The first is to choose the place, and the second is to create an image. Each item that is remembered is shaped by the mental image by associating it with known spaces.
- Word Hanging (Pegword) Technique: In the word hanging technique, enumerated and listed information is used when you want to be remembered.

- Letter (Phonetic) Technique: This system is called by different researchers in different forms, such as shape-alphabet, numbers-letters, number-consonant or sound-competent numbers, according to topics of interest.
- Story Technique: According to the researchers, they have found that the story method positively and significantly affect remembering.

What should not be forgotten about this in effective learning is that it is essential to keep and strengthen memory continuously. Powered memory, where information is stored by well encoded; it saves time by making names, places, dates, etc. easily and quickly remembered. With the use of some strategies for learning and remembering, it is also possible to increase the effectiveness of memory. Some of these strategies are summarized briefly by Kılıç (Akatay, 2009, Kılıç, 2015) as follows:

- Rather, in learning abstract information, creating visual images that can evokes that information within the mind makes remembering much easier and faster with the help of these images.
- Matching the information that has already been learned with previously learned and memory-contained information makes it easier to learn new information and to be remembered more easily with the help of analogies.
- Attention to what is being learned and understanding the mind with consideration has facilitating effects on learning and remembering.
- Taking care of nutrition and sleep patterns to ensure that memory is kept fit causes increased memory power.
- The transfer of information being learned into memory encoded with the help of keywords and pictures provides ease in learning and remembering.
- Recurring the information learned at certain intervals, using other sources related to the information, learning the details of new information in memory and easy to remember when necessary will be very useful.

2.8.5. Selection of Efficient Time and Energy Periods

Time management is as much about managing energy as it is about hours and minutes. We have a lot of energy. However, even if productivity is improved by regular sleep, good nutrition and ways such as distance to bad habits, there is an end to our energy. As we try to establish an audit on time, we see that other aspects of our lives are affected by this (Atkinson, 1997). For many reasons, the energy level cannot remain the same during the day. Some of us wake up very early and vigorously in the morning, but by the evening we feel overheated.

Some of us can only recover at noon. It opens in the afternoon or towards the evening and the energy level begins to rise. However, what almost everyone feels in common is that after lunch, a weight collapses because we use our energy for digestion rather than for digestion. These watches are our most inefficient hours. It would be a very useful idea to consider the energy conjuncture in the preparation of daily programs. Some of the most useful time for people is early morning. Some people are also at the highest times of success in the afternoons. Setting daily programs to the best time as much as possible would be a much more accurate move (Tengilimoğlu, 2015). Studies conducted on this subject in different sources is striking. Studies of up to fifty and sixty hours reduce the efficiency of the week and have a negative impact on productivity. As productivity decreases, it is suggested that activity decreases and errors increase. Therefore, determining the peak hours of the energy period and planning a job will increase effectiveness.

By correctly identifying their biological type, people should give their priorities to jobs that matter in the time frame when they are most energized. The most basic principle in this regard is for people to know their most valuable time and to evaluate this time in the most accurate and best way. The following are the types and characteristics of the persons according to their biological and time (Kılıç, 2015).

- Morning types: These types are usually energetic in the morning hours, their energy decreases by the afternoon, and by evening hours all their energies are exhausted,

- Afternoon types: They are people who have difficulty sleeping and are seen to have low energy in the morning hours. Although energetic in the afternoons, their performance is seen to decline again in the evening.
- Always ready types: People of this type are those who leave early in the morning and are usually energetic in the morning and afternoons.

2.9. Some Studies Conducted on Time Management in Turkey and Abroad

Macan et al., in their study “the Relationship between Weighted Grade Point Averages and Stress Levels of University Students” conducted in 1990, examined the relationship between university students’ time management skills and academic achievements, and stress. The 123-person sample group was asked questions included in “Time Management Behavior Scale” and “Stress Scale”. Research findings indicated that, as the time management skills of university students increase, weighted grade averages increase and stress decreases, and in terms of time management skills, female students are more successful than male students.

Britton and Tesser conducted a study, “the Impact of Time Management Skills on Academic Achievement”, to determine whether academic grade averages from time management practices can be predicted. Within the scope of the study, 35-item “Time Management Inventory (TMI)” was applied to 90 university students. As a result of factor analysis applied to the inventory, students’ time management skills were collected in three dimensions including short-term planning (7 items), time attitudes (6 items) and long-term planning (5 items). Students’ university entrance exam scores were taken, their success averages at the end of their study periods were also obtained from university sources, and regression analysis was applied to determine the impact of time management skills on the increase in success. As a result of the research, it was determined that the time management attitudes and skills of university students positively affected their academic achievements. When the sub-dimensions were examined, it was observed that short-term planning and time attitudes had statistically significant effects

on the achievements of university students, and that long-term planning had no significant effect.

The research “the Impact of Time Management Perceptions and Skills on Academic Achievement” by Moore (1991) aimed to determine the relationship between time management and academic achievement. Researching the relationship between the perceptions of university students for time management and their self-efficacy levels was also the sub-purpose of the research. The study sample consisted of 238 university students studying in the first class of an art university in the United States, ranging in age from 17 to 19. Students were first asked about their age, gender and the disciplines they were studying, their results from the academic proficiency test (APT) were collected, and it was taken into account whether they had been exposed to an application related to time management before. “Time Management Behavior Scale (TMBS) developed by Macan et al. (1990) was used to collect information related to time management. The scale of 46 items consists of four dimensions. These dimensions include determining objectives and priorities (15 items), planning and programming techniques (13 items), perception of time management (13 items) and organizational preference (5 items).

Wells’ 1993 study, “Time Management and Academic Achievement”, first examined the factor structure of time management, and then tested whether time management practices predicted academic success when general skills related to time management were kept under control. The study sample consisted of a total of 88 students studying in the Psychology Department of Windsor and Windsor University in Ontario, ranging in age from 18 to 26, including 36 males and 52 girls. As data collection tool, “Time Management Inventory” (TMQ) developed by Britton and Tesser, and “Multidimensional Skill Scale” (MAB) developed by Jackson were used. The grade point average for each student’s participation in the study was compiled from university records. In accordance with the research findings, time management was collected under factors of short-term planning and self-confidence in time decisions. The two dimensions identified in this study were similar to the dimensions of short-term planning and time attitudes from the

three dimensions previously revealed by Britton and Tesser. It was concluded that the two aspects of time management were more strongly committed to academic achievement than general talent.

In their study named "The Relationship between Academic Stress and Anxiety Levels of University Students", Misra and McKean (2000) examined the relationship between academic stress, anxiety, time management and free time activities based on gender and age variables. Sample of the study consists of 249 students studying at Midwestern University. Study findings found that the time management skills of female students were higher than those of male students. At the same time, the anxiety levels of female students were observed to be higher than those of male students. In evaluating leisure time, male students are more effective than female students. The anxiety levels of primary and second-year students at the university are higher than those in the third and fourth grade. Students' time management skills tend to increase proportionally with the level of class. When the relevant literature is reviewed, it is seen that very few studies have been carried out on the impact of time management skills on academic success. Although there is a lot of research on the relationship between time management and academic success in the literature, it has been observed that there are no studies examining the power of time management skills to procedure academic success, especially in Turkey. Therefore, this research contributes to the literature.

Demirtaş and Özer (2007) conducted a study titled "The Relationship between Teacher Candidates' Time Management Skills and Academic Success", and the researchers tried to answer the question of whether there was a relationship between time management skills and academic achievements of teacher candidates. Within the scope of the research, the general academic grade points averages and time management scores of the teacher candidates studying at Inonu University in the 2004-2005 academic year were examined in terms of the department in which students attended, and it was revealed that the general academic grade point averages and time management scores differed according to the department in which students attended.

One of the most important studies on time management is the “Relationship between University Students’ Time Management Skills and Anxiety Levels” conducted by Erdul (2005). In this study, Erdul aimed to determine the relationship between the university students’ time management skills and anxiety levels. For this purpose, in the 2003–2004 academic year, time management and situational-continuous anxiety inventory were applied to 322 students studying at Hacettepe University, Anadolu University, Uludag University and Suleyman Demirel University. Of the students involved in the sample, 181 were girls, and 141 were male students. T-test was applied to determine the distribution of Time Management Inventory and Situation-Ongoing Anxiety Scale scores according to male and female students. Correlation analysis was preferred to measure the relationship between university students’ time management skills and anxiety levels. The research findings revealed that university students had a negatively significant relationship between time management skills and anxiety levels. In addition, it can be said that female students are more successful in total time management and time planning than male students. However, the anxiety levels of male students in the study were higher than female students.

In the study titled “Time Management and Awareness of Plannedness” conducted by Can (2005), the thoughts and behaviors of the students studying at Erciyes University about time management and the awareness of being planned were tried to be measured. Within the scope of the study, it was concluded that students attending higher education were involved in time management and effective evaluation, but this interest was not very high. Important findings in this research include that students use their time according to their importance and priorities and follow their plan, their weighted priorities are to study, contrary to expectation, they do not stay for hours in places such as canteen and cafeteria, but they cannot resist the intervening jobs while carrying out their plans, and they cannot evaluate their free time with activities that are appropriate for their abilities.

The study titled “Time Management in Academics” conducted by Silahtaroglu (2004) on time management was intended to determine whether academicians working at Gaziosmanpasa University had information about

time management and to compare different groups of academicians about the effective use of time. When the study findings are evaluated, there is no significant difference between faculty and other faculty members in terms of getting caught up in personal and organizational time traps and the effective use of time. There has also been no significant difference between academics with administrative duties and academics who do not have administrative duties in terms of getting caught up in personal and organizational time traps and the effective use of time. Academics working in undergraduate-level schools are less likely to fall into personal time traps than academics working in schools that provide associate degree education, but this difference is known to be not significant.

The research, titled "The Relationship between University Students' Time Management and Academic Achievements" conducted by Alay (2000), focuses on determining the academic relationship between students' time management skills and the manifestation of gender differences in time planning and academic success. Sample of the research consists 361 students mixed between 1st to 4th grades who receive elective courses in ODTU. Time management inventory was used to collect data. Statistical methods used in data analysis included Pearson correlation analysis and versatile variance analysis. As a result, it was revealed that time management skills are associated with academic success and that female students are more successful in time planning and in total time management than male students.

Kocabas and Erdem's work titled "Executive Candidate Teachers' Personal Time Management Behaviors" examines the behavior of the manager candidate teachers regarding time management. In addition, also the sub-aims of the research are to determine whether the behavior of the manager candidate teachers regarding time management varies according to age, professional experience and duty (province, county, municipality-village). The research, which was organized by the Ministry of National Education's Department of In-Service Education and consisted of a total of 117 teacher candidates from Elazığ, Malatya, Bingöl, Mus and Tunceli provinces, examined time management behaviors according to their perceptions and

contains comparisons according to some variables. In general, it can be said that teachers are in a positive situation for time management behavior. Tukey testing was performed from Post-Hoc tests to reveal the difference between teachers working in the district center and teachers working in the village-town center. According to the Tukey test results, teachers working in the district center were found to line up their work more frequently in order of priority and importance than the teachers working in the village-town center. It was observed that teachers working in the city center are more aware of the feeling that life is uncertain and aimless than the teachers in the district center. At the same time, teachers working in the town-village centers were seen to make more unnecessary phone calls than the teachings serving in the provincial and district centers. In none of the variables of time management behaviors, no significant difference has been detected according to professional experience.

Fidan, Latif and Uçkun, conducted a study called "What Are University Students Doing? Time Assessment or Time Passing? (Sakarya University Example)" in 2005. The aim of the study is to determine what activities university students do at a level of consciousness in certain time periods, but to fundamentally reveal the trends and determinants that university youth reflect in terms of time use. The sample of the research consists of 803 students who study in different faculties and colleges of Sakarya University and have been selected by chance sampling method. The questionnaire created by the authors was used to obtain the data of the research. The questionnaire covers two key sections that measure activities in terms of time zones as well as demographic information and aim to determine which activities are allocated. The results of the study are as follows:

University students have the understanding of "time spending" instead of "time evaluation".

Students have the ability to create an activity combination based on time frame, but this skill in key areas of responsibility is inadequate for developing and diversifying leisure activities.

The average daily time spent reading books is less than an hour. Therefore, it can be said that students do not have a habit of reading or do not like to read.

In 2009, Gözel applied quantitative methods in his work titled "Views of Primary School Teachers on Time Management". The research was carried out in Denizli city center. A total of 468 primary school teachers participated in the study. Statistical methods used in data analysis are a one-way variance analysis of the visual statistics, independent groups t test and one-way variance analysis. The general time management of primary school teachers who participated in the study has been highly determined. It can also be said that teachers who read books or articles on the subject are more successful at planning time.

Başak, Uzun and Arslan (2008) collected data from 323 students through Time Management Inventory (TMI) in their study on the time management skills of nursing school students. Statistical methods used in data analysis are frequency distributions, Kruskal Wallis test, one-way variance analysis (ANOVA), Mann-Whitney U test and Spearman correlation analysis. The total score from the students' time management inventory was 46, the maximum was 127, the median was 90 and the average was 89.41 ± 12.71 . TMI scores of the group with a higher age than students are higher than the other group. There has been a statistically significant relationship between academic success and total ZYE score. As a result of these findings, it can be suggested that students need to improve themselves in time planning. Older students have better time management skills. As TMI score increases, the academic achievement score is also increased.

Rodoplu has worked on strategic management style with 30 business managers and 25 managers from the public sector, with simple random samplement method among the 100 businesses in the list of large-scale enterprises around Kocaeli, taken from Kocaeli Chamber of Industry. The purpose of the study is to reveal the approaches of private sector and public institutions to time management and transfer of authority through comparison, to determine the importance of the private sector and the public

sector in their approach to these concepts, to present solutions. As a result of the study, in order not to encounter time management barriers, the need to systematize functions such as planning, sense of responsibility, targeting, prioritization, decision-making and control has been revealed, apart from these, the most effective way of time management is the transfer of authority, indicating that the transfer of authority should take place from the lower echelons starting from the hill management.

Tuna (2011), in his work titled "Impact on Product Quality in Building Production", aimed to emphasize the importance of time management used in projects and to demonstrate the impact of time management on product quality within the framework of total quality management in order to produce the structure at the planned time and desired quality. As a result of the research, the time management applied in building production organizations is not just about preparing a business program; a real time management can be applied by planning, programming and supervision of time in organizations; Time management should also be used as an effective tool in the effort to achieve total quality, as time and quality are concepts that directly affect each other.

The aim of the study titled "Time Management Strategies of Successful Primary School Principals" conducted by Altun (2011) is to reveal how successful primary school principals manage their time. A total of 59 school principals participated in the study, including 4 women and 55 men. The data is collected via e-mail. As a result of the research, just over half of school principals said they were successful in managing time, while about one-eighth of the successful school principals who participated in the study found that they were unable to manage time, and those who thought they were running their time were not actually very effective at managing time, and in the evenings and on weekends, they took the job home.

Dinçay (2010), in his study titled "The Relationship Between The Time Management Skills and Physical Activity Levels of Selected University Students", examined the subject on a sample group of 128 male and 101 female university students studying at six universities in Istanbul. Physical

Activity Assessment Survey and Time Management inventory were used to compile data. The data was subjected to Pearson correlation analysis, square analysis and multifaceted variance analysis in the SPSS program. In one week, statistically significant positive between the total time spent on physical activity and time planning, and a statistically significant negative correlation was detected among time spenders.

Trueman and Hartley (1996) conducted "Comparing the Time Management Skills and Academic Achievements of Young University Students and Yaşca Olgun University Students" study to examine the effect of the age variable on academic success. The sample of the research was made up of 293 students studying in the first grade of psychology department. Students are covered in three groups: students under the age of 21, 21–25 years of age and over 25 years of age. As a result of the study, it was determined that female students have more effective time management skills than men. Students over the age of 25 have more effective time management skills than students under the age of 21 and 21-25 years old. It affects the age variable, academic success, albeit a little; that female students are more successful than men in short-term planning; in long-term planning, there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups.

Zampetakis, Bouranta and Moustakis (2010), in their work titled "The Relationship Between Individual Creativity and Time Management", examined the relationship between the measurement of creativity and time management attitudes and behaviors. Surveys for data collection were conducted face-to-face with a total of 186 students at three Greek universities. As a result of the research, significant relationships between time management attitudes and behaviors and total creativity were found.

CHAPTER 3

CONCEPT of STRESS, STRESS MANAGEMENT AND THEORETICAL APPROACHES

In this section, theoretical information on the stress will be given, and the literature studies on the subject will be discussed. The types of stress will be discussed in detail about the methods of coping with it, perceived stress and organizational stress.

3.1. Concept of Stress in General, its Discovery

The scientific world used the term, “stress” for the first time in the 17th century by physicist Robert Hooke to explain “the relationship between elastic two objects and external power applied to it” (Graham, 1999; cited by Aydın, 2004). Alvin Toffler’s book, “*Future Shock*” emphasizes that changes will continue in the future, even more rapidly. It seems that the information people will receive, the decisions they will make, and the choices they will make, will increase in the coming time with much more complexity. In parallel, it is anticipated that the importance of the stress factor will continue to increase in the coming years (Yılmaz and Süleyman, 2003.).

Stress is an emotional, physical or mental tension caused by us (Mohr, David C., 2010). Stress is a fact of life (Kewok, 2007). Stress is a response of the body to the burdens of the changing environment (Halko, Lauri, 2017). A stress factor, an objective external condition, or an event that actually occurs, creates stressful situations and threats for individuals (Clark, 2014). Today, stress is a term used by everyone, from people living on the street to scientists who work in laboratories. Many scientists describe this shadow as “stress”, which reduces people’s distance to emotional relationships, decreased productivity and, above all, the love of life (Soytürk, 2011).

The concept of stress originates from the old Latin word “estrece” and old French “estrece”. At the same time, this concept was used in the 17th century in meanings such as disaster, trouble, suffering, evil, grief and sorrow. In the 18th and 19th century, the concept was used to express the pressure on objects, individuals, organs and spiritual structures in their meanings such as power, pressure, difficult (Aydin, 2008). It is not possible to completely eliminate the stress that exists throughout human history. According to Hans Selye, who is one of those who make the explanations in scientific sense and is considered the biggest name by many authors with his 28 books and 1400 articles, complete liberation from stress can only be achieved by death (Stora, 1994; Yilmaz, A. Süleyman, 2003). Therefore, human beings are always in struggle with various elements of stress caused by conditions beginning from the period in their mother’s womb to childhood, from adolescence to adulthood and old age.

In Chinese civilization, while defining stress, the concept of stress was derived from a mixture of words and symbols of “danger” and “opportunity”. Stress shares both of these concepts. In other words, stress includes both challenging obstacles that need to be overcome, as well as new opportunities and gains to be achieved after overcoming these challenging obstacles and tensions. In this respect, both individuals and organizations are possible to provide opportunities and gains if the stress element at the core of working life can be instilled with conscious and purposeful planning (İgrer, 1989; cited by Gökdeniz, 2005).

Today’s organizations pay very serious costs to cope with stress, but they also lose their workforce. Individuals, on the other hand, have severe individual damage as a result of severe effects caused by stress. Therefore, it has become a necessity to take all necessary measures to ensure that organizations raise awareness about stress, control stress and keep stress at an optimum level (Gümüştekin, Bircan, 2005). As a reality of life, stress weakens organizations in terms of structure and operation, weakens employees in terms of performance and weakens life in terms of quality. Due

to all these effects, stress is seen by scientists as the greatest source of danger of our time (Gezer, Yenel, 2009).

3.1.1. Types of Stress Concept

The concept of stress will be explained below under two headings: physical and emotional stress.

3.1.1.1 Physical Stress

In his statement, Hans Selye indicates that many of today's most common diseases are due to the inability to adapt to stress rather than disruptions caused by germs, viruses, harmful substances or any external factors. It causes people to be affected in different sizes and forms than stress due to the presence of both physiological and psychological differences. However, the weaknesses of people from physical and psychological aspects are that they are constantly at risk of stress (Tutar, 2016).

It is one of the factors that causes stress in materials used in noisy and unhealthy offices. The headache of a room full of cigarette smoke, physical complaints from air pollution and nervous tension can also cause stress, extreme temperatures or cold can also affect energy levels and mood (Braham, 2002). Physical environmental factors are stressors that cause stress but often cannot be detected. These factors are externally sourced, so it is difficult to control. Nevertheless, the body does not lag behind the desire to react, which leads to stress.

3.1.1.2 Emotional Stress

When it comes to mind-body relationship and stress, the most appropriate word is "emotion". Because emotions can be evaluated as stress or energy which is certain in its direction. For example, if the feeling is fear, we tend to refrain from the emerging energy and threat. If this emotion is anger, with its energy, we tend to go forward to eliminate whatever threatens us. As these situations suggest, emotional reactions occur at the intersection of thoughts, bodily arousal and behavioral response (Sıgır and Gürbüz, 2014).

In emotional stress, however, these are the tensions that people are experiencing as a result of their bleeding thoughts from their inner worlds without any physical effects from the outside. In fact, in this voltage, which is not caused by any external effects, stimulation of the hypothalamus by taking action due to electrical and chemical arousal in a region located at the upper part of the brain occurs due to the initiation of a chain of advanced chemical events (Yildirim, 2015,).

3.1.2. Positive and Negative Stresses

3.1.2.1. Positive Stress

Stress has emerged as a concept that can have a negative impact on people's activities and efficiencies. It is known that there are studies that reveal that stress has positive effects in addition to its negative effects causing decrease in success. **Stress** is **positively** accepted by increasing productivity in production and not having an impact on the health of working individuals, and **stress** in working life is more concentrated in the productivity of working individuals (Gürbüz et al., 2014).

Stress does not always negatively affect people. The height at the level of stress has negative effects on motivation, while stress at the optimum level can have positive effects on motivation. Therefore, in the event of stress above the optimum level, the existing stress can be taken down and motivation can be increased by using stress-fighting techniques (Ersarı, Atlıhan, 2012: 82).

Constructive or positive stress has a positive role for both individuals and organizations. Low levels of stress cause increased energy. It encourages employees, increases effort, stimulates creativity, increases diligence and attention (Schermerhorn, 1996, cited by Altuğ, 2014). An acceptable stress rate that can be audited and does not exceed the stress limit contributes to the exposure of the individual's existing potential and positively affects its performance. Contrary to popular belief, stress is not always a bad thing. It can be an effective motivator that adds color to our lives: Athletes who participate in the Olympics do not normally break records in training, nor do

actors show the highest success in stage rehearsals. They get the stress of getting in front of the audience who are curious about their highest performances, as we all do (Baltaş, Baltaş, 2011).

3.1.2.2. Negative Stress

Optimal stress leads to increased competition, healthy and efficient work (Leontaridi and Ward, 2002). In addition, a moderate stress affects the ability to improve personal performance (Kavanagh, 2005). However, when the person understands that he cannot cope with this situation in the face of increasing stress condition, destructive or negative stress occurs, which is a negative condition for the individual (Gökgöz, Nevin Altuğ, 2014). People under intense stress can make absences, make mistakes and increase the likelihood of accidents, not only when the job satisfaction decreases, but not only negatively impacted performance; at the same time, all negative consequences caused by stress may occur (Gümüştekin, Öztemiz, 2005). Individuals living under negative stress may not be able to work in the desired efficiency and not perform well.

3.2. Stress-Forming Factors

Factors that make up stress: Individual factors and organizational men will be discussed under two headings.

3.2.1. Individual Factors

3.2.1.1. Personality Factors

Personality is also considered as all of its characteristics, which distinguish people from each other and are effective in displaying their own behavior. According to another source, the personality is expressed as people's own behaviors which distinguish them from other people. In other words, each of the individuals is unique and authentic making them unique from all perspectives (Slap et al., 2013).

Eysenck interprets the whole of the organism's current or potential behavioral patterns as personality (Baltaş and Baştaş, 2016). The relationship between personality traits and stress was investigated through the personality scale

developed by Eysenck. In Eysenck's words, the first is the opposite balance with neuroticism in personality, and the second has two dimensions in the form of extrovertism and introspectiveness that is against it. One of these personality traits in humans is dominant, but also has the ability to determine personality. Reactions are shown to the problems encountered according to the personality characteristics of individuals (Isikhan, 2017; Baltaş, 2016). According to Eysenck, personality sizes are presented in Table 1.

Table 1.

Eysenck Personality Sizes

NEUROTICISM	
Solid	Squamish
Worried	Restless
Self-conscious	Attacker
Calm	Easily provoked
Pessimistic	Changing
Secretive	Instinctively
Unsocial	Optimistic
Quiet	Active
Passive	Social
Attentive	Open to Public
Compatible	Talkative
Thinking others	Ready to React
Protects silence	Relax
Controlled	Live
Reliable	Carefree
Calm	Leader
NORMALITY	

Resource: Baltaş ve Baştaş, 2016, 41.

Stress is a very important element in terms of personality. The source of stress in humans can actually be the personality of individuals themselves. Hans Selye has revealed that the reason for the reactions that people are showing in the face of stress may be due to experiences in people, personality traits, social support sources or physiological predisposition. As expressed by a Greek proverb "it is not events that affect people, it is the meaning they attribute to events." Individuals themselves are the potential source of stress (Yıldırım, 2015).

3.2.1.2. Stress-Friendly Personality Types

According to the research, personalities are divided into a type A and B personalities. It has been revealed that, when those in type A personality structure are exposed to intense stress, they may suffer more heart diseases than those in type B personality structure. Individuals with a type A personality structure have intense impulses, they are aggressive, passionate and competitive. Usually, these people see themselves in an unending competitive environment. Efforts to achieve success, an extravagance time limitation, aggressive and hostile behavior, are the three main characteristics of the Type A personality. Individuals who reflect the characteristics of type B personality are more flexible people without strict rules. They are comfortable, patient, unpassionate, calm individuals who do not get angry quickly (İştar, 2012).

3.2.1.2.1. Properties of Type A Behavior Type

In the 1950s, Dr. Meyer Friedman described a type of behavior called "Type A Behavior" today. A type personality is a combination of similar characteristics such as competitiveness, hastiness and aggression, impatient, oversensitive behaviors (Braham, 2002).

According to Sutherland and Cooper, the typical behavioral characteristics of a "Type A" personality are as follows (Amount, 2016):

- They are constantly working under the heavy workload with the anxiety of being able to reach a certain time.

- This type of people work at home on weekends and nights without rest.
- They often go back to work by cutting off their holidays before they finish their holidays, and they may not even be able to take a vacation.
- They are constantly competing with themselves and other people, often considering themselves to be realist by far-right standards.
- They feel that they are blocked in the work environment, and they think that their subordinates are far from understanding themselves, even though they are angry at their activities.

3.2.1.2.2. Properties of Type A Behavior Type

People who reflect the characteristics of type B behavior are the opposite of people who reflect the behavior characteristics of type A. B-type individuals have more flexibility by eliminating strict rules. They do not have time problems and they are patient, but they are comfortable. They are not too ambitious about success. They do not get angry very easily and do not worry. They enjoy what they do. They do not feel guilty because they show comfort in their work, they work very calmly but regularly. Individuals of type B are seen as a type of A, which lives plain life. They are very comfortable and open. They do not get interested in the concept of time. Being successful or succeeding do not add much to them. They do not enter the race with other individuals. Even in their speech, they have a calm tone and a comfortable. Type B individuals are a type that appears to be confident in themselves and their surroundings (Güçlü, 2001).

Individuals in type A behavior have a very little respect for those who have adopted type B behavior. They find them slow, irresponsible, insufferable. However, smart B's prefer to work with A's. A's are the ones who do the best job that requires sales. The largest enterprises are those with B-type behavioral characteristics (Baltaş and Baltaş, 2011). Individuals with a "B" type personality are more comfortable, more docile, less competitive. They have a less hectic approach to life. They also experience stress, but they are less panicked in the face of coercion and threats (Tutar, 2016).

People of type B value life as a whole, not just results. They know there may be tides in life. There is a time and place to work and to rest. From time to time, they do not fear slowing down and just exist. They know that relief provides greater efficiency and prepares opportunities for themselves (Braham, 2002).

3.2.1.3. Personal Attitudes and Behaviors Causing Stress

Although the source of stress is sometimes caused by external factors, it is seen that its source occurs many times due to personal attitudes and behaviors, the reason. What drives individuals to do something specific, and moreover, their inner power, which forces them to exhibit some extreme movements, is briefly personalities. Personal stress factors caused by the individual's own personality usually consist of the following factors (Tutar, 2016).

Impulses: Impulses are the routers of human behavior.

Aggression and Hostility: If you are a type A person, you may have a tendency to perceive life as a struggle. Therefore, you perceive every day you live, every person you encounter, and every situation as a necessity to overcome. It is not enough to win, you want to be a government. As time goes on, you spend a lot of energies to win small challenges and upset yourself with small, trivial work. In this case, anger and aggression can breed and result in stress (Braham,2002).

Perfectionism: This impulse forces you to achieve what's perfect in accordance with certain standards. When he is under stress, he thinks he cannot do his work as well as anyone else himself. And he is crushed because he does everything himself. In this case, it naturally causes stress.

Pleasing people: While there is no demand, trying to please people by estimating what people need and meeting these needs is an additional source of stress for the human being.

Working Hard: This impulse forces a person to spend more than his own power to accomplish a mission. You do not get away with anything. But when you are under stress, too much responsibility is loaded, stress is inevitable.

Being strong: This guidance always makes the person feel strong and have a high motivation. The urge to be strong makes a person wanted for a solution in times of crisis; but when under stress, the urge for strength can personally turn into an ego and push espousing everything to fight alone.

Working on Variable Conditions: If a person does not know what the area of responsibility is, or if he does not have a clear idea of what to expect and what to expect, it is inevitable that his unease at work and a loss of motivation will increase.

Worrying about Losing your Job: Fear and mistrust about the future create hearing, stress and anxiety,

Taking on too much responsibility: If a person is overly willing to take full responsibility for a job, he is stressed about decision-making and concentrating.

Old age: The mental and physical changes that occur at different ages are less difficult to stand in the face of change when people's ages progress. In this case, it is an important source of stress.

Hastiness: People who try to overcome a lack of self-confidence through success and efficiency are often suffering from hasty disease. However, it may not be possible to do two or three jobs together. With the feeling of being late, individuals whose bodies are stretched by the "struggle escape" response begin to produce stress instead of good emotions (Braham, 2002). Besides these counts, it is possible to count personal attitudes and behaviors such as competitiveness, too much work and inability to improve themselves.

3.2.2. Organizational Stress Factors

This subtitle describes the types of organizational stress factor.

3.2.2.1. Stress Factors related to the Structure of the Work

The stress factors related to the structure of the work are explained in the following subheadings.

3.2.2.1.1. Excessive and Low Workload

Excessive and intensive work can be two types. First, the amount of work individuals will do may be high, and secondly, business is a difficult task that exceeds the power and capacity of individuals. In both cases, it will have negative effects on the mental and physical health of individuals (Baltaş and Baltaş,2011).

Stress on employees resulting from work (profession) is caused by factors such as difficulty, complexity and the intensity of the workload. In addition, organizations are some of the other factors that cause stress on employees, as well as the relationships of people in work and work environments. Stress causes negative effects on employees, causing their productivity to decrease. Having someone with a lot of stress burdens in the working environment can negatively affect not only himself but also the safety of other employees. It is stated that in the working life, it is stated that the transfer of the workforce and the lack of continuity, as well as behaviors such as the effect of stress. (Ivancevich and Matteson,1980: 6; Cited by: Demirel, 2013).

If you have to do more than one job over a period of time, the stress rates of individuals are quite high. The intense workload is also one of the most common sources of stress in the business. As a result of intensive and fast-paced studies, the mental and physical health of individuals can be impaired. The need for more and more power in order for a job to be accomplished, and the fact that the requirements of that work exceed the abilities and skill levels of individuals, cause stress in individuals (Gümüştekin and Bircan, 2005).

As well as the intense workload, the other factor that is the cause of stress in individuals who see work is an inadequate workload. It is often observed that individuals who remain in crisis due to the often sitting time or who remain

due to the fact that intelligence and talent, i.e. routine work under capacity, are forced to do or who work under pressure of time to grow up to a certain date (Soysal, 2009).

3.2.1.1.2. Job Control

The level of control with strengthening of the employee in the organization is very important. The degree of distribution of power within the organization is related to structural strengthening and has a direct impact on the level of control that the employee perceives. Lack of control refers to the feeling that you can have fewer inputs or effects in the work or work environment. The lack of control is usually seen in low-level business. In addition, they may experience a lack of control in those who are affiliated with the organization or a certain situation. The perception of deficiencies in the freedom of control and taking decisions are in business-related stressors. Because if it is perceived that there is not enough control in making decisions about how their work will be carried out, stress arises (Jeremiah, 2009: 12; Cited by: Özen, 2011).

3.2.1.1.3. Working Time

With the higher working time (hours), employees are stressed in people because they feel fatigue from physical and psychological aspects and negatively affect their time use, which they can devote to other areas of life. Rather overtime and shift work systems are key factors that cause stress on employees (Tutar, 2016).

3.2.2.1.4. Shift Work

Shift working patterns increase simultaneously with the industrialization and development of countries working with this order. According to research on countries where this system has been implemented for many years, the system has revealed the conclusion that it has a very negative and destructive effect on people's health. In addition to many factories, studies in the shift pattern are also applied in transportation, in the field of mail and communication, in the health services sector. Shift work system affects health and flexibility at two key points. The first is in the shift pattern,

disrupting the biological rhythm of the body in terms of sleep patterns and digestive system; the other negatively affects family life and social life (Baltaş and Baltaş, 2011).

3.2.2.1.5. Wage and Career Management

The relationship between the values produced by an employee and the fee it will receive in return is one of the basic functions of commercial organizations. Efforts to increase living conditions by increasing the wages earned by employees are attempted to achieve the highest profits in institutions with the least investment and spending costs. A significant part of the stresses in business life are due to these conflicts (Baltaş and Baltaş, 2011). Being able to achieve the goals set in the business life of individuals, to be able to gain more power, dignity and income in return for them, and to ensure career development, their desire satisfies their needs and needs, or in some way the prevention of employees causes stress. Career planning, personal career goals and the process of identifying the tools required for individuals to achieve these goals. In reality, career planning affects both individuals and organizations (Işıkhan, 2017).

3.2.2.1.6. Job Insecurity

Individuals who are concerned about losing their jobs can cause their self-esteem to decrease. Family environment also negatively affects this situation because of the high level of stress in employees during periods of staggering economic crisis, companies shrinking, mergers or workplace closures (Aytaç, 2002; Işıkhan, 2017).

3.2.2.1.7. Job stress

Job stress is a psychological variable that has gained increasing importance in human resources management studies in recent years (Nouri and Soltani, 2017). Workplace stress or workplace stress refers to any characteristics of the work environment that threatens the individual, which causes insufficient material to meet excessive demand or need, and an increased tension in a person (Rajan, 2014).

The work of the individual determines the status of individual in society, the satisfaction of life, the opportunities he can offer to his family, and the pleasure he receives from life. According to S. Freud, there are two factors that are effective in protecting the health of the individual, it refers to “loving your job and loving life.” Hans Selye explained the solution to dealing with the stresses as follows; “Do your job in the best way to get rid of stress.” As two scientists on earth have a lot of effects on the history of thought, the work life and the saturation it brings are directly related to the body and mental health of individuals (Baltaş and Baltaş, 211).

3.3. Stress Factors related to Organizational Culture, Climate and Structure

3.3.1. Stress Factors related to Organizational Culture

The organizational culture covers values and norms shared by members of a community unit. These values and norms show the right ways to others. Cultural values are also reflected in real patterns of behavior (Erkutlu et al., 2011). Although there is a common values system in Organizational Culture that concerns the whole organization, each unit or department has its own value system. The cultural structure of the organization is a source of stress for employees. This is because employees cannot easily adopt the values and norms that make up the cultural structure (Tutar, 2016).

The culture of the organization is extremely important for both the organization and the employees of the organization and minimizes the uncertainties within the organization, explaining to employees how and how to do the work, while also undertaking some functions. Thanks to the Organization Culture, members of the organization learn what is good for themselves and their institutions, what is bad, what is intended and what should not be done (Şahin, 2010).

Some of the stress factors associated with cultural structure in organizations are as follows. Morale and low satiation, different perspectives in the business environment, incompatibility with common values and norms around the business environment, injustices in assessments, managers not

support subordinates, lack of team spirit and strong leadership deficiency (Tutar, 2016).

3.3.2. Stress Factors related to Organizational Climate

They express different concepts, although the organization's climate and the culture of the organization are related to each other. The organizational climate and organizational culture should not be confused. Organizational climate is a series of features that take a specific period and describe the organization. The main ones of these characteristics are the direction of the goals with size, structure, complexity, leadership style (Yüksel, 2004; Özen, 2011).

According to Cherrington, A (1994), the organizational climate is indicated as the fact that “the climate term refers the set of features or qualifications that distinguish an organization from another organization.” Cherrington uses the phrase “this definition is similar to the concept of personality, and in reality, the climate of the organization is often implied as the personality of the organization”. Halpin says that “what personality is for the individual is the climate for the organization” (Karcioğlu, 2001).

In his article (Bucak, 2002), Bucak grouped the dimensions of the organizational climate as follows.

Individual Features: Opportunities for satisfaction, promotion and progress, respectability, disability, trust, being sensitive to other members of the organization with the care shown to individuals, the risk to be taken into consideration, the relationship of friends.

Organizational Features: Structures of organizations, organizational policies, organizational purposes, rewarding system and pricing, organizational conflicts, organizational conflicts, very strict surveillance and inspections, effective communication, leadership, decision-making, organization development opportunities, organizational openness, responsibilities.

Environmental Features: Restrictive and motivating circles, working conditions (boring, satisfactory), managerial support, oppression, compliance, criticism of management (Bucak, 2002).

Poor communication, lack of social support, conflict between governing and managed, relationships with staff function, subordinates and superiors, cause stress in organizations. According to Sutherland and Coopere, the management style is also an important source of stress. An executive with predominant scientific technical aspect is more of a source of stress than an administrator who uses interactive procedures in management processes. The climate of the organization, which does not allow democratic processes within organizational activities, is a closed and more threatening climate (Amount, 2016).

3.3.3. Stress Factors related to Organizational Structure

Luthans examined the sources of stress related to the structure of the organization in four groups. These groups are the only people who have been able to Organizational policies, structural characteristics of the Organization, physical conditions and organizational processes. With the growth of organizations and becoming more complex, the sources of stress that affect individuals are also growing in parallel and reaching a level where the organization can control more difficultly. Stress sources in organizations are shown in Table 2. (Işıkhan, 2017; Tutar, 2016).

Table 2.*Causes of Organizational Stress*

Organizational Policies	Structural Features of the Organization
Unfair success assessment	Exclusion from centralism decisions
Insufficient wage	Lack of promotion opportunities
Stiffness of organizational rules	Extreme formalities
Changing workgroups	High degree of specialization
Contradictory methods	Interdependence of organizational divisions
Frequent displacements	Conflict between executive and advisory units
Physical Conditions	Organizational Processes
Ignoring crowded working conditions and private life	Inadequate communication
Excessive noise, hot or cold working environment	Inadequate communication regarding the level of success
Toxic substances and radiation	Uncertain and contradictory goals
Air pollution and work accidents	The success assessment is false and contradictory
Insufficient Lighting	Unfair audit order and insufficient information

Resource: Işıkhan, 2017: 79.

3.3.4. Mobbing as Organizational Stress Factor

Mobbing is mainly used in German, the term “bullying” is used as a more popular term in English-speaking countries and especially in Scandinavia and Italy. Mobbing has been being investigated in Sweden and western European countries for three decades with various aspects. However, this phenomenon is still rarely known and studied (Sroka, 2016). Heinemann first coined the term “mobbing” in 1973 as an academic term linking the aggressive behavior of a group of children to some animals and birds (Ekşi et al., 2015). The concept of psychological abuse, which has been known to exist for many years in our country but has not been fully defined, has taken its place in our

literature with names such as psychological violence, psycho-terrorism, psychological harassment, intimidation, bullying, emotional harassment, emotional bullying and so on (Naktiyok, Polat, 2015).

Mobbing is an internationally recognized workforce problem for organizations today (Eurofound, 2012). Spiritual factors are becoming as important as material factors in providing the activities of employees who form the most important source of their goals in organizations. Therefore, in addition to these factors that support human resources in terms of positive business behaviors, there are also psychological violence (mobbing), and similar situations that cause negative effects of these behaviors (Erol, Öztoprak, 2015).

The European Occupational Safety and Health Agency (EU-OSHA) describes mobbing at work as “repeated, unreasonable behavior towards an employee or employee group that poses a risk to health and safety.” Mobbing causes not only serious social restrictions, but also health problems in affected people. Mobbing costs serious costs not only because it loses productivity for employers, but also because it damages the company’s image and increased turnover (Tong et al., 2017).

Mobbing is affected by many factors including social status, the personality and status of the victim, the structural characteristics of the working environment and the hierarchical order, as well as the psychological structure of performer of behavior. Studies have revealed that mobbing is more common in public institutions such as non-profit schools and hospitals, in communities where high unemployment rates are seen, in communities where workers are deemed worthless (Kehribar et al., 2017).

Mobbing inside businesses begins with a process of conflict in which managers are incapable of solving, resulting in individuals subjected to mobbing facing not only emotional aspects but also physically harm. Anyone who is targeted in the mobbing process is forced to leave his job by establishing a raid by being directly or indirectly disturbed (Karahan, Yilmaz, 2014: 56-94). As a result of mobbing, psychosomatic symptoms may occur

such as headaches, tachycardia, stomach problems and sleep disorders, distraction, social isolation, negative effective discharge and appetite changes (Korkmaz et al., 2016).

The potential effects of the victim exposed to mobbing also have negative effects on the workplace. Businesses continue their activities in different sectoral conditions with different sizes and different production models. Therefore, mobbing claims have very different effects in the workplace when they arise. In addition to the very serious losses in the performance and efficiency of the victims or victims in front of them, especially in the time they have allocated to the workplace with the work, it is possible to sort the other possible effects of the business as stated below (Şimşek, 2013):

- Overall productivity in the workplace is adversely affected.
- Deterioration in working relationships in the work environment, incompatibilities between employees and managers.
- It is seen that absences at work, use of leave and health reports start to increase.
- It causes organizational belonging to weaken or completely break.
- It leads to the loss of employees with qualifications and experience.
- It is a cycle in the workforce.
- If the issues are moved out of the workplace, the reputation and brand value of the institution will be damaged

3.3.5. Stress Factors Caused by Organizational Role

3.3.5.1. Role Uncertainty

Role uncertainty stems from lack of knowledge and openness and lack of clarity in a particular business position. This leads to employees being ambiguous about their job goals and responsibilities (Schmidt et al., 2012). Role uncertainty occurs when working individuals do their jobs, clearly do not understand how expectations exist from them, or their thoughts on what they should do from themselves (Doğan et al., 2014). According to Vincent Onyemah, role uncertainty is the perception that someone feels helpless by the lack of information needed to perform a job or a task (Onyemah, 2008).

If the role in the organization is complex, if the task lacks an openness, creates contradictions, and if conflicts occur between the requirements of the task, it is natural that such a task is a stress factor. Complexity and contradictions in the task contribute to the emergence of stress as well as the emergence of cardiovascular disease (Işıkhan, 2017).

3.3.5.2. Role Clash

Role conflict occurs when the individual, who has to perform two or more roles simultaneously, appears to make it difficult to follow one of the roles as required (Işıkhan, 2017). If individuals have many roles and they make an effort to adapt their roles according to the groups in which they belong, they are likely to encounter a number of problems. Because employees must meet the different expectations that are formed in order to perform all these roles. Individuals may experience role conflicts in the face of such situations (Ivancevich, 2010; Perrewe et al., 2004; Robbins and Coulter, 2009; Doğan et al., 2014).

Role conflict seems to be more of a problem for individuals in the intermediate level. It is generally not easy to expect the upper echelons to perform what they need to do from the lowest levels. In general, it is seen that the responsibilities given to the individuals who do this task and the powers given are not of the same criteria. At this point, it is very clear that the powers of individuals in the intermediate level are very limited, but their responsibilities in the works they are asked to do are very broad and should perform these tasks as well. Due to this situation, there is a tension and friction between the lower and middle echelons many times (Baltaş, 2011). Role conflict negatively affects employee performance. When there are some significant differences between the grades given for expectations, the role conflict varies significantly (Ahmet et al., 2014).

3.4. Stress Management

Under this title, stress management will be explained in the relevant concepts of the province.

3.4.1. Stress Management Concept

Stress management is a continuous process for monitoring and detecting stressors that have negative effects on productivity and that create difficulties for not only those who work, but also to the managers (Robert, Brian, 2005; Özen, 2011). It is the process of coping with stress, problems encountered in daily life and dealing with events and situations that cause stress on the person, and the use of different methods to eliminate stress (Işıkhan, 2017).

To cope with stress and improve quality of life, changing the situation or changing the responses to the situation constitutes stress management. In other words, I am going to have to stress management is called stress-coping, reinterpretation, stress avoidance and cognitive restructuring strategies by making stress-reducing changes adopted by a person under stress, or by making interventions that can change stress effects. What these strategies have in common is that almost all of them foresee the control of personal habits and physical, psychological and behavioral structures. Thus, measures are taken against the stress response that begins in the body and is harmful (Karakaya, 2015; Güçlü, 2001).

The high cost of compensation for the damage caused by stress increases the importance of stress management. Research shows that being at an appropriate stress level means achieving 90% of the job. Managers are undoubtedly the most densely experienced areas of stress tension today (Tutar, 2016). Studies on stress factors show that the type of stress that is most closely related to physical and mental illness among people is “social stress” or “interpersonal stress”. In this case, one of the most important changes we will make to manage our stress may be on our interpersonal style. For this reason, it is useful to review our style, correct or prevent the recurrence of the problem sides (Sıgır and Gürbüz, 2014).

3.4.2. Stress Management Strategies

Lazarus and Folkman express stress as a process in which objective stimuli based on people’s cognitive evaluation strain are translated into perceptual experiences, rather than looking at whether existing stimuli are actually

factors that constitute stressors/stress. In this context, when people consider external world-borne stimuli as challenging for themselves, they make some attempts to deal with them. These initiatives include cognitive or behavioral efforts to reduce or control the effects of the stimuli, internal and external coercions of the people exposed to (Hamarta et al., 2009). People's coping strategies, on the other hand, are often considered problem-oriented or emotion-oriented coping. Below are these two cases described in more detail.

3.4.2.1. Problem-Oriented Coping Strategies

It aims to deal, solve problems or do something. Join, act or change perceived stress, manage and overcome it (Chu, Chao, 2011). It includes efforts to grant stressful situations in problem-driven granting (Bulut, 2017). If individuals' relationship with the environment varies with the act of dealing, it will be seen that psychological stress conditions also change in a positive way. This is defined as problem-driven coping. Coping is based on mental evaluation based on whether the stress-stresses can be changed. According to this assessment, problem-oriented coping is put into practice if something can be done that can be done by interfering with the stimulant. Problem-driven coping examples are as follows (Işıkhan, 2017).

- Individual problem solving
- Decision-making
- Solving interpersonal disputes
- To get advice
- Determination of objectives
- Good evaluation of time
- Self-control
- Accept responsibility
- Able to solve problems planned
- Being able to stand positive on the problem

3.4.2.2. Emotion-Oriented Coping Strategies

In emotion-oriented dealing, it involves behaviors to regulate emotions aimed at reducing the emotional tension caused by stress. Studies show that the problem-oriented coping strategy is more effective than the emotion-oriented coping strategy and is accompanied by a variety of psychological symptoms with the emotion-oriented coping strategy (Folkman and Lazarus, 1991: Cited by Bulut, 2017). Although it is suggested that some of the events have features that will lead to the initiation of stress response, it is assumed that the effects of these events on people's bodies actually have a very important role in how individuals understand this event. Mental processes become very important in making these comprehensions and in the evaluation of stimulants for individuals. Stress responses begin not by detecting stimulants, but with the conclusion that stimulants are dangerous as a result of making a mental comment (Hisli Şahin, 2009). Subsequent stress responses will result in environmental or personal characteristics, resulting in these mental evaluation and coping processes.

Examples of emotion-driven coping are as follows (Işıkhan, 2017):

- Cognitive efforts to understand the meaning of events
- Cognitive reforming
- Social analogies
- Minimizing
- To be able to see the good side of things
- Avoiding, escaping
- Denial
- Avoiding problems
- Seeking social support
- Confrontation, coping
- Thinking delusional
- Tendency not to engage with mental problems
- Effective communication

Stress threatens the well-being of the individual and their coping skills, physical safety, self-esteem and internal peace. Disability, conflict, sudden life changes and pressure can also create stress in individuals (Sarıcı Bulut, 2017).

Unfortunately, many of the ways of coping are in the science that cause more stress. For example, alcohol is widely used to deal with stress. Even if alcohol use initially evokes the feeling of relief by getting rid of the negative effects of the day with a little relaxation, the emergence of the need for alcohol consumption, which begins regularly and continues to increase, especially in the long term, is also a new source of stress (Braham, 2002). All of the same cases apply to drugs with drug influence.

3.4.3. Stress Management Techniques

3.4.3.1. Individual Stress Management Techniques

3.4.3.1.1. Physical Exercise and Sports

Physical training and exercises are a very important stress management technique applied in reducing the negative effects of tensions and tensions in the body on the organism. Cultural physics, gymnastics, cycling, swimming, jogging and aerobic movements and over-avoiding movements are examples that can be given for physical exercises. Physical exercises accelerate blood circulation and ensure that cells eat well, so they are long-lasting. The benefits of physical exercises are listed below (Isikhan, 2017):

- Relaxation of muscles and mental relaxation
- Increasing the efficiency at work
- Increased stay and increases in energy
- Emotional relaxation and relaxation
- Better quality sleep
- Stronger bones
- Reduced anxiety
- Lowering the risk of heart disease
- Protection and recovery against back and back pain
- Increased personal self-esteem

- Being healthier

In addition to physical exercises, exercising is another way to control and reduce stress. Studies have shown a 25% increase in brain activity by pedaling for half an hour. Dealing with sports is sending more oxygen to the brain and removing the tension in the muscles. Massage is also an important antidote to reducing stress. Energy is one of the most important benefits of exercises. The body, which is worn out by stress, re-store energy with the help of exercises. Thanks to exercises, people not only feel an energy boost, but also spiritually relax (Braham, 2002).

3.4.3.1.2. Change-Accept-Let Go-Manage Lifestyle (CALML)

One of the individual stress management stages is "lifestyle management". Deciding on stress management means deciding to improve the quality of life emotionally, physically and spiritually. You can manage your stress using the Figure 3 model. CALML refers to a long-term stress management plan rather than a solution approach in the short term. Every step in the model, there are some methods for controlling our lives, to bring the harms of the stress we are experiencing to useful situations. CALML approach offers a different and new perspective on how we should live our lives. Stress management actually involves the necessary changes in the mental structure to survive without stress. This means a change of "lifestyle" in a sense. In the CALML model developed by Braham, controlling and managing stress consists of four stages (Braham, 2002). These stages are given in Figure 3.

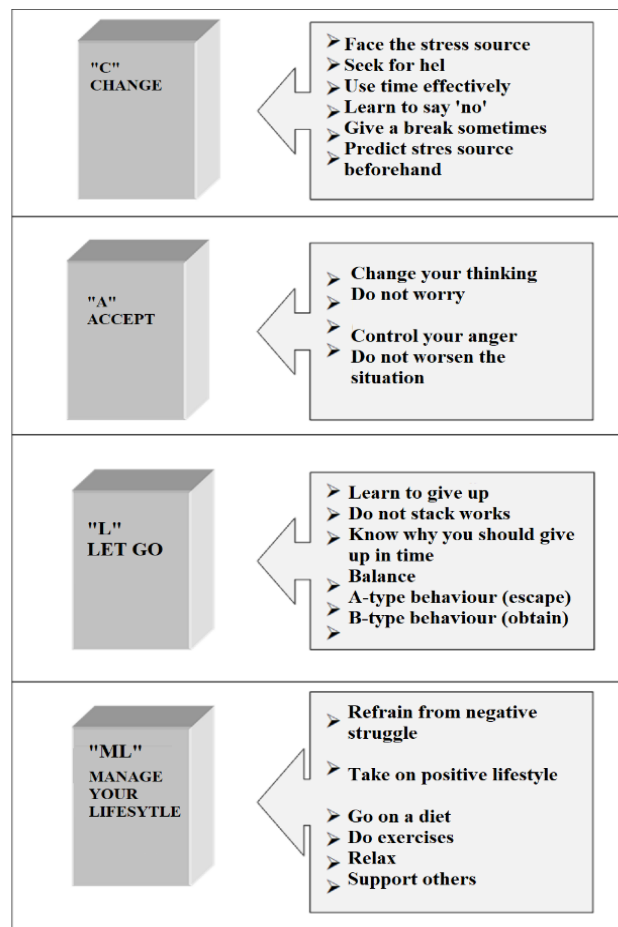


Figure 3. CALML Model

Resource: J. Braham, 2002, 61.

The first step of the CALML model is C; the stage of change. If it can happen, it will prevent you from changing the conditions that cause you to enter the stress environment. It is possible to change adverse conditions and the complete elimination of stress from this condition can also be achieved.

The second step is A; Let yourself accept it. When faced with situations where you are unable to control, you should be able to learn that the conditions are accepted without anger and that the positive approach is not lost.

The third step is L; it is a representation of let go. Ignoring it with no space is a very useful and effective method from an emotional, mental and spiritual point of view. Striving to control situations that you cannot afford to change almost leads us to an obsession with control, and again, this situation causes stress.

The fourth step is ML; it is the Management of the Lifestyle. In this step, it enables the start of today to combat factors that have the potential to create future stress through exercises, diet, relaxation and relaxation and emotional support (Yıldırım, 2015).

3.4.3.1.3. Yoga, Zen and Meditation

These individual stress management techniques are products of Far Eastern philosophy. The belief in Buddhism also includes methods used by different denominations. The common point that each of them meets is to clarify the thoughts, to renew their world views, to remove people from their bad desires, to discourage me from being self-involved. Yoga and Zen are also trained in a discipline. A very strong will training; they support it with a small diet. Especially in the early morning, in the hottest and coldest, they work to create durable spirits and bodies with their trainings. Samurai is also known in the form of spirit and mentality (Tutar, 2016). With the help of these trainings, the body gains stress resistance.

Meditation is an important method of coping with stress. The simple meaning of meditation is the calming of the brain. To meditate, you do not have to wear certain types of clothes, change faith, or put the body in difficult shapes. Meditation is a state of mind. Thirty minutes of meditation a day is recommended for mind relaxation (Rowshan, 2015).

3.4.3.1.4. Biofeedback

Biofeedback management allows you to learn muscle tension and relaxation. Hand temperature, pulse, muscle tension, and operation of the sweat gland are measured with the help of a machine. These are the signs of “war or how many” reactions. After basic measurements are made, systematic relaxation

stages are learned. The measuring machine gives information on how deep relaxation is. Biofeedback is the perfect relaxation method for migraine, tension headache, high and low blood pressure, arrhythmia in heart beats (Altıntaş, 2014). Biofeedback is often combined with other interventions to provide participants with some information about the effectiveness of a stress management program. Individuals learn to recognize and respond to measured data such as muscle and skin activity (Jordan et al., 2003).

3.4.3.1.5. Social Support

Emotional support can act as an important protector against stress formation. It is almost a buffer between stress and health. Two researchers, Homles and Raye, conducted a study examining differences between people who get sick and do not get sick as a result of similar stressful conditions. The research showed that the main difference between these two types of people was the level of social support they could get (Braham, 2002).

Social support is a concept that requires a strong and increasingly close relationship with important inferences for skill development. Whether it is natural or conscious, it is argued that for at-risk groups, supportive social networks are necessary to prevent the negative emotional and health effects of stress. The network of supportive relationships can reduce stress in a variety of ways. The results of the research also indicate that social support acts as a buffer in physical and mental health (Işıkhhan, 2017).

3.4.3.1.6. Personal Time Management

Wherever there is management, it is necessary to plan and strategize. A time strategy must be prepared for the effective use of personal time. Successful people are people who resist hard work, who insist on unpleasant work. Individuals who fail to manage time are inevitable to be under stress due to the resulting time pressure (Tutar, 2015).

3.4.3.1.7. Worship and Prayer

From the beginning of history, he used religious and spiritual therapy and maintained his value. Religious and spiritual perspectives have content of

ideas, meaning and value. It turns from destructiveness to religious philosophy that will work. Religious and spiritual texts can reduce anxiety. Existential philosophy puts meaning in the focus of human life. Living for meaning and ideal increases happiness. It turns to harmful negative thoughts in emotional disorders. Religious and spiritual opinion leads to positive thoughts (Altıntaş, 2014). The essence of religious philosophy is worship and prayer.

Individuals have feelings and beliefs along with their material presence. An individual who has lost these elements means that he has lost his peace and health. The most important factor in this is to believe that it gives peace to people and strengthens physical health. On the contrary, the emergence of both physical and mental illnesses begins in the absence of faith. For centuries, people have lived in bliss, happiness and peace, believing in God for centuries and wishing and waiting for everything from Him (Cufta, 2016).

Prayer is the most effective way to deal with stress and pain. Trust and faith in the love and justice of the great creator; to be patient. Prayer allows us to be solid in the face of trouble and scourges. It allows us to stand up to adversity. When we pray, we accept that we are powerless and weak, but the creator is the most powerful. This humility gives people strength and courage (Rowshan, 2011).

Developments in the field of science and technology in recent years provide people with many new opportunities and opportunities on the one hand, while on the other hand demanding a very high price for all these gains. As a result of the gradual purge of sanctity from our daily lives, it has severed the bonds of individuals based on mutual trust with the universe and other people, deprived them of spiritual values that add meaning to life, as the traditional institutions and values system that offers individuals a world of security are disrupted. In fact, spiritual values, along with their most basic needs, such as asylum, have much more and more support for life, to endure difficulties, to make sacrifices, to be able to make sacrifices, to provide support from psycho-social perspectives such as responsibility, productivity, and also have

an impact on the protection of people's mental health in the face of sad events such as death (Berger, 2002; Emhan and Çayır, 2010).

3.4.3.1.8. Communication

Existence for human beings is about eliminating physical, physical, social and psychological needs. By nature, man cannot meet these needs alone for at least five or six years from the moment he was born. He needs other people, other adults. In the process of eliminating each of these needs, communication is the most important tool. If communication is sufficient, chronic stress will not occur. However, because an inadequate communication will not be addressed, stress is inevitable (Sığrı and Gürbüz, 2014).

It is very important that people communicate with each other. We have to communicate with other people to express your feelings and convey your wishes. The hardest day of human life is the day when he does not communicate with anyone. Research has shown that people isolated from other people are more unhappy than people who are mingled with other people. Individuals who communicate well with people feel better and are not nervous (Arthur, 2015).

3.5. Organizational Stress Management and Management Techniques

Defined by the situation in which individuals are physically or psychologically considered a threat (Atkinson, Atkinson and Hilgard, 1995) to the individual's self-esteem or goodness (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978); stress is examined under three groups as threatening or harmful to existing sources of stress, the psychological and physiological effect of stress sources on the person (Hansen and Sullivan, 2003).

As a mental and physical condition that may affect individual efficiency effectiveness, health and quality of work directly and negatively (Gill, Flaschner and Shachar, 2006), stress can be triggered to activate a wide variety of hormonal secretions in sympathetic nerve system in the form of tension when individual faces with a difficult situation or with distemper (Cartwright and Cooper, 1997). It is associated with a variety of chronic

health problems including work stress and cardiovascular diseases. It leads to hypertension, musculoskeletal system and psychological disorders, reproductive disorders, mental and neurological problems (Swanson, 2000). When people believe that they give little effort to change a stressful situation, they tend to use emotion-oriented coping, and when they believe that their requests or resources may be altered, they use problem-oriented coping mechanism (Völlink, Bolman, Eppingbroek and Dehue, 2013). Behaviors of employees and management at workplace are not only results of their motives and needs, but also results of their perceptions covering everyone in that organization (Harris and Hartman, 2002).

Organizational stress is considered to be one of the major issues in managerial terms as a factor affecting working performance of each staff ranging from new workers to the highest-level officers (Ross, 1997). The sources of organizational stress are gathered under four headings by Luthans (1989). These include organizational policies, structural characteristics of organization, physical working conditions and organizational processes. With an overall assessment, it can be seen that researchers concentrate on workers' functional environment while grouping organizational stress sources.

3.5.1. Determination of Organizational Roles and Reducing Conflicts

Role uncertainty occurs when employees do not have an idea of what their expectations are when they do their jobs, or if their thoughts about what they should do and what they are expected to do are opposite. In other words, employees may experience a role uncertainty in cases where they are not aware of the behaviors of the task, they are expected to exhibit their roles or their role, or where roles are not very clear and clear (Doğan et al., 2016).

In reality, role conflict and uncertainty have been revealed by studies that, as in many places, are a source of stress and affect other members of the organization. If the administration reduces conflicts and clarifies organizational roles, it can also eliminate or reduce stress due to these factors. Employees at organizations also do not want to face conflicting and

ambiguous demands. Role conflict and uncertainty have previously been expressed as an important source of personal stress (Işıkhan, 2017).

3.5.2. Improving working conditions

Improving working environments and turning them into a regular shape also reduces the frequency and likelihood of job accidents, which contribute positively to the rise of morale and motivation surged in employees. The clean and well-maintained tools and devices used in the workplace and are also useful to the morale and motivation spurts of the employees, as well as to behave very carefully (Camkurt, 2007; Soysal, 2009).

Today, it is accepted by everyone that noise, lighting, color scheme and weather conditions in the working environment are stress-causing physical factors. Natural sunlight is the healthiest in terms of lighting and color scheme. It is important to carry out periodic general health examinations and troubleshoot problems for employees in workplaces (Işıkhan, 2017). An ergonomic workplace environment contributes to reducing stress and tension.

3.5.3. Redesign of Jobs

The first studies on redesigning jobs were put forward by Taylor in the 1910s. In Taylor's words, good design of equipment, a good pricing policy with motion work, is one of the factors necessary for ensuring job satisfaction and job motivation. Again, within the scope of Taylor's principles, it is also very useful for keeping the communication channels between the supervisors and the employees open in terms of workplace health (Bilgiç, 2008).

The business environment is planned and determined by the managers with the tasks to be carried out within the organization with the help of the business design process. A business design that can meet the organizational requirements required to ensure high performance, adapt with individual needs and capabilities, and offers opportunities for job satisfaction to be realized needs to be carried out. Robbins outlines the existing alternatives available to managers who demand that employees' work structures be

changed or redesigned; These are business simplification, business expansion, business rotation and business enrichment respectively (Robbins, 1998; Marangoz, Biber, 2011). These alternatives will be tried to be explained in the following subheadings.

3.5.4. Work Rotation

The work rotation provides a variety of tasks by moving employees between different tasks. The business rotation is a widely used work design approach that many companies apply at some hierarchical levels. Rotation is the result of the efforts and determination of the human structure in the companies, their efforts to harmonize with technical processes. In our country, we can say that it serves towards the objectives of increasing the performance of employees for this technique, which is generally successfully implemented by companies belonging to foreign capital. The first requirement to achieve these goals is to ensure that applications in business rotations can first create desirable effects on motivating employees. In this regard, rotation, reduction of monotonousness, preparing employees for management, determining the work and position that can ensure the highest efficiency, increasing social communication, raising knowledge-skill levels with the help of the functions of the creation of such motivational effect (Kaymaz, 2010).

3.5.5. Business Enrichment

Business enrichment includes the development of the attributes of the responsibilities required by the work, the opportunity to be recognized, the opportunity to succeed, as well as the essence of different skills, the identity of the task, the meaning, the autonomy, etc. These enriched tasks will be effective in reducing stress sources compared to more mundane and structured jobs. It should also be remembered that jobs enriched by some of the businesses cause much more stress. Regulations for diligent and carefully constructed tasks are an effective way to deal with work stress. While it is possible to give people much more responsibility by enriching jobs in terms of their content, at the same time the opportunity can be taken in order to achieve success in front of you and they can be promoted according to your personal efforts. This can create a variety of skills required in those

who work, their degrees of importance are determined in the work done and individuals can also be able to do meaningful work (Güç, 2001).

Business enrichment tries to make employees more responsible by increasing the level and complexity of the tasks they have to complete and giving them the authority, they need. Motivates employees by giving them the opportunity to use their talents to the fullest (Marangoz and Biber, 2011).

3.5.6. Staff Strengthening

It can be expressed in the form of strengthening, sharing, training and team work, which is a very important concept of management, to increase the rights (powers) of individuals and to develop individuals. It expresses the conditions and conditions, where the motivations of individuals working with empowerment are increasing, their confidence in their expertise and knowledge is increasing, they are willing to act by using the initiative, beliefs that they can keep processes in check, and that they find their organization meaningful in the direction of their goals and allow them to do the appropriate activities (Akçakaya, 2010). These conditions will lead to stress reduction and increased motivation.

It refers to a concept beyond the definition of personnel empowerment, distribution of responsibilities, participatory management or any administration. Staff empowerment is “making individuals more powerful”. However, this strengthening does not mean that they are made strong within the hierarchy of the organization or financially. Rather, development as individuals is to make individuals more knowledgeable, most importantly by strengthening their ability to build constructive relationships with them and establishing beneficial relations with other individuals, and making them stronger by enabling individuals to create their own environment (Doğan and Özge, 2009). In business environments with these characteristics, staff empowerment will make working individuals more confident and stress resistant.

3.5.7. In-service Training Programs

One of the most effective methods to prevent stress and burnout is the training to be given in burnout. With training on burnout before employees start to work out, employees will be prevented from loading their complaints into spike factors by ensuring that they are recognized early when they see future symptoms. In-service training programs aim to improve employees' knowledge, experience and capabilities so that employees can improve their predisposition to work, to increase productivity levels, and to perform their duties and responsibilities much better in the future (Işıkhan, 2017).

3.5.8. Social Support Systems

Social support is one of the most effective ways for employees to find job satisfaction in the organization. People can find social support in many different ways depending on their personalities. Accordingly, social support (Amount, 2016);

- Whatever the subject of social support and under what circumstances and where it comes from, it is useful for the individual.
- Types of social support can be emotional, cognitive and material.
- A network of social support owned by the person reduces or acts as a buffer, reducing the impact of negative life events or stress factors.

Individuals may occasionally need additional mother-in-law, outside their own resources. These supports help to concentrate and get rid of negative thoughts and deal with general problems. Social supports have three sources (Altıntaş, 2014):

- To support ourselves
- To get support from others
- To get support from other sources.

3.6. Selye's Systemic Stress Theory (General Compliance Syndrome)

The fact that the concept of stress in the field of science and mass media is so popular was significantly due to the study by endocrinologist Hans Selye. In their research on animals, he observed that some stimuli (hot, cold and toxic factors) can have general effects. In addition to these general changes in the body, it has been observed that each stimulant has undoubtedly created the unique effects on them. For example, temperatures cause the vessels to expand and the cold causes the vessels to shrink. In Selye's testimony, these general changes constitute a uniform, in other words, a reaction specific to systemic stress. Selye refers to systemic stress as a condition that occurs with the help of a syndrome of all changes that are generally awakened within the biological system (Selye, 1976).

Stress is the body's vague response to any demand. A stressor is a factor that produces stress at any time. General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) represents chronological development of the response to stress sources as its actions grow longer. It consists of three stages: alarm reaction, resistance stage and exhaustion stage (Selye, 1976; Selye, 1950). General compliance syndrome is a concept created by Hans Selye in 1936 as a result of laboratory research conducted in biological tradition (Işıkhhan, 2017). According to the exchange rate, when individuals encounter stress sources, the sympathetic nervous system is activated; "fight or escape" reactions occur in the body (Altıntaş, 2014). These stages are described in detail below.

3.6.1. Alarm stage

Alarm response is a condition in which the organism perceives external stimulus as stress (Altıntaş, 2014). There are two steps in the alarm phase. On the first step, the balance in the organism is deteriorated and a shock is entered. There are many stresses in the deterioration of balance in the organism. Within this stage, a chemical change occurs in the organism that causes the formation of a war-and-run response. On the second step, the "anti-shock" adaptation process begins (Işıkhhan, 2017).

3.6.2. Resistance Stage

After the alarm stage comes the “harmony or resistance phase”. If you can adapt with the source of stress, everything will return to normal. This stage is trying to regain the lost energy and repair the damage to the body. When dealing with stress, the parasympathetic nervous system begins to gain activity. Heart beats, blood pressure and breathing begin to improve, and strain in the muscles decrease. If it is in the process of resisting, individuals make every effort to resist stress, reflecting a stressful human behavior. It can be observed that this situation persists in the behavior and lives of individuals for a while (Güçlü, 2001).

3.6.3. Exhaustion Phase

If the stress-causing event is very serious and lasts long, the exhaustion step for the organism will be reached. Sometimes, alarm period reactions occur again during this period. The ability to adapt to each living thing and its energy are different and limited. Sleep and rest can repair the body, but in the face of ongoing and in-copious stresses, the balance is broken, the energy of harmony ends. After these, seizures of exhaustion and exhaustion are observed, now irreversible traces gain to the organism. The organism becomes open to diseases during this period (Baltaş and Baltaş, 2011).

3.7. Cannon’s Approach to Fighting or Escaping

Cannon also developed one of the oldest models of stress. In this approach, which is also called the Model of Struggle or Escape, stress is defined mainly as responses to physiological external stresses. Cannon said individuals have the ability to manage stressful events, and therefore stress is adaptable. In addition, Cannon acknowledged that there may be a number of medical problems due to constant stress. According to Cannon, survival depends on his ability to respond successfully to the threat (Ogden, 2004).

Stress refers to a condition caused by the threat or excessive difficulty of physical or spiritual boundaries in the organism. In the event of threats or strain, living things have the ability to mobilize a chain of reactions to protect themselves. This feature actually refers to the emergence of an answer

called “war or run” when faced with danger. Faced with a danger, the living tries to move away from the dangers he believes he cannot cope with, and he begins to fight the danger he believes he can cope with, thus adapting to the situation that arises. In case of threat, a number of incidents occur not only physically but also at the psychological level in the organism. Although changes in the physical level exceed the same steps in each of the people, psychological events may vary in connection with personality and environmental conditions and individual conditions (Baltaş and Baltaş, 2011).

Stress in Cannon’s testimony occurs when external, environmental demands breaks down individuals’ upset the natural and stable state balances. Cannon refers to stable state balance as homeostasis (continuity of normal conditions in the organism). Cannon is interested in the role of the sympathetic nervous system in mobilizing an individual, especially in the face of stressful situations, believing that people’s bodies are designed with natural defense mechanisms that can protect homeostasis (Quick and Nelson, 2009; Özgen, 2011).

In different sources, the reaction of “fighting or avoidance” is generally seen as a reaction by stress-oriented prototypical (model) people. Fighting or responding to escape was evaluated as a movement in the physiologically sympathetic nervous system. In addition to physiological consequences, it is thought that fighting or running is adapted as a metaphor for people’s behavioral responses, while people (or animals) are linked to the nature of stressors (stimulants) to whether they will struggle or run away as their response to sympathetic stimulants. If the organism detects a danger or predator, it will act if it is felt that it can eliminate it. If he eerily perceives the threat, there will be a better chance of avoiding the threat (Shelley E. Taylor et al., 2000).

3.8. Lazarus’ Psychological Stress Theory

Richard Lazarus is more interested in the psychological dimension of stress. Lazarus emphasizes the psychological and cognitive aspects of the reactions to stress, not the medical and physiological aspects. Like Cannon, Lazarus

considers stress as a result of environmental interaction with the individual, and attaches importance to the perceptions of individuals when classifying events with individuals in a stressful or stress-free form. Individuals evaluate people and events from different angles. Situations that are stressful for some individuals are not stressful for other individuals (Özen, 2011). Lazarus's psychological stress theory focuses on the size of fighting. Lazarus refers to the issue of fighting as cognitive and behavioral efforts that burden individuals and show continuity in managing specific external and/or intrinsic demands that can exceed the resources of individuals (Lazarus, 1993).

Lazarus illuminates this topic in his work on mental psychology. The factors that will help explain the situation are treated as primary evaluation and secondary evaluation systems. Primary Evaluation; To perceive the situation and to evaluate what the ethics of the individual mean. Secondary assessment: If the first stage has evaluated the individual's life as a source of stress, the second stage is related to the way the event is directed and the way to deal with the incident (Baltaş, Baltaş, 2011).

Primary and secondary assessments determine whether individuals react to stress. In Lazarus's testimony, individuals can react in four ways in case of stress. These reactions include;

- Direct action,
- Collection of information,
- Not doing anything,
- Mechanisms of relaxation and defense.

A different perspective has been revealed in the Lazarus model, which focuses on the evaluations and procedures between individuals and their circles, regarding the reactions shown in the face of stress. According to this perspective, individuals are not passive to their outside world, but interact mutually (Ogden, 2004).

According to Lazarus, there are 15 basic emotions. Nine of these feelings (nervousness, fear, anxiety, guilt, shame, sadness, jealousy, envy and hatred) are negative, four of them (happiness, pride, comfort and love) are positive. The

other two emotions are feelings that can vary with hope and compassion. At the microlevel, for example, reactions to fear are based on primary and secondary assessments. There are some targets that are difficult to reach but also have dangers. Other than that, the discrepancy of the targets is at a high level, in other words, it appears that individual targets are being blocked. The last is focused on being able to maintain individual meaning or ego-identity in the face of ego-interested threats. Very specific types of evaluation stresses or emotional reactions at the macro level are described as basic relational themes. For example, the theme of fear faces uncertainties and existing threats (Krohne, 2002). Lazarus and Folkman indicated that a small number of stress factors universally create tension among employees. Cognitive Evaluation theories: They assume that employees only cause stress as long as they assess their own welfare threat (Lazarus, 1995; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984).

3.8.1 Consequences of Stress

Stressors, which are the cause of stress, cause individuals and organizations to show different reactions. Low levels of stress increase individual and organizational achievements; high levels of stress reduce the level of success of business essay and organizations (Özen, 2011).

3.9. Consequences of Stress

Stressors, which are the cause of stress, cause individuals and organizations to show different reactions. Low levels of stress increase individual and organizational achievements; high levels of stress reduce the level of success of business essay and organizations (Özen, 2011).

3.9.1. Individual Consequences of Stress

The stress experienced by each individual in society for various reasons has negative effects on both himself and his surroundings. However, some researchers examined the concept of stress in terms of the motivating ability of stress to motivate employees, while some researchers examined the employee's ability to risk work performance and physical health. However, what these works have in common is that they are not going to be able to do

that it is now that employees should learn to live with stress on the one hand and to fight it on the other (Kaya, 2010). The consequences of stress can be classified as physiological, psychological and behavioral consequences.

3.9.1.1. Physiological Results

There is a central nervous system where two different systems are united, such as para-sympathetic nerves, which have soothing effects with the sympathetic nervous system that have simultaneously stimulating effects in the human body. Sympathetic nervous system usually has the function of accelerating the work of organs. On the contrary, there are effects of slowing and appeasing the operation of internal organs in para-sympathetic systems; In His work, Amount, Crisis and Stress Management describes physiological ailments as follows (Tutar, 2016):

Circulatory system cardiovascular diseases: Disorders such as palpitations, irregularities and increases in heart beats, chest pain, myocardial infarction, hypertension,

Disturbances in the respiratory system: Too much breathing, bronchitis and asthma,

Disturbances in the digestive system: Lack of appetite, very viral eating, indigestion, ulcer and gastritis,

Disturbances in the reproductive system: Some disorders caused by function disorders of the reproductive organs,

Internal secretion glands ailments: Hypertrophy, diabetes,

Skin ailments: Nettle rash, eczema, psoriasis, hair loss,

Migraines with disturbances in the motion system: Calcifications, ailments caused by strain of muscles, types of chronic headaches.

3.9.1.2. Psychological Results

3.9.1.2.1. Anxiety

Anxiety is broadly an emotional response from people to events in the outside environment; in a narrow sense, its origin and start can be defined as a condition that is felt effectively, although not consciously, followed by sweating and similar physiological changes in the person (Snowball, 2012; Alpertunga et al., 2016). Spielberger discussed the concept of anxiety in two ways: situational anxiety and constant anxiety. Conditional anxiety is defined as a temporary form of anxiety that develops depending on a stressful situation and is usually experienced by every human being. Constant concern is that this feeling is continuous in human beings as a result of the intensity of stress and increased frequency of situational emotional responses (Karabulut et al., 2013).

Although anxiety and stress have been used synonymously in many areas, there are precise limits that distinguish the two concepts. Anxiety is a state of emotion in response to sorrow. Harmful factors caused by external and internal environment create strain in different areas of the organism, structures and functions. Strain is stated as the price the system pays in the process of returning to balance or the amount of energy it spends (Işıkhan, 2017). Anxiety disorder negatively affects people's social lives. It causes weekday losses, reduces health-related quality of life and reduces functionality (Beesdo K. et al., 2010).

3.9.1.2.2. Depression and Symptoms

Depression refers to collapse as a word and refers to descending from a certain level. Depression is not a new disease. However, in industrialized and urbanized societies, it has become prevalent to the extent that it has never been seen in any period of history today. The World Health Organization (WHO) states that 3-5% of the world's population, approximately 150-350 million people, has various levels of depression (Baltaş and Baltaş, 2011).

According to Gezer and Yenel, business competition, the characteristics of the work and the sources of stress have different effects on the employees.

Depression is one of the most obvious reactions these effects have created on people. Depression is not only related to work, but can occur for different reasons in different areas of life (Gezer and Yenel, 2009). According to Işıkhhan (2017), the following symptoms come to the fore in people experiencing depression: Loss of appetite and weight loss, sleep disorder, decreased pleasure from life and loss of interest, slowing down in movements or unrest, sexual reluctance, worthlessness and guilt, feelings of despair and grief.

3.9.1.2.3. Insomnia

The quickest way to stress people is to keep them from sleep. Individuals who rest and sleep well can cope with stress better. One of the most complaints of individuals in the stress-inspired state is the subject of sleep disorders. People spend almost a third of their lives sleeping. Through sleep, loosening and relaxation are provided by sleep, relaxing in terms of the body and spiritual aspects. Sleep is as important a need for all living things as air water and nutrients (Altintas, 2014). Insomnia can be a very important stress factor during stressful times. Insomnia can destabilize the body and cause stress in excessive sleep. They note that insomnia leads to fatigue, depression, anxiety and mental problems. Quality sleep has an important role in coping with stress.

There are many factors that prevent good sleep at night. Alcohol, caffeine and nicotine are factors that prevent quality sleep. Caffeine stimulates the central nervous system, causing it to stay awake. Alcohol causes a wake-up when digested from the body. Nicotine is also a strong stimulant. Sleeping pills can impair sleep patterns and quality because they show stun side effects. All these countless lead to insomnia and therefore stress. Relaxing and loosening exercises are recommended to sleep well (Arthur, 2015).

3.9.1.2.4. Burnout Syndrome and Symptoms

The concept of burnout, which caught the attention of researchers and scientists after the 1970s, is one of the subjects that many relevant scientific studies have been conducted on it (Tansel, 2015). Freudenberger, a clinical

psychologist who has been working on organizational stress for a long time, coined the term for the first time in 1974. Freudenberger's concept of burnout is expressed as exhaustion from emotional angles, caused by the intense workload of individuals and the inability to fulfill the requirements of jobs (Freudenberger, 1974). Maslach and Jackson later described burnout, physical exhaustion in humans, prolonged fatigue, desperation and feelings of despair, as well as failure and dissatisfaction with the individual's work, a physical, mental and emotional syndrome that covers negative and cynical attitudes towards life and other people (Maslach, Jackson, 1981).

Burnout, which is usually a more common phenomenon in face-to-face occupations with humans, is that the employee feels exhausted and exhausted. In this case, the individual health of an employee will be impaired, and the efficiency will be significantly reduced from an organizational point of view (Polatçı, Özyer, 2015). McKee and Wiens (2017) describe the state of burnout as follows. Why is stress on the rise? Many of the stresses have to do with the uncertainty in the world and the constant changes in our organizations. Most people spend more hours than ever before, working hard at work. The lines between work and the house have been blurred or disappeared. The working conditions make us angry and angry with bosses and colleagues who make us watchmen. Under these circumstances, our performance decreases and people suffer. Work feels like a burden. Burnout now exists in every corner of the workplace. Happiness at work is not a distant possibility. Yücel and Öztoprak's emotional, behavioral, physical, psychological classifications of the symptoms of burnout are as shown below (Erol and Öztoprak, 2015).

Emotional Symptoms: Trust covers feelings of decreased motivation, anxiety, desperation, confusion, apathy, feeling of failure, frustration, boredom, anxiety, despair, lack of concentration, resentment, alienation.

Behavioral Symptoms: They consist of distances, resentments, indifference to work, not spending too much time with people, slow behavior and lack of duties, not keeping enough records, hurtful words, all individuals approach with suspicion, careful not to talk, avoidance, emotional burst behaviors.

Physical Symptoms: They can be specified as depression, retreat, headache, insomnia, chronic cold, blood pressure, diabetes, ulcers, colitis and cancer.

Psychological Symptoms: Such as loneliness, being hopeless, blocking, familial problems, sleep disorders, depression, being overly angry, being more punishing, developing feelings of hostility, fears and anxiety.

3.9.1.2.5. Personal Methods in the Fight against Burnout

Individual measures to be taken to cope with burnout can be sorted as follows.

To be aware, to know and know yourself, to be realistic, personal developments, relaxation, knowing boundaries, hobby, time management, vacationing, a quiet life, if necessary, job change, to know how to deal with stress (Ardıç and Polatçı, 2008; Yücel and Öztoprak, 2015).

3.9.1.3. Behavioral Results

As given in Table 3, psycho-social and/or behavioral factors can affect the functioning of the body. Methods such as personality traits, behavioral patterns, emotion types and densities, and ability to combat stress affect the body in some ways. Psychological, social or behavioral stresses and strain are one of the most important accelerating factors that can be the cause of disability and deaths, regardless of the levels of economic development in many countries around the world. Smoking, excessive alcohol consumption, drug addiction, obesity, increased accident trends, loss of preventive health care and disease risks, increased premature deaths, behavioral consequences of stress easily observed (Işıkhan, 2017). Table 3 includes behavioral physiological and psychological effects of stress.

Table 3.*Behavioral Physiological and Psychological Effects of Stress*

Behavioral	Physiological	Psychological
Short-Term Effects	Short-Term Effects	Short-Term Effects
Excessive smoking and alcohol use	Headache	Fatigue
Weakness in relationships with people at home and work	Back pain	Anxiety-reduction in self-perception
Reduced job efficiency	Weakness-Nausea	Depression-Distress
Thoughtless emotional distress	Sleep problems	Irritability (Quick Flushing)
	Indigestion and tremors	Difficulty in concentration
Long-Term Effects	Long-Term Effects	Long-Term Effects
The breakdown of your marital life and family life	Heart disease	Lack of appetite
Lack of appetite	Hypertension, Ulcer	Chronic depression and anxiety
	Deterioration of overall health	Irritability, Suicide

Resource: Işıkhan, 2017, 119.

3.9.2. Organizational Consequences of Stress

3.9.2.1. Poor Performance

The successes and efficiency of organizations in business life can only be achieved by increasing the performance of working individuals. One of the elements related to the performance of working individuals is that they are exposed to stress. Stress is expressed as their reactions to the negativity that people have encountered. Individuals should face stress if they are not aware of which profession they are. The aspect of the concern to working

individuals is the decrease inefficiencies or performance of the workforce due to adverse consequences due to stress. The competitive environment, which is multiplying with changes in business life, forces organizations to increase their productivity, and in parallel, organizations increase their expectations from employees (Gökgöz and Altuğ, 2014).

The ability of organizations to show important activities in the working environment depends on their employees and employee performance, their psychological status, i.e. stress levels. The appropriate psychological climate can only be demonstrated by individuals at the positive stress level. The fact that the organizational climate is at a level to maintain that positive stress has a direct interest in efficiency and performance (Tutar, 2016).

3.9.2.2. Employee Circulation Speed

Working under stress in organizations causes those who work to become alienated, worried, integrate with the organization and not be satisfied with their work. Evaluating better job opportunities, career opportunities, job insatiability in social and economic terms are factors that increase the speed of employee turnover. The height at the employee speed is considered a reflection of the stress of working individuals. Having to work in a constantly stressful environment in an organization can also interfere with the organization of individuals trying to work and to satisfy the work (Işıkhan, 2017).

Although the high speed of the period of work is not directly linked to organizational stress, it is one of the important organizational reflections of the stress factor. According to a study, some of the reasons for leaving work are management difficulties, job guarantees, social security issues, promotions, pricing, favoritism, physical working conditions and environment, work intensity, working time, confusion of jobs, compliance, communication and harassment in the workplace environment, as well as stress (Yılmaz and Halıcı, 2010; Özen, 2011).

3.9.2.3. Absence to Work

Many studies have shown that job seers have a relationship between work avoidance behaviors and job insatiability. The main dismissal behavior is dismissal and absence. In order for employees to cope with stress, they try to stay away from the environment they are working in and not go to work. Job absence can be caused by unwillingness, lack of responsibility, lazy behaviors and the effect of alcohol addiction, as well as due to serious ailments such as heart attack, hypertension and ulcers (Işıkhan, 2017).

In many sources, absence to work is defined as the person's lack of work in person. Absenteeism can be divided into excuses or excuses.

It is the case that the absence of work without making excuses does not go to work without giving any excuses to the managers of the business, or if it does not offer an excuse to accept even if it has not been reported. Whether the excuse put forward by the employees sits is also varied according to businesses. In the event of an excuse absenteeism, it can occur with the behavior of the job seer in the face of excuses or situations accepted by the business. In the event of an excuse and absence, the job seer cannot do a check because of the excuse. There is nothing that individuals who do in the emergence of situations like funerals where health problems can happen or where they are required to participate. On the other hand, in case of absenteeism without excuses, the situation becomes even different. Those who work often keep the situation under complete control by making decisions in the direction of their personal goals (Ramsey et al., 2008; Şahin, 2011).

With absences, there are also very serious problems for businesses. Some of these issues are listed below (Şenel, 2012).

Increased operating expenses: Due to absences, there are increases in the operational costs of enterprises. If the employee does not come to work, he will either have to postpone the work he is obliged to do, or cause an additional workload for another colleague with his own workload.

Morale breakdown in employees: If other workers or workers are assigned to the workers who have not come to work, the morale of the working individuals will also be adversely affected.

Delays for project dates: If one of the employees does not come to work, delays in the dates of the projects are also inevitable; in this case, operational costs will increase, and at the same time, the satisfaction of customers and the goodwill of the customer will also be abused.

3.9.2.4. Alienation to Work

The concept of alienation is a topic that has been discussed since the last century. Hegel believed that individuals felt a very fundamental division, alienation, between objective and subjective selves. Durkheim perceived alienation as a product of individual isolation in an unintegrated society. Sartre attributed alienation to an existential trilogy. Marx believes that alienation occurs in workplaces in capitalist societies where people are powerless to control their business conditions and objectives (Işıkhan, 2017).

With the products beginning to be produced more similar to each other due to technological developments, and with the changes in the expectations of consumers and the increasing concentration of the competitive environment, an expectation has emerged in a way that employees should add their feelings in addition to their physical and mind forces to gain an advantage. This is especially true for jobs where the interaction between customers and employees is more concentrated, as a result of the characteristics of the work. The workers in such jobs are also called emotion workers. Emotion workers are more likely to spend their emotional efforts than physical or mental labor. In addition, emotional labors can produce negative consequences in terms of looking after emotion workers. Emotion workers who feel compelled to behave differently by hiding their feelings that they feel real can face problems such as being unable to understand and express themselves at work. Due to emotional contradictions caused by differences between what they feel in real terms and their roles in work, problems with alienation can arise (Kaya, Serçeoğlu, 2013).

In articles about dashed and generous job alienation; Blauner indicated that alienation to work occurs in the following situations: Alienation is a syndrome of a number of different objective situations and subjective moods arising from the socio-technical states of employees and work, and a goal for working individuals not to gain control in their own business processes, to develop a sense of function in their production or work, to the society in which they are a member, and to express themselves in their self-expression (Kesik, Cömert, 2014).

3.9.2.5. Industrial Accidents

Occupational diseases occur in working environments with occupational accidents, and risks are very important in this respect. For this reason, occupational health and occupational safety issues have become more important for economic, social and technical reasons and become more attention-taking. Having many negative effects on industrial accidents in terms of state, workers and employers and having a humanitarian dimension to solve problems has become imperative to examine the issue with care (Aydin et al., 2013,).

Industrial accident is one of the most serious problems that individuals working from economic, social, spiritual or physical perspectives can always encounter. 90% of the causes of accidents revealed by the studies were revealed by studies that the human factor is due to the human factor. It is noted that the remaining 10% occurs due to inadequacies and physical and environmental conditions (Işıkhan, 2017).

The deteriorating working conditions of organizations are also in the stresses that trigger stress. There are also very important roles in the occurrence of business-related accidents, such as noisy environment, vibration, hot air or humid environment, inadequacy of lighting or dusty workplaces. Research on occupational accidents examined how environmental factors created effects; poor workplace working conditions (noise, vibration, heat and humidity, lighting and dust) can cause accidents directly, as well as indirect aspects of

the psychological condition of those who work suggests that they may have negative effects (Camkurt, 2007).

3.10. Some Studies on Stress and Organizational Stress Management at Home and Abroad

Organizational stress has been an issue that has attracted researchers for many years. Drabek and Haas examined the phenomenon of organizational stress in 1969 with laboratory simulation technique. In the study, which dealt with a police department's communication system, it was found that under stress, the system was unable to function.

In his 1978 study, Abdel-Halim examined the effects of stress resources on dissatisfaction, care and anxiety in executive-level personnel. The data was collected from 89 managers in the Midwest. When the research findings are examined, it is seen that there are statistically significant, moderate relationships between stress sources and dissatisfaction, care and anxiety.

When past studies are examined, it is seen that organizational stress is an interdisciplinary working area. In particular, psychology researchers have conducted many studies that address organizational stress. In his 1992 study, Firth-Cozens discussed the impact of early family experiences on detecting organizational stress. This study with 170 doctors is a longitudinal research. According to the research results, the basic stresses of work stress are the main beneficiaries; self-criticism and the age of your father. However, it has been revealed that those who witnessed their parents' divorce at an early age showed more clinical symptoms. In addition, both individual and organizational factors have an impact on perceived stress.

Brouillette and Quarantelli examined the bureaucratic alignment of organizational stress at Ohio State University. According to the study, there are at least 4 internal factors affecting the organization's adaptation to stress; in a particular case, these include the demands perceived by the personnel associated with the organization, especially decision makers, bureaucratic structure, the organization's emergency capacity and perceived efficiency and efficiency. However, as stated in the study, organizations are not isolated

structures. Therefore, there are a number of external factors. These are; conditional factors, ecological factors, inter-organization relations, community and community factors.

Schabracq and Cooper examined the elements discussed in different stress models in 1998 with practical practices and a phenomenological approach based on etology, microsociology and cultural anthropology. The authors demonstrated the need to pay attention to individuals in motivation through organizational culture, and suggested that people focus on what they have to do and what they want to do.

Research by Stordeur, D'hoore and Vandenberghe examines the impact of leadership and organizational stress on emotional burnout in nurses. The questionnaire created was sent to all nurses working in a university hospital. With the return of 625 nurses, the answer rate of 39.2% was caught. The data has been tested with correlation and multiple regression analyses. As a result of the study, emotional burnout of stress factors was 22% and leadership factors were 9%.

Pathak (2012) worked with a sample group of 200 managers in its research, which examined the impact of perceived organizational support on the stress-satisfaction relationship. The data was analyzed through scripture statistics, Pearson correlation analysis and hierarchical regression. According to the results of the research, organizational stress negatively affects job satisfaction, but organization support reduces stress. Therefore, organizational support has an intermediary role in the impact of organizational stress on job satisfaction.

Bhagat et al. (2010) examined organizational stress on the basis of 6 different peoples. According to the study; while the problem-solving approach is effective in individual nations, emotion focus stands out in socialite nations.

Stress is a condition in which individuals are exposed not only at the organizational level but also at the individual level. Changes in the course of life can positively or negatively affect individuals. Sarason and Johnson (1979) surveyed 44 soldiers ranging in age from 19 to 48, found that positive

developments in human life positively affect job satisfaction, however, that all positive and negative developments in the business area positively affect job satisfaction, and that the impact of positive developments from them was more and less impact on negative developments.

In his 2005 study titled “An Application in the Internal Stress Resources and Furniture Sector of Businesses in the Manufacturing Sector”, Gökdeniz listed the source of stress as follows:

- Sources of stress related to the structure of authority,
- Stress sources of production structure
- Sources of stress on organizational structure and climate
- Stress resources for task structure
- Stress sources related to role structure
- Stress sources related to cultural structure.

Gümüştekin and Öztemiz (2004) examined the stress sources of employees and the stress symptoms seen in employees in their work titled “An Application on Organizational Stress Management and Volatile Personnel”. According to the research results, volatile staff are exposed to stress sources, although not at an unsettling level.

Gök (2009) aims to identify employees’ perceptions of organizational stress factors in their study titled “An Important Problem of Working Life: Organizational Stress”, which can create organizational sources of stress and job insecurity. The investigation was carried out on 228 bank staff. When the research findings are examined, it is observed that 65% of participants are under stress in their work life and stress is caused by external factors.

In his work in 2011, Uzun and Yiğit examined the relationship between the organizational stresses of middle-level managers and their organizational commitment. The data was compiled through a survey from 97 middle-level managers working in five-star group hotel businesses in Antalya. Statistical methods used in data analysis; frequency distribution, factor analysis, reliability analysis, correlation analysis, t test and ANOVA. According to the results of the analysis, organizational commitment consists of 4 factors; Emotional commitment, continued commitment-lack of alternatives,

continued commitment to investments/side bets and normative commitment. As organizational stress decreased, the study found that emotional adherence and normative commitment increased.

Güçlü describes stress as “the body's response to any unspecialized request, which is not specific to the body”. According to the author, there is no common solution that is good for everyone in dealing with stress. Each individual should find and try methods that are suitable for their own personality and lifestyle.

In his 2004 study, Aydın said that organizational stress factors; environmental stress factors, individual stress factors and work environment stress factors are discussed in 3 dimensions. The aim of the study is to lay out the stress factors caused by the working environment faced by those who work in hotel businesses. The research was carried out with 792 businesspeople in 35 hotels in the Aegean Region. According to the results of the research, the most emerging elements include inadequate salary and wage imbalance.

Yamuç and Türker aim to analyze the concept of stress in an organizational context and to examine the variables that cause stress in employees by taking into account the gender differences. Qualitative method was preferred in the study. According to the results of the research; there is no significant difference between the factors that cause organizational stress in male and female employees, but they create mostly the factors related to the “structure of the task” and “management style” in employees.

CHAPTER 4

HOFSTEDE'S THEORY of CULTURAL DIMENSIONS

4.1. An Overview of the Concept of Culture

Mendenhall et al. explained that the term “culture” in English as a term derived from the Latin word ‘Cultura’. The word ‘cultura’ is linked to the word ‘cultus’. The word ‘Cultus’ means ‘Worship and Cult’. The Turkish equivalent of these two words is used in the meanings of “sect (specific community)” and “worship or praying”. Mendenhall et al. (1995) say that sectarian or group words better reflect or express the meaning of culture. As a matter of fact, individuals who belong to a particular sect or group believe and do something specific. In this context, it is stated that the word culture is also synonymous with the meaning (Mendenhal et al., cited by Yeşil, 1995: 2013).

As a case that is valid in all human communities gathered under the specified rules, culture is used to express the interactions and consequences of individuals (Hodgetts, Luthans, 2000; cited by Baytok, 2006). Culture is broadly defined according to many scientists, including the thoughts, beliefs, practices and behaviors of a group of people in the fields of religion, social organization, economic organization, political organization and collective production (Slavin et al.,1991). Edward Hall discussed culture as a form of communication. This issue is a very important point, it also expresses that individuals can transmit messages by creating the codes of their own cultures, but also perceive these codes with filtering of the messages they have created; it also opens the door to treating cultures as a means of expression and message alone (Hall, 1966: 372; cited by Pehlivan, 2017).

When the literature is scanned, it is understood that it is not fully understood what the meaning of the culture actually reflects, and that there is no consensus among the researchers on this issue. According to the research conducted by Kroeber and Kluckhohn, more than 160 culture definitions have been found. Perhaps the main reason for this is that the issue of cultural is from macro-level anthropology to sociology; at the micro-level, it is that many science fields ranging from management to psychology (Sıđrı and Grbz, 2014). Culture, which is a product of individual and social life, also affects individual and social life continuously (Kse et al., 2001). As the most named person in the literature in terms of culture, Hofstede describes culture as “a jointly programmed intelligence (mind)” that separates one group from another group (Hofstede, 1980). According to Adler (1991), culture is the way of a group of people. Anthropologists have defined culture as “a whole that knowledge, faith, art, morality, law, law, law, law and man have as a member of society” (Adler, 1991; cited by Sıđrı, Tıđlı, 2006).

Sofiaoglu and Aktaş refer to the cultural phenomenon as a common copy of many definitions. Culture is learned, shared and transferred from generation to generation. Culture is passed from parents to their children first, but it is also transferred to individuals with the contribution of social organizations, private groups, public, schools and religious institutions. Culture has been developed as a common way of thinking and acting and strengthened through social pressure. Culture also has a multidimensional structure composed of common elements with dependence on each other (Sofiaoglu and Aktaş, 2001). In this sense, culture can be classified according to various facts.

4.2. Classification of Culture

It is noticed that some main differences are formed about the concept when making culture definitions. According to these differences, four types of classifications can be done when the culture is examined. These are; cultures according to social level, material and spiritual culture, time-based culture and organization and management-based culture. These classifications are expressed in more detail under the following headings.

4.2.1 Culture by Social Level

Culture by social level: It consists of general cultures and subcultures. General culture is the whole of the dominant elements that are valid, adopted or used within every social group and geographic region in a society or country. In other words, the general culture is the culture that has formed and existed in the plane of all the behaviors of society. For example, dominant beliefs, values, movement styles and types of sanctions in a country or society are parts of the general culture (Köse et al., 2001; Eroğlu, 1996). The subculture is groups that share the basic cultural values of society, but also have the value and way of life that separates itself from other groups. While Turkish culture or Japanese culture is defined as general culture, groups with cultural characteristics specific to a region, institution or industry branch within a country can be defined as subculture (Özdemir, 2006).

4.2.2. Material and Spiritual Culture

One of the distinctions made about the concept of culture is the distinction of material and spiritual culture. The technology that shapes the artificial environment occurring as a result of human struggle with the outside world and all the tools it contains constitute the material culture (Sabuncuoğlu, Tüzün, 2003). Spiritual culture contains elements such as traditions and forms of thought that are left out of material culture, which are used to separate a nation from other nations. In other words, spiritual culture creates harmonious integrity consisting of ideas, values, behavioral patterns, traditions, traditions, religious, political, philosophical beliefs shaped in interaction with material culture (Ozankaya, 1992; Yakar, 2016,).

4.2.3. Culture on a Time Basis

The stages of behavior of culture within the human life process reveal the separation of culture on the basis of time. Accordingly, the existence of three cultures (Sabuncuoğlu, Tüz, 2003; Özdemir, 2006):

1. Post-figurative (defined later): It is a culture taken from ancestry, settled throughout history, gradually learned throughout life.

2. Co-figurative (emerging together-concurrently): It is the culture that members of society develop and learn together.

3. Prefigurative (pre-formed): It is the culture that the individual learned later in his life. The culture that the elderly receives from young people, with varying values over time, is prefigurative.

4.3.2.4. Culture in terms of Relations with Organization and Management

The first study in the field was conducted by England (1975) on applications that developed based on their understanding of management in culture, values and based on these factors. England has basically created a profile of different values in five dimensions, compared to the rulers of Japan, Korea and the United States (USA) according to this profile framework. It is possible to summarize the profile of the five dimensions that England creates as follows (Taş, Esin, 2013):

Topics related to Companies: Organizational stagnation, high efficiencies, organizational activities, organizational growth.

Personal goals: Achieving success, managing, ensuring job satisfaction.

Groups: My company, the customers, the employees, my boss, my subordinates.

Interpersonal relationships: Loyalty, ambition, passion, trust, skill, cooperation.

In terms of its relations with the organization and management, it can also be examined according to the distinction of national, professional and organizational cultural varieties in general.

4.3. The Concept of the Organizational Culture, and the Place of Culture in the Organization

Individuals are organized to achieve certain purposes and perform this organization through a common number of meanings that they share with

each other. Organization creates social systems with socialization processes, social norms and structures. Therefore, each organization brings with it its own unity. It also creates its own emotions, values, behaviors, principles, norms over time. This feeling, value, behavior, principles and norms are shared and organizational culture occurs (Sığırı and Gürbüz, 2014).

Strong organizational culture leads to positive business outcomes. Encourages employees to commit to achieving organizational goals; it appears to be a powerful motivator factor and can certainly help the organization learn from its own experience. These benefits are due to the fact that employees' attitudes, values and beliefs contribute to the total energy and current enthusiasm for one or more common goals that each is aware of at the same time (Popovski, Serafimovska, 2016).

Culture has a significant impact on both societies and individuals who are the building blocks of societies. Likewise, the existence of a very important influence of culture on organizations is known. Studies on culture show that there are significant differences in terms of the values of culture, varying by country. Among the most important works on this subject is the study carried out by Hofstede (1980). With this study, it has revealed that cultures differ in the size of values. The different information, beliefs, values and attitudes that cultures have due to its nature, their behavior in an individual sense, their ideas and ideas are reflected in their systems, processes and approaches within organizational environments. As a natural consequence of all of this, their behavior, ideas, thoughts and perspectives in the individual context may vary according to cultures, as well as in organizational terms, systems, processes and approaches can vary based on cultures (Yeşil, 2013). In this context, it is understood how important the culture of the organization is. Organizational culture is the main determinant in organizational processes; there may be advances or setbacks depending on the organization's determination. The widely visible factor among the different companies separating an American or Chinese company as an innovative is the established organizational culture (Popovski, Serafimovska, 2016).

Initially referred to as Company Culture, Corporate Culture, Business Culture in the literature and firstly studied by Peters and Waterman in USA and by Pascale and Athos in Japan; Organizational Culture is “a number of assumptions that are learned during both environmental harmony and internal integration, that are taught to new members as the right way to perceive, think and feel programs which give positive result to prove their validity (Schein, 1976: 3; cited by İşcan, Timuroğlu, 2007).

According to Hofstede, the word "Culture" is often divided by societies (in the world we speak) for either ethnic or regional groups, but it can also be applied to other communities and categories such as an organization, profession or family (Hofstede, 1984). Organizational culture is a pattern of basic assumptions that a particular group invented, discovered or developed to deal with external compliance issues and worked well enough to be considered valid. To detect, to think and to feel the problems internally creates the content of this pattern (Schein, 1984).

4.4. Formation of Organizational Culture

Although organizations are affected by the cultural characteristics of the societies in which they are located, they produce their own processes based on their private environment, different inputs and processes. When research is examined on the subject, it can be said that three actors are mainly effective in the formation of organizational culture. At this point, these factors will be briefly explained below (Gürbüz and Sığrı, 2014):

Founders of the organization: Organization founders have an important role in the formation of organizational culture. Because the founders are not restricted to previous philosophies and ideologies, they will have a strong influence on the organization in which they structure values and beliefs.

Employees: Of course, the culture of the organization is not formed only by the philosophies determined by its founders. The people who come to work for the organization also carry their values and norms to the organization. From this point of view, it is undeniable that organizations are made up of

people with many different cultural backgrounds and will influence the formation of organizational culture as internal factors.

Outdoor environment: The other factor that influences the culture of the organization is the external environment. Since all organizations are interacting with their environment, the environment has an important role in shaping the organization. The social or activity in which the organization is located is considered as the external environment.

Because of being open systems, cultures are interacting with the societies they are included. National cultures in which organizations exist have an impact on people involved in these organizations (Leslie and Gelfand, 2012). Of course, it cannot be expected from organizational culture that is a structure consisting of common meanings and symbols shared within itself (Hofstede, 2001; Alvesson, 2013) to avoid getting affected from cultures.

Organizational culture is a historical product, in a sense, affecting interpretations and behaviors (Ying et al., 2014). Employees within organization transfer organizational culture during their socialization process by means of elements such as story, traditions, symbols and organizational jargon (Güçlü, 2003). Shared values set in an organizational culture also affects internal dynamics and achievements of organizations (Koçel, 2005), and they ensure that organizational culture is considered weak or strong (Robbins, 2000). From this point of view, the organization's culture also carries an organizational learning process (Dauber, Fink, & Yolles, 2012).

4.5. Elements of Organizational Culture

4.5.1. Core values

In fact, values are the essence of the concept of culture. These values perform their services in the form of beliefs that support important goals in life and principles that guide people's lives. They serve as decisive when making a choice between good and evil in order to make the right choice between alternatives. Values may vary in the face of very important changes in technology, economics and policy, but overall, they are far from volatile. People from different cultures also have different values of different density

and direction (Hofstede, 1980; cited by Ay, 2005). Each culture has its own values system.

Values are the source of criteria for evaluating and judging the actions and actions of business people. The cultural values developed by the organization determine what human, objects and events are worth by the organization community. Values are broader than norms, but also more concrete concepts, are the confirming of norms (İşcan, 2007). Hofstede attributes values, communities as well as universal qualities; culture foresees a community. He considers value “a broad tendency to choose on others in certain situations” (Hofstede, 1984).

4.5.2. Language

According to organizational behavioral scientists, the language described by Greenfield as “a basic instrument of management and a power” is an important part of the culture and allows it to be transmitted through communication from generation to generation (Özdemir, 2006: 27). Language is the most important part and carrier of culture. The language mediates the transfer of all elements of culture from generation to generation, interpersonal communication and social relations. This basic element helps to learn culture and symbolize meanings (Eroğlu, 1996; Köse et al., 2001).

4.5.3. Stories and Tales

They are cultural carriers that are important in organizational culture and are often formed as a result of overstating and transferring events towards the backgrounds of organizations. The story and the stories serve as a bridge between the past and the present of the organizations. Stories and fairy tales also have a role to help in spreading and settling their organizational values. They are also involved in the revival of the organization’s heroes and symbols. We can get some very important clues about stories, organizational cultures (Unutkan, 1995; Timuroğlu, İşcan, 2007).

4.5.4. Ceremonies

Nelson and Campbell (1997) indicated that there were six different types of ceremonies. The first of these is status ceremonies. With the help of these ceremonies, it is possible to see changes in the status of individuals. One of the most meaningful examples of this is retirement meals. Secondly, it is seen as encouraging ceremonies that support the achievements of individuals. The third is renovation ceremonies that care about organizational changes, encourages learning and achieving perseverance. The ceremony can be embodied from the example of the organization opening a new training center. The fourth is the ceremonies that reinforce the desire to bring together the different groups in the organization and then become a larger organization. For example, year-end meals, in which all employees participate, are also from such ceremonies. The fifth ceremony is ceremonies aimed at reducing conflicts and disagreements. Resting complaints and negotiating merger agreements are examples of conflict-reducing ceremonial. The sixth ceremony is a degree-lowering ceremony in some organizations, with organizational behavior, values and the purpose of punishing those who do not meet the norms (Yolcu, 2016).

4.5.5. Organizational Symbols

Organizational symbols can also be seen as a form of better understanding of the structure of the organization. With organizational symbolism, organizational ideology, the character of the organization and the value system are tried to be explained. It covers stories, myths, ceremony-like events, anecdotes and organizational logo with symbolic approaches. Organizational symbolism is a concept produced by organizational culture. Organizational symbolism also functions as a way to interpret symbolic discussions and to explain the meanings expressed by the subjects and actions (Çelik, 2004). Symbols are composed of symbols, especially the characteristics of the source they are inspired, and the merging of the stages of human life (Daşdag, 2017).

4.5.6. Organizational Applications

Organizational applications are rewards, penalties, checks, evaluations, incentives, etc. applied in the organization. The roles that are expected to see the business within the organization are evaluated by norms. Norms are code and criteria adopted by the majority of those who see work. Norms show how business people behave within the organization, how to engage, how to communicate with others (Özsoy, 2005; Özdemir, 2006).

4.5.7. Assumptions

Among organizations with common backgrounds, one of the strongest cultural factors that have an impact on the concrete consequences of behaviors, i.e. routine actions, is assumptions. Beliefs, perceptions and emotions that are accepted without controversy and questioning have been suggested as the most basic assumptions. The assumptions cover the basic interpretations of the organization being shared by individuals on the individual factor, intra-organizational and non-organizational problems, and the nature of truth or truth on individual relations (Schein, 2004; cited by Özden, Najimudinova, 4820).

4.5.8. Religion and Beliefs

Religions and beliefs also form the basic element of culture. Every society has a religion in some way. Religion is an important social institution in the development of common feelings and beliefs in people. Religion determines the ideals necessary for life and these ideals manifest itself in the values and behavior of individuals and societies (Czinkota et al., 1996: 304; cited by Yeşil, 2009). Faith is a continuous organization of perceptions and information belonging to an individual's world. People can have certain beliefs in certain subjects. The more similarities between beliefs, the stronger the cultural beliefs of that society (Köse et al., 2001).

4.5.9. Norms

Norms are developed as organizations within the scope of the cultural values of organizations in accordance with their values, but are called code and

criteria of behavior that a significant majority of members accept. It is decisive in how norms are necessary for members of the organization to behave for both employees within the organization and their superiors, as well as in their communication and interactions with other members. Norms also demonstrate themselves as a whole of rules, standards and thoughts that guide the behavior of the working individuals of the organization within the values system in organizations, which can distinguish between right and wrong, positive and negative behaviors (Passenger, 2016).

4.6. Organizational Culture Models

There are many models of the organization's culture, which are composed by many researchers. These models include the Parsons Model, Schein Model, Quinn and Cameron Model, Kilmann Model, Byars Model, Deal and Kennedy Model, Quchi's "Z" Culture Model, Miles and Snow Culture, Kets de Vries and Miller Model, Charles Handy Model, Peters and Waterman's Model of Excellence, and Hofstede Culture Model. Since these models include the Hofstede Culture Model in the application section of our research, this culture model will be explained in more detail. In the study, the Cultural Model by Hofstede (1984) was used with many approaches and classifications of organizational culture. According to this model, consisting of four dimensions, individuals making up organizational culture also reflect characteristics of national culture they belong to the organization. While studying the organization's culture in four dimensions, Hofstede later added fifth and sixth dimensions to these dimensions. In this study, individualism and collectivism as the fifth dimension of the cultural variable were taken into consideration in terms of making a comparative study.

4.7. Hofstede Culture Model

Dutch scientist, Geert Hofstede's studies conducted between 1967 and 1973 have produced striking results that are very popular even today, despite various criticisms. Hofstede's field study was conducted at International Business Machines (IBM), a multinational American company operating in different geographies. The study was applied on around 116,000 employees, including more than 40 countries, including Turkey. The study found that the

value and attitude of employees in relation to the work was not due to professions, ages or gender, but because of the diversity of national cultures, the only source of change between business values and attitudes. In addition, it is assumed that these values do not change over time (Sığrı and Gürbüz, 2014).

The idea that cultures should be classified for countries and societies emerged within the second half of the 20th century and then reached suppressed in many dimensions until today. Their dimensions were identified within the framework of certain common problems in societies and with a series of studies, they tried to identify character differences in societies by profiling different cultural profiles for each community. One of the most accepted of these studies is about the cultural dimensions revealed by Dutch Sociologist Geert Hofstede's study conducted after 1980, which was examined in the framework of research from more than 90 countries. Many of the studies, which have sociological and also organizational content, have also been presented with comparable results by taking advantage of the cultural dimension scores set for these dimensions and countries; thus, significant information about the cultural differences of societies has been added to the field literature (Doğan, 2015).

In Hofstede's studies, it was indicated that Turkey is among countries that showed "high power distance", "low individualism", "high uncertainty avoiding" and "feminine characteristics" (Öncül et al., 2016). In this research, which was conducted taking into account the Hofstede's culture dimensions, it was determined that, when examining meaningful differences according to universities, Near East and Hakkari Universities had significant level of difference at ($p=.000$ $p<.05$) level according to Hofstede Culture. This result is important in terms of the depth and authenticity of the research.

For a better understanding of Hofstede's Cultural Model Dimensions, the following subheadings are given in detail.

4.7.1. Individualism/Communitarianism

Individualism means the choice of a social framework that is loosely patterned in society. Here, the dominant understanding is that individuals should only take care of themselves and their immediate families. In communitarianism, the opposite is true. It refers to the preference of a social or professional framework that is tightly organized to pay attention to individuals' relatives, clans or other members of the group. However, it can be seen here that "collectivism" is not used to describe a particular political system. The main issue discussed in this dimension is the degree of dependence on a society among its individuals. This is about people's concept of self; in societies where individualism is high, the concept of "I" prevails, and in societies where individuality is low, the concept of "Us" prevails (Hofstede,1984).

Individualism and Communitarianism refer to the values and norms carried by the organization, regarding whether it meets individual demands or social demands, how it emerges, how it is reflected (Sıgırcı and Tıgılı, 2006) and the level of integration and concretion of individuals with groups (Hofstede and Bond, 1988). Societies in which group interests are held in front of individual interests are called collectivist/socialist (Gonzalez and Rima, 2002). Western countries have achieved high individualism scores, while Eastern and Latino countries have shown behavioral tendencies in partnership (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2001).

In this thesis study, significant statistical data could not be detected at the level of ($p=.563$ and $p>.05$) while analyzing significant differences in individualism and communitarianism according to the Public and Foundation University. Therefore, the proposition that "there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari universities in terms of perception of individualism/collectiveness" was not accepted. Therefore, Hofstede's research on cultural dimensions consists of the findings of "low individualism" for Turkey, which leads to the idea that "low individualism" applies to both universities. Table 3 features individualist and community cultures.

Table 4*Differences in the Culture Dimension of Individualism and Communitarianism*

Individualism	Communitarianism
There is a sense of “I”	There is a sense of “us”
The middle class has developed, and it has freedom to act on its own	The middle class is underdeveloped, and it has less freedom to act on its own.
The individual is part of the family and is unique	The individual is part of large groups
Objectives differ from the purposes of the inner group	Goals coincide with the purposes of the internal group
Security is provided by home and life insurance	Security is provided by social bonds
The main source of information is the media	The main source of information is social bonds
Rationality and cost/benefit ratio are at the forefront	Relationships and the requirements of others are at the forefront
Individual decisions are credible	Collective decisions are credible
Personal interest is more significant than public interest	Social interest is more significant than personal interest
Management is aimed at individuals	Management is for groups
Employees are seen as individuals	Employees are seen as family and members of social circle
Relationships are based on mutual interests	Relationships are more important than duty
Value standards must be applied to everyone without change by place and time	Value standards may vary within and outside the group
Differences are met normally	Compliance is highlighted, conflicts are suppressed

Resource: Hofstede, 1980, p.48; 2001; Demirhan, 2017, p.90.

4.7.2. Power Distance

Based on inequality in society, this dimension examines process of inequality-based conflict (Hofstede, 2010). It tries to determine social power distances by means of examining acceptance of differentiation and distinction between people with different levels of power or expectations of differentiation. The level of acceptance of this inequality of societies differs according to societies. While narrow power distance is seen more in Western countries, wide range distance is seen more in Asian countries. Orders with a wide power distance refers to a power distance containing hierarchically solid lines benefiting from military setup or determinability of military power in general.

According to Hofstede, if different cultures can show the distance of power in their hierarchy to maintain their consistency continuously, power distance norms suggest the understanding that it can be used as a criterion for characterizing cultures (Hofstede, 1984). Hofstede, in this *Personality and Culture Revisited: Linking Traits and Dimensions of Culture*, indicates the distance of power as the acceptance and expectation that less powerful members of organizations and institutions (family) are disbanded unevenly. It also suggests the fact that the level of inequality of a society is violated by followers as well as leaders (Hofstede, 2004).

While the existence of a hierarchical structure in societies with high power distance, and power can be transferred as a legacy, societies with low power distance pay attention to equality. The power of people in societies with high power is repressive and even challenging rather than law-abiding. In these societies, people who have power can be privileged. Therefore, power is on the top in such societies, and only a limited number of people have the authority to make decisions, and other individuals are also satisfied with implementing these decisions (Sıgır and Gürbüz, 2014). In other words, in these societies, differences of power and wealth are more easily accepted. As the power range decreased, power dissipated greatly in low-power communities as people's participation in the decision-making process increased. In a society with high power distance, some characteristics of the

administrative environment draw attention; ideal managers behave similar as an autocratic father; they often emphasize privileges and status symbols, and the powerful determine the truth-wrong. Employees are extremely dependent on their superiors, all decisions made by managers are absolutely correct, and the power is recognized in one center, there are autocratic management styles (Gürbüz and Bingöl, 2007; Fit and Gürbüz, 2014). Hofstede's 1980 work features cultures with a wide and narrow power distance within the size of the power distance in Table 4.

Table 5.

Social Norms of Power Distance

Narrow Power Distance	Wide Power Distance
Social inequality is low	Those who hold power are privileged, and this privilege is evident
People are equally dependent on each other	Those who do not have power depend on those who hold power.
Hierarchy only points to inequality of roles	Hierarchy is perceived as inequality
Symbols of privileges and status are not brought to the fore	Symbols of privileges and status are at the forefront
There is harmony between those who hold power and those who do not have power	There is a conflict between those who hold power and those who do not hold power
The use of power is handled within the legal framework	Determines the right and wrong that holds power
There is cooperation among those who do not have the power	Cooperation between those who do not hold power is low
Attitudes towards older people are positive	Attitudes towards older people are negative
Children are treated like family members	Children are taught obedience
Middle age begins after breakage	Middle age begins before the break
Freedom is more important than equality	Equality is more important than freedom

Resource: Hofstede, 1980, p. 122.

In societies with wide range of power, there is always the fact that the seniors have a stronger and more indisputable authority. For this reason, while their orders are carried out without hesitation, in societies where narrow power distance exists, subordinates (workers, civil servants, other employees, etc.) consider themselves equal to the executives.

In this study, when the significant differences of “power distance” were examined according to the Near East and Hakkari University, it was statistically understood that there were no significant differences in values ($p=.909$ and $p>.05$). It can be said that the “high power distance” feature for Turkey in the research of Hofstede applies to both the Near East and Hakkari Universities. However, when examining significant differences according to the title group, significant differences were found significant between administrative and academic employees ($p=0$, $p<.05$). It was understood that the cultural essence of “high power” is more dominant in the academic employees of both universities.

Table 6 includes corporate norms and differences in power distance dimension.

Table 6.*Power Distance Dimension Corporate Norm differences*

Narrow Power Distance	Wide Power Distance
Social inequalities should be minimized	Social inequalities are thought to be a common and nature-like order
Hierarchy is based on inequality of roles to make things easier	Hierarchy is considered an existential inequality
Top executives think subordinates, subordinates are one of their own.	Top executives believe subordinates, subordinates are different from themselves
Easy to reach and communicate with senior	It is difficult to reach and communicate with senior
Managers move objectively	Managers act subjectively
Executives take a democratic position	Managers take a paternal attitude
Subs are consulted	Subordinates are said to be done
Position determines expertise and skill power	Relationships, charisma and the ability to use power determine strength
The manager-employee relationship is built on utilitarianism	Manager employee relationship is more emotional
Income difference is low between employees at the top and lower levels of the organization	Income difference is high between employees at the top and lower levels of the organization
Symbols of privileges and status are not brought to the fore	Symbols about privileges and status are frequently highlighted
Failures blame the system	Subordinates blame in failures

Resource: Compiled from Hofstede, 1980; 2001.

4.7.3. Avoiding Uncertainty

Avoiding uncertainty is about the tolerance of uncertainty in a society. A culture allows its members to feel uncomfortable or comfortable in unstructured situations. Unconfigured states: It refers to new, unknown,

surprising and unorthodox situations. Cultures that avoid ambiguity, strict laws and rules, security and security measures, philosophical and religious level with the belief of “absolute truth” to minimize such possible situations. Cultures that accept contrasting type, i.e., uncertainty, are also open to different views than what they are accustomed to. They try to make as few rules as possible, they are philosophical and religious, allowing relative and many movements to come side by side. People in these cultures move more humorously around them to express their feelings (Hofstede, 2004).

Avoiding uncertainty refers to the state of uncorrected or unfixed uncertainty in society or organization (Rogovsky and Schuler, 1997). It is assumed that uncertainty, which is one of the fundamental sources of concern for humans, affects the social culture (Hofstede, 1991). It accommodates many variables such as risk appetite, future anxiety, wages, job safety, career opportunities, retirement and work stress (Hofstede, 2011). In societies with high levels of anxiety due to uncertainty, individuals’ level of expressing themselves is more advanced. Behaviors such as using hand-arm movements when talking, excessive mimic movements and vocal tone upgrade are not welcome in such societies (Savicki, 1999).

Hofstede discusses the criteria for avoiding uncertainties with the following statements. In cultures with low levels of avoidance of uncertainty, uncertainty in current life is bearable, low stress levels are at the forefront, upper self (superego) is weaker, the level of conservatism is low. However, the fact that authority serves people, relativity and visibility are at the forefront. In cultures with high levels of avoidance of uncertainty, uncertainty is a constant struggle. Individuals have higher levels of stress and anxiety. Retention is more at the forefront, and the rules and regulations must be certain criteria (Hofstede,1980; Hofstede,1983). The differences in the culture dimension of avoidance of uncertainty are summarized in Table 7.

Table 7.*Avoiding Uncertainty Culture Dimension Differences*

Avoiding Low Uncertainty	Avoiding High Uncertainty
Low work stress	High work stress
Low levels of concern in society	High level of concern in society
Shame, anger, and guilt are not expressed by people	Shame, anger, and guilt are expressed by people
Sad and fearful facial expression can be read easily by others	The nature of emotions can be read less by others
Subjectivity is too much	Subjectivity is scarce
Employees can be changed more easily	The tendency to continue with the same employee is higher
The average seniority in jobs is low	Seniority average is high
Commitment to the institution is not considered a virtue	Commitment to institution is a virtue
Managers are selected based on different criteria from seniority	Administrators are selected depending on severance
There is more ambition for promotion and management	The ambition for promotion and expert positions is minimal
There is competition between individual decision making, authoritative management and employees	Within the framework of ideological preferences, there is no competition between group decisions, retaining management and employees
Generational conflict is low, positive attitudes towards young people exist	Generational conflict is more, critical attitudes towards young people are present, respect and fear against the elderly
Employees can ignore rules when deemed necessary	Rules cannot be ignored
Resistance to change is low	Resistance to change is high
Sense of trust in most people is high	Trust in others and even family is low
Foreigners can be accepted as managers	Foreigners are viewed with suspicion to be managers
Comfort, low stress and less anxiety	High stress, anxiety more, neurotic

There is a desire to take unknown risks	Known risks are taken
Things that are different are intriguing	Things that are different are seen as dangerous
Trust in public employees and the legal system is high	Trust in public employees and the legal system is low
Citizens can criticize and protest government decisions	Citizens' criticism and protests are suppressed
Corruption is rare	Corruption is too much
They prefer living day to day.	There is concern for the future
Community structure is loose	Community structure is tight
People do not try to impose their own truths on others.	"There is only one truth and it is ours" idea prevails

Resource: Demirhan, 2017, p.86.

Four different clusters are encountered when power distance and uncertainty avoidance are taken together. These clusters are revealed as follows (Hofstede, 1980);

- Narrow Power Distance - Avoiding Low Uncertainty
- Narrow Power Distance - Avoiding High Uncertainty
- Wide Power Distance - Avoiding Low Uncertainty
- Wide Power Distance - Avoiding High Uncertainty

Since the level of avoidance uncertainty is low in countries such as the USA, Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden, Norway, etc. and the power distance is narrow; the social and organizational hierarchy is rarely observed. In these countries, people are easily at risk and have a very difficult in having a dialog with each other. In countries such as Germany, Austria, Finland and Israel where the power distance is low and uncertainty avoidance is high, the system acts like machinery without the need for a strong hierarchy, and uncertainty is limited to clearly defined roles and behaviors. It is normal for employees to be loyal to the organization in countries where the power distance such as India, Singapore, etc. is low to avoid uncertainty. Because their corporate structure is perceived as a traditional family, organization

managers physically and economically look out for their employees. In countries such as Brazil, France, Japan, Mexico, Peru and Turkey where the power distance and uncertainty avoidance are high, the powers are clearly defined and it is clear who will obey whom in institutions and within the organizational structure. The words of the rulers are adopted like the law. In these countries, the uncertainty is attempted to be reduced by expanding the power range (Demirhan,2017).

In this study, significant differences were not detected in the range of values ($p=.562$ and $p>.05$) when the differences in “avoidance of uncertainty” dimension were evaluated according to the University. According to Title Group, it was understood from statistical results that there were significant differences between academic and administrative staff at ($p=0$, $p<.05$) level. The arithmetic mean of academic staff was found to be (4.0225); the arithmetic mean of administrative staff was found to be (3.6245) in the study. Analyzing the statistical data, it was revealed that “avoidance of high uncertainty” is a common passage of academic staff of both universities.

4.7.4. Masculinity/Feminine

This dimension refers to the state of relationships among individuals and interpersonal relations. In this approach, while generally negative aspects of masculine culture are shown, feminine culture contains positive elements. Gender roles are transferred to every stage of social life through socialization (Hofstede, 2001). With this dimension of Hofstede culture, the aim is to explain the roles in which genders in society are loaded. Indicators of existence of feminine culture emerges in the form of caring too much people and relationship among them, and keeping the general qualities of life ahead. The feminine culture covers characteristics of societies in the traditional sense, such as compassionate, caring, kind, loyal, child-loving, more sensitive and sensitive to other individuals, which are often identified with personalities. If cultures are in masculine dimension, they covers masculine traits such as passion for ascending, domineering behaviors, being competitor (competitive), demonstrating dominant as well as oppressive attitudes, being self-confident, independent, demeanor, enterprise, ambition

to make money and more dominant materialist tendencies (Gümüştekin and Emet, 2007; Bakan et al., 2004). According to Öncül et al. (2016), the importance given to masculinity/femaleness is at the forefront of human and interhuman relationships. In the organization dominated by a culture of feminine characteristics, the phenomenon of participation, equality and solidarity of employees is considered at the forefront. While individuals living in masculine cultures demonstrate a power and success-oriented structure, avoidance of conflict, harmony and synchronization are prioritized in feminine cultures.

In this dissertation study, when meaningful differences were examined in masculinity/femininity according to universities, significant differences were found at ($p=.000$ $p<.05$) level. Arithmetic means are higher than the Hakkari University arithmetic mean (2.798) compared to Near East University (2.020). Therefore, H1.12 was accepted, offering the suggestion that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of masculinity”. The high level of masculine cultural values at Hakkari University can be attributed to the current form of authoritarian rule and the conjuncture created by coup d'état atmosphere that the university went through in 2016 and afterwards.

The characteristics of the feminine culture are presented in Table 8.

Table 8:

Masculinity / Feminine Culture Dimension Properties

Masculine Culture	Feminine Culture
Living is for work	Work is for living
Importance given the opportunity to do the best and to be noticed at work.	Coherent work at work and relationship with the boss is very important
Promotion and high earnings are important	Location and job security are important
High work stress	Low work stress
Believing in individual decisions	Believing in group decisions
Large companies are preferred for career.	Small firms are preferred for career
Work is at the heart of human life	It is not at the center of human life.
Competitive advantage is in manufacturing industries; heavy industry and chemical industry	Competitive advantage is in service industries; consulting, life-related products and biochemicals.
Financial achievements and development are important	Protecting others and warm relationships are important
Managers care about stability and entrepreneurship	Managers pay attention to common sense and reconciliation

Resource: Hofstede, 1980, p. 294; Demirhan, 2017, p.93.

4.7.5. Time Orientation

The fifth dimension, Time Orientation, which emerged as a result of the work carried out by Hofstede and Bond in 23 countries, focused on individuals' pragmatic-future approaches or traditional-past-oriented approaches. Pragmatic future-oriented approach also has a long-term perspective on private life and business life; it has characteristics of solicitousness, and relationships based on status. Traditional-past-oriented approach has a short-term perspective, but has personal perseverance and balance characteristics. In this approach, people tend to preserve the past and keep traditions from the past alive (Hofstede and Bond, 1988; Sığırı and Gürbüz, 2014).

The size of time orientation; in some cultures, time is perceived as more future-centric, and in some cultures, it is considered to be more of a retrospective. Time is very important both for individuals and organizations, but it is also a scarce resource. Time in Western societies is considered as divided into certain slices, as a regular, standard, planned, measurable, objective, linear character. In addition, some Eastern societies and Northern European countries perceive time traditionally and consider it as an unlimited, cyclical/revising and multidimensional way covering all life (Hofstede, 2011).

The size of time orientation deals with the values that societies give to the past and the future (Hofstede, 2001), as people have a long or short-term orientation. Due to different perception of time in Western and Eastern axis societies, differences have also occurred in long or short-term plans and orientations. While Western societies consider time as more linear, planned, standardized and measurable, time in Eastern societies is evaluated from a traditional perspective that is multidimensional, cyclical and covers the whole life (Hofstede, 2011). While short-term oriented firms expect profit immediately from every activity, long-term oriented firms expect profit as a result of certain processes and after completion of these processes (Roath et al., 2002).

According to this dissertation research, in which Near East and Hakkari University were compared, significant differences were found in “time planning” dimension at ($p=.015$, $p<.05$) level. When Table 175 was examined, it was observed that Near East University had an arithmetic mean of 3.55, and Hakkari University had an arithmetic mean of 3.41. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are lower than those of Near East University. With reference, it can be said that the Near East University is more successful in terms of time planning skills than Hakkari University. Statistical results related to “time attitudes” were also not found significant at the level of ($p=.890$ and $p>.05$). Therefore, it can be assumed that both university employees have similar habits in managing and evaluating time.

Significant differences were found between two universities in “long-term focus” dimension at ($p=0.030$, $p<.05$) level. The arithmetic mean of Near East University was found to be 3.743, while the arithmetic mean of Hakkari University was found to be 3.874. It is clear that the arithmetic mean of the Hakkari University is higher. Therefore, it can be concluded that Hakkari University is better in terms of the perception of long-term focus. In terms of “perception of time management” dimension, it has been determined that there are no significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities.

Table 9 shows the differences between long and short-term societies.

Table 9:*Differences between Long and Short Period-Oriented Societies*

Short-Term Oriented	Long-Term Oriented
The most important events in life have either happened in the past or now.	The most important events in life will be in the future.
Needs are expected to be met immediately	Meeting the needs will be postponed to the later date
There are universal rules about what good and evil are	What is good and what is bad depends on the circumstances.
Traditions are sacred.	Traditions are in line with changing conditions
Family life is guided by elders.	Directing family life with shared tasks.
Someone thinks and says it must be true.	What a person does must be virtuous
Children need to learn tolerance and respect.	Children need to learn to be frugal/saving.
There is social spending and consumption.	There is savings and investment.
Problem solving, with unclear structure.	The structure is clear, math-based problem solving.
Focus on short-term decisions in business.	Focus on future positions in business, in the market.

Resource: Hofstede, 2011, p. 15.

4.7.6. Tolerance and Restriction

Tolerance is a phenomenon that allows relatively free pleasure of basic and natural human desires for enjoying and enjoying life. The restriction refers to a society that controls the satisfaction of the needs and regulates them through strict social norms (Hofstede, 2011). In societies dominated by the

idea of restriction, adherence to social norms is dominant. In such societies, the value given to moral discipline is extremely high and frugality is important. In these cultures, people do not go in search of free time to relax. In societies where the idea of tolerance exists, desires and impulses are reflected outward rather than controlled, the feeling of enjoying life and having fun has been prominently prioritized. People in a similar society have an optimistic view of life. These individuals tend to spend money on their enjoyment by creating the free time they need to enjoy life. Table 10 shows properties of tolerance and restriction dimensions.

Table 10.

Properties of Tolerance and Limitability Dimension

Tolerance	Restriction
People who are happy are higher in percentage	People who are happy are lower in percentage
There is a perception of control of personal life	Perception of desperation: What happened to me is not originated from me.
Resting is highly important	Resting is less important
Making friends is highly important	Making friends is less important
Frugality is not important	Frugality is important
There is a loose community structure	There is a strict community structure
Moral discipline is less	Moral discipline is too much
Optimism	Pessimism
There are more extrovert personality structures	There are more neurotic personality structures
There are too many people who feel healthy	The number of people who feel healthy is small

Resource: Hofstede et al., 2010, p.291; Hofstede, 2011, p. 16.

4.8. Time Management in Individualist and Collectivist Culture

Attitudes toward time differ very clearly between various cultures. The dominant attitude in Anglo-Saxon cultures is that the concept of time is cash. American and Canadian people expect the talks to begin just in time. If an individual is being held, this is considered a rather rude behavior. This culture-specific attitude about time is also in a relationship with other aspects of the cultures in question. In the United States, employees' efficiency is not surprising due to the very high value given to time and as wages depend on time. Time actually offers more production, but also opportunities for people to increase their income more, and therefore should not be wasted (Sofyalıoğlu and Aktaş, 2001). In this sense, western societies are considered as cultures where individuality is at the forefront. The phenomenon of time is also shaped according to the values and attitudes of these societies. Individualism is a form of existence in which the individual's goals and will are at the center, and the social ones are positioned around the center (Sakal and Yıldız, 2015).

Harry Triandis, in his work conducted on the subject, Western (culture with individualism at the forefront) and East Asian (culture with collectivism at the forefront) made his university students to coin sentences beginning with the word "I", and it was found that the rates of use of these phrases was higher for social categories (family, gender, religion, ethnicity) in individuals who grew up in individual culture (Triandis, 1989; cited by Pehlivan 2017).

Nowadays, most people complain that they cannot use their time very efficiently. Public opinion studies show that people complain about the lack of time as well as freedom and money in industrialized information societies. Since there is more time than money that expresses life, everyone is expected to strive to solve the problem of using time efficiently. The way to control time is through the human self-control (Yılmaz and Aslan, 2002). On the other hand, individuals in collectivist culture often see the environment as constant and immutable, while considering themselves to be changeable; in individual cultures, people perceive themselves as constant, environmentally variable (Triandis, 1989; Pehlivan, 2017).

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN

In this section, research model, problem, universe and sample, data collection tools, process, hypotheses, analysis of data and findings are included.

5.1. Research Model

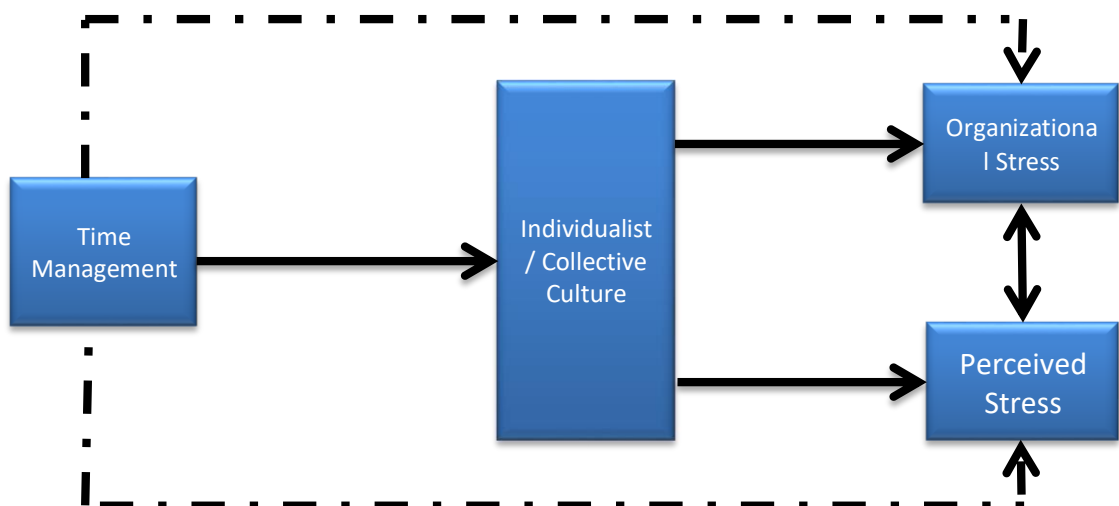


Figure 4. Research Model

Some generally accepted information about dependent and interdependent variables is as follows.

- Independent variable must have an impact on dependent variable.
- Independent variable must have an effect on intermediary variable.

- Intermediary variable must have an impact on independent variable.
- When intermediary variable is included in regression analysis together with independent variable, while the effect of independent variable on dependent variable decreases, intermediary variable must also have a significant effect on independent variable.

5.1.1. Problem

Lack of previous studies conducted to examine the intermediary role of (individualistic and collective) culture in the effect of time management on stress management, as well as to examine similarities and differences in whether academic and administrative personnel effectively manage time and stress in two universities examined in two groups including Near East and Hakkari Universities

5.1.2. Universe and Sample

Study Universe constitutes of Hakkari University as an example of Public University and the Near East University as an example of Foundation University. Convenience sampling was preferred in this research. Research sample consists of a total of 638 academic and administrative staff, including 293 women and 345 men, representing the sample size, validity and reliability limits of both universities in which the research survey will be applied.

Research universe consisted of university employees who worked at Near East University (Cyprus) and Hakkari University (Turkey) and voluntarily participated in the research. Near East University was chosen as a representative of individualistic culture, and Hakkari University was chosen as a representative of collectivist culture.

5.1.3 Data Collection Tools

Personal Data Form: It is a form developed by researchers in order to obtain various socio-demographic information about participants such as age, gender, work title and total work experience.

Time Management Scale: To measure time management, a survey was used which was developed by Britton and Tesser (1991), received intense interest in the field and translated to Turkish by different researchers (Alay and Koçak, 2002). The scale consists of three sub-dimensions including time-planning, time attitudes and time-consuming. By adhering to original form of questionnaire created by our researchers, participants were requested to make evaluations on 5-point Likert-type scale including never (1), rarely (2), sometimes (3), frequently (4) always agree (5).

Organizational Stress Scale (OSS): The Organizational Stress Scale developed by Theorell et al. (1988) and adapted into Turkish language by the researcher was used to measure organizational stress levels. This scale consists of 17 questions and contains three main sub-scales. Accordingly, "Workload" sub-scale consists of 5 questions; "Control" sub-scale consists of 6 questions, and "Social Support" sub-scale consists of 6 questions (Alves et al., 2004). Participants were requested to evaluate expressions in sub-scales related to organizational stress level over 5-item scale including "Never (1); Very Rarely (2); Sometimes (3); Most of the Time (4), and Always (5)". Expressions related to some items on the scale were scored reversely. Total score of sub-dimensions was calculated by adding scores of each sub-dimension. Accordingly, individuals with high scores tended to have higher organizational stress levels. High scores showed high workload, high social support, high skill utilization and high decision-making freedom.

As detailed Title 2.5 of the Fourth Chapter, while the original organizational stress scale consists of 3 sub-dimensions, it was factored in 4 dimensions in our sample/study. However, a different nomenclature of the scale from the original 3D of the scale has not been possible. In differentiation tests and other analyses, these dimensions will be specified as F1, F2, F3 and F4.

Organizational Culture Scale (OCS): The scale that Hofstede used to determine cultural dimensions and validity-reliability of which was tested by Wu (2006) was used in the study. In the scale in question that was in 5-point Likert-type, there were five dimensions including masculinity, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and long-time focus.

5.1.4. Process

Data required for the research was collected through face-to-person survey method since this method offered great advantages in terms of high answering rate and allowing many questions to be asked (Ayten, 2016). Survey applications were carried out under guidance of researchers at the location where their employees worked at universities. Prepared informed consent text was transferred to voluntary participants prior to applications, and questionnaire questions were asked after their approvals were received. Since all surveys completed in validity and reliability tests were successful, there were no excluded forms.

5.1.4. Hypothesis

Basic hypotheses of the study are as follows.

H1: In terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities, there are significant differences between time management, perceived stress, organizational stress and Hofstede culture dimensions.

H1.1: There are significant differences in the perception of time planning in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.2: There are significant differences in the perception of time attitudes in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.3: There are significant differences in the perception of consuming time in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.4: There are significant differences in the perception of time management in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.5: There are significant differences in the perception of insufficient self-sufficiency in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.6: There are significant differences in the perception of stress/disturbance in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.7: There are significant differences in the perception of stress in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.8: There are significant differences in the perception of work load in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.9: There are significant differences in the perception of control in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.10: There are significant differences in the perception of social support in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.11: There are significant differences in the perception of organizational stress in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.12: There are significant differences in the perception of masculinity in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.13: There are significant differences in the perception of power distance in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.14: There are significant differences in the perception of avoidance of uncertainty in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.15: There are significant differences in the perception of individualism/collectivism in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.16: There are significant differences in the perception of long time focus in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H1.17: There are significant differences in the perception of Hofstede culture in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.

H2: According to title groups, there are significant differences between the cultural dimensions of Hofstede.

H2.1: There are significant differences in the size of masculinity according to title groups.

H2.2: There are significant differences in the size of the power distance compared to title groups.

H2.3: There are significant differences in the dimension of avoidance of uncertainty according to title groups.

H2.4: There are significant differences in the dimension of individualism/collectivism according to title groups.

H2.5: There are significant differences in the dimension of long-time focus according to title groups.

H3: Time management has a mediating role on individualistic/collective culture and (organizational and perceived) stress.

H3.1: Time management has an effect on individualist/collective culture.

H3.2: Individualist/collective culture has an effect on perceived stress.

H3.3: Individualist/collective culture has an effect on organizational stress.

H3.4: Time management has an effect on organizational stress.

H3.5: Time management has an effect on perceived stress.

H3.6: Time management has an effect on organizational stress.

H3.7: Time management and individualist/collective culture have an effect on perceived stress.

H4: There are significant relationships between Hofstede culture, perceived stress and organizational stress.

H4.1: There are significant relationships between Hofstede culture and perceived stress.

H4.2: There are significant relationships between Hofstede culture and organizational stress.

H4.3: There are significant relationships between Hofstede culture and time management.

H4.4: There are significant relationships between perceived stress and organizational stress.

H4.5. There are significant relationships between time management and perceived stress.

H4.6. There are significant relationships between time management and organizational stress.

5.1.4. Analysis of Data

For data analysis, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 25.0 and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) 24.0 package programs were used. Identifying Statistics (arithmetic mean, standard deviation, variance), Validity and Reliability Tests (Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient), Differences analyses (t-test, one way-ANOVA), Correlation, Regression, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), and Descriptive Factor Analysis (DFA) were applied to the collected data. As a result of analyses applied, the model was examined with chi square/df, RMSEA, HOELTER, PCLOSE, NFI, NFI, RFI, IFI, TLI and CFI compliance goodness indexes

5.2. Findings

The research survey, which is applied to the group with gender, age and work experience described in the sample section, shows the basic information on time management, Hofstede culture dimensions and organizational stress scale in the following table.

Table 11.*Validity and reliability analysis of variables*

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Time Management	.823	638	3.163	.443	.197
Hofstede culture	.836	630	3.278	.540	.292
Organizational stress	.813	621	3.599	.520	.271
Perceived stress	.816	628	3.482	.501	.266

Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for the entire study was calculated as 0.888.

5.2.1. Frequency Tables

This section includes only basic statistics on age, gender, education level, total work experience, title, title group and university type.

Table 12.*Age distribution*

	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Cumulative percentage (%)
18-30 years	215	33.7	33.7
31-40 years	291	45.6	79.3
41-50 years	91	14.3	93.6
51-60 years	32	5.0	98.6
61 years old and older	9	1.4	100.0
Total	638	100.0	

When Table 12 is examined, it can be seen that a total of 638 participants participated in the survey; 215 (33.7%) of them are 18-30 years old, 291

(45.6%) of them are 31-40 years old, 91 (14.3%) of them are 41-50 years old, 32 (5%) of them are 51-60 years old, 9 (1.4%) of them are 61 years old and older.

Table 13:

Gender distribution

	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Cumulative percentage (%)
Women	293	45.9	45.9
Male	345	54.1	100.0
Total	638	100.0	

When Table 13 is examined, it is observed that 293 (45.9%) of survey participants are female, and 345 (54.1%) of them are male.

Table 14.

Education level distribution

	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Cumulative percentage (%)
Verbal Field	249	39.0	39.0
Science Field	250	39.2	78.2
Maths & Literature	139	21.8	100.0
Total	638	100.0	

When Table 14 is examined, it is observed that 249 (39%) of survey participants have received education from verbal fields, 250 (39.2%) of them have received education from science fields, and 139 (21.8%) of them have received education from Maths Literature fields.

Table 15:*Distribution of total work experience*

	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Cumulative percentage (%)
0-10 years	336	52.7	52.7
11-20 years	243	38.1	90.8
21-30 years	47	7.4	98.1
31 years and more	12	1.9	100.0
Total	638	100.0	

When Table 15 is examined, it is observed that 336 of survey participants (52.7%) have work experience of 0-10 years, 243 (38.1%) of them have 11-20 years of experience, 47 (7.4%) of them have 21-30 years of experience, and 12 (1.9%) of them have 31 years or more work experience..

Table 16:*Title distribution*

	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Cumulative percentage (%)
Contracted	27	4.2	4.2
Administrative Services	278	43.6	47.8
Res. Asst./Lecturer	151	23.7	71.5
Specialist	58	9.1	80.6
Asst. Assoc. Dr.	100	15.7	96.2
Assoc.Dr.	15	2.4	98.6
Prof.Dr.	9	1.4	100.0
Total	638	100.0	

When Table 16 is examined, it is observed that 27 (4.2%) of survey participants are contracted workers, 278 (43.6%) of them are administrative services workers, 151 (23.7%) of them are Res. Asst. /Lecturers, 58 (9.1%) of them are experts, 100 (15.7%) of them are Asst. Assoc. Dr., 15 (2.4%) of them are Assoc. Dr., and 9 (1.4%) of Prof. Dr.

Table 17:*Title Group Distribution*

	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Cumulative percentage (%)
Administrative	278	43.6	43.6
Academic	360	56.4	100.0
Total	638	100.0	

When Table 17 is examined, it is observed that 278 (45.9%) of survey participants are administrative personnel, and 360 (54.1%) of them are academic personnel.

Table 18:*University distribution*

	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)	Cumulative percentage (%)
Hakkari University	269	42.2	42.2
Near East University	369	57.8	100.0
Total	638	100.0	

When Table 18 is examined, it is observed that 269 (45.9%) of survey participants work in Hakkari University, and 369 (54.1%) of them work in Near East University.

5.2.2. Cross Tables**Table 19. Age Distribution by Gender**

Gender	Age					Total
	18-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	51-60 years	61 years old and older	
Women	114 (53%)	132 (45.4%)	35 (38.5%)	11 (34.4%)	1 (11.1%)	293 (45.9%)
Male	101 (47%)	159 (54.6%)	56 (61.5%)	21 (65.6%)	8 (88.9%)	345 (54.1%)
Total	215 (%100)	291 (100%)	91 (100%)	32 (100%)	9 (100%)	638 (100%)

When Table is examined, it is observed that 114 of the women are 18-30 years old, 132 of them are 31-40 years old, 35 of them are 41-50 years old, 11 of them are 51-60 years old, 1 of them is 61 years and older; 101 of men are 18-30 years old, 159 of them are 31-40 years old, 56 of them are 41-50 years old, 21 of them are 51-60 years old, 8 of them are 61 years and older.

Table 20.

Age Distribution as per Educational Field

Educational Field	Age					Total
	18-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	51-60 years	61 years old and older	
Verbal Field	74 (34.4%)	117 (%40.2)	39 (%42.9)	15 (%46.9)	4 (%44.4)	249 (%39)
Science Field	91 (%42.3)	107 (%36.8)	37 (%40.7)	12 (%37.5)	3 (%33.3)	250 (%39.2)
Maths & Literature	50 (%23.3)	67 (%23)	15 (%16.5)	5 (%15.6)	2 (%22.2)	139 (%21.8)
	215 (100%)	291 (100%)	91 (100%)	32 (100%)	9 (100%)	638 (100%)

Examining the Table Table , it can be seen that, from the verbal education field, 74 participants is 18-30 years old, 117 of them are 31-40 years old, 39 of them are 41-50 years old, 15 of them are 51-60 years old, and 4 of them are 61 years old and older; while, from the science field, 91 participants are 18-30 years old, 107 of them are 31-40 years old, 37 of them are 41-50 years old, 12 of them are 51-60 years old, 3 of them are 61 years old and older; from the Maths & Literature field, 50 participants are 18-30 years old, 67 of them are 31-40 years old, 15 of them are 41-50 years old, 5 of them are 51-60 years old and 2 of the are 61 years old and older.

Table 21.*Age Distribution by Total Work Experience*

Total Work Experience	Age					Total
	18-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	51-60 years	61 years old and older	
0-10 years	215 (100%)	121 (%41.6)	0 (%0)	0 (%0)	0 (%0)	336 (%52.7)
11-20 years	0 (%0)	170 (%58.4)	70 (%76.9)	3 (%9.4)	0 (%0)	243 (%38.1)
21-30 years	0 (%0)	0 (%0)	21 (%23.1)	23 (%71.9)	3 (%33.3)	47 (%7.4)
31 years and more	0 (%0)	0 (%0)	0 (%0)	6 (%18.8)	6 (%66.7)	12 (%1.9)
Total	215 (100%)	291 (100%)	91 (100%)	32 (100%)	9 (100%)	638 (100%)

Examining Table, it can be seen that, among participants with a total work experience of 0-10 years, 215 of them are 18-30 years old, 121 of them are 31-40 years old, none of them is 41-50 years old, none of them is 60 years old and older; among participants with a total work experience of 11-20 years, 170 of them are 31-40 years old, 70 of them are 41-50 years old, and 3 of them are 51-60 years old; among participants with a total work experience of 21-30 years, 21 of them are 41-50 years old, 23 of them are 51-60 years old, 3 of them are 61 years old and older; among those with a total work experience of 31 years and higher, 6 of them are 51-60 years old, and 6 of them are 61 years old and older.

Table 22.*Age Distribution as per Task Title*

Mission Title	Age					Total
	18-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	51-60 years	61 years old and older	
Contracted	2 (%0.9)	19 (%6.5)	4 (%4.4)	2 (%6.3)	0 (%0)	27 (%4.2)
Administrative Services	90 (%41.9)	135 (%46.4)	49 (%53.8)	3 (%9.4)	1 (11.1%)	278 (%43.6)
Res. Asst./Lecturer	104 (%48.4)	45 (%15.5)	2 (%2.2)	0 (%0)	0 (%0)	151 (%23.7)
Specialist	19 (%8.8)	25 (%8.6)	7 (%7.7)	4 (%12.5)	3 (%33.3)	58 (%9.1)
Asst.Prof.Dr.	0 (%0)	66 (%22.7)	19 (%20.9)	14 (%43.8)	1 (11.1%)	100 (%15.7)
Assoc.Dr.	0 (%0)	1 (%0.3)	10 (%11)	3 (%9.4)	1 (11.1%)	15 (%2.4)
Prof.Dr.	0 (%0)	0 (%0)	0 (%0)	6 (%18.8)	3 (%33.3)	9 (%1.4)
Total	215 (100%)	291 (100%)	91 (100%)	32 (100%)	9 (100%)	638 (100%)

Examining Table , it is seen, in terms of title as per age, that 2 of contracted workers are 18-30 years old, 19 of them are 31-40 years old, 4 of them are 41-50 years old, 2 of them are 51-60 years old; 90 of administrative officers are 18-30 years old, 135 of them are 31-40 years old, 49 of them are 41-50 years old, 3 of them are 51-60 years old, 1 of them is 61 years old and older; 104 of Res. Asst./Lecturer are 18-30 years old, 45 of them are 31-40 years old, 2 of them are 41-50 years old; 19 of experts are 30 years old, 25 of them 31-40 years old, 7 of them are 41-50 years old, 4 of them are 51-60 years old, 3 of them are 61 years old and older; 66 of Asst.Assoc.Dr. are 31-40 years old, 19 of them are 41-50 years old, 14 of them are 51-60 years old, 1 of them is 61 years and older; 1 of Assoc.Dr. is 31-40 years old, 10 of them are 41-50 years old, 3 of them are 51-60 years old, 1 of them is 61 years and older; 6 of Prof.Dr. is 51-60 years old, 3 of them are 61 years and older.

Table 23.*Age Distribution as per Title Group*

Title Group	Age					Total
	18-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	51-60 years	61 years old and older	
Administrative	90 (%41.9)	135 (%46.4)	49 (%53.8)	3 (%9.4)	1 (11.1%)	278 (%43.6)
Academic	125 (%58.1)	156 (%53.6)	42 (%46.2)	29 (%90.6)	8 (88.9%)	360 (%56.4)
Total	215 (100%)	291 (100%)	91 (100%)	32 (100%)	9 (100%)	638 (100%)

When

Table is examined, it is observed, in terms of title group of participants, that 90 of administrative officers are 18-30 years old, 135 of them are 31-40 years old, 49 of them are 41-50 years old, 3 of them are 51-60 years old, 1 of them is 61 years and older; 125 of academic staff are 18-30 years old, 156 of them are 31-40 years old, 42 of them are 41-50 years old, 29 of them are 51-60 years old, 8 of them are 61 years and older.

Table 24.*Age Distribution by University*

University	Age					Total
	18-30 years	31-40 years	41-50 years	51-60 years	61 years old and older	
Hakkari University	78 (%36.3)	137 (%47.1)	42 (%46.2)	12 (%37.5)	0 (%0)	269 (%42.2)
Near East University	137 (%63.7)	154 (%52.9)	49 (%53.8)	20 (%62.5)	9 (100%)	369 (%57.8)
Total	215 (100%)	291 (100%)	91 (100%)	32 (100%)	9 (100%)	638 (100%)

When Table is examined, it is observed, in terms of university as per age, that 78 of those from Hakkari University are 18-30 years old, 137 of them are 31-40, 42 of them are 41-50 years old, 12 of them are 51-60 years old, 137 of those from Near East University are 18-30 years old, 154 of them are 31-40

years old, 49 of them are 41-50 years old, 20 of them are 51-60 years old, 9 of them are 61 years and older.

Table 25.

Gender Distribution as per Educational Field

Educational Field	Gender		Total
	Women	Male	
Verbal Field	124 (%42.3)	125 (%36.2)	249 (%39)
Science Field	112 (%38.2)	138 (%40)	250 (%39.2)
Maths & Literature	57 (%19.5)	82 (%23.8)	139 (%21.8)
Total	293 (100%)	345 (100%)	638 (100%)

Examining Table , in terms of educational field as per gender, it can be seen that 124 of participants from verbal field are female, 125 of them are male; 112 of participants from science field are female, and 138 of them are male.

Table 26.

Gender Distribution by Total Work Experience

Total Work Experience	Gender		Total
	Women	Male	
0-10 years	176 (%60.1)	160 (%46.4)	336 (%52.7)
11-20 years	97 (%33.1)	146 (%42.3)	243 (%38.1)
21-30 years	18 (%6.1)	29 (%8.4)	47 (%7.4)
31 years and more	2 (%0.7)	10 (%2.9)	12 (%1.9)
Total	293 (100%)	345 (100%)	638 (100%)

Examining Table , in terms of total work experience as per gender, it can be seen that 176 of those with a total experience of 0-10 years are female, 160 of them are male; 97 of those with a total experience of 11-20 years are female, 146 of them are male; 18 of those with 21-30 years of experience are

female, 29 of them made; 2 of those with a total experience of 31 years and higher are female and 10 of them are made.

Table 27.

Gender Distribution by Task

Mission Title	Gender		Total
	Women	Male	
	12	15	27
Contracted	(%4.1)	(%4.3)	(%4.2)
	120	158	278
Administrative Services	(%41)	(%45.8)	(%43.6)
	71	80	151
Res.Asst./Lecturer	(%24.2)	(%23.2)	(%23.7)
	38	20	58
Specialist	(%13)	(%5.8)	(%9.1)
	46	54	100
Asst.Prof.Dr.	(%15.7)	(%15.7)	(%15.7)
	5	10	15
Assoc.Dr.	(%1.7)	(%2.9)	(%2.4)
	1	8	9
Prof.Dr.	(%0.3)	(%2.3)	(%1.4)
Total	293	345	638
	(100%)	(100%)	(100%)

Examining Table , in terms of task title as per gender, 12 of contracted workers are female, 15 of them are male; 120 of administrative services workers are female, 158 of them are male; 71 of Res. Asst./Lecturer are female, 80 of them are male; 38 of experts are female, 20 of them are male; 46 of Asst.Assoc.Dr. are female, 54 of them are male; 5 of Assoc.Dr. are female, 10 of them are male, 1 of Prof.Dr. is female, 8 of them are male.

Table 28.

Gender Distribution by University

University	Gender		Total
	Women	Male	
	68	201	269
Hakkari University	(%23.2)	(%58.3)	(%42.2)
	225	144	369
Near East University	(%76.8)	(%41.7)	(%57.8)
Total	293	345	638
	(100%)	(100%)	(100%)

Examining Table , in terms of gender, 68 participants from Hakkari University are female, 201 of them are male; 225 participants from Near East University are female, 144 of them are male.

Table 29.

University Distribution as per Educational Field

Educational Field	University		Total
	Hakkari University	Near East University	
Verbal Field	95 (%35.3)	154 (%41.7)	249 (%39)
Science Field	102 (%37.9)	148 (%40.1)	250 (%39.2)
Maths & Literature	72 (%26.8)	67 (%18.2)	139 (%21.8)
Total	269 (100%)	369 (100%)	638 (100%)

Examining Table , in terms of educational field as per university, it can be seen that 95 participants from verbal field work in Hakkari University, 154 of them work in Near East University; 102 participants from science fields work in Hakkari University, 148 of them work in Near University; 72 participants from Maths & Literature fields work in Hakkari University, 67 of them work in Near East University.

Table 30.

University Distribution by Total Work Experience

Total Work Experience	University		Total
	Hakkari University	Near East University	
0-10 years	129 (%48)	207 (%56.1)	336 (%52.7)
11-20 years	120 (%44.6)	123 (%33.3)	243 (%38.1)
21-30 years	18 (%6.7)	29 (%7.9)	47 (%7.4)
31 years and more	2 (%0.7)	10 (%2.7)	12 (%1.9)
Total	269 (100%)	369 (100%)	638 (100%)

Examining Table, it can be seen that 129 participants with a total work experience of 0-10 year work Hakkari University,, 207 of them work in Near

East University; 120 participants with 1-20 years of experience work in Hakkari University, 123 of them work in Near East University; 18 participants with 21-30 years of experience work Hakkari University, 29 of them work in Near East University; 2 participants with a total work experience of 31 years and higher work in Hakkari University, 10 of them work in Near East University.

Table 31.

University Distribution as per Task Title

Task title	University		Total
	Hakkari University	Near East University	
Contracted	10 (%3.7)	17 (%4.6)	27 (%4.2)
Administrative Services	149 (%55.4)	129 (%35)	278 (%43.6)
Res.Asst./Lecturer	62 (%23)	89 (%24.1)	151 (%23.7)
Specialist	11 (%4.1)	47 (%12.7)	58 (%9.1)
Asst.Prof.Dr.	33 (%12.3)	67 (%18.2)	100 (%15.7)
Assoc.Dr.	3 (%1.1)	12 (%3.3)	15 (%2.4)
Prof.Dr.	1 (%0.4)	8 (%2.2)	9 (%1.4)
Total	269 (100%)	369 (100%)	638 (100%)

Examining Table , it can be seen that 10 participants with contracted duties work in Hakkari University, and 17 of them work in Near East University; 149 participants with administrative services duties work in Hakkari University, and 129 of them work in Near East University; 62 Res.Asst./Lecturer participants work in Hakkari University, and 89 of them work in Near East University; 11 experts work in Hakkari University, and 47 of them work in Near East University; 33 Asst.Prof.Dr. participants work in Hakkari University, and 67 of them work in Near East University; 3 Prof.Dr. participants work in Hakkari University, and 8 of them work in Near East University.

Table 32.*University Distribution as per Title Group*

Title Group	University		Total
	Hakkari University	Near East University	
Administrative	149	129	278
	(%55.4)	(%35)	(%43.6)
Academic	120	240	360
	(%44.6)	(%65)	(%56.4)
Total	269	369	638
	(100%)	(100%)	(100%)

Examining

Table , in terms of title group as per university, it is seen that 149 administrative officer participants work in Hakkari University, and 129 of them work in Near East University; 120 academic participants work in Hakkari University, and 240 of them work in Near East University.

Table 33.*Title Group Distribution as per Educational Field*

Educational Field	Title Group		Total
	administrative	Academic	
Verbal Field	124	125	249
	(%44.6)	(%34.7)	(%39)
Science Field	95	155	250
	(%34.2)	(%43.1)	(%39.2)
Maths & Literature	59	80	139
	(%21.2)	(%22.2)	(%21.8)
Total	278	360	638
	(100%)	(100%)	(100%)

Examining Table , it is seen that 124 participants from verbal field of education work in administrative departments, and 125 of them work as academicians; 95 participants from science fields work in administrative departments, and 155 of them work as academicians; 59 participants from Maths & Literature fields work in administrative departments, and 80 of them work as academicians.

Table 34:*Title Group Distribution by Total Work Experience*

Total Work Experience	title_group		Total
	administrative	Academic	
0-10 years	143 (%51.4)	193 (%53.6)	336 (%52.7)
11-20 years	116 (%41.7)	127 (%35.3)	243 (%38.1)
21-30 years	17 (%6.1)	30 (%8.3)	47 (%7.4)
31 years and more	2 (%0.7)	10 (2.8%)	12 (%1.9)
Total	278 (100%)	360 (100%)	638 (100%)

Table Examining the Table, it can be seen that 143 participants with a total work experience of 0-10 year work in administrative departments, 193 of them work as academicians; 116 participants with 11-20 years of experience work in administrative departments, and 127 of them work as academicians; 17 participants with 21-30 years of experience work in administrative departments, and 30 of them work as academicians; 31 participants with a total work experience of 31 years and higher work in administrative departments, and 10 of them work in Near East University.

Table 35.*Title Group Distribution as per Task Title*

Task title	title_group		Total
	Administrative	Academic	
Contracted	0 (%0)	27 (%7.5)	27 (%4.2)
Administrative Services	278 (100%)	0 (%0)	278 (%43.6)
Res. Asst./Lecturer	0 (%0)	151 (%41.9)	151 (%23.7)
Specialist	0 (%0)	58 (%16.1)	58 (%9.1)
Asst.Prof.Dr.	0 (%0)	100 (%27.8)	100 (%15.7)
Assoc.Dr.	0 (%0)	15 (%4.2)	15 (%2.4)
Prof.Dr.	0 (%0)	9 (%2.5)	9 (%1.4)
Total	278 (100%)	360 (100%)	638 (100%)

Examining Table , in terms of distribution as per title group, it is seen that 27 participants are academicians, and 278 participants are administrative personnel; 151 of Res.Asst./Lecturers are academicians, and 58 of experts are academicians; 100 of Asst.Prof.Dr. are academicians, 15 of Assoc.Dr. are academicians, and 9 of Prof.Dr. are academicians.

Table 36:*Educational Field Distribution by Total Work Experience*

Total Work Experience	educational field			Total
	Verbal Field	Science Field	Maths & Literature	
0-10 years	133 (%53.4)	124 (%49.6)	79 (%56.8)	336 (%52.7)
11-20 years	89 (%35.7)	101 (%40.4)	53 (%38.1)	243 (%38.1)
21-30 years	19 (%7.6)	22 (%8.8)	6 (%4.3)	47 (%7.4)
31 years and more	8 (%3.2)	3 (%1.2)	1 (%0.7)	12 (%1.9)

Total	249 (100%)	250 (100%)	139 (100%)	638 (100%)
-------	---------------	---------------	---------------	---------------

Examining

Table , in terms of total work experience as per educational field, it is seen that 133 participants with a total work experience of 0-10 years are from verbal fields, 124 of them are from science fields, and 79 of them are from Maths & literature; 89 participants with an experience of 11-20 years are from verbal fields, 101 of them are from science fields, and 53 of them are Maths & literature; 19 participants work experience of 21-30 years are from verbal fields, 22 of them are from science fields, and 6 of them are Maths & literature; 8 participants with a total work experience of 31 years and higher are from verbal field, 3 of them are from science field, 1 of them is from Maths & literature; 249 of them are from verbal fields, 250 of them are from science fields, and 139 of them are from Maths & literature fields.

Table 37.

Educational Field Distribution as per Task Title

Task title	Educational Field			Total
	Verbal Field	Science Field	Maths & Literature	
Contracted	12 (%4.8)	9 (%3.6)	6 (%4.3)	27 (%4.2)
Administrative Services	124 (%49.8)	95 (%38)	59 (%42.4)	278 (%43.6)
Res. Asst./Lecturer	34 (%13.7)	75 (%30)	42 (%30.2)	151 (%23.7)
Specialist	35 (%14.1)	15 (%6)	8 (%5.8)	58 (%9.1)
Asst.Prof.Dr.	36 (%14.5)	46 (%18.4)	18 (%12.9)	100 (%15.7)
Assoc.Dr.	3 (%1.2)	7 (%2.8)	5 (%3.6)	15 (%2.4)
Prof.Dr.	5 (%2)	3 (%1.2)	1 (%0.7)	9 (%1.4)
Total	249 (100%)	250 (100%)	139 (100%)	638 (100%)

Examining Table , in terms of task title as per educational field, it is seen that 12 contracted participants are from verbal fields, 9 of them are from science fields, and 6 of them are from Maths & literature fields; 124 participants from administrative services are from verbal fields, 95 of them are from science fields, and 59 of them are from Maths & literature fields; 34 of Res. Asst./Lecturers are from verbal fields, 75 of them are from science fields, and 8 of them are from Maths & literature fields; 35 experts are from verbal fields, 15 of them are from science fields, and 8 of them are from Maths & literature fields; 36 of Asst. Assoc. Dr. are from verbal fields, 46 of them are from science fields, and 18 of them are from Maths & literature; 5 of Prof.Dr. Are from verbal fields, 3 of them are from science fields, and 1 is from Maths & literature field.

Table 38.

Task Title Distribution by Total Work Experience

Total Work Experience	Task title							Total
	Contracted	Administrative Services	Res.Asst./Lecturer	Specialist	Asst.Prof.Dr.	Assoc.Dr.	Prof.Dr.	
0-10 years	14 (%51.9)	143 (%51.4)	132 (%87.4)	34 (%58.6)	13 (%13)	0 (%0)	0 (%0)	336 (%52.7)
11-20 years	11 (%40.7)	116 (%41.7)	19 (%12.6)	18 (%31)	69 (%69)	10 (%66.7)	0 (%0)	243 (%38.1)
21-30 years	2 (%7.4)	17 (%6.1)	0 (%0)	4 (%6.9)	18 (%18)	4 (%26.7)	2 (%22.2)	47 (%7.4)
31 years and more	0 (%0)	2 (%0.7)	0 (%0)	2 (%3.4)	0 (%0)	1 (%6.7)	7 (%77.8)	12 (%1.9)
Total	27 (100%)	278 (100%)	151 (100%)	58 (100%)	100 (100%)	15 (100%)	9 (100%)	638 (100%)

Examining Table , in terms of total work experience as per task title; it is seen that, among participants with 0-10 years of experience, 14 of them are contracted officers, 143 of them are in administrative services, 132 of them are Res.Asst./Lecturer, 34 of them are experts, and 13 of them are Asst.Prof.Dr; among participants with 11-20 years of experience, 11 of them are contracted officers, 116 of them are in administrative services, 19 of them are Res.Asst./Lecturer, 18 of them experts, 69 of them are Asst.Prof.Dr., 10 of them are Assoc.Dr.; among participants with work experience of 21-30 years, 2 of them are contracted officers, 17 of them are in administrative services, 4 of them are experts, 18 of them are Asst.Prof.Dr, 4 of them are

Assoc.Dr., 2 of them are Prof.Dr.; among participants with a total work experience of 31 years and more, 2 of the m are in administrative services, 2 of them are expert, 1 of them is Assoc.Dr., 7 of them are Prof.Dr.

5.2.3. One-Way Anova Tests

Table 39.

Time planning by age, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Timing	18-30 years	215	3.3973	.66740	3.347	.010
	31-40 years	291	3.4904	.72479		
	41-50 years	91	3.6055	.72448		
	51-60 years	32	3.8053	.59101		
	61 years old and older	9	3.6774	.69376		
	Total	638	3.4939	.70447		

Examining significant differences between time planning by age, significant differences were found in time planning by age categories ($p=0.01$, $p<.05$). Tukey analysis was performed to determine which age categories the differentiation in time planning originated from (Table 40).

Table 40.

Tukey test results for which age group the differentiation in Time Planning originated

Dimension	(I) age	(j) Age	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Time Planning	18-30 years	31-40 years	-.09304	.06289	.576
		41-50 years	-.20819	.08746	.122
		51-60 years	-.40795*	.13251	.018
		61 years old and older	-.28002	.23794	.765
		18-30 years	.09304	.06289	.576
	31-40 years	41-50 years	-.11515	.08399	.647
		51-60 years	-.31491	.13025	.112
		61 years old	-.18698	.23669	.934

	and older			
	18-30 years	.20819	.08746	.122
	31-40 years	.11515	.08399	.647
41-50 years	51-60 years	-.19977	.14373	.634
	61 years old and older	-.07183	.24437	.998
	18-30 years	.40795*	.13251	.018
	31-40 years	.31491	.13025	.112
51-60 years	41-50 years	.19977	.14373	.634
	61 years old and older	.12794	.26386	.989
	18-30 years	.28002	.23794	.765
61 years old and older	31-40 years	.18698	.23669	.934
	41-50 years	.07183	.24437	.998
	51-60 years	-.12794	.26386	.989

When it was investigated which categories the differentiation in age dimension as per time planning originated, it was determined that there was differentiation between the ages of 18-30 and 51-60 at the level of $p=.018$.

Table 41.

Time Attitudes by age, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
	18-30 years	214	3.2592	.51498		
	31-40 years	291	3.2255	.51730		
	41-50 years	91	3.3645	.50100		
Time Attitudes	51-60 years	32	3.5285	.43663	3.630	.006
	61 years old and older	9	3.4306	.41510		
	Total	637	3.2748	.51356		

When significant differences between workloads as per work load were examined, significant differences were found in time attitudes ($p=0.006$, $p>.05$) as per age categories. Tukey analysis was performed to determine which age categories the differentiation in time attitudes originated from (Table 42).

Table 42.

Tukey test results on which age group the differentiation in Time Attitudes originated

Dimension	(I) age	(j) Age	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p	
Time Attitudes	18-30 years	31-40 years	.03369	.04587	.948	
		41-50 years	-.10524	.06375	.465	
		51-60 years	-.26923*	.09654	.043	
		61 years old and older	-.17133	.17332	.861	
	31-40 years	18-30 years	-.03369	.04587	.948	
		41-50 years	-.13893	.06118	.156	
		51-60 years	-.30292*	.09487	.013	
		61 years old and older	-.20502	.17239	.758	
	41-50 years	18-30 years	.10524	.06375	.465	
		31-40 years	.13893	.06118	.156	
		51-60 years	-.16399	.10468	.520	
		61 years old and older	-.06609	.17799	.996	
	51-60 years	18-30 years	.26923*	.09654	.043	
		31-40 years	.30292*	.09487	.013	
		41-50 years	.16399	.10468	.520	
		61 years old and older	.09790	.19219	.986	
	61 years old and older	18-30 years	.17133	.17332	.861	
		31-40 years	.20502	.17239	.758	
		41-50 years	.06609	.17799	.996	
			51-60 years	-.09790	.19219	.986

When it was examined which categories of age-sized differentiation originated according to time attitudes, it was found that there was a

differentiation between the ages of 18-30 and 51-60 at $p=.043$ level, and between ages of 31-40 and 51-60 at $p=.013$.

Table 43.

Time-consuming by age, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Time consuming	18-30 years	212	2.7640	.63185	1.162	.327
	31-40 years	290	2.7149	.64756		
	41-50 years	91	2.6652	.63216		
	51-60 years	31	2.7946	.81273		
	61 years old and older	9	2.3704	.63889		
	Total	633	2.7232	.64928		

When significant differences between time-consuming as per age were examined, significant differences were not found in time-consuming ($p=0.327$, $p>.05$) as per age categories. When time-consuming sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 2.764; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 2.7149; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 2.6652; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 2.7946; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 2.3704. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.162$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 51-60 years old arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 44.

Time management by age, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Time Management	18-30 years	215	3.1404	.42132	2.734	.028

31-40 years	291	3.1450	.43307
41-50 years	91	3.2117	.42586
51-60 years	32	3.3859	.42896
61 years old and older	9	3.1594	.46386
Total	638	3.1653	.43064

When significant differences between time management as per age were examined, significant differences were found in time management ($p=0.028$, $p>.05$) as per age categories. Tukey analysis was performed to determine which age categories the differentiation in time management originated from. (Table)

Table 45.

Tukey test results on which age group the differentiation in Time Management originated

Dimension	(I) age	(j) Age	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Time Management	18-30 years	31-40 years	-.00460	.03852	1.000
		41-50 years	-.07132	.05356	.672
		51-60 years	-.24547*	.08115	.022
		61 years old and older	-.01902	.14573	1.000
		18-30 years	.00460	.03852	1.000
	31-40 years	41-50 years	-.06672	.05144	.693
		51-60 years	-.24087*	.07977	.022
		61 years old and older	-.01442	.14496	1.000
		18-30 years	.07132	.05356	.672
	41-50 years	31-40 years	.06672	.05144	.693
		51-60 years	-.17414	.08803	.278
		61 years old and older	.05231	.14966	.997
		18-30 years	.24547*	.08115	.022
	51-60 years	31-40 years	.24087*	.07977	.022
		41-50 years	.17414	.08803	.278
		61 years old and older	.22645	.16160	.627
	61 years old and older	18-30 years	.01902	.14573	1.000
		31-40 years	.01442	.14496	1.000
		41-50 years	-.05231	.14966	.997
			51-60 years	-.22645	.16160

When it was examined which categories of age-sized differentiation originated according to time management, it was found that there was a differentiation between the ages of 18-30 and 51-60 at $p=.022$ level, and between ages of 31-40 and 51-60 at $p=.022$.

Table 46.

Inadequate self-sufficiency perception, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Perception of inadequate self-sufficiency	18-30 years	213	2.4003	.82215	.674	.611
	31-40 years	290	2.3107	.79991		
	41-50 years	91	2.2850	.85939		
	51-60 years	31	2.3978	.73620		
	61 years old and older	9	2.5556	1.14867		
	Total	634	2.3449	.81776		

When significant differences between self-efficacy perception as per age were examined, significant differences were not found in self-efficacy perception ($p=0.611$, $p>.05$) as per age categories. When inadequate self-sufficiency perception sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 2.4003; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 2.3107; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 2.285; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 2.3978; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 2.5556. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.674$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 61 years old and older participants' arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 47.

Perception of stress/discomfort by age, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Perception of stress/discomfort	18-30 years	212	2.8449	.70002	3.446	.008
	31-40 years	290	2.6433	.71201		

41-50 years	91	2.6358	.73695
51-60 years	31	2.5161	.65743
61 years old and older	9	2.8571	.95831
Total	633	2.7065	.71832

When significant differences between perception of stress/discomfort as per age were examined, significant differences were found in perception of stress/discomfort according to age categories ($p=0.008$, $p<.05$). Tukey analysis, conducted to determine which age categories the differentiation in time management originated from.

Table 48.

Tukey test results for which age group the differentiation in stress/discomfort perception originated

Dimension	(I) age	(j) Age	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Perception of stress/discomfort	18-30 years	31-40 years	.20163*	.06441	.016
		41-50 years	.20911	.08933	.134
		51-60 years	.32877	.13707	.117
		61 years old and older	-.01224	.24260	1.000
	31-40 years	18-30 years	-.20163*	.06441	.016
		41-50 years	.00747	.08565	1.000
		51-60 years	.12714	.13470	.880
		61 years old and older	-.21388	.24127	.902
	41-50 years	18-30 years	-.20911	.08933	.134
		31-40 years	-.00747	.08565	1.000
		51-60 years	.11966	.14824	.928
		61 years old and older	-.22135	.24908	.901
	51-60 years	18-30 years	-.32877	.13707	.117
		31-40 years	-.12714	.13470	.880
		41-50 years	-.11966	.14824	.928
		61 years old and older	-.34101	.26991	.714
	61 years old and older	18-30 years	.01224	.24260	1.000
		31-40 years	.21388	.24127	.902
		41-50 years	.22135	.24908	.901
		51-60 years	.34101	.26991	.714

When it was examined which categories the differentiation in age dimension as per stress/discomfort perception originated, it was determined that there was differentiation between the ages of 18-30 and 31-40 at the level of $p=.016$.

Table 49:

Perceived stress by age, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Perceived stress	18-30 years	213	2.6206	.69826	1.749	.138
	31-40 years	290	2.4770	.68877		
	41-50 years	91	2.4604	.73241		
	51-60 years	31	2.4570	.62151		
	61 years old and older	9	2.7063	1.03506		
	Total	634	2.5251	.70244		

When significant differences were examined between perceived stress as per age, significant differences were not found in perceived stress by age categories ($p=0.138$, $p>.05$). When perceived stress sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 2.6206; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 2.477; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 2.4604; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 2.457; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 2.7063. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.749$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 61 years old and older participants' arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 50.

Work load f test results as per age

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Work load	18-30 years	212	3.3428	.64256	.844	.498
	31-40 years	290	3.2957	.65468		

41-50 years	91	3.3209	.63797
51-60 years	31	3.4694	.55177
61 years old and older	9	3.1000	.80312
Total	633	3.3208	.64548

When significant differences between workloads as per work load are examined, significant differences in workload ($p=0.498$, $p>.05$) are not found as per age categories. When work load sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 3.3428; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 3.2957; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 3.3209; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 3.4694; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 3.1. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.844$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 51-60 years old arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 51.

Control by age, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Control	18-30 years	211	3.5605	.65314	2.523	.040
	31-40 years	290	3.5597	.69749		
	41-50 years	91	3.6308	.76454		
	51-60 years	31	3.9247	.57387		
	61 years old and older	9	3.8704	.73019		
	Total	632	3.5925	.69148		

Examining significant differences between control by age, significant differences were found in time planning by age categories ($p=0.04$, $p<.05$). Tukey analysis was performed to determine which age categories the differentiation in control originated from. (Table)

Table 52.*Tukey test results for which age group the differentiation in control originated*

Dimension	(I) age	(j) Age	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Control	18-30 years	31-40 years	.00085	.06227	1.000
		41-50 years	-.07026	.08631	.926
		51-60 years	-.36423*	.13237	.048
		61 years old and older	-.30986	.23423	.677
	31-40 years	18-30 years	-.00085	.06227	1.000
		41-50 years	-.07111	.08269	.911
		51-60 years	-.36508*	.13004	.041
		61 years old and older	-.31072	.23292	.670
	41-50 years	18-30 years	.07026	.08631	.926
		31-40 years	.07111	.08269	.911
		51-60 years	-.29396	.14311	.242
		61 years old and older	-.23960	.24047	.857
	51-60 years	18-30 years	.36423*	.13237	.048
		31-40 years	.36508*	.13004	.041
		41-50 years	.29396	.14311	.242
		61 years old and older	.05436	.26057	1.000
	61 years old and older	18-30 years	.30986	.23423	.677
		31-40 years	.31072	.23292	.670
		41-50 years	.23960	.24047	.857
		51-60 years	-.05436	.26057	1.000

When it was examined which categories of age-sized differentiation originated according to control, it was found that there was a differentiation between the ages of 18-30 and 51-60 at $p=.048$ level, and between ages of 31-40 and 51-60 at $p=.041$.

Table 53:

Social support by age, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Social Support	18-30 years	212	3.9759	.72592	2.402	.049
	31-40 years	290	3.9962	.78761		
	41-50 years	91	3.9864	.72735		
	51-60 years	31	4.3548	.54389		
	61 years old and older	9	4.3889	.41667		
	Total	633	4.0112	.74807		

Examining significant differences between social support by age, significant differences are found in social support by age categories ($p=0.049$, $p<.05$). Tukey analysis was performed to determine which age categories the differentiation in social support originated from.

Table 54.

Tukey test results for which age group the differentiation in social support originated

Dimension	(I) age	(j) Age	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Social Support	18-30 years	31-40 years	-.02026	.06730	.998
		41-50 years	-.01050	.09334	1.000
		51-60 years	-.37890	.14321	.064

	61 years old and older	-.41295	.25347	.479
	18-30 years	.02026	.06730	.998
	41-50 years	.00976	.08949	1.000
31-40 years	51-60 years	-.35863	.14073	.082
	61 years old and older	-.39268	.25208	.525
	18-30 years	.01050	.09334	1.000
	31-40 years	-.00976	.08949	1.000
41-50 years	51-60 years	-.36839	.15488	.123
	61 years old and older	-.40244	.26024	.533
	18-30 years	.37890	.14321	.064
	31-40 years	.35863	.14073	.082
51-60 years	41-50 years	.36839	.15488	.123
	61 years old and older	-.03405	.28200	1.000
	18-30 years	.41295	.25347	.479
61 years old and older	31-40 years	.39268	.25208	.525
	41-50 years	.40244	.26024	.533
	51-60 years	.03405	.28200	1.000

Examining which categories, the differentiation in age dimension as per social support originated from, it was not determined which categories caused the differentiation.

Table 55.

Organizational stress by age, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Organizational stress	18-30 years	212	3.6266	.46865		
	31-40 years	290	3.6172	.53684		
	41-50 years	91	3.6460	.55797		
	51-60 years	31	3.9163	.37760	2.631	.033
	61 years old and older	9	3.7864	.52543		
	Total	633	3.6415	.51387		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress as per age, significant differences were found in organizational stress by age categories ($p=0.033$, $p<.05$). Tukey analysis was performed to determine which age categories the differentiation in organization stress originated from.

Table 56.

Tukey test results for which age group the differentiation in organizational stress originated

Dimension	(l) age	(j) Age	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Organizational stress	18-30 years	31-40 years	.00939	.04620	1.000
		41-50 years	-.01946	.06407	.998
		51-60 years	-.28974*	.09831	.027
		61 years old and older	-.15985	.17399	.890
	31-40 years	18-30 years	-.00939	.04620	1.000
		41-50 years	-.02885	.06143	.990
		51-60 years	-.29912*	.09660	.017
		61 years old and older	-.16924	.17304	.865
	41-50 years	18-30 years	.01946	.06407	.998
		31-40 years	.02885	.06143	.990
		51-60 years	-.27028	.10632	.083
		61 years old and older	-.14039	.17864	.935
	51-60 years	18-30 years	.28974*	.09831	.027
		31-40 years	.29912*	.09660	.017
		41-50 years	.27028	.10632	.083
		61 years old and older	.12989	.19358	.963
	61 years old and older	18-30 years	.15985	.17399	.890
		31-40 years	.16924	.17304	.865
		41-50 years	.14039	.17864	.935
		51-60 years	-.12989	.19358	.963

To understand from which categories the differentiation in organizational stress as per age originate, the arithmetic mean was found as 2.4907, the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 2.025, and the arithmetic mean of 61 years and older was found as 2. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.404$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 41-50 years old arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 58.

Power Distance by Age, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Power distance	18-30 years	212	2.7612	.88550	1.005	.404
	31-40 years	290	2.6797	.78003		
	41-50 years	91	2.7346	.84685		
	51-60 years	32	2.4875	.68333		
	61 years old and older	9	2.5278	.91894		
	Total	634	2.7029	.82400		

When significant differences were examined between power distance as per age, significant differences were not found in power distance by age categories ($p=0.404$, $p>.05$). When power distance sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 2.7612; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 2.6797; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 2.7346; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 2.4875; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 2.5278. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.005$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 18-30 years old arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 59.*Avoiding uncertainty by age, f test results*

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Avoiding uncertainty	18-30 years	211	3.8540	.70773	1.553	.185
	31-40 years	290	3.8291	.76463		
	41-50 years	91	3.8115	.84597		
	51-60 years	32	4.1719	.89054		
	61 years old and older	9	3.7333	1.17047		
	Total	633	3.8509	.77317		

When significant differences were examined between avoidance of uncertainty by age, significant differences were not found in avoiding uncertainty by age categories ($p=0.185$, $p>.05$). When avoiding uncertainty sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 3.854; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 3.8291; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 3.8115; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 4.1719; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 3.7333. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.553$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 51-60 years old arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 60.*Individualism by age, f test results*

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Individualism	18-30 years	212	3.7366	.70282	1.696	.149
	31-40 years	290	3.6701	.78852		
	41-50 years	91	3.7555	.84663		
	51-60 years	31	4.0403	.80389		
	61 years old and older	9	3.7778	1.18219		
	Total	633	3.7243	.77856		

Examining significant differences between individualism as per age, significant differences were not in individualism by age categories ($p=0.149$,

$p > .05$). When individualism sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 3.7366; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 3.6701; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 3.7555; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 4.0403; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 3.7778. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.696$ $p > .05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 51-60 years old arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 61.

Long Time Focus by age, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Long-time focus	18-30 years	212	3.7881	.67258	1.242	.292
	31-40 years	290	3.8167	.75414		
	41-50 years	91	3.7308	.80384		
	51-60 years	31	4.0000	.83666		
	61 years old and older	9	3.4722	1.06393		
	Total	633	3.7988	.74500		

When significant differences between long time focus by age were examined, significant differences were not found in long-time focus ($p=0.292$, $p > .05$) as per age categories. When long time focus sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 3.7881; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 3.8167; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 3.7308; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 4; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 3.4722. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.242$ $p > .05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 51-60 years old arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 62.*Culture by age, f test results*

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	P
Culture	18-30 years	212	3.2896	.50624	.415	.798
	31-40 years	291	3.2679	.52485		
	41-50 years	91	3.3046	.63470		
	51-60 years	32	3.3297	.51177		
	61 years old and older	9	3.1022	.68795		
	Total	635	3.2812	.53667		

When significant differences between culture as per culture were examined, significant differences in culture were not found as per age categories ($p=0.798$, $p>.05$). When culture sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 3.2896; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 3.2679; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 3.3046; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 3.3297; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 3.1022. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.415$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 51-60 years old arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 63.*Organizational Stress_F1 by age, f test results*

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Organizational Stres_F1	18-30 years	211	4.0869	.71640	1.890	.111
	31-40 years	283	3.9329	.74262		
	41-50 years	87	3.9762	.84211		
	51-60 years	32	4.1885	.67035		
	61 years old and older	8	3.8542	.88388		
	Total	621	4.0034	.74909		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress_F1 as per age, significant differences were not found in organizational

stress_F1 by age categories ($p=0.111$, $p>.05$). When organizational stress_F1 sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 4.0869; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 3.9329; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 3.9762; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 4.1885; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 3.8542. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.89$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 51-60 years old arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 64.

Organizational Stress_F2 by age, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Organizational Stress_F2	18-30 years	211	3.6801	.74842		
	31-40 years	283	3.6346	.82360		
	41-50 years	87	3.7941	.77903		
	51-60 years	32	3.7031	.82168	.776	.541
	61 years old and older	8	3.5000	1.13389		
	Total	621	3.6742	.79617		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress as per age, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F2 by age categories ($p=0.541$, $p>.05$). When organizational stress_F2 sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 3.6801; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 3.6346; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 3.7941; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 3.7031; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 3.5. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.776$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 41-50 years old arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 65.*Organizational Stress_F3 by age, f test results*

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Organizational Stress_F3	18-30 years	211	3.2295	.71212	1.283	.275
	31-40 years	283	3.3151	.70701		
	41-50 years	87	3.3966	.79108		
	51-60 years	32	3.2188	.77966		
	61 years old and older	8	3.5625	.39528		
	Total	621	3.2956	.72277		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress_F3 as per age, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F3 by age categories ($p=0.275$, $p>.05$). When Organizational Stress_F3 sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 3.2295; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 3.3151; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 3.3966; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 3.2188; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 3.5625. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.283$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 61 years old and older participants' arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 66.*Organizational Stress_F4 by age, f test results*

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Organizational Stress_F4	18-30 years	211	3.4850	.85071	.484	.747
	31-40 years	282	3.3895	.83877		
	41-50 years	87	3.4310	.80597		
	51-60 years	32	3.4167	.84667		
	61 years old and older	8	3.2500	.83095		
	Total	620	3.4274	.83729		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress_F4 as per age, significant differences were not found in organizational stress by age categories ($p=0.747$, $p>.05$). When Organizational Stress_F4 sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 3.485; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 3.3895; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 3.431; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 3.4167; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 3.25. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.484$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 18-30 years old arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 67.

Organizational stress by age, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Organizational Stress	18-30 years	211	3.6204	.46941	.630	.642
	31-40 years	283	3.5662	.54175		
	41-50 years	87	3.6495	.52628		
	51-60 years	32	3.6318	.58874		
	61 years old and older	8	3.5417	.71313		
	Total	621	3.5993	.52031		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress as per age, significant differences were not found in organizational stress by age categories ($p=0.642$, $p>.05$). When organizational stress sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 3.6204; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 3.5662; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 3.6495; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 3.6318; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 3.5417. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.63$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is

observed that 41-50 years old arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 68.

Perceived stress by age, f test results

Dimension	Age	N	X	SS	F	p
Perceived Stress	18-30 years	211	2.4756	.67823	.902	.462
	31-40 years	283	2.5847	.68730		
	41-50 years	88	2.5975	.76106		
	51-60 years	32	2.5457	.77599		
	61 years old and older	8	2.6378	.71617		
	Total	622	2.5482	.69993		

When significant differences were examined between perceived stress as per age, significant differences were not found in perceived stress by age categories ($p=0.462$, $p>.05$). When perceived stress sub-dimension was examined according to age, the arithmetic mean of 18-30-year-old participants was found as 2.4756; the arithmetic mean of 31-40-year-old participants was found as 2.5847; the arithmetic mean of 41-50-year-old participants was found as 2.5975; the arithmetic mean of 51-60-year-old participants was found as 2.5457; the arithmetic mean of those 61 years old and older was found as 2.6378. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.902$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that 61 years old and older participants' arithmetic mean are higher than that of others.

Table 69.

Time planning by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	f	p
Timing	Verbal Field	249	3.5446	.72946	1.060	.347
	Science Field	250	3.4615	.70042		
	Maths & Literature	139	3.4612	.66460		
	Total	638	3.4939	.70447		

When significant differences were examined between time planning as per educational field, significant differences were not found in time planning by educational field categories ($p=0.347$, $p>.05$). When the time planning sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.5446, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 3.4615, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 3.4612. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.06$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from verbal field is higher than that of others.

Table 70.

Time attitudes by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	F	P
Time Attitudes	Verbal Field	248	3.2968	.55318	.373	.689
	Science Field	250	3.2604	.52371		
	Maths & Literature	139	3.2614	.41411		
	Total	637	3.2748	.51356		

When significant differences were examined between time attitudes as per educational field, significant differences were not found in time attitudes by educational field categories ($p=0.689$, $p>.05$). When time attitudes sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.2968,

science field arithmetic mean was found as 3.2604, and Maths and literature arithmetic mean was found as 3.2614. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.373$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are

compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from verbal field is higher than that of others.

Table 71.

Time-consuming by Educational Field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	F	P
Time consuming	Verbal Field	247	2.6981	.68907	.317	.729
	Science Field	247	2.7351	.61419		
	Maths & Literature	139	2.7468	.64020		
	Total	633	2.7232	.64928		

When significant differences were examined between time-consuming as per educational field, significant differences were not found in time-consuming by educational field categories ($p=0.729$, $p>.05$). When time-consuming sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 2.6981, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 2.7351, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 2.7468. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.317$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from Maths & Literature field is higher than that of others.

Table 72.

Time management by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	F	P
Time Management	Verbal Field	249	3.1809	.45897	.270	.764
	Science Field	250	3.1546	.43652		
	Maths & Literature	139	3.1565	.36457		
	Total	638	3.1653	.43064		

When significant differences were examined between time management as per educational field, significant differences were not found in time management by educational field categories ($p=0.764$, $p>.05$). When the time management sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.1809, the science field

arithmetic mean was found as 3.1546, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 3.1565. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.27$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from verbal field is higher than that of others.

Table 73.

Inadequate self-sufficiency by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	f	p
Perception of inadequate self-sufficiency	Verbal Field	247	2.3955	.85519	1.056	.349
	Science Field	248	2.3359	.80307		
	Maths & Literature	139	2.2710	.77405		
	Total	634	2.3449	.81776		

When significant differences were examined between inadequate self-sufficiency as per educational field, significant differences were not found in inadequate self-sufficiency by educational field categories ($p=0.349$, $p>.05$). When inadequate self-sufficiency sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 2.3955, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 2.3359, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 2.271. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.056$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from verbal field is higher than that of others.

Table 74.

Stress/discomfort by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	F	p
Perception of stress/discomfort	Verbal Field	246	2.7084	.74601	.268	.765
	Science Field	248	2.7253	.71555		
	Maths & Literature	139	2.6697	.67572		
	Total	633	2.7065	.71832		

When significant differences were examined between stress/discomfort perception as per educational field, significant differences were not found in

stress/discomfort perception by educational field categories ($p=0.765$, $p>.05$). When stress/discomfort perception sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 2.7084, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 2.7253, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 2.6697. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.268$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from science field is higher than that of others.

Table 75.

Perceived stress by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	F	p
Perceived stress	Verbal Field	247	2.5505	.74343	.591	.554
	Science Field	248	2.5306	.69372		
	Maths & Literature	139	2.4703	.64226		
	Total	634	2.5251	.70244		

When significant differences were examined between perceived stress as educational field, significant differences were not found in perceived stress by educational field categories ($p=0.554$, $p>.05$). When perceived stress sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 2.5505, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 2.5306, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 2.4703. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.591$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from verbal field is higher than that of others.

Table 76.

Work load by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	f	p
Work load	Verbal Field	246	3.3510	.65943	.540	.583
	Science Field	248	3.3126	.65844		
	Maths & Literature	139	3.2820	.59737		

Total	633	3.3208	.64548
-------	-----	--------	--------

When significant differences were examined between work load as per educational field, significant differences were not found in work load by educational field categories ($p=0.583$, $p>.05$). When work load sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.351, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 3.3126, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 3.282. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.54$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from verbal field is higher than that of others.

Table 77.

Control by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	f	p
Control	Verbal Field	246	3.5484	.73005	1.146	.319
	Science Field	247	3.6420	.68045		
	Maths & Literature	139	3.5826	.63781		
	Total	632	3.5925	.69148		

When significant differences were examined between control as per educational field, significant differences were not found in control by educational field categories ($p=0.319$, $p>.05$). When control sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.5484, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 3.642, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 3.5826. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.146$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from science field is higher than that of others.

Table 78.

Social support by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	F	p
Social Support	Verbal Field	246	4.0748	.72741	1.468	.231
	Science Field	248	3.9747	.78282		

Maths & Literature	139	3.9635	.71744
Total	633	4.0112	.74807

When significant differences were examined between social support as per educational field, significant differences were not found in social support by educational field categories ($p=0.231$, $p>.05$). When social support sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 4.0748, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 3.9747, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 3.9635. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.468$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from verbal field is higher than that of others.

Table 79.

Organizational stress by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	F	P
Organizational stress	Verbal Field	246	3.6581	.53155	.400	.671
	Science Field	248	3.6431	.52937		
	Maths & Literature	139	3.6094	.45234		
	Total	633	3.6415	.51387		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress as educational field, significant differences were not found in organizational stress by educational field categories ($p=0.671$, $p>.05$). When organizational stress sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.6581, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 3.6431, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 3.6094. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.4$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from verbal field is higher than that of others.

Table 80.

Masculinity by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	f	P
Masculinity	Verbal Field	247	2.3666	1.13626	.575	.563
	Science Field	249	2.2950	1.05757		

Maths & Literature	139	2.4137	1.09605
Total	635	2.3488	1.09642

When significant differences were examined between masculinity as per educational field, significant differences were not found in masculinity by educational field categories ($p=0.563$, $p>.05$). When masculinity sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 2.3666, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 2.295, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 2.4137. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.575$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from Maths & Literature field is higher than that of others.

Table 81.

Power distance by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	F	p
Power distance	Verbal Field	246	2.8334	.87154	5.988	.003
	Science Field	249	2.5793	.79185		
	Maths & Literature	139	2.6935	.76229		
	Total	634	2.7029	.82400		

When significant differences were examined between power distance as per educational field, significant differences were not found in power distance by educational field categories ($p=0.003$, $p<.05$). Tukey analysis was performed to determine which educational field categories the differentiation in power distance originated from. (Table)

Table 82.

Tukey test results for which educational field group the differentiation power distance originated from

Dimension	(I) Educational Field	(j) Educational Field	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Power distance	Verbal Field	Science Field	.25408*	.07350	.002
		Maths & Literature	.13988	.08675	.241
	Science Field	Verbal Field	-.25408*	.07350	.002
		Maths & Literature	-.11421	.08656	.385
	Maths & Literature	Verbal Field	-.13988	.08675	.241
		Science Field	.11421	.08656	.385

When it was investigated which categories the differentiation in power distance in educational field originated from, it was determined that there was differentiation between verbal field and science field at the level of $p=.002$.

Table 83.

Avoiding uncertainty by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	F	p
Avoiding uncertainty	Verbal Field	245	3.8673	.72284	.906	.405
	Science Field	249	3.8030	.86705		
	Maths & Literature	139	3.9076	.67456		
	Total	633	3.8509	.77317		

When significant differences were examined between uncertainty avoidance as per educational field, significant differences were not found in uncertainty avoidance by educational field categories ($p=0.405$, $p>.05$). When avoiding uncertainty sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.8673, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 3.803, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was

found as 3.9076. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.906$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from Maths & Literature field is higher than that of others.

Table 84.

Individualism by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	F	p
Individualism	Verbal Field	245	3.7136	.77809	2.209	.111
	Science Field	249	3.6697	.79001		
	Maths & Literature	139	3.8411	.75140		
	Total	633	3.7243	.77856		

When significant differences were examined between individualism as per educational field, significant differences were not found in individualism by educational field categories ($p=0.111$, $p>.05$). When individualism sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.7136, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 3.6697, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 3.8411. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=2.209$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from Maths & Literature field is higher than that of others.

Table 85.

Long-time focus by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	f	p
Long-time focus	Verbal Field	245	3.8024	.73279	.826	.438
	Science Field	249	3.7604	.76217		
	Maths & Literature	139	3.8615	.73609		
	Total	633	3.7988	.74500		

When significant differences were examined between long-time focus as per educational field, significant differences were not found in long-time focus by educational field categories ($p=0.438$, $p>.05$). When long-time focus sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.8024, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 3.7604, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 3.8615. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.826$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from Maths & Literature field is higher than that of others.

Table 86:

Culture by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	f	p
Culture	Verbal Field	247	3.3063	.54884	2.764	.064
	Science Field	249	3.2215	.54145		
	Maths & Literature	139	3.3435	.49790		
	Total	635	3.2812	.53667		

When significant differences were examined between culture as per educational field, significant differences were not found in culture by educational field categories ($p=0.064$, $p>.05$). When culture sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.3063, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 3.2215, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 3.3435. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=2.764$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from Maths & Literature field is higher than that of others.

Table 87.

Organizational Stress_F1 by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational Stress_F1	Verbal Field	241	3.9267	.77072	2.583	.076
	Science Field	242	4.0230	.75392		
	Maths &	138	4.1031	.69132		

Literature	
Total	621 4.0034 .74909

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress_F1 as per educational field, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F1 by educational field categories ($p=0.076$, $p>.05$). When organizational stress_F1 sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.9267, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 4.023, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 4.1031. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=2.583$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from Maths & Literature field is higher than that of others.

Table 88.

Organizational Stress_F2 by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational Stress_F2	Verbal Field	241	3.6808	.79243	.219	.803
	Science Field	242	3.6897	.79156		
	Maths & Literature	138	3.6353	.81508		
	Total	621	3.6742	.79617		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress_F2 as per educational field, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F2 by educational field categories ($p=0.803$, $p>.05$). When organizational stress_F2 sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.6808, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 3.6897, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 3.6353. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.219$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that field arithmetic mean of participants from science field is higher than that of others.

Table 89.

Organizational Stress_F3 educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational Stress_F3	Verbal Field	241	3.3278	.69732	2.140	.119
	Science Field	242	3.3275	.69886		
	Maths & Literature	138	3.1836	.79805		
	Total	621	3.2956	.72277		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress_F3 as educational field, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F3 by educational field categories ($p=0.119$, $p>.05$). When organizational stress_F3 sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.3278, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 3.3275, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 3.1836. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=2.14$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from verbal field is higher than that of others.

Table 90.

Organizational Stress_F4 educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational Stress_F4	Verbal Field	240	3.4333	.81018	.055	.947
	Science Field	242	3.4139	.82746		
	Maths & Literature	138	3.4408	.90412		
	Total	620	3.4274	.83729		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress_F4 as per educational field, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F4 by educational field categories ($p=0.947$, $p>.05$). When organizational stress_F4 sub-dimension was examined according to

educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.4333, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 3.4139, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 3.4408. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.055$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from Maths & Literature field is higher than that of others.

Table 91.

Organizational stress by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational Stress	Verbal Field	241	3.5900	.52420	.148	.863
	Science Field	242	3.6135	.49794		
	Maths & Literature	138	3.5907	.55411		
	Total	621	3.5993	.52031		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress as educational field, significant differences were not found in organizational stress by educational field categories ($p=0.863$, $p>.05$). When organizational stress sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 3.59, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 3.6135, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 3.5907. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.148$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from science field is higher than that of others.

Table 92.

Perceived stress by educational field, f test results

Dimension	Educational Field	N	X	SS	f	p
Perceived Stress	Verbal Field	242	2.5955	.70094	.943	.390
	Science Field	242	2.5253	.71950		
	Maths & Literature	138	2.5052	.66251		
	Total	622	2.5482	.69993		

When significant differences were examined between perceived stress as educational field, significant differences were not found in perceived stress by educational field categories ($p=0.39$, $p>.05$). When perceived stress sub-dimension was examined according to educational field, the verbal area arithmetic mean was found as 2.5955, the science field arithmetic mean was found as 2.5253, and the Maths & literature arithmetic mean was found as 2.5052. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.943$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants from verbal field is higher than that of others.

Table 93.

Time planning by experience, f test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Timing	0-10 years	336	3.4465	.69421		
	11-20 years	243	3.5237	.71838		
	21-30 years	47	3.6031	.71530	1.741	.157
	31 years and more	12	3.7901	.57782		
	Total	638	3.4939	.70447		

When significant differences were examined between time planning as per experience, significant differences were not found in time planning by experience categories ($p=0.157$, $p>.05$). Examining time planning sub-dimension as per experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 3.4465, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 3.5237, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 3.6031, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 3.7901. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.741$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with experience of 31 years and higher are higher than that of others.

Table 94.

Time attitudes by experience, f test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
-----------	------------	---	---	----	---	---

	0-10 years	335	3.2295	.52075		
	11-20 years	243	3.2966	.50916		
Time Attitudes	21-30 years	47	3.4462	.47101	3.141	.025
	31 years and more	12	3.4271	.40049		
	Total	637	3.2748	.51356		

When significant differences between time attitudes as per experience were examined, significant differences were found in time attitudes ($p=0.025$, $p>.05$) as per experience categories. Tukey analysis was performed to determine which experience categories the differentiation in time attitudes originated from.

Table 95.

Tukey test results on which experience group the differentiation in time attitudes originated from

Dimension	(I) Experience	(j) Experience	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Time Attitudes	0-10 years	11-20 years	-.06706	.04306	.404
		21-30 years	-.21664*	.07959	.034
		31 years and more	-.19755	.15013	.553
	11-20 years	0-10 years	.06706	.04306	.404
		21-30 years	-.14959	.08142	.257
		31 years and more	-.13049	.15111	.824
	21-30 years	0-10 years	.21664*	.07959	.034
		11-20 years	.14959	.08142	.257
			31 years and	.01909	.16527

	more					
31 years and more	0-10 years	.19755	.15013	.553		
	11-20 years	.13049	.15111	.824		
	21-30 years	-.01909	.16527	.999		

When it was investigated which categories the differentiation in time attitudes as per time planning originated, it was determined that there was differentiation between the ages of 0-10 and 21-30 at the level of $p=.034$.

Table 96.

Time-consuming by experience, f test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Time consuming	0-10 years	333	2.7297	.64425		
	11-20 years	242	2.6970	.64193		
	21-30 years	46	2.8362	.74080	.674	.568
	31 years and more	12	2.6389	.58531		
	Total	633	2.7232	.64928		

When significant differences were examined between time-consuming as per experience, significant differences were not found in time-consuming by experience categories ($p=0.568$, $p>.05$). Examining time-consuming sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 2.7297, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 2.697, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 2.8362, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 2.6389. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.674$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience are higher than that of others.

Table 97.

Time management by experience, f test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Time Management	0-10 years	336	3.1355	.42610	2.464	.061
	11-20 years	243	3.1741	.43028		

21-30 years	47	3.3015	.43998
31 years and more	12	3.2853	.45102
Total	638	3.1653	.43064

When significant differences were examined between time management as per experience, significant differences were not found in time management by experience categories ($p=0.061$, $p>.05$). Examining time management sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 3.1355, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 3.1741, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 3.3015, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 3.2853. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=2.464$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience are higher than that of others.

Table 98.

Inadequate self-sufficiency perception by experience, f test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Perception of inadequate self-sufficiency	0-10 years	334	2.3655	.80809	2.398	.067
	11-20 years	242	2.2668	.80001		
	21-30 years	46	2.4964	.86957		
	31 years and more	12	2.7639	1.07886		
	Total	634	2.3449	.81776		

When significant differences between self-efficacy perception as per experience, significant differences were not found in self-efficacy perception ($p=0.067$, $p>.05$) as per experience categories. Examining inadequate self-sufficiency sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 2.3655,

arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 2.2668, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 2.4964, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 2.7639. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=2.398$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with experience of 31 years and higher are higher than that of others.

Table 99.

Perception of stress/discomfort by experience, f test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	F	p
Perception of stress/discomfort	0-10 years	333	2.7691	.71884	2.742	.042
	11-20 years	242	2.6265	.71673		
	21-30 years	46	2.6040	.62700		
	31 years and more	12	2.9762	.89698		
	Total	633	2.7065	.71832		

When significant differences between perception of stress/discomfort as per experience were examined, significant differences were found in perception of stress/discomfort according to experience categories ($p=0.042$, $p<.05$). Tukey analysis, conducted to determine which experience categories the differentiation in time management originated from. (Table)

Table 100.

Tukey test results for which experience group the differentiation in stress/discomfort perception originated from

Dimension	(I) Experience	(j) Experience	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Perception of stress/discomfort	0-10 years	11-20 years	.14260	.06043	.086
		21-30 years	.16509	.11253	.458
		31 years and more	-.20706	.21020	.758
	11-20 years	0-10 years	-.14260	.06043	.086
		21-30 years	.02249	.11506	.997
		31 years and more	-.34967	.21157	.350
	21-30 years	0-10 years	-.16509	.11253	.458
		11-20 years	-.02249	.11506	.997

	31 years and more	-.37215	.23189	.377
31 years and more	0-10 years	.20706	.21020	.758
	11-20 years	.34967	.21157	.350
	21-30 years	.37215	.23189	.377

Examining which categories, the differentiation in experience dimension as per stress/discomfort originated from, it was not determined which categories caused the differentiation.

Table 101.

Perceived stress by experience, f test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	P
Perceived stress	0-10 years	334	2.5662	.70089		
	11-20 years	242	2.4467	.68807		
	21-30 years	46	2.5502	.68474	2.386	.068
	31 years and more	12	2.8700	.95567		
	Total	634	2.5251	.70244		

When significant differences were examined between perceived stress as per experience, significant differences were not found in perceived stress by experience categories ($p=0.068$, $p>.05$). Examining perceived stress sub-dimension as per experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 2.5662, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 2.4467, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 2.5502, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 2.87. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=2.386$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with experience of 31 years and higher are higher than that of others.

Table 102.

Work load as per experiences, f test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Work load	0-10 years	333	3.3172	.65361	.111	.954

11-20 years	242	3.3190	.63694
21-30 years	46	3.3293	.59129
31 years and more	12	3.4250	.84437
Total	633	3.3208	.64548

When significant differences between work load as per experience were examined, significant differences were not found in work load ($p=0.954$, $p>.05$) as per experience categories. Examining work load sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 3.3172, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 3.319, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 3.3293, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 3.425. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.111$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with experience of 31 years and higher are higher than that of others.

Table 103.

Control as per experiences, f test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Control	0-10 years	332	3.5507	.68969	2.400	.067
	11-20 years	242	3.6018	.67944		
	21-30 years	46	3.7464	.75828		
	31 years and more	12	3.9722	.58098		
	Total	632	3.5925	.69148		

Examining significant differences between control by experience, significant differences were not found in control by experience categories ($p=0.067$, $p>.05$). Examining control sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 3.5507, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 3.6018, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 3.7464, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 3.9722. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=2.400$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with experience of 31 years and higher are higher than that of others.

Table 104.

Social support by experience, f test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	P
Social Support	0-10 years	333	3.9833	.75785	1.597	.189
	11-20 years	242	4.0171	.75408		
	21-30 years	46	4.0688	.69351		
	31 years and more	12	4.4444	.38490		
	Total	633	4.0112	.74807		

Examining significant differences between social support by experience, significant differences were not found in social support by experience categories ($p=0.189$, $p>.05$). Examining social support sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 3.9833, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 4.0171, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 4.0688, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 4.4444. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.597$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with experience of 31 years and higher are higher than that of others.

Table 105.

Organizational stress by experience, f test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational stress	0-10 years	333	3.6172	.51852	1.993	.114
	11-20 years	242	3.6460	.50570		
	21-30 years	46	3.7149	.52533		
	31 years and more	12	3.9472	.42704		
	Total	633	3.6415	.51387		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress as per experience, significant differences were not found in organizational stress by experience categories ($p=0.114$, $p>.05$). Examining organizational stress sub-dimension as per experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 3.6172, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 3.646, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 3.7149, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 3.9472. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.993$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with experience of 31 years and higher are higher than that of others.

Table 106.*Masculinity as per experiences, f-test results*

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	P
Masculinity	0-10 years	333	2.3215	1.08783	.493	.687
	11-20 years	243	2.4043	1.10498		
	21-30 years	47	2.3191	1.10466		
	31 years and more	12	2.1000	1.20151		
	Total	635	2.3488	1.09642		

Examining significant differences between masculinity by experience, significant differences were not found in masculinity by experience categories ($p=0.687$, $p>.05$). Examining masculinity sub-dimension according to

experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 2.3215, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 2.4043, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 2.3191, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 2.1. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.493$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience are higher than that of others.

Table 107.

Power distance by experience, f-test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Power distance	0-10 years	332	2.7493	.87089	.757	.518
	11-20 years	243	2.6467	.76420		
	21-30 years	47	2.6809	.80613		
	31 years and more	12	2.6458	.73715		
	Total	634	2.7029	.82400		

When significant differences were examined between power distance as per experience, significant differences were not found in power distance by experience categories ($p=0.518$, $p>.05$). Examining power distance sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 2.7493, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 2.6467, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 2.6809, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 2.6458. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.757$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience are higher than that of others.

Table 108.

Avoiding uncertainty by experience, f test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
-----------	------------	---	---	----	---	---

	0-10 years	331	3.8326	.75680		
	11-20 years	243	3.8689	.74797		
Avoiding uncertainty	21-30 years	47	3.8649	.95627	.156	.926
	31 years and more	12	3.9333	1.00303		
	Total	633	3.8509	.77317		

When significant differences were examined between avoidance of uncertainty by age, significant differences were not found in avoiding uncertainty by experience categories ($p=0.926$, $p>.05$). Examining avoiding uncertainty sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 3.8326, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 3.8689, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 3.8649, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 3.9333. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.156$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with experience of 31 years and higher are higher than that of others.

Table 109.

Individualism by experience, f-test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	F	p
	0-10 years	332	3.6719	.75844		
	11-20 years	242	3.7686	.77860		
Individualism	21-30 years	47	3.8227	.86089	1.207	.306
	31 years and more	12	3.8958	.96800		
	Total	633	3.7243	.77856		

Examining significant differences between masculinity by experience, significant differences were not found in masculinity by experience categories

($p=0.306$, $p>.05$). Examining individualism sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 3.6719, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 3.7686, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 3.8227, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 3.8958. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.207$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with experience of 31 years and higher are higher than that of others.

Table 110.

Long-time focus by experience, f-test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Long-time focus	0-10 years	332	3.7836	.72237		
	11-20 years	242	3.8192	.74574		
	21-30 years	47	3.8404	.86355	.323	.809
	31 years and more	12	3.6458	.91365		
	Total	633	3.7988	.74500		

When significant differences were examined between long-time focus as per experience, significant differences were not found in long-time focus by experience categories ($p=0.809$, $p>.05$). Examining long-time focus sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 3.7836, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 3.8192, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 3.8404, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 3.6458. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.323$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience are higher than that of others.

Table 111.

Culture as per experience, f-test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Culture	0-10 years	333	3.2654	.54997	.245	.865
	11-20 years	243	3.2999	.50318		
	21-30 years	47	3.3056	.64445		
	31 years and more	12	3.2442	.38063		
	Total	635	3.2812	.53667		

When significant differences were examined between culture as per experience, significant differences were not found in culture by experience categories ($p=0.865$, $p>.05$). Examining culture sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 3.2654, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 3.2999, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 3.3056, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 3.2442. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.245$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience are higher than that of others.

Table 112.*Organizational Stress_F1 by experience, f-test results*

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational Stress_F1	0-10 years	329	4.0279	.75860	1.433	.232
	11-20 years	235	3.9373	.74413		
	21-30 years	46	4.1638	.71017		
	31 years and more	11	4.0152	.66856		
	Total	621	4.0034	.74909		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress_F1 as per age, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F1 by experience categories ($p=0.232$, $p>.05$). Examining

Organizational Stress_F1 sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 4.0279, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 3.9373, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 4.1638, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 4.0152. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.433$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience are higher than that of others.

Table 113.

Organizational Stress_F2 by experience, f-test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational Stress_F2	0-10 years	329	3.6282	.80398	.904	.439
	11-20 years	235	3.7245	.77045		
	21-30 years	46	3.7011	.81415		
	31 years and more	11	3.8636	1.02691		
	Total	621	3.6742	.79617		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress_F2 as per experience, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F1 by experience categories ($p=0.439$, $p>.05$). Examining Organizational Stress_F2 sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 3.6282, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 3.7245, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 3.7011, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 3.8636. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.904$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with experience of 31 years and higher are higher than that of others.

Table 114.

Organizational Stress_F3 by experience, f-test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational Stress_F3	0-10 years	329	3.2459	.69696	1.363	.253
	11-20 years	235	3.3592	.75332		
	21-30 years	46	3.2826	.78812		
	31 years and more	11	3.4773	.41010		
	Total	621	3.2956	.72277		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress_F3 as per experience, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F3 by experience categories ($p=0.253$, $p>.05$). Examining Organizational Stress_F3 sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 3.2459, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 3.3592, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 3.2826, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 3.4773. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.363$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with experience of 31 years and higher are higher than that of others.

Table 115.*Organizational Stress_F4 by experience, f-test results*

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational Stress_F4	0-10 years	328	3.4741	.83933	1.434	.232
	11-20 years	235	3.3411	.82463		
	21-30 years	46	3.5362	.87905		
	31 years and more	11	3.4242	.81773		
	Total	620	3.4274	.83729		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress_F4 as per experience, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F4 by experience categories ($p=0.232$, $p>.05$). Examining Organizational Stress_F4 sub-dimension according to experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 3.4741, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 3.3411, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 3.5362, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 3.4242. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.434$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience are higher than that of others.

Table 116.

Organizational stress by experience, f test results

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational Stress	0-10 years	329	3.5924	.51793		
	11-20 years	235	3.5905	.51033		
	21-30 years	46	3.6709	.58141	.455	.714
	31 years and more	11	3.6951	.57737		
	Total	621	3.5993	.52031		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress as per experience, significant differences were not found in organizational stress by experience categories ($p=0.714$, $p>.05$). Examining organizational stress sub-dimension as per experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 3.5924, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 3.5905, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 3.6709, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 3.6951. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.455$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with experience of 31 years and higher are higher than that of others.

Table 117.*Perceived stress by experience, f test results*

Dimension	Experience	N	X	SS	f	p
Perceived Stress	0-10 years	329	2.5144	.67465	2.248	.082
	11-20 years	236	2.5771	.71772		
	21-30 years	46	2.5230	.70408		
	31 years and more	11	3.0420	.91040		
	Total	622	2.5482	.69993		

When significant differences were examined between perceived stress as per experience, significant differences were not found in perceived stress by experience categories ($p=0.082$, $p>.05$). Examining perceived stress sub-dimension as per experience categories, arithmetic mean of participants with 0-10 years of experience was found as 2.5144, arithmetic mean of participants with 11-20 years of experience was found as 2.5771, arithmetic mean of participants with 21-30 years of experience was found as 2.523, and arithmetic mean of participants with 31 and higher years of experience was found as 3.042. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=2.248$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of participants with experience of 31 years and higher are higher than that of others.

Table 118.*Time-planning by task title, f-test results*

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	f	p
Timing	Contracted	27	3.6097	.49574	10.881	.000
	Administrative Services	278	3.2843	.74926		
	Res. Asst./Lecturer	151	3.5188	.63937		
	Specialist	58	3.6192	.58219		

Asst.Assoc. Dr	100	3.8243	.61662
Assoc.Dr.	15	3.9231	.57857
Prof.Dr.	9	4.0085	.45091
Total	638	3.4939	.70447

Examining significant differences between time planning by task title, significant differences were found in time planning by task title categories ($p=0$, $p<.05$). Tukey analysis was performed to determine which task title categories the differentiation in time management originated from the Table.

Table 119.

Tukey test results for which Task/Title group the differentiation in time planning originated from

Dimension	(I) Task/Title	(j) Task/Title	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Timing	Contracted	Administrative Services	.32538	.13583	.202

	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.09092	.14079	.995
	Specialist	-.00949	.15698	1.000
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.21459	.14614	.764
	Assoc.Dr.	-.31339	.21699	.777
	Prof.Dr.	-.39886	.25935	.722
	Contracted	-.32538	.13583	.202
Administrative Services	Res.Asst./ Lecturer	-.23446*	.06812	.011
	Specialist	-.33487*	.09727	.011
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.53998*	.07857	.000
	Assoc.Dr.	-.63878*	.17861	.007
	Prof.Dr.	-.72425*	.22821	.026
	Contracted	-.09092	.14079	.995
Res.Asst./Lecturer Lecturer	Administrative Services	.23446*	.06812	.011
	Specialist	-.10041	.10409	.961
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.30551*	.08687	.008
	Assoc.Dr.	-.40431	.18241	.288
	Prof.Dr.	-.48978	.23120	.343
	Contracted	.00949	.15698	1.000
Specialist	Administrative Services	.33487*	.09727	.011
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.10041	.10409	.961
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.20510	.11121	.519
	Assoc.Dr.	-.30390	.19518	.710
	Prof.Dr.	-.38937	.24140	.674
	Contracted	.21459	.14614	.764
Asst.Assoc. Dr	Administrative Services	.53998*	.07857	.000
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.30551*	.08687	.008
	Specialist	.20510	.11121	.519
	Assoc.Dr.	-.09880	.18657	.998
	Prof.Dr.	-.18427	.23449	.986
	Contracted	.31339	.21699	.777
Assoc.Dr.	Administrative Services	.63878*	.17861	.007
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.40431	.18241	.288
	Specialist	.30390	.19518	.710
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	.09880	.18657	.998
	Prof.Dr.	-.08547	.28410	1.000
	Contracted	.39886	.25935	.722
Prof.Dr.	Administrative Services	.72425*	.22821	.026
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.48978	.23120	.343
	Expert	.38937	.24140	.674
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	.18427	.23449	.986
	Assoc.Dr.	.08547	.28410	1.000

Examining which categories the differentiation in task/title dimension according to the time planning originated from, it was determined that the

differentiation between administrative services and Res.Asst./Lecturer was $p=.0011$, the differentiation between administrative services and expert was $p=.011$, the differentiation between administrative services and Asst.Assoc.Dr. was $p=.000$, the differentiation between administrative services and Assoc.Dr. was $p=.007$, and the differentiation between administrative services and Prof.Dr. was $p=.026$.

Table 120.

Time-attitudes by task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	F	p
	Contracted	27	3.3466	.45959		
	Administrative Services	278	3.1939	.57529		
	Res. Asst./Lecturer	150	3.3001	.44021		
Time Attitudes	Expert	58	3.2974	.42845	3.041	.006
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	100	3.3691	.47404		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	3.4500	.50400		
	Prof.Dr.	9	3.6528	.29829		
	Total	637	3.2748	.51356		

When significant differences between time attitudes as per task title were examined, significant differences were found in time attitudes ($p=0.006$, $p>.05$) as per task title categories. Tukey analysis was performed to determine which task title categories the differentiation in time attitudes originated from. (

Table)

Table 121.

Tukey test results on which task/title group the differentiation in time attitudes originated

Dimension	(I) Task/Title	(j) Task/Title	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p	
Time Attitudes	Contracted	Administrative Services	.15268	.10254	.751	
		Res. Asst./Lecturer	.04644	.10634	.999	
		Expert	.04915	.11851	1.000	
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.02255	.11032	1.000	
		Assoc.Dr.	-.10344	.16381	.996	
		Prof.Dr.	-.30622	.19579	.705	
		Contracted	-.15268	.10254	.751	
		Res.Asst./ Lecturer	-.10624	.05154	.377	
		Administrative Services	Expert	-.10353	.07343	.796
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.17523	.05932	.051	
		Assoc.Dr.	-.25612	.13484	.481	
		Prof.Dr.	-.45890	.17228	.109	
	Res.Asst./Lecturer Lecturer	Contracted	-.04644	.10634	.999	
		Administrative Services	.10624	.05154	.377	
		Expert	.00271	.07865	1.000	
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.06899	.06567	.942	
		Assoc.Dr.	-.14988	.13775	.932	
		Prof.Dr.	-.35266	.17457	.403	
		Contracted	-.04915	.11851	1.000	
		Administrative Services	.10353	.07343	.796	
		Res. Asst./Lecturer	-.00271	.07865	1.000	
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.07169	.08396	.979	
		Assoc.Dr.	-.15259	.14735	.946	
		Prof.Dr.	-.35536	.18224	.448	
	Expert	Contracted	.02255	.11032	1.000	
		Administrative Services	.17523	.05932	.051	
		Res. Asst./Lecturer	.06899	.06567	.942	
		Expert	.07169	.08396	.979	
		Assoc.Dr.	-.08089	.14085	.997	
		Prof.Dr.	-.28367	.17703	.681	
		Contracted	.10344	.16381	.996	
		Administrative Services	.25612	.13484	.481	
		Res. Asst./Lecturer	.14988	.13775	.932	
		Expert	.15259	.14735	.946	
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	.08089	.14085	.997	
		Prof.Dr.	-.20278	.21448	.965	
Asst.Assoc. Dr	Assoc.Dr.					
	Res. Asst./Lecturer					
	Expert					
	Asst.Assoc. Dr					
	Assoc.Dr.					
	Prof.Dr.					
	Contracted					
	Administrative Services					
	Res. Asst./Lecturer					
	Expert					
	Asst.Assoc. Dr					
	Prof.Dr.					

	Contracted	.30622	.19579	.705
	Administrative Services	.45890	.17228	.109
Prof.Dr.	Res. Asst./Lecturer	.35266	.17457	.403
	Expert	.35536	.18224	.448
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	.28367	.17703	.681
	Assoc.Dr.	.20278	.21448	.965

Examining which categories, the differentiation in task/title dimension as per time attitudes originated from, it was not determined which categories caused the differentiation.

Table 122.

Time-consuming by task title, f test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	F	p
	Contracted	26	2.6026	.90563		
	Administrative Services	276	2.6972	.65222		
	Res. Asst./Lecturer	150	2.8498	.60490		
Time consuming	Expert	58	2.7040	.68333	1.773	.102
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	99	2.6505	.61626		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	2.5556	.51434		
	Prof.Dr.	9	2.9630	.55137		
	Total	633	2.7232	.64928		

When significant differences between time-consuming as per task title were examined, significant differences were not found in time-consuming ($p=0.102$, $p>.05$) as per task title categories. When time-consuming sub-dimension was examined according to task title, arithmetic mean of the contracted officers was 2.6026, arithmetic mean of participants from administrative services was 2.6972, arithmetic mean of Res.Asst./Lecturer was 2.8498, arithmetic mean of expert participants was 2.704, arithmetic mean of Asst.Assoc.Dr. was 2.6505, arithmetic mean of Assoc.Dr. participants was 2.5556, and arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants was 2.963. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.773$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants is higher than that of others.

Table 123.

Time management by task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	F	p
Time Management	Contracted	27	3.2026	.50072	6.534	.000
	Administrative Services	278	3.0576	.47036		
	Res. Asst./Lecturer	151	3.2248	.37382		
	Expert	58	3.2069	.35067		
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	100	3.2849	.35463		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	3.3095	.36957		
	Prof.Dr.	9	3.5414	.36821		
	Total	638	3.1653	.43064		

When significant differences between time management as per task title examined, significant differences were found in time management ($p=0$, $p>.05$) as per task title categories. Tukey analysis was performed to determine which task title categories the differentiation in time management originated from the table.

Table 124.

Tukey test results on which task/title group the differentiation in time management originated from

Dimension	(I) Task/Title	(j) Task/Title	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
TIME MANAGEMENT	Contracted	Administrative Services	.14501	.08463	.607
		Res.Asst./Lecturer	-.02212	.08772	1.000
		Expert	-.00423	.09781	1.000
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.08226	.09105	.972
		Assoc.Dr.	-.10690	.13520	.986
		Prof.Dr.	-.33879	.16159	.356
		Contracted	-.14501	.08463	.607
		Res.	-.16713*	.04244	.002
	Administrative Services	Asst./Lecturer	-.14924	.06061	.175
		Expert	-.22727*	.04896	.000
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.25191	.11129	.264
		Assoc.Dr.	-.48380*	.14219	.013
		Prof.Dr.	-.48380*	.14219	.013
		Contracted	.02212	.08772	1.000
		Administrative Services	.16713*	.04244	.002
		Res.Asst./Lecturer	.16713*	.04244	.002
	Res.Asst./Lecturer Lecturer	Expert	.01789	.06486	1.000
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.06013	.05413	.925
		Assoc.Dr.	-.08478	.11366	.990
		Prof.Dr.	-.31667	.14405	.298
		Contracted	-.31667	.14405	.298
		Contracted	.00423	.09781	1.000
		Administrative Services	.14924	.06061	.175
		Res.	.14924	.06061	.175
	Expert	Asst./Lecturer	-.01789	.06486	1.000
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.07803	.06929	.920
		Assoc.Dr.	-.10267	.12161	.980
		Prof.Dr.	-.33456	.15041	.284
		Contracted	-.33456	.15041	.284
		Contracted	.08226	.09105	.972
		Administrative Services	.08226	.09105	.972
		Administrative Services	.22727*	.04896	.000
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.06013	.05413	.925
		Expert	.06013	.05413	.925
		Expert	.07803	.06929	.920
		Assoc.Dr.	-.02465	.11625	1.000
		Prof.Dr.	-.25653	.14611	.579
		Contracted	-.25653	.14611	.579
		Contracted	.10690	.13520	.986
		Administrative Services	.10690	.13520	.986
Assoc.Dr.	Administrative Services	.25191	.11129	.264	
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.25191	.11129	.264	
	Expert	.08478	.11366	.990	
	Expert	.10267	.12161	.980	
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	.10267	.12161	.980	
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	.02465	.11625	1.000	
	Prof.Dr.	-.23189	.17702	.847	
	Contracted	-.23189	.17702	.847	
Prof.Dr.	Contracted	.33879	.16159	.356	
	Administrative Services	.33879	.16159	.356	
	Administrative Services	.48380*	.14219	.013	
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.48380*	.14219	.013	
		Res.Asst./Lecturer	.31667	.14405	.298

Lecturer			
Expert	.33456	.15041	.284
Asst.Assoc. Dr	.25653	.14611	.579
Assoc.Dr.	.23189	.17702	.847

Examining which categories the differentiation in task/title dimension according to time management originated from, it was determined that the differentiation between administrative services and Res.Asst./Lecturer was $p=.002$, the differentiation between administrative services and Asst.Assoc.Dr. was $p=.000$, and the differentiation between administrative services and Prof.Dr. was $p=.013$.

Table 125.

Inadequate self-sufficiency perception by task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	f	p
Perception of inadequate self-sufficiency	Contracted	26	2.2500	.79477	.970	.444
	Administrative Services	277	2.3766	.81223		
	Res. Asst./Lecturer	150	2.3331	.77633		
	Expert	58	2.4138	.91673		
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	99	2.2848	.80006		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	1.9889	.84155		
	Prof.Dr.	9	2.6481	1.18276		
	Total	634	2.3449	.81776		

When significant differences between inadequate self-efficacy perception as per task title were examined, significant differences were not found in self-efficacy perception ($p=0.444$, $p>.05$) as per task title categories. When inadequate self-sufficiency perception sub-dimension was examined according to task title, arithmetic mean of the contracted officers was 2.25, arithmetic mean of participants from administrative services was 2.3766, arithmetic mean of Res.Asst./Lecturer was 2.3331, arithmetic mean of expert participants was 2.4138, arithmetic mean of Asst.Assoc.Dr. was 2.2848, arithmetic mean of Assoc.Dr. participants was 1.9889, and arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants was 2.6481. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.97$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants is higher than that of others.

Table 126.*Perception of stress/discomfort by task title, f test results*

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	f	p
Perception of stress/discomfort	Contracted	26	2.5485	.66437	2.208	.041
	Administrative Services	276	2.6959	.69611		
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	150	2.8408	.68292		
	Expert	58	2.7010	.72099		
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	99	2.6017	.76531		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	2.3810	.89649		
	Prof.Dr.	9	2.9841	.95416		
	Total	633	2.7065	.71832		

When significant differences between perception of stress/discomfort as per task title were examined, significant differences were found in perception of stress/discomfort according to task title categories ($p=0.041$, $p<.05$). Tukey analysis was conducted to determine which task title categories the differentiation in stress/discomfort perception originated from. (Table)

Table 127.

Tukey test results for which task/title group the differentiation in stress/discomfort perception originated from

Dimension	(I) Task/Title	(j) Task/Title	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p	
Perception of stress/discomfort	Contracted	Administrative Services	-.14732	.14652	.953	
		Res.Asst./ Lecturer	-.29226	.15173	.464	
		Expert	-.15245	.16857	.972	
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.05320	.15740	1.000	
		Assoc.Dr.	.16758	.23158	.991	
		Prof.Dr.	-.43559	.27623	.697	
		Contracted	.14732	.14652	.953	
		Res.Asst./ Lecturer	-.14493	.07245	.415	
		Expert	-.00513	.10317	1.000	
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	.09413	.08367	.920	
	Administrative Services	Assoc.Dr.	.31491	.18936	.641	
		Prof.Dr.	-.28827	.24193	.897	
		Contracted	.29226	.15173	.464	
		Administrative Services	.14493	.07245	.415	
		Res.Asst./Lecturer	Expert	.13981	.11044	.867
		Lecturer	Asst.Assoc. Dr	.23906	.09249	.132
		Assoc.Dr.	.45984	.19342	.210	
		Prof.Dr.	-.14333	.24512	.997	
		Contracted	.15245	.16857	.972	
		Administrative Services	.00513	.10317	1.000	
	Expert	Res.Asst./ Lecturer	-.13981	.11044	.867	
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	.09925	.11810	.981	
		Assoc.Dr.	.32003	.20689	.716	
		Prof.Dr.	-.28314	.25589	.926	
		Contracted	.05320	.15740	1.000	
		Administrative Services	-.09413	.08367	.920	
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	Res.Asst./ Lecturer	-.23906	.09249	.132
			Expert	-.09925	.11810	.981
			Assoc.Dr.	.22078	.19789	.923
			Prof.Dr.	-.38240	.24867	.722
	Contracted		-.16758	.23158	.991	
	Administrative Services		-.31491	.18936	.641	
	Assoc.Dr.		Res. Asst./Lecturer	-.45984	.19342	.210
			Expert	-.32003	.20689	.716
			Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.22078	.19789	.923
			Prof.Dr.	-.60317	.30115	.414
		Contracted	.43559	.27623	.697	
		Administrative Services	.28827	.24193	.897	
		Prof.Dr.	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.14333	.24512	.997
			Expert	.28314	.25589	.926
Asst.Assoc. Dr			.38240	.24867	.722	
Assoc.Dr.			.60317	.30115	.414	

Examining which categories, the differentiation in by task title dimension as per stress/discomfort perception originated from, it was not determined which categories caused the differentiation.

Table 128.*Perceived stress by task title, f test results*

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	F	p
	Contracted	26	2.3993	.68722		
	Administrative Services	277	2.5350	.68209		
	Res. Asst./Lecturer	150	2.5870	.66183		
Perceived stress	Expert	58	2.5574	.75733	1.436	.198
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	99	2.4433	.72579		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	2.1849	.82435		
	Prof.Dr.	9	2.8161	1.04857		
	Total	634	2.5251	.70244		

When significant differences were examined between perceived stress as per task title, significant differences were not found in perceived stress according to task title categories ($p=0.198$, $p>.05$). When perceived stress sub-dimension was examined according to task title, arithmetic mean of the contracted officers was 2.3993, arithmetic mean of participants from administrative services was 2.535, arithmetic mean of Res.Asst./Lecturer was 2.587, arithmetic mean of expert participants was 2.5574, arithmetic mean of Asst.Assoc.Dr. was 2.4433, arithmetic mean of Assoc.Dr. participants was 2.1849, and arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants was 2.8161. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.436$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants is higher than that of others.

Table 129.*Work load f test results as per task title*

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	F	P
-----------	------------	---	---	----	---	---

	Contracted	26	3.4077	.57545		
	Administrative Services	276	3.2256	.68981		
	Res. Asst./Lecturer	150	3.4467	.55283		
Work load	Expert	58	3.2172	.65991	3.363	.003
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	99	3.3949	.60611		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	3.2933	.50067		
	Prof.Dr.	9	3.7889	.87242		
	Total	633	3.3208	.64548		

When significant differences between work load as per task title, significant differences were found in work load ($p=0.003$, $p<.05$) as per task title categories. Tukey analysis was performed to determine which task title categories the differentiation in work load originated from. (Table)

Table 130.

Tukey test results on which task/title group the differentiation in work load originated from

Dimension	(I) Task/Title	(j) Task/Title	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Work load	Contracted	Administrative Services	.18209	.13096	.807
		Res. Asst./Lecturer	-.03897	.13561	1.000
		Expert	.19045	.15066	.868
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	.01274	.14067	1.000
		Assoc.Dr.	.11436	.20698	.998
		Prof.Dr.	-.38120	.24688	.718
	Administrative Services	Contracted	-.18209	.13096	.807
		Res. Asst./Lecturer	-.22106*	.06475	.012
		Expert	.00836	.09221	1.000
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.16935	.07478	.263
		Assoc.Dr.	-.06773	.16924	1.000
		Prof.Dr.	-.56329	.21623	.126
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	Contracted	.03897	.13561	1.000
		Administrative Services	.22106*	.06475	.012
		Expert	.22943	.09870	.234
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	.05172	.08266	.996
		Assoc.Dr.	.15333	.17287	.974
		Prof.Dr.	-.34222	.21908	.707
	Expert	Contracted	-.19045	.15066	.868
		Administrative Services	-.00836	.09221	1.000

	Services			
	Res.Assist/Lecturer	-.22943	.09870	.234
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.17771	.10556	.627
	Assoc.Dr.	-.07609	.18491	1.000
	Prof.Dr.	-.57165	.22870	.161
	Contracted	-.01274	.14067	1.000
	Administrative Services	.16935	.07478	.263
Asst. Assoc.Dr.	Res. Asst./Lecturer	-.05172	.08266	.996
	Expert	.17771	.10556	.627
	Assoc.Dr.	.10162	.17687	.997
	Prof.Dr.	-.39394	.22225	.567
	Contracted	-.11436	.20698	.998
	Administrative Services	.06773	.16924	1.000
Assoc.Dr.	Res. Asst./Lecturer	-.15333	.17287	.974
	Expert	.07609	.18491	1.000
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.10162	.17687	.997
	Prof.Dr.	-.49556	.26915	.521
	Contracted	.38120	.24688	.718
	Administrative Services	.56329	.21623	.126
Prof.Dr.	Res.Assist/Lecturer	.34222	.21908	.707
	Expert	.57165	.22870	.161
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	.39394	.22225	.567
	Assoc.Dr.	.49556	.26915	.521

When it was investigated which categories the differentiation in task title dimension as per work load originated from, it was determined that there was differentiation between administrative services and Res. Asst./Lecturer participants at the level of $p=.012$.

Table 131.

Control as per task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	F	P
	Contracted	26	3.6410	.70662		
	Administrative Services	275	3.4165	.73570		
	Res.Asst./Lecturer Lecturer	150	3.7202	.62288		
Control	Expert	58	3.5805	.60556	7.151	.000
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	99	3.7694	.63652		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	4.0267	.41922		
	Prof.Dr.	9	4.1111	.28868		
	Total	632	3.5925	.69148		

When significant differences between control as per task title, significant differences were found in control ($p=0$, $p<.05$) as per task title categories. Tukey analysis was performed to determine which work title categories the differentiation in control originated from. (Table).

Table 132.

Tukey test results for which task/title group the differentiation in control originated from

Dimension	(I) Task/Title	(j) Task/Title	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
		Administrative Services	.22454	.13790	.664
		Res. Asst./ Lecturer	-.07920	.14278	.998
	Contracted	Expert	.06057	.15863	1.000
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.12833	.14811	.977
		Assoc.Dr.	-.38564	.21792	.569
		Prof.Dr.	-.47009	.25993	.543
		Contracted	-.22454	.13790	.664
		Res. Asst./Lecturer	-.30374*	.06822	.000
Control	Administrative Services	Expert	-.16397	.09711	.624
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.35288*	.07878	.000
		Assoc.Dr.	-.61018*	.17821	.012
		Prof.Dr.	-.69463*	.22767	.038
		Contracted	.07920	.14278	.998
		Administrative Services	.30374*	.06822	.000
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	Expert	.13976	.10392	.830
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.04914	.08703	.998
		Assoc.Dr.	-.30644	.18201	.627
		Prof.Dr.	-.39089	.23066	.620

	Contracted	-.06057	.15863	1.000
	Administrative Services	.16397	.09711	.624
Expert	Res.	-.13976	.10392	.830
	Asst./Lecturer	-.18890	.11114	.617
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.44621	.19469	.249
	Assoc.Dr.	-.53065	.24079	.295
	Contracted	.12833	.14811	.977
	Administrative Services	.35288*	.07878	.000
Asst. Assoc.Dr.	Res.Asst./	.37424	.08703	.998
	Expert	.18890	.11114	.617
	Assoc.Dr.	-.25731	.18622	.812
	Prof.Dr.	-.34175	.23400	.768
	Contracted	.38564	.21792	.569
	Administrative Services	.61018*	.17821	.012
Assoc.Dr.	Res.	.30644	.18201	.627
	Asst./Lecturer	.44621	.19469	.249
	Expert	.25731	.18622	.812
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.08444	.28338	1.000
	Prof.Dr.	.47009	.25993	.543
	Contracted	.69463*	.22767	.038
	Administrative Services			
Prof.Dr.	Res.	.39089	.23066	.620
	Asst./Lecturer	.53065	.24079	.295
	Expert	.34175	.23400	.768
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	.08444	.28338	1.000
	Assoc.Dr.			

Examining which categories the differentiation in task/title dimension according to organizational stress originated from, it was determined that the differentiation between administrative services and Res.Asst./Lecturer was $p=.000$, the differentiation between administrative services and Asst.Assoc.Dr. was $p=.000$, the differentiation between administrative services and Assoc.Dr. was $p=.012$, and the differentiation between administrative services and Prof.Dr. was $p=.038$.

Table 133.

Social support by task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	f	p
	Contracted	26	4.3333	.74536		
	Administrative Services	276	3.9558	.81421		
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	150	4.0236	.67424		
Social Support	Expert	58	4.0489	.65413	1.589	.148
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	99	4.0152	.75596		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	3.9267	.38590		
	Prof.Dr.	9	4.4259	.49379		
	Total	633	4.0112	.74807		

Examining significant differences between social support by task title, significant differences were not found in social support by task title categories ($p=0.148$, $p>.05$). When social support sub-dimension was examined according to task title, arithmetic mean of the contracted officers was found as 4.3333, arithmetic mean of participants from administrative services was found as 3.9558, arithmetic mean of Res.Asst./Lecturer was found as 4.0236, arithmetic mean of expert participants was found as 4.0489, arithmetic mean of Asst.Assoc.Dr. was found as 4.0152, arithmetic mean of Assoc.Dr. participants was found as 3.9267, and arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants was found as 4.4259. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.589$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants is higher than that of others.

Table 134.

Organizational stress by task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	F	p
	Contracted	26	3.7940	.54887		
	Administrative Services	276	3.5329	.56588		
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	150	3.7301	.43468		
Organizational stress	Expert	58	3.6155	.43551	5.204	.000
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	99	3.7265	.46956		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	3.7489	.34765		
	Prof.Dr.	9	4.1086	.37134		
	Total	633	3.6415	.51387		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress as per task title, significant differences were found in organizational stress by

task title categories ($p=0$, $p<.05$). Tukey analysis was performed to determine which task title categories the differentiation in organization stress originated from. (Table).

Table 135.

Tukey test results for which task/title group the differentiation in organizational stress originated from

Dimension	(I) Task/Title	(j) Task/Title	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p	
ORGANIZATIONAL STRESS	Contracted	Administrative Services	.26109	.10338	.152	
		Res.	.06387	.10705	.997	
		Asst./Lecturer	.17850	.11893	.744	
		Expert	.06753	.11105	.997	
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	.04513	.16339	1.000	
		Assoc.Dr.	-.31462	.19489	.673	
		Prof.Dr.	-.26109	.10338	.152	
		Contracted	-.19722*	.05112	.002	
		Res.	-.08259	.07279	.917	
		Asst./Lecturer	-.19356*	.05903	.019	
		Expert	-.21596	.13360	.672	
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.57571*	.17069	.014	
		Assoc.Dr.	-.06387	.10705	.997	
		Prof.Dr.	.19722*	.05112	.002	
		Administrative Services	.11463	.07792	.762	
	Res.Asst./Lecturer Lecturer	Res.Asst./Lecturer	Asst.Assoc. Dr	.00366	.06525	1.000
		Expert	Assoc.Dr.	-.01874	.13646	1.000
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	Prof.Dr.	-.37849	.17294	.303
		Res.	Contracted	-.17850	.11893	.744
		Asst./Lecturer	Administrative Services	.08259	.07279	.917
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	Res.	-.11463	.07792	.762
		Expert	Asst./Lecturer	-.11097	.08332	.837
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.13337	.14597	.970
		Res.	Prof.Dr.	-.49312	.18053	.092
		Asst./Lecturer	Contracted	-.06753	.11105	.997
		Expert	Administrative Services	.19356*	.05903	.019
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	Res.	-.00366	.06525	1.000
		Asst./Lecturer	Asst./Lecturer	.11097	.08332	.837
		Expert	Expert			

		Assoc.Dr.	-.02240	.13962	1.000
		Prof.Dr.	-.38215	.17544	.309
		Contracted	-.04513	.16339	1.000
		Administrative Services	.21596	.13360	.672
		Res.	.01874	.13646	1.000
	Assoc.Dr.	Asst./Lecturer	.13337	.14597	.970
		Expert	.02240	.13962	1.000
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.35975	.21247	.621
		Prof.Dr.	.31462	.19489	.673
		Contracted	.57571*	.17069	.014
		Administrative Services	.37849	.17294	.303
	Prof.Dr.	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.49312	.18053	.092
		Expert	.38215	.17544	.309
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	.35975	.21247	.621
		Prof.Dr.			

Examining which categories, the differentiation in task/title dimension according to organizational stress originated from, it was determined that the differentiation between administrative services and Res.Asst./Lecturer was $p=.002$, the differentiation between administrative services and Asst.Assoc.Dr. was $p=.019$. The differentiation between administrative services and Professors was determined at the level of $p=0.14$.

Table 136.

Masculinity as per task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	F	P
	Contracted	27	2.2519	1.11851		
	Administrative Services	276	2.4051	1.10147		
	Res.Asst./Lecturer Lecturer	150	2.4047	1.10656		
Masculinity	Expert	58	2.1276	.91206	.903	.492
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	100	2.3020	1.14856		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	2.0133	1.13002		
	Prof.Dr.	9	2.4889	1.17945		
	Total	635	2.3488	1.09642		

Examining significant differences between masculinity as per task title, significant differences were not found in masculinity ($p=0.492$, $p>.05$) as per task title categories. When masculinity support sub-dimension was examined according to task title, arithmetic mean of the contracted officers was found

as 2.2519, arithmetic mean of participants from administrative services was found as 2.4051, arithmetic mean of Res.Asst./Lecturer participants was found as 2.4047, arithmetic mean of expert participants was found as 2.1276, arithmetic mean of Asst.Assoc.Dr. was found as 2.302, arithmetic mean of Assoc.Dr. participants was found as 2.0133, and arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants was found as 2.4889. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.903$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants is higher than that of others.

Table 137.

Power distance as per task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	F	p
Power distance	Contracted	27	2.8463	.82099		
	Administrative Services	276	2.8588	.84023		
	Res. Asst./ Lecturer	150	2.5457	.77364		
	Expert	57	2.7272	.87004	4.361	.000
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	100	2.5430	.76211		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	2.2267	.77040		
	Prof.Dr.	9	2.5333	.66332		
	Total	634	2.7029	.82400		

When significant differences were examined between power distance as per task title, significant differences were found in power distance by task title categories ($p=0$, $p<.05$). Tukey analysis was performed to determine which task title categories the differentiation in power distance originated from.

Table 138.

Tukey test results for which task/title group the differentiation in power distance originated from

Dimension	(I) Task/Title	(j) Task/Title	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Power distance	Contracted	Administrative Services	-.01246	.16357	1.000
		Res.	.30063	.16958	.567
		Asst./Lecturer	.11910	.18951	.996
		Expert	.30330	.17593	.600
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	.61963	.26122	.212
		Assoc.Dr.	.31296	.31222	.953
		Prof.Dr.	.01246	.16357	1.000
		Contracted	.31309*	.08228	.003
		Res. Asst./Lecturer	.13156	.11802	.924
		Expert	.31576*	.09468	.016
	Administrative Services	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	.63209	.21506	.053
		Assoc.Dr.	.32542	.27477	.900
		Prof.Dr.	-.30063	.16958	.567
		Contracted	-.31309*	.08228	.003
		Administrative Services	-.18153	.12622	.781
		Res. Asst./Lecturer	.00267	.10472	1.000
		Expert	.31900	.21967	.773
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	.01233	.27839	1.000
		Assoc.Dr.	-.11910	.18951	.996
		Prof.Dr.	-.13156	.11802	.924
	Expert	Res. Asst./Lecturer	.18153	.12622	.781
		Expert	.18419	.13463	.819
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	.50053	.23540	.338
		Assoc.Dr.	.19386	.29096	.994
		Prof.Dr.	-.30330	.17593	.600
		Contracted	-.31576*	.09468	.016
		Administrative Services	-.00267	.10472	1.000
		Res. Asst./Lecturer	-.18419	.13463	.819
		Expert	.31633	.22460	.797
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	.00967	.28230	1.000
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	Assoc.Dr.	-.61963	.26122	.212
		Prof.Dr.	-.63209	.21506	.053
		Contracted	-.31900	.21967	.773
		Administrative Services	-.50053	.23540	.338
		Res. Asst./Lecturer	-.31633	.22460	.797
		Expert	-.30667	.34202	.973
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.31296	.31222	.953
		Assoc.Dr.	-.32542	.27477	.900
		Prof.Dr.			
		Contracted			

	Services			
	Res. Asst./			
	Lecturer	-.01233	.27839	1.000
	Expert	-.19386	.29096	.994
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.00967	.28230	1.000
	Assoc.Dr.	.30667	.34202	.973

Examining which categories, the differentiation in task/title dimension according to power distance originated from, it was determined that the differentiation between administrative services and Res.Asst./Lecturer was $p=.003$, and the differentiation between administrative services and Asst.Assoc.Dr. was $p=.016$.

Table 139:

Avoiding uncertainty as per task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	f	p
	Contracted	27	3.8963	.39757		
	Administrative Services	276	3.6250	.78666		
	Res.Asst./ Lecturer	149	3.9134	.78619		
Avoiding uncertainty	Expert	57	4.0947	.65039	8.961	.000
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	100	4.1620	.65963		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	4.2000	.65900		
	Prof.Dr.	9	4.0222	1.07909		
	Total	633	3.8509	.77317		

When significant differences were examined between avoiding uncertainty as per task title, significant differences were found in avoiding uncertainty by task title categories ($p=0$, $p<.05$). Tukey analysis was performed to determine which task title categories the differentiation in avoiding uncertainty originated from.

Table 140.

Tukey test results on which task/title group the differentiation avoiding uncertainty originated from

	(I) Task/Title	(j) Task/Title	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Avoiding uncertainty	Contracted	Administrative Services	.27130	.15033	.545
		Res.Asst./Lecturer	-.01713	.15593	1.000
		Expert	-.19844	.17417	.916
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.26570	.16169	.654
		Assoc.Dr.	-.30370	.24008	.868
		Prof.Dr.	-.12593	.28695	.999
	Administrative Services	Contracted	-.27130	.15033	.545
		Res. Asst./ Lecturer	-.28842*	.07579	.003
		Expert	-.46974*	.10846	.000
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.53700*	.08702	.000
		Assoc.Dr.	-.57500	.19765	.057
		Prof.Dr.	-.39722	.25252	.700
	Res.Asst./Lecturer Lecturer	Contracted	.01713	.15593	1.000
		Administrative Services	.28842*	.07579	.003
		Expert	-.18131	.11611	.707
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.24858	.09637	.134
		Assoc.Dr.	-.28658	.20195	.791
		Prof.Dr.	-.10880	.25590	1.000
	Expert	Contracted	.19844	.17417	.916
		Administrative Services	.46974*	.10846	.000
		Res.Asst./Lecturer	.18131	.11611	.707
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.06726	.12373	.998
		Assoc.Dr.	-.10526	.21634	.999
		Prof.Dr.	.07251	.26740	1.000
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	Contracted	.26570	.16169	.654
		Administrative Services	.53700*	.08702	.000
		Res.Asst./Lecturer	.24858	.09637	.134
		Expert	.06726	.12373	.998
		Assoc.Dr.	-.03800	.20642	1.000
		Prof.Dr.	.13978	.25945	.998
	Assoc.Dr.	Contracted	.30370	.24008	.868
		Administrative Services	.57500	.19765	.057
		Res.Asst./Lecturer	.28658	.20195	.791
		Expert	.10526	.21634	.999
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	.03800	.20642	1.000
		Prof.Dr.	.17778	.31434	.998
	Prof.Dr.	Contracted	.12593	.28695	.999
		Administrative Services	.39722	.25252	.700
		Res.Asst./Lecturer	.10880	.25590	1.000
		Expert	-.07251	.26740	1.000
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.13978	.25945	.998
		Assoc.Dr.	-.17778	.31434	.998

Examining which categories the differentiation in task/title dimension according to long-time focus originated from, it was determined that the differentiation between administrative services and Res.Asst./Lecturer was $p=.005$, and the differentiation between administrative services and expert participants was $p=.000$, and the differentiation the differentiation between administrative services and Asst.Assoc.Dr. was $p=.000$.

Table 141.

Individualism as per task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	F	P
	Contracted	27	3.9167	.56330		
	Administrative Services	276	3.6014	.80030		
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	150	3.7900	.73836		
Individualism	Expert	57	3.8509	.77324	2.452	.024
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	99	3.7803	.77942		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	4.0500	.77460		
	Prof.Dr.	9	3.8611	.95288		
	Total	633	3.7243	.77856		

When significant differences between individualism as per task title were examined, significant differences were found in individualism ($p=0.024$, $p<.05$) as per task title categories. Tukey analysis was performed to determine which work title categories the differentiation in individualism originated from.

Table 142

Tukey analysis was performed to determine which work title categories the differentiation in individualism originated from.

Dimension	(I) Task/Title	(j) Task/Title	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Individualism	Contracted	Administrative Services	.31522	.15592	.402
		Res.Asst./Lecturer	.12667	.16165	.986
		Expert	.06579	.18065	1.000
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	.13636	.16788	.984
		Assoc.Dr.	-.13333	.24901	.998
		Prof.Dr.	.05556	.29762	1.000
	Administrative Services	Contracted	-.31522	.15592	.402
		Res.Asst./Lecturer	-.18855	.07844	.199
		Expert	-.24943	.11250	.288
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.17885	.09059	.432
		Assoc.Dr.	-.44855	.20501	.303
		Prof.Dr.	-.25966	.26192	.956
	Res.Asst./Lecturer Lecturer	Contracted	-.12667	.16165	.986
		Administrative Services	.18855	.07844	.199
		Expert	-.06088	.12032	.999
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	.00970	.10013	1.000
		Assoc.Dr.	-.26000	.20940	.878
		Prof.Dr.	-.07111	.26537	1.000
	Expert	Contracted	-.06579	.18065	1.000
		Administrative Services	.24943	.11250	.288
		Res.Asst./Lecturer	.06088	.12032	.999
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	.07057	.12857	.998
		Assoc.Dr.	-.19912	.22439	.974
		Prof.Dr.	-.01023	.27735	1.000
Asst.Assoc. Dr	Contracted	-.13636	.16788	.984	
	Administrative Services	.17885	.09059	.432	
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	-.00970	.10013	1.000	
	Expert	-.07057	.12857	.998	
	Assoc.Dr.	-.26970	.21424	.870	
	Prof.Dr.	-.08081	.26921	1.000	
Assoc.Dr.	Contracted	.13333	.24901	.998	
	Administrative Services	.44855	.20501	.303	
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.26000	.20940	.878	
	Expert	.19912	.22439	.974	
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	.26970	.21424	.870	
	Prof.Dr.	.18889	.32603	.997	
Prof.Dr.	Contracted	-.05556	.29762	1.000	
	Administrative Services	.25966	.26192	.956	
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.07111	.26537	1.000	
	Expert	.01023	.27735	1.000	
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	.08081	.26921	1.000	
	Assoc.Dr.	-.18889	.32603	.997	

Examining which categories, the differentiation in task/title dimension as per individualism originated from, it was not determined which categories caused the differentiation.

Table 143.

Long-time focus by task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	f	p
Long-time focus	Contracted	27	3.8241	.49911	3.280	.003
	Administrative Services	276	3.6851	.77774		
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	150	3.8106	.66701		
	Expert	57	3.8553	.74094		
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	99	4.0126	.75709		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	4.1833	.67788		
	Prof.Dr.	9	3.6667	.97628		
	Total	633	3.7988	.74500		

When significant differences between long-time focus as per task title examined, significant differences were found in long-time focus ($p=0.003$, $p>.05$) as per task title categories. Tukey analysis was performed to determine which task title categories the differentiation in long-time focus originated from.

Table 144.

Tukey test results on which task/title group the differentiation in long-time focus originated from

Dimension	(I) Task/Title	(j) Task/Title	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p	
Long-time focus	Contracted	Administrative Services	.13899	.14862	.967	
		Res.Asst./Lecturer	.01352	.15409	1.000	
		Expert	-.03119	.17220	1.000	
		Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.18855	.16003	.902	
		Assoc.Dr.	-.35926	.23736	.737	
		Prof.Dr.	.15741	.28370	.998	
		Administrative Services	Contracted	-.13899	.14862	.967
			Res.Asst./Lecturer	-.12547	.07477	.631
			Expert	-.17018	.10723	.691
			Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.32754*	.08635	.003
			Assoc.Dr.	-.49825	.19541	.144
			Prof.Dr.	.01842	.24966	1.000
	Res.Asst./Lecturer Lecturer		Contracted	-.01352	.15409	1.000
			Administrative Services	.12547	.07477	.631
			Expert	-.04471	.11469	1.000
			Asst.Assoc. Dr.	-.20207	.09544	.344
			Assoc.Dr.	-.37278	.19960	.503
			Prof.Dr.	.14389	.25295	.998
		Expert	Contracted	.03119	.17220	1.000
			Administrative Services	.17018	.10723	.691
			Res.Asst./Lecturer	.04471	.11469	1.000
			Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.15736	.12255	.859
			Assoc.Dr.	-.32807	.21389	.724
			Prof.Dr.	.18860	.26437	.992
	Asst.Assoc. Dr		Contracted	.18855	.16003	.902
			Administrative Services	.32754*	.08635	.003
			Res.Asst./Lecturer	.20207	.09544	.344
			Expert	.15736	.12255	.859
			Assoc.Dr.	-.17071	.20422	.981
			Prof.Dr.	.34596	.25661	.829
		Assoc.Dr.	Contracted	.35926	.23736	.737
			Administrative Services	.49825	.19541	.144
			Res.Asst./Lecturer	.37278	.19960	.503
			Expert	.32807	.21389	.724
			Asst.Assoc. Dr	.17071	.20422	.981
			Prof.Dr.	.51667	.31077	.641
	Prof.Dr.		Contracted	-.15741	.28370	.998
			Administrative Services	-.01842	.24966	1.000
			Res.Asst./Lecturer	-.14389	.25295	.998
			Expert	-.18860	.26437	.992
			Asst.Assoc. Dr	-.34596	.25661	.829
			Assoc.Dr.	-.51667	.31077	.641

When it was investigated which categories the differentiation in task title dimension as per long-time focus originated from, it was determined that there was differentiation between administrative services and Asst.Assoc.Dr. participants at the level of $p=.003$.

Table 145.

Culture as per task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	f	p
	Contracted	27	3.3470	.40188		
	Administrative Services	276	3.2351	.56774		
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	150	3.2909	.51346		
Culture	Expert	58	3.2976	.58307	.774	.591
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	100	3.3556	.49776		
	Assoc.Dr.	15	3.3347	.50557		
	Prof.Dr.	9	3.3144	.45478		
	Total	635	3.2812	.53667		

When significant differences between culture as per task title, significant differences were not found in control ($p=0.591$, $p>.05$) as per task title categories. When culture sub-dimension was examined according to task title, arithmetic mean of the contracted officers was found as 3.347, arithmetic mean of participants from administrative services was found as 3.2351, arithmetic mean of Res.Asst./Lecturer participants was found as 3.2909, arithmetic mean of expert participants was found as 3.2976, arithmetic mean of Asst.Assoc.Dr. was found as 3.3556, arithmetic mean of Assoc.Dr. participants was found as 3.3347, and arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants was found as 3.3144. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=0.774$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means were compared, it was observed that arithmetic mean of Asst.Assoc. Dr participants was higher than that of others.

Table 146.*Organizational Stress_F1 by task title, f-test results*

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational Stress_F1	Contracted	27	3.8086	.72605	2.066	.055
	Administrative Services	269	3.9152	.81012		
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	150	4.1353	.68662		
	Expert	56	4.0030	.66704		
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	96	4.1073	.69706		
	Assoc.Dr.	14	4.0238	.75633		
	Prof.Dr.	9	3.8889	.62361		
	Total	621	4.0034	.74909		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress_F1 as per task title, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F1 by task title categories ($p=0.055$, $p>.05$). When organizational stress_F1 sub-dimension was examined according to task title, arithmetic mean of the contracted officers was found as 3.8086, arithmetic mean of participants from administrative services was found as 3.9152, arithmetic mean of Res.Asst./Lecturer was found as 4.1353, arithmetic mean of expert participants was found as 4.003, arithmetic mean of Asst.Assoc.Dr. was found as 4.1073, arithmetic mean of Assoc.Dr. participants was found as 4.0238, and arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants was found as 3.8889. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=2.066$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means were compared, it was observed that arithmetic mean of Res.Asst./Lecturer participants were higher than that of others.

Table 147.*Organizational Stress_F3 by task title, f-test results*

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational Stress_F3	Contracted	27	3.1852	.76772	2.197	.042
	Administrative Services	269	3.3243	.74058		
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	150	3.1700	.74322		
	Expert	56	3.4479	.66145		
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	96	3.3750	.66491		
	Assoc.Dr.	14	2.9821	.62376		
	Prof.Dr.	9	3.5556	.41037		
	Total	621	3.2956	.72277		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress_F3 as per task title, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F3 by task title categories ($p=0.042$, $p<.05$). Tukey analysis was performed to determine which task title categories the differentiation in organization stress_F3 originated from.

Table 148.*Tukey test results for which task/title group the differentiation in organizational stress_F3 originated from*

Dimension	(I) Task/Title	(j) Task/Title	Difference between means (I-J)	SH	p
Organizational Stress_F3	Contracted	Administrative Services	-.13916	.14507	.962
		Res. Asst./Lecturer	.01519	.15023	1.000
		Expert	-.26273	.16837	.708
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.18981	.15654	.889
		Assoc.Dr.	.20304	.23667	.978
		Prof.Dr.	-.37037	.27660	.833
	Administrative Services	Contracted	.13916	.14507	.962
		Res.Asst./Lecturer	.15435	.07323	.349
		Expert	-.12357	.10555	.905
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.05065	.08544	.997
		Assoc.Dr.	.34221	.19699	.591
		Prof.Dr.	-.23121	.24352	.964
	Res.Asst./Lecturer Lecturer	Contracted	-.01519	.15023	1.000
		Administrative Services	-.15435	.07323	.349
		Expert	-.27792	.11254	.172
		Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.20500	.09393	.306
		Assoc.Dr.	.18786	.20082	.967

	Prof.Dr.	-.38556	.24662	.706
	Contracted	.26273	.16837	.708
	Administrative Services	.12357	.10555	.905
Expert	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.27792	.11254	.172
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	.07292	.12084	.997
	Assoc.Dr.	.46577	.21473	.314
	Prof.Dr.	-.10764	.25807	1.000
	Contracted	.18981	.15654	.889
	Administrative Services	.05065	.08544	.997
Asst.Assoc. Dr	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.20500	.09393	.306
	Expert	-.07292	.12084	.997
	Assoc.Dr.	.39286	.20559	.474
	Prof.Dr.	-.18056	.25052	.991
	Contracted	-.20304	.23667	.978
	Administrative Services	-.34221	.19699	.591
Assoc.Dr.	Res. Asst./Lecturer	-.18786	.20082	.967
	Expert	-.46577	.21473	.314
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	-.39286	.20559	.474
	Prof.Dr.	-.57341	.30703	.503
	Contracted	.37037	.27660	.833
	Administrative Services	.23121	.24352	.964
Prof.Dr.	Res.Asst./Lecturer	.38556	.24662	.706
	Expert	.10764	.25807	1.000
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	.18056	.25052	.991
	Assoc.Dr.	.57341	.30703	.503

Examining which categories, the differentiation in task/title dimension as per organizational Stress_F3 originated from, it was not determined which categories caused the differentiation.

Table 149:

Organizational stress_F4 by task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational Stress_F4	Contracted	27	3.2346	.84132	1.710	.116
	Administrative Services	268	3.4030	.84770		
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	150	3.5489	.80165		
	Expert	56	3.1845	.86204		
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	96	3.4861	.81351		
	Assoc.Dr.	14	3.5238	.90312		
	Prof.Dr.	9	3.4444	.89753		
	Total	620	3.4274	.83729		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress_F4 as per task title, significant differences were not found in organizational stress by task title categories ($p=0.116$, $p>.05$). When organizational Stress_F4 sub-dimension was examined according to task title, arithmetic mean of the contracted officers was found as 3.2346, arithmetic mean of participants from administrative services was found as 3.403, arithmetic mean of Res.Asst./Lecturer participants was found as 3.5489, arithmetic mean of expert participants was found as 3.1845, arithmetic mean of Asst.Assoc.Dr. was found as 3.4861, arithmetic mean of Assoc.Dr. participants was found as 3.5238, and arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants was found as 3.4444. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.71$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means were compared, it was observed that arithmetic mean of Res.Asst./Lecturer participants was higher than that of others.

Table 150.

Organisational stress by task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	f	p
Organizational Stress	Contracted	27	3.4090	.59059	1.389	.217
	Administrative Services	269	3.5789	.55297		
	Res.Asst./Lecturer	150	3.6368	.48564		
	Expert	56	3.5640	.47973		
	Asst.Assoc. Dr	96	3.6844	.46224		
	Assoc.Dr.	14	3.4896	.46855		
	Prof.Dr.	9	3.6389	.67363		
	Total	621	3.5993	.52031		

When significant differences were examined between organizational stress as per task title, significant differences were not found in organizational stress by task title categories ($p=0.217$, $p>.05$). When organizational stress sub-dimension was examined according to task title, arithmetic mean of the contracted officers was found as 3.409, arithmetic mean of participants from administrative services was found as 3.5789, arithmetic mean of Res.Asst./Lecturer participants was found as 3.6368, arithmetic mean of expert participants was found as 3.564, arithmetic mean of Asst.Assoc.Dr.

was found as 3.6844, arithmetic mean of Assoc.Dr. participants was found as 3.4896, and arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants was found as 3.6389. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.389$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means were compared, it was observed that arithmetic mean of Asst.Assoc. Dr participants was higher than that of others.

Table 151.

Perceived stress by task title, f-test results

Dimension	Task Title	N	X	SS	f	p
Perceived Stress	Contracted	27	2.4964	.55172	1.839	.089
	Administrative Services	269	2.5633	.70909		
	Res. Asst./Lecturer	150	2.4286	.64433		
	Expert	57	2.7078	.72998		
	Asst. Assoc.Dr.	96	2.6122	.76168		
	Assoc.Dr.	14	2.3626	.33384		
	Prof.Dr.	9	2.8376	.99588		
	Total	622	2.5482	.69993		

When significant differences were examined between perceived stress as per task title, significant differences were not found in perceived stress according to task title categories ($p=0.089$, $p>.05$). When perceived stress sub-dimension was examined according to task title, arithmetic mean of the contracted officers was found as 2.4964, arithmetic mean of participants from administrative services was found as 2.5633, arithmetic mean of Res.Asst./Lecturer participants was found as 2.4286, arithmetic mean of expert participants was found as 2.7078, arithmetic mean of Asst.Assoc.Dr. was found as 2.6122, arithmetic mean of Assoc.Dr. participants was found as 2.3626, and arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants was found as 2.8376. The calculated f value was not found to be significant at ($f=1.839$ $p>.05$) level. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that arithmetic mean of Prof.Dr. participants is higher than that of others.

5.2.4. t-tests

Table 152.

Time planning by gender, t-test results

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	P
Timing	Women	293	3.5183	.73141	.805	.421
	Male	345	3.4732	.68114		

When time planning by gender was examined, there were no significant differences in time planning based on gender categories ($p=.421$ and $p>.05$).

Table 153.

Time attitudes by gender, t-test results

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	T	p
Time Attitudes	Women	292	3.2332	.50045	-1.886	.060
	Male	345	3.3101	.52253		

Examining significant differences in time attitudes by gender, no significant differences were found in time attitudes based on gender categories ($p=.06$ and $p>.05$).

Table 154.

Time-consuming by gender, t-test results

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	T	p
Time consuming	Women	290	2.6418	.62131	-2.917	.004
	Male	343	2.7920	.66518		

Time-consuming; examining significant differences by gender, significant differences were found according to gender ($p=.004$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it can be seen that men's arithmetic mean is 2.792, and women's arithmetic mean is 2.6418. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that women's arithmetic mean are lower than that of men.

Table 155.*Time management by gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	T	P
Time Management	Women	293	3.1317	.41689	-1.817	.070
	Male	345	3.1938	.44057		

Examining significant differences in time management by gender, no significant differences were found in time attitudes based on gender categories ($p=.070$ and $p>.05$).

Table 156.*Inadequate self-sufficiency perception by task title, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	p
Perception of inadequate self-sufficiency	Women	291	2.3146	.84130	-	.391
	Male	343	2.3706	.79757		

When the perception of inadequate self-sufficiency by gender was examined, there were no significant differences in the perception of inadequate self-sufficiency based on gender categories ($p=.391$ and $p>.05$).

Table 157.*Perception of stress/discomfort by gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	p
Perception of stress/discomfort	Women	290	2.7117	.75757	.166	.868
	Male	343	2.7022	.68448		

Examining significant differences in stress/discomfort perception by *gender*, no significant differences were found in stress/discomfort perception based on gender categories ($p=.868$ and $p>.05$).

Table 158.*Perceived stress by gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	T	p
Perceived stress	Women	291	2.5119	.73154	-.436	.663
	Male	343	2.5364	.67766		

Examining significant differences in perceived stress by gender, no significant differences were found in perceived stress based on gender categories ($p=.663$ and $p>.05$).

Table 159.*Work load as per gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	p
Work load	Women	290	3.3220	.65787	.041	.967
	Male	343	3.3198	.63578		

Examining significant differences in workload by gender, no significant differences were found in workload based on gender categories ($p=.967$ and $p>.05$).

Table 160.*Control as per gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	p
Control	Women	289	3.5664	.71886	-.872	.384
	Male	343	3.6145	.66781		

Examining significant differences in control by gender, no significant differences were found in control based on gender categories ($p=.384$ and $p>.05$).

Table 161.*Social support by gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	p
Social Support	Women	290	4.0599	.74407	1.508	.132
	Male	343	3.9700	.75004		

Examining significant differences in social support by gender, no significant differences were found in social support based on gender categories ($p=.132$ and $p>.05$).

Table 162.*Organizational stress by gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	p
Organizational stress	Women	290	3.6495	.51861	.359	.719
	Male	343	3.6348	.51049		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress by gender, no significant differences were found in organizational stress based on gender categories ($p=.719$ and $p>.05$).

Table 163.*Masculinity as per gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	P
Masculinity	Women	290	1.9883	.92934	-7.962	.000
	Male	345	2.6519	1.13502		

Masculinity; examining significant differences by gender, significant differences were found according to gender ($p=.000$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it can be seen that men's arithmetic average is 2.6519, and women's arithmetic mean is $X=1.9883$. When arithmetic means were compared, it was observed that women's arithmetic mean was lower than that of men.

Table 164.*Power distance by gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	T	p
Power distance	Women	289	2.6280	.80485	-2.101	.036
	Male	345	2.7657	.83570		

Time-consuming; examining significant differences by gender, significant differences were found according to gender ($p=.036$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it can be seen that men's arithmetic mean is 2.7657, and women's arithmetic mean is $X=2.628$. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that women's arithmetic mean are lower than that of men.

Table 165.*Uncertainty avoidance t-test results by gender*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	p
Avoiding uncertainty	Women	288	3.8547	.80470	.113	.910
	Male	345	3.8477	.74700		

Examining significant differences in avoidance of uncertainty by gender, there were no significant differences found in avoidance of uncertainty according to gender categories ($p=.91$ and $p>.05$).

Table 166.*Individualism as per gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	P
Individualism	Women	289	3.6857	.81616	-1.145	.253
	Male	344	3.7568	.74516		

Examining significant differences in by gender, no significant differences were found in individualism based on gender categories ($p=.253$ and $p>.05$).

Table 167.*Long-time focus by gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	T	p
Long-time focus	Women	289	3.7526	.75389	-1.433	.152
	Male	344	3.8377	.73630		

Examining significant differences in long-time focus by gender, no significant differences were found long-time focus based on gender categories ($p=.152$ and $p>.05$).

Table 168.*Culture by gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	P
Culture	Women	290	3.1746	.52695	-4.663	.000
	Male	345	3.3708	.52906		

Culture; examining significant differences by gender, significant differences were found according to gender ($p=.000$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it can be seen that men's arithmetic mean is $X=3.3708$, and women's arithmetic mean is $X=3.1746$. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that women's arithmetic mean are lower than that of men.

Table 169.*Organizational Stress_F1 by gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	P
Organizational Stress_F1	Women	287	3.9963	.80496	-.220	.826
	Male	334	4.0096	.69869		

When examining significant differences in organizational stress_F1 by gender, there were no significant differences in organizational stress_F1 according to gender categories ($p=.826$ and $p>.05$).

Table 170.*Organizational stress_F2 by gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	P
Organizational Stress_F2	Women	287	3.6911	.80589	.489	.625
	Male	334	3.6597	.78864		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress_F2 by gender, no significant differences were found in organizational stress_F2 based on gender categories ($p=.625$ and $p>.05$).

Table 171.*Organizational stress_F3 by gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	P
Organizational Stress_F3	Women	287	3.2689	.73549	-.855	.393
	Male	334	3.3186	.71196		

When examining significant differences in organizational stress_F3 by gender, there were no significant differences in organizational stress_F3 according to gender categories ($p=.393$ and $p>.05$).

Table 172.*Organizational stress_F4 by Gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	P
Organizational Stress_F4	Women	287	3.3926	.86601	-.962	.336
	Male	333	3.4575	.81184		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress_F4 by gender, no significant differences were found in organizational stress_F4 based on gender categories ($p=.336$ and $p>.05$).

Table 173.*Organizational stress by gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	t	p
Organizational Stress	Women	287	3.5872	.53351	-.538	.591
	Male	334	3.6097	.50926		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress by gender, no significant differences were found in organizational stress based on gender categories, ($p=.591$ and $p>.05$).

Table 174.*Perceived stress by gender, t-test results*

Dimension	Gender	N	X	Ss	T	p
Perceived Stress	Women	287	2.4793	.67707	-2.278	.023
	Male	335	2.6071	.71467		

Perceived stress; examining significant differences by gender, significant differences were found according to gender ($p=.023$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it can be seen that men's arithmetic mean is $X=2.6071$, and women's arithmetic mean is $X=2.4793$. When arithmetic means are compared, it is observed that women's arithmetic mean are lower than that of men.

Table 175.*Time planning by university, t-test results*

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	P
Timing	Hakkari University	269	3.4147	.73157	-2.432	.015
	Near East University	369	3.5516	.67925		

Time planning; it was found to be significant according to the university. Examining the difference, significant differences were found according to university ($p=.015$, $p<.05$). Examining the table, arithmetic mean of Near East

University was found as 3.5516, and arithmetic mean of Hakkari University was found as 3.4147. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are lower than those of Near East University. Therefore, H1.1 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of time planning” is ACCEPTED.

Table 176.

Time attitudes by university, t-test results

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	T	P
Time Attitudes	Hakkari University	269	3.2781	.53423	.139	.890
	Near East University	368	3.2724	.49863		

Examining significant differences in time attitudes by university, no significant differences were found in time attitudes based on university categories ($p=.890$ and $p>.05$). Therefore, H1.2 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of time attitudes” is REJECTED.

Table 177.

Time-consuming by university, t-test results

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	T	P
Time consuming	Hakkari University	265	2.7819	.67729	1.933	.054
	Near East University	368	2.6810	.62587		

Examining significant differences in time-consuming by university, no significant differences were found in time-consuming based on university categories ($p=.054$ and $p>.05$). Therefore, H1.3 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of time-consuming” is REJECTED.

Table 178.*Time management by university, t-test results*

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	T	P
Time Management	Hakkari University	269	3.1598	.45370	-.275	.784
	Near East University	369	3.1693	.41359		

Examining significant differences in time management by university, no significant differences were found in time management based on university categories ($p=.784$ and $p>.05$). Therefore, H1.4 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of time management” is REJECTED.

Table 179.*Inadequate self-sufficiency perception by university, t-test results*

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	P
Perception of inadequate self-sufficiency	Hakkari University	266	2.2744	.75070	-1.849	.065
	Near East University	368	2.3958	.86040		

When the perception of inadequate self-sufficiency by university was examined, there were no significant differences in the perception of inadequate self-sufficiency based on university categories ($p=.065$ and $p>.05$). Therefore, H1.5 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of inadequate self-sufficiency perception” is REJECTED.

Table 180.*Perception of stress/discomfort by university, t-test results*

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	P
Perception of stress/discomfort	Hakkari University	266	2.6259	.64724	-2.412	.016
	Near East University	367	2.7650	.76128		

Stress/discomfort perception; examining significant differences by university, significant differences were found according to university ($p=.016$ $p<.05$). When Table is examined, it is seen that Near East University has an arithmetic mean of 2.765, and Hakkari University has an arithmetic mean of 2.6259. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are lower than those of Near East University. Therefore, H1.5 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of stress/discomfort perception” is ACCEPTED.

Table 181.

Perceived stress by university, t-test results

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	T	P
Perceived stress	Hakkari University	266	2.4502	.61740	-2.293	.022
	Near East University	368	2.5794	.75419		

Perceived stress; examining significant differences by university, significant differences were found according to university ($p=.022$ $p<.05$). When Table is examined, it is seen that Near East University has an arithmetic mean of 2.5794, and Hakkari University has an arithmetic mean of 2.4502. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are lower than those of Near East University. Therefore, H1.7 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of perceived stress” is ACCEPTED.

Table 182.

Work load by university, t-test results

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	T	P
Work load	Hakkari University	266	3.2168	.66253	-3.482	.001
	Near East University	367	3.3962	.62295		

Work load; examining significant differences by university, significant differences were found according to university ($p=.001$ $p<.05$). When Table is

examined, it is seen that Near East University has an arithmetic mean of 3.3962, and Hakkari University has an arithmetic mean of 3.2168. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are lower than those of Near East University. Therefore, H1.8 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of work load perception” is ACCEPTED.

Table 183.

Control as per university, t-test results

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	T	P
Control	Hakkari University	265	3.5940	.70496	.045	.964
	Near East University	367	3.5915	.68255		

Examining significant differences in control by university, significant differences were not found in control according to university categories ($p=.964$ and $p>.05$). Therefore, H1.9 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of control perception” is REJECTED.

Table 184.

Social support by university, t-test results

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	p
Social Support	Hakkari University	266	3.9888	.80568	-.639	.523
	Near East University	367	4.0273	.70406		

Examining significant differences in social support as per university, no significant differences were found in social support according to university categories ($p=.523$ and $p>.05$). Therefore, H1.10 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of social support perception” is REJECTED.

Table 185.*Organizational stress by university, t-test results*

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	T	p
Organizational stress	Hakkari University	266	3.6000	.55562	-1.736	.083
	Near East University	367	3.6717	.47988		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress by university, no significant differences were not found in organizational stress based on university categories ($p=.083$ and $p>.05$). Therefore, H1.11 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of organizational stress perception” is REJECTED.

Table 186.*Masculinity as per university, t-test results*

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	P
Masculinity/Femininity	Hakkari University	268	2.7989	1.04766	9.433	.000
	Near East University	367	2.0202	1.01245		

Masculinity; examining significant differences by university, significant differences were found according to university ($p=.000$ $p<.05$). Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Public University arithmetic means are higher than those of Near East University. Therefore, H1.12 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of masculinity” is ACCEPTED. When Table is examined, it is seen that Near East University has an arithmetic mean of 2.0202, and Hakkari University has an arithmetic mean of 2.7989.

Table 187.*Power distance by university, t-test results*

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	p
Power distance	Hakkari University	268	2.7073	.84616	.115	.909
	Near East University	366	2.6997	.80854		

Examining significant differences in power distance as per university, significant differences were not found in power distance based on university categories ($p=.909$ and $p>.05$). Therefore, H1.13 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of power distance perception” is REJECTED.

Table 188.

Avoiding uncertainty by university, t-test results

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	p
Avoiding uncertainty	Hakkari University	268	3.8300	.77056	-.581	.562
	Near East University	365	3.8662	.77578		

Examining significant differences in avoidance of uncertainty by university, there were no significant differences found in avoidance of uncertainty according to university categories ($p=.562$ and $p>.05$). Therefore, H1.14 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of avoiding uncertainty perception” is REJECTED.

Table 189.

Individualism by university, t-test results

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	P
Individualism/collectiveness	Hakkari University	267	3.7453	.74791	.579	.563
	Near East University	366	3.7090	.80084		

Examining significant differences in individualism by university, significant differences were not found in individualism according university categories ($p=.563$ and $p>.05$). Therefore, H1.15 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of individualism/collectiveness” is REJECTED.

Table 190.*Long-time focus by university, t-test results*

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	P
Long-time focus	Hakkari University	267	3.8742	.72509	2.181	.030
	Near East University	366	3.7439	.75543		

“There are significant differences in the perception of long time focus in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities” hypothesis H1.16 is ACCEPTED.

Table 191.*Culture by university, t-test results*

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	T	P
Hofstede culture	Hakkari University	268	3.3897	.52267	4.415	.000
	Near East University	367	3.2020	.53359		

Culture; examining significant differences by university, significant differences were found according to university ($p=.000$ $p<.05$). When Table is examined, it is seen that Near East University has an arithmetic mean of 3.202, and Hakkari University has an arithmetic mean of 3.3897. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are higher than those of Near East University. Therefore, H1.17 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of Hofstede culture” is ACCEPTED.

Table 192.*Administrative/academic staff by university, t-test results*

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	P
Administrative/academic staff	Hakkari University	269	1.4461	.49801	-5.241	.000
	Near East University	369	1.6504	.47749		

Administrative/academic staff; examining significant differences by university, significant differences were found according to the university ($p=.000$ $p<.05$). When Table is examined, it is seen that Near East University has an arithmetic mean of 1.6504, and Hakkari University has an arithmetic mean of 1.4461. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are lower than those of Near East University.

Table 193.

Organizational Stress_F1 by university, t-test results

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	P
Organizational Stress_F1	Hakkari University	262	3.9912	.70536	-.347	.729
	Near East University	359	4.0123	.78030		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress_F1 by university, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F1 based on university categories ($p=.729$ and $p>.05$).

Table 194.

Organizational Stress_F2 by university, t-test results

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	P
Organizational Stress_F2	Hakkari University	262	3.7659	.77597	2.463	.014
	Near East University	359	3.6072	.80508		

Organizational stress_F2; examining significant differences by university, significant differences were found according to university ($p=.014$ $p<.05$). When Table is examined, it is seen that Near East University has an arithmetic mean of 3.6072, and Hakkari University has an arithmetic mean of 3.7659. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are lower than those of Near East University.

Table 195.*Organizational Stress_F3 by university, t-test results*

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	P
Organizational Stress_F3	Hakkari University	262	3.3391	.72452	1.280	.201
	Near East University	359	3.2639	.72085		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress_F3 by university, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F3 based on university categories ($p=.201$ and $p>.05$).

Table 196.*Organizational Stress_F4 by university, t-test results*

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	P
Organizational Stress_F4	Hakkari University	262	3.3588	.82272	-1.749	.081
	Near East University	358	3.4777	.84541		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress_F4 by university, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F4 based on university categories ($p=.081$ and $p>.05$).

Table 197.*Organizational stress by university, t-test results*

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	t	P
Organizational Stress	Hakkari University	262	3.6137	.50601	.590	.556
	Near East University	359	3.5888	.53095		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress by university, no significant differences were not found in organizational stress based on university categories ($p=.556$ and $p>.05$).

Table 198.*Perceived stress by university, t-test results*

Dimension	University	N	X	SS	T	P
Perceived Stress	Hakkari University	262	2.6322	.71162	2.567	.010
	Near East University	360	2.4870	.68582		

Perceived stress; examining significant differences by university, significant differences were found according to university ($p=.010$ $p<.05$). When Table is examined, it is seen that Near East University has an arithmetic mean of 2.487, and Hakkari University has an arithmetic mean of 2.6322. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are higher than those of Near East University.

Table 199.*Masculinity as per title group, t-test results*

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Masculinity	Administrative	273	2.4022	1.10394	1.066	0.287
	Academic	362	2.3086	1.09051		

Examining significant differences in masculinity by title group, significant differences were not found in masculinity according title group categories ($p=0.287$ and $p>.05$). Therefore, the H2.1 hypothesis that “there are significant differences in masculinity dimension according to the title group”, is REJECTED.

Table 200.*Power distance by title group, t-test results*

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Power distance	Administrative	273	2.8645	0.83912	4.354	0.000
	Academic	361	2.5807	0.79188		

Power distance; examining significant differences by title group, significant differences were found according to title group ($p=0$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it can be seen that academic staff's arithmetic mean is $X=2.5807$, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is $X=2.8645$. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic means of academic staff are lower than those of administrative personnel. Therefore, the H2.2 hypothesis that "there are significant differences in power distance dimension according to the title group", is ACCEPTED.

Table 201.

Avoiding uncertainty as per title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Avoiding uncertainty	Administrative	273	3.6245	0.79072	-6.628	0.000
	Academic	360	4.0225	0.71427		

Avoiding uncertainty; examining significant differences by title group, significant differences were found according to title group ($p=0$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it can be seen that academic staff's arithmetic mean is $X=4.0225$, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.6245$. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative personnel. Therefore, the H2.3 hypothesis that "there are significant differences in avoiding uncertainty dimension according to the title group", is ACCEPTED.

Table 202.

T-test results regarding individualism levels by title group

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Individualism/collectiveness	Administrative	27	3.607	0.8013	3.324	0.001
	Administrative	3	1	1		
	Academic	360	3.813	0.7498		
		0	2	3		

Individualism; examining significant differences by title group, significant differences were found according to title group ($p=0.001$ $p<.05$). When the

table is examined, it can be seen that academic staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.8132$, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.6071$. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative personnel. Therefore, the H2.4 hypothesis that "there are significant differences in individualism/collectivism dimension according to the title group", is ACCEPTED.

Table 203.

Long-time focus by title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Long-time focus	Administrative	273	3.6917	0.77757	-3.174	0.002
	Academic	360	3.8801	0.70968		

Long-time focus; examining significant differences by title group, significant differences were found according to title group ($p=0.002$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it can be seen that academic staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.8801$, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.6917$. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative personnel. Therefore, the H2.5 hypothesis that "there are significant differences in long-time focus dimension according to the title group", is ACCEPTED.

Table 204.

Organizational Stress_F1 as per title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	T	P
Organizational Stress_F1	Administrative	266	3.9199	0.81257	-2.414	0.016
	Academic	355	4.0660	0.69234		

Organizational Stress_F1; examining significant differences by title group, significant differences were found according to title group ($p=0.016$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it can be seen that academic staff's arithmetic mean is $X=4.066$, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.9199$.

Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative personnel.

Table 205.

Organizational Stress_F2 by title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Organizational Stress_F2	Administrative	266	3.6839	0.81495	0.263	0.793
	Academic	355	3.6669	0.78288		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress_F2 by title group, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F2 according title group categories ($p=0.793$ and $p>.05$).

Table 206.

Organizational stress_F3 per title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Organizational Stress_F3	Administrative	266	3.3195	0.74304	0.714	0.476
	Academic	355	3.2777	0.70773		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress_F3 by title group, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F3 according title group categories ($p=0.476$ and $p>.05$).

Table 207.

Organizational Stres_F4 by title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	T	P
Organizational Stress_F4	Administrative	265	3.4000	0.84857	-0.704	0.482
	Academic	355	3.4479	0.82938		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress_F4 by title group, significant differences were not found in organizational stress_F4 according title group categories ($p=0.482$ and $p>.05$).

Table 208.

Organizational stress per title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Organizational stress	Administrative	266	3.5789	0.55388	-0.846	0.398
	Academic	355	3.6146	0.49390		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress by title group, significant differences were not found in organizational stress according title group categories ($p=0.398$ and $p>.05$).

Table 209.

Perceived stress by title, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Perceived stress	Administrative	266	2.5659	0.71262	0.546	0.585
	Academic	356	2.5349	0.69100		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress by title group, significant differences were not found in organizational stress according title group categories ($p=0.585$ and $p>.05$).

Table 210.

Time planning by title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	T	P
Timing	Administrative	275	3.2896	0.74913	-6.582	0.000
	Academic	363	3.6486	0.62675		

Time planning; examining significant differences by title group, significant differences were found according to title group ($p=0.001$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it can be seen that academic staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.6486$, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.2896$. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative to be.

Table 211.

Time attitudes by title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Time Attitudes	Administrative	275	3.1965	0.57648	-3.384	0.001
	Academic	362	3.3344	0.45186		

Time attitudes; examining significant differences by title group, significant differences were found according to title group ($p=0.001$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it can be seen that academic staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.3344$, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.1965$. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that of academic staff arithmetic means are higher than those of administrative personnel.

Table 212.

Time-consuming by title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Time consuming	Administrative	273	2.6927	0.65352	-1.031	0.303
	Academic	360	2.7464	0.64599		

Examining significant differences in time-consuming by title group, significant differences were not found in time-consuming according title group categories ($p=0.303$ and $p>.05$).

Table 213.*Time planning by title group, t-test results*

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	T	P
Timing	Administrative	275	3.0588	0.47226	-5.564	0.000
	Academic	363	3.2459	0.37732		

Time planning; examining significant differences by title group, significant differences were found according to title group ($p=0$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it can be seen that academic staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.2459$, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.0588$. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative personnel.

Table 214.*Inadequate self-sufficiency perception by task title, t-test results*

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Perception of inadequate self-sufficiency	Administrative	274	2.3752	0.81496	0.816	0.415
	Academic	360	2.3218	0.82027		

When the perception of inadequate self-sufficiency by title group was examined, there were no significant differences found in the perception of inadequate self-sufficiency based on title group categories ($p=0.415$ and $p>.05$).

Table 215.*Perception of stress/discomfort by title group, t-test results*

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Perception of stress/discomfort	Administrative	273	2.6899	0.69173	-0.507	0.612
	Academic	360	2.7192	0.73856		

Examining significant differences in stress/discomfort perception, no significant differences were found in stress/discomfort perception based on gender categories ($p=0.612$ and $p>.05$).

Table 216.

Perceived stress by title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Perceived stress	Administrative	274	2.5313	0.68145	0.193	0.847
	Academic	360	2.5205	0.71892		

Examining significant differences in organizational stress by title group, significant differences were not found in organizational stress according title group categories ($p=0.847$ and $p>.05$).

Table 217.

Work load by title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Work load	Administrative	273	3.2186	0.68573	-3.501	0.000
	Academic	360	3.3983	0.60268		

Work load; examining significant differences by title group, significant differences were found according to title group ($p=0$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it can be seen that academic staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.3983$, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.2186$. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative personnel.

Table 218.

Control as per title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Control	Administrative	272	3.4152	0.73742	-5.744	0.000
	Academic	360	3.7265	0.62299		

Control; examining significant differences by title group, significant differences were found according to title group ($p=0$ $p<.05$). When the table is

examined, it can be seen that academic staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.7265$, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.4152$. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative personnel.

Table 219.

Social support by title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Social Support	Administrative	273	3.9492	0.81557	-1.818	0.070
	Academic	360	4.0581	0.68997		

Examining significant differences in social support as per title group, no significant differences were found in social support according to title categories ($p=0.07$ and $p>.05$).

Table 220.

Organizational stress per title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Organizational stress	Administrative	273	3.5280	0.56457	-4.931	0.000
	Academic	360	3.7277	0.45401		

Organizational stress; examining significant differences by title group, significant differences were found according to title group ($p=0$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it can be seen that academic staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.7277$, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is $X=3.528$. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative personnel.

Table 221.

Culture as per title group, t-test results

Dimension	Title Group	N	X	SS	t	P
Culture	Administrative	273	3.2380	0.56919	-1.763	0.078
	Academic	362	3.3138	0.50916		

Examining significant differences in culture by title group, significant differences were not found in culture according title group categories ($p=0.078$ and $p>.05$).

5.2.5.1. Regression analysis for intermediary role

Table 222.

Regression analyses examining inter-variable effects

H3.1- Time Management Has an Impact on Individualist/Collective Culture											
Variables	B	t	Sig.	R	R ²	F	Sig.F	R Square Change	Durbin-Watson	Conclusion	
Constant	2.499	11.232	0.000								
TIME MANAGEMENT	0.387	5.560	0.000	0.217	0.047	30.919	0.000	0.047	1.944	Acceptance	
Y (individual/collective culture) =2.499+0.387 (time management)											
H3.2- Individualist/Collective Culture Has an Effect on Perceived Stress											
Variables	B	t	Sig.	R	R ²	F	Sig.F	R Square Change	Durbin-Watson	Conclusion	
Constant	3.017	21.601	0.000								
INDIVIDUAL/COLLECTIVE - CULTURE	-0.128	-3.499	0.001	0.14	0.020	12.246	0.001	0.020	1.909	Acceptance	
Y (perceived stress) =3.017-0.128 (individualist/collective culture)											
H3.3 Individualist/Collective Culture Has an Effect on Organizational Stress											
Variables	B	t	Sig.	R	R ²	F	Sig.F	R Square Change	Durbin-Watson	Conclusion	
Constant	3.026	30.152	0.000								
INDIVIDUAL/COLLECTIVE CULTURE	0.164	6.240	0.000	0.245	0.060	38.932	0.000	0.060	1.93	Acceptance	
Y (organizational stress) =3.026+0.164 (individualist/collective culture)											
H3.4- Time Management Has an Effect on Organizational Stress											
Variables	B	t	Sig.	R	R ²	F	Sig.F	R Square Change	Durbin-Watson	Conclusion	
Constant	2.059	14.826									
TIME MANAGEMENT	0.499	11.476		0	0.419	0.175	131.697	0.000	0.175	1.944	Acceptance
Y(organizational stress)=2.059+0.4998 (time management)											
H3.5-Time Management and Individualist/Collective Culture Have an Effect on Perceived stress.											
Variables	B	t	Sig.	R	R ²	F	Sig.F	R Square Change	Durbin-Watson	Conclusion	
Constant	1.740	11.373	0.000								
TIME MANAGEMENT	0.465	10.549	0.000								
INDIVIDUAL/COLLECTIVE CULTURE	0.114	4.593	0.000	0.452	0.205	78.610	0.000	0.205	1.962	Acceptance	
Y(perceived stress)=1.740+0.465(time management)+0.114(individualist/collective culture)											

The impact of time management on organizational stress has decreased due to the effect of individualist/collective culture. Therefore, individual/collective culture has an intermediary role. While time management decreased at (0.499-0.465=) 0.034 level, individualist/collective culture decreased at (0.164-0.114) 0.050 level.

H3.6- Time Management Has an Effect on Perceived Stress

Variables	B	t	Sig.	R	R ²	F	Sig.F	R Square Change	Durbin-Watson	Conclusion
Constant	1.651	8.130								
TIME MANAGEMENT	0.279	4.384					0.030	1.906		Acceptance
			0	0.173	0.030	19.222	0.000			

$$Y (\text{perceived stress}) = 1.651 + 0.279 (\text{time management})$$

H3.7- Time Management and Individualist/Collective Culture Have an Effect on Perceived Stress.

Variables	B	t	Sig.	R	R ²	F	Sig.F	R Square Change	Durbin-Watson	Conclusion
Constant	2.117	0.227	0.000							
TIME MANAGEMENT	0.325	0.065	0.000							
INDIVIDUAL/COLLECTIVE - CULTURE	-0.164	0.037	0.000					0.058	1.903	Acceptance
				0.24	0.058	18.716	0.000			

$$Y (\text{organizational stress}) = 2.117 + 0.325(\text{time management}) - 0.164 (\text{collective culture})$$

The impact of time management on organizational stress has increase due to the effect of individualist/collective culture. Therefore, individual/collective culture has an intermediary role. While time management increased at (0.325-0.279=) 0.046 level, individualist/collective culture increased at (0.164-0.128) 0.036 level.

5.2.5.2. Analysis of Intermediary Role via Structural Equality Model

Chi-Square Goodness, RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation), GFI (Goodness Of Fit Index), AGFI (Adjusted Goodness Of Fit Index), RMR (Root Mean Square Residual), SRMR (Standardized RMR), CFI (Comparative Fit Index), NFI (Normed Fit Index), RFI (Relative Fit Index), IFI

(Incremental Fit Index) fit indices were applied for the DFA in this thesis dissertation. To determine whether the structure of scale complies with the theoretical structure, the degree of freedom and chi-square values were examined from the adaptation indexes that emerged as a result of the analyses. The value obtained by calculations showed that the model had perfect fit. If $2/Sd < 5$, it is suitable, if $\chi^2/Sd < 3$, it is good, and if $\chi^2/Sd < 2$, it can be said that there is perfect fit. If the $2/Sd$ value is below 2.5 for studies that are not large in terms of sample, it is considered an indication of the perfect fit of the scale (Kline, 2011)

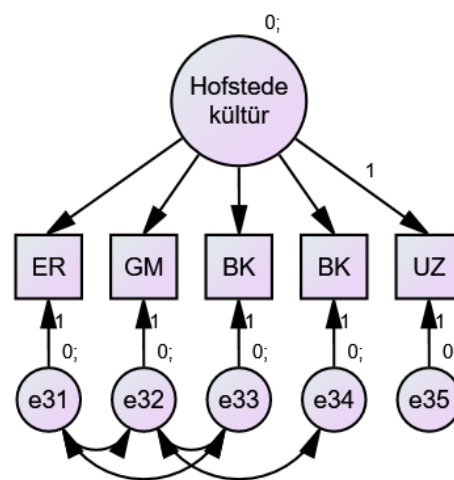


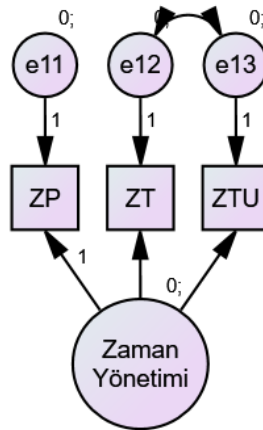
Figure 5. Hofstede culture diagram

Examining the confirmatory factor analysis related to Hofstede's cultural dimensions, it is observed that the culture consists of five sub-dimensions. According to the results of the model summarized in the table below, it can be said that the model meets acceptable fit criteria.

Table 223.*Harmony indices for Hofstede culture scale*

Uyum İndeksleri	Mükemmel Uyum	Kabul Edilebilir Uyum	Kültür
χ^2/df	$,0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2,0$	$2 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 3$	1,794
RMSEA	$,0 \leq RMSEA \leq ,05$	$,05 \leq RMSEA \leq ,08$,035
NFI	$,95 \leq NFI \leq 1,00$	$,90 \leq NFI \leq ,95$,997
RFI	$,90 < RFI \leq 1,00$	$,85 < RFI \leq ,90$,961
IFI	$,95 \leq IFI \leq 1,00$	$,90 \leq IFI \leq ,95$,999
TLI	$,95 \leq TLI \leq 1,00$	$,90 \leq TLI \leq ,95$,982
CFI	$,97 \leq CFI \leq 1,00$	$,95 \leq CFI \leq ,97$,999
PCLOSE	$,05 \leq PCLOSE$,474
HOELTER	>200		1365

Resources: (Munro 2005; Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow and King, 2006; Hooper and Mullen 2008; Schumacker and Lomax, 2010; Wang and Wang, 2012)

**Figure 6.** Time management diagram

Examining the confirmatory factor analysis related to time management, it is observed that time management consists of three sub-dimensions. According to the results of the model summarized in the table below, it can be seen that the model meets acceptable fit criteria.

Table 224.*Compliance indexes for time management scale*

Uyum İndeksleri	Mükemmel Uyum	Kabul Edilebilir Uyum	Zaman Yönetimi
χ^2/df	$,0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2,0$	$2 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 3$	2,624
RMSEA	$,0 \leq RMSEA \leq ,05$	$,05 \leq RMSEA \leq ,08$,071
NFI	$,95 \leq NFI \leq 1,00$	$,90 \leq NFI \leq ,95$,908
RFI	$,90 < RFI \leq 1,00$	$,85 < RFI \leq ,90$,923
IFI	$,95 \leq IFI \leq 1,00$	$,90 \leq IFI \leq ,95$,951
TLI	$,95 \leq TLI \leq 1,00$	$,90 \leq TLI \leq ,95$,944
CFI	$,97 \leq CFI \leq 1,00$	$,95 \leq CFI \leq ,97$,964
PCLOSE	$,05 \leq PCLOSE$,038
HOELTER	>200		202

Table 225.*KMO and Barlett Test Results for perceived stress scale*

Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) Value		0.712
	Chi Square	2181.226
Barlett Sphericity Test	Df	78
	Sig	0,000
Cronbach Alpha		.816

Reviewing the field literature, if the value determined in relation to the size of sample is below 50, the test will not process, it is returned to the beginning. The value identified in the scope of the study is interpreted as excellent if it is over 90 (Çokluk et al., 2010). The KMO value is expected to be greater than 0.6 (Pallant, 2001). Considering the parameters specified above, it can be seen that .712 KMO value above is over the recommended values. In the study, the Barlett Sphericity test value was found significant at .00 level (Chi-square= 2181.2226; df=78; p=.000). These values indicate that factor analysis can be done. Since the Cronbach's Alpha value is .816 for the entire

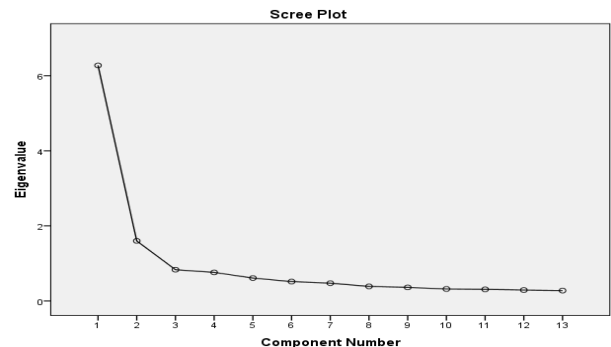
scale, it is possible to say that the reliability of data on the scale is quite high. As a result of the AFA, factors greater than 1 were examined in accordance with the Kaiser-Guttman principle and the scale was collected under 1 factor.

Table 226.

Factor Analysis for Perceived Stress

Component	Total Variance Explained								
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6,275	48,273	48,273	6,275	48,273	48,273	5,025	38,656	38,656
2	1,599	12,302	60,574	1,599	12,302	60,574	2,849	21,919	60,574
3	0,832	6,397	66,971						
4	0,759	5,842	72,813						
5	0,609	4,688	77,501						
6	0,515	3,962	81,463						
7	0,472	3,634	85,097						
8	0,386	2,973	88,069						
9	0,359	2,765	90,834						
10	0,318	2,449	93,284						
11	0,308	2,369	95,653						
12	0,290	2,230	97,882						
13	0,275	2,118	100,000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



In the factor analysis, it is indicated that the scale can exhibit a one-dimensional structure in cases where the variance rate described by the first factor is 30% or higher (Büyüköztürk, 2010). Therefore, in this study, the scale has obtained a one-dimensional structure. DFA is carried out to test the verification of a predetermined structure (Çelik and Yılmaz, 2013). Accordingly, it was determined that the contribution of a specified factor to the total variant is sufficient. The scale's eigenvalue factor chart is given in the table above.

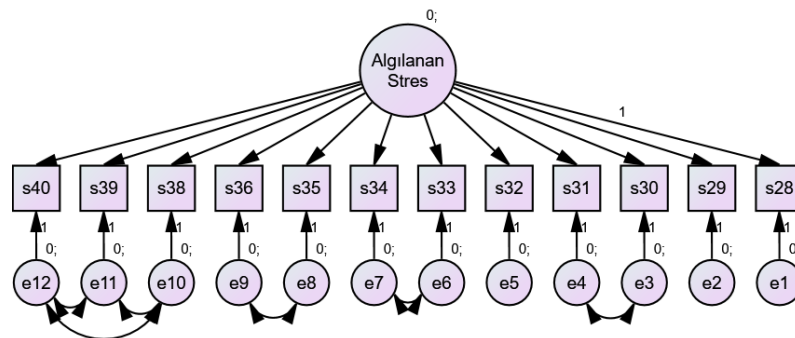


Figure 7. Perceived stress diagram

Examining the confirming factor analysis diagram related to perceived stress, it is seen that the expressions that form perceived stress are collected in one dimension. According to the results of the model summarized in the table below, it can be said that the model meets acceptable fit criteria.

Table 227.

Fit indices for perceived stress scale

Fit indices	Perfect Fit	Acceptable Fit	Perceived Stress
χ^2/df	$.0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2.0$	$2 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 3$	2.815
RMSEA	$.0 \leq RMSEA \leq .05$	$.05 \leq RMSEA \leq .08$.077
NFI	$.95 \leq NFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq NFI \leq .95$.938
RFI	$.90 < RFI \leq 1.00$	$.85 < RFI \leq .90$.900
IFI	$.95 \leq IFI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq IFI \leq .95$.950
TLI	$.95 \leq TLI \leq 1.00$	$.90 \leq TLI \leq .95$.919
CFI	$.97 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$.95 \leq CFI \leq .97$.950
PCLOSE		$.05 \leq PCLOSE$.000
HOELTER		>200	204

Table 228.

KMO and Bartlett Test Results for organizational stress scale

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0,828
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3471,303
	df	136
	Sig.	0,000

It can be seen that .828 KMO value above is over the recommended values. In the study, the Bartlett Sphericity test value was found significant at .00 level (Chi-square= 3471.303; df=136; p=.000). These values indicate that

factor analysis can be done. Since Cronbach's Alpha value of the scale is .813, it is possible to say that the reliability of data on the scale is quite high.

Table 229.

Factor analysis results of organizational stress scale..

Total Variance Explained									
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4,730	27,826	27,826	4,730	27,826	27,826	3,501	20,594	20,594
2	2,717	15,984	43,810	2,717	15,984	43,810	2,479	14,585	35,178
3	1,436	8,444	52,255	1,436	8,444	52,255	2,078	12,224	47,402
4	1,084	6,378	58,633	1,084	6,378	58,633	1,909	11,231	58,633
5	0,970	5,708	64,341						
6	0,955	5,620	69,961						
7	0,752	4,421	74,382						
8	0,614	3,611	77,993						
9	0,599	3,526	81,518						
10	0,560	3,291	84,809						
11	0,491	2,887	87,697						
12	0,469	2,758	90,454						
13	0,380	2,237	92,691						
14	0,367	2,161	94,852						
15	0,338	1,987	96,839						
16	0,294	1,729	98,568						
17	0,243	1,432	100,000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

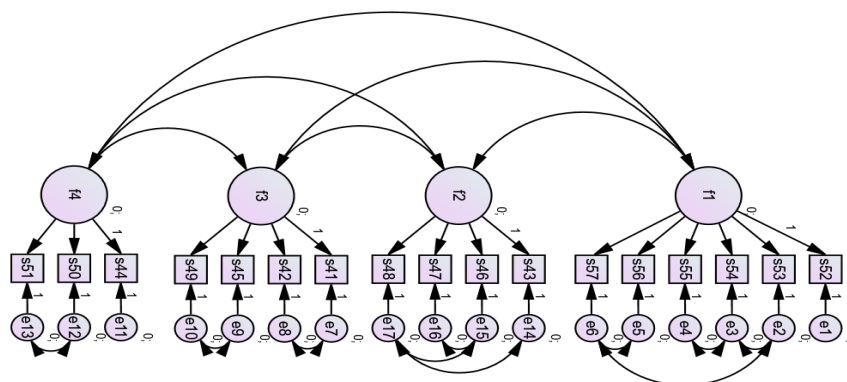
While the original organizational stress scale consists of 3 dimensions, it has been factored in 4 dimensions in the sampling of this thesis study, as can be seen in the total variance table described above.

Table 230.*Factor loads of organizational stress scale*

Rotated Component Matrix ^a				
	Component			
	1	2	3	4
s54	0,827			
s55	0,819			
s57	0,788			
s53	0,750			
s56	0,714			
s52	0,513			0,429
s47		0,793		
s46		0,691		
s43		0,635	0,450	
s48		0,553		
s49			0,761	
s45			0,660	
s42		0,485	0,607	
s41		0,375	0,563	
s51				0,761
s50		0,328		0,728
s44				0,498

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.^a
 a. Rotation converged in 9 iterations.

As shown in the table above, factor loads of all expressions are over 0.50. There are no factors that contain a single expression. In addition, there is no expression that gives the same factor burden under multiple factors.

**Figure 8.** 4-factor diagram of organizational stress scale

Examining the confirmatory factor analysis related to organizational stress, it is observed that organizational stress consists of four sub-dimensions.

According to the results of the model summarized in the table below, it can be said that the model meets acceptable fit criteria.

Table 231.

Fit indices for organizational stress scale

Uyum İndeksleri	Mükemmel Uyum	Kabul Edilebilir Uyum	Örgütsel Stres
χ^2/df	$,0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2,0$	$2 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 3$	2,834
RMSEA	$,0 \leq RMSEA \leq ,05$	$,05 \leq RMSEA \leq ,08$,060
NFI	$,95 \leq NFI \leq 1,00$	$,90 \leq NFI \leq ,95$,901
RFI	$,90 < RFI \leq 1,00$	$,85 < RFI \leq ,90$,853
IFI	$,95 \leq IFI \leq 1,00$	$,90 \leq IFI \leq ,95$,934
TLI	$,95 \leq TLI \leq 1,00$	$,90 \leq TLI \leq ,95$,900
CFI	$,97 \leq CFI \leq 1,00$	$,95 \leq CFI \leq ,97$,932
PCLOSE	$,05 \leq PCLOSE$,022
HOELTER	>200		224

In the literature, studies towards analysing statistical intermediary role have continuously improved from the early stages until today. Discussions primarily focusing on causality and intermediation patterns (Maccorquodale & Meehl, 1948; Baron & Kenny, 1986; MacKinnon et al., 2000) did not include bootstrap-based tests. Together with MacKinnon et al., (2002) and Shrout and Bolger (2002) testing significance of indirect effects in intermediary role test and conducting studies focused on bootstrap-based analyses, use of structural equation model gained current and popularized as an analysis method accounting also for measurement errors (Byrne, 2006). In structural equation modeling, processes are performed by assuming that there are linear relations among latent variables and between observed and latent variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

In the first model (Fig. 9), time management were discussed as dependent, and Hofstede organizational culture scale and subdimensions were considered as independent variables. Thus, the first impact pointed out by Baron and Kenny (1986) were examined.

In the second model (Figure 10), the scale of Hofstede organizational culture was taken as an independent and organizational stress tool variable.

In Table 231, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Relative Fit Index (RFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI) values were examined. NFI is associated with a positive number of samples. NFI, RFI, IFI, TLI and CFI take a value between 0.00-1.00. If model receives an RMSEA value between 0.05 and 0.08, it is assumed to be in an acceptable fit (Şimşek, 2007; Hair et al., 2010).

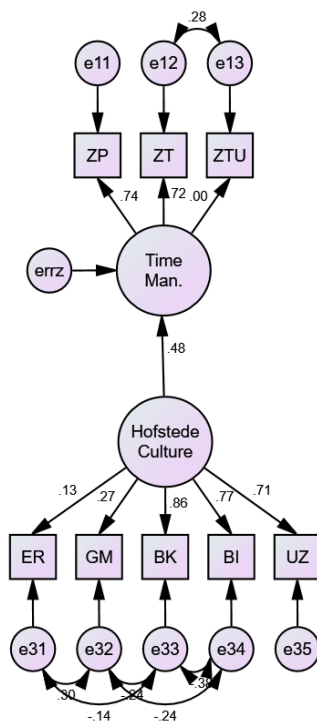


Figure 9. Test results of Model 1

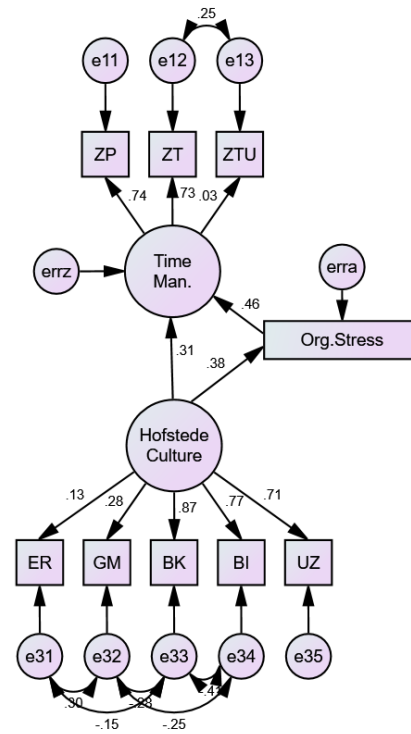


Figure 10. Test results of Model 2

Table 232.*Fit indices of scales*

Criteria	Perfect Fit	Acceptable Fit	Model 1	Model 2
CFI	.970≤CFI≤1.000	.950≤CFI≤.970	.971	.972
HOELTER	≥200	75≤HOELTER≤200	328	363
IFI	.950≤IFI≤ 1.000	.900≤IFI≤.950	.971	.973
NFI	.950≤NFI≤1.000	.900≤ NFI≤.950	.959	.958
PCLOSE	≥0.05		.170	.359
RFI	.900<RFI≤1.000	.850<RFI≤.900	.888	.901
RMSEA	.000≤RMSEA≤.050	.050≤RMSEA≤.080	.061	.053
TLI	.95≤TLI≤1.000	.900≤TLI≤.950	.919	.934
X2/df	.000 ≤ χ^2/df ≤ 2.000	2 ≤ χ^2/df ≤ 5	3.344	2.789

Analysing the table above, it can be said that both models developed in the study provided fit indices, therefore, necessary conditions were met for deciding on mediation effect with structural equation modeling.

Table 233.**Regression Coefficients of Relations between Variables**

Model	Observation variable	Latent variable	Standardized estimated value	Standard error	Critical value	p
Model 1	Time M.	← O. Culture	.477	.056	8.488	.000
Model 2	Organizational S.	← O. Culture	.373	.042	8.894	.000
Model 2	Time M.	← O. Culture	.304	.049	6.184	.000
Model 2	Time M.	← Organizational S	.457	.049	9.381	.000

If effect of independent variable on dependent variable is decreased or completely destroyed, it is concluded that the variable in developed model is an intermediary variable (Baron and Keny, 1986).

Table 234.

Direct and indirect effect analysis results for intermediary role of Model 2

Effects	Time Management	
Direct effect	.457	
Standardized direct effect	.456	Organisational Stress
Indirect effect	.170	
Standardized indirect effect	.172	

Examining Table and Table above, it is possible to mention the partial intermediary role of organizational stress on the effect of organizational culture on time management.

5.2.6. Correlation Analysis

Table 235.

Correlation analysis examining the relationship between perceived stress, organizational stress, time management and Hofstede culture

Dimensions		Perceived Stress	Hofstede culture	Time Management	Organizational Stress
Perceived Stress	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
Hofstede culture	Pearson Correlation	0.027	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.503			
Time Management	Pearson Correlation	.174**	.316**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		
Organizational Stress	Pearson Correlation	0.065	.290**	.425**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.107	0.000	0.000	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Pearson correlation analysis is used to examine the relationship between variables. To mention a statistically significant relationship between the two variables, correlation shifts must be significant ($p < 0.05$). Correlation coefficient show the level of the relationship. As the table above shows, the correlation between Hofstede culture and perceived stress is insignificant; the correlation between time management and perceived stress is significant; the correlation between time management and Hofstede culture is significant; the correlation between organizational stress and perceived stress is insignificant; the correlation between organizational stress and Hofstede culture is significant; and the correlation between organizational stress and time management is also significant. The fact that the correlation coefficient is greater than 0.70 indicates a high level of correlation between variables, thus creating a problem. However, as shown in the table, there are no variables in high correlation with each other. It can be said that the relationship levels are low and moderate.

Consequently;

the H4.1 containing the hypothesis, "There are significant relationships between Hofstede culture and perceived stress," is REJECTED,

the H4.2 containing the hypothesis, "There are significant relationships between Hofstede culture and organizational stress," is ACCEPTED,

the H4.3 containing hypothesis, "There are significant relationships between Hofstede culture and time management," is ACCEPTED,

the H4.4 containing the hypothesis, "There are significant relationships between perceived stress and organizational stress," is REJECTED,

the H4.5 containing the hypothesis, "There are significant relationships between time management and perceived stress," is ACCEPTED,

the H4.6 containing the hypothesis, "There are significant relationships between time management and organization stress," is ACCEPTED.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

6.1. Discussion

In time management process, tools are used such as activity books, motion plans, priority to-do list, personal goal setting, effective programming, and general repetitions that prevent postponing in time management process and facilitate decision making to business priorities (Rivera, 2007). Main factors determining or affecting effective management of organizational time can be listed as determining priorities, planning, effective communication, decision making, transfer of authority, managing time of subordinates, managing parent manager, eliminating interruptions etc. (Toksoy, 2010).

Time is unstoppable and cannot be stored. Naturally, value of time varies depending on its right or wrong use. People know that it is better to use time correctly rather than wasting it and to have control over time while sparing time for activities. People who learn that time vary depending on their use, and are generally aware of the more effective use of time in which cases (Festjens and Janiszewski, 2015). In other words, people are aware that the value of time has changed. Changing value of time as per usage and knowing its importance indicate that there is more need for time management (Juhnke et al., 2013).

Time management is to create the goals necessary to identify needs and meet the identified needs, identify priority jobs, and align with priorities through planning, programming and listing time (Smythe and Robertson, 1999). In short, it refers to certain techniques such as making lists of things to do or planning activities and participation to training towards teaching how to

manage and use various types of techniques to prepare such lists (Claessens et al., 2009). However, some researchers indicate that time has not only a physical dimension but also psychological dimension (Boslough, 1990). Awareness and each psychological situation or point refers to psychological dimension; part of time expressed in the form of hours refers to the physical dimension of time (Passing, 2002). While many organisations work on advanced systems to account for every penny spent, they are not even aware of the value of effective time management (Oshagbemi, 1999). Time management of time is not related to creating more time, it is about ensuring the best use of time we have (Hansen, 2011).

Research on time management, academic achievement (Abdulghani, 2014; Britton and Tesser, 1991; Varışoğlu, Şeref and Yılmaz, 2012) differentiation according to demographic factors such as gender, age (Guoqing and Yongxin, 2000; Hoobler, Wayne and Lemmon, 2009; Küçükaltan et al., 2013), time management in sports students (Juhnke, 2013), business performance (Macan, 1994; Barling et al., 1996), stress and anxiety (Trueman and Hartley, 1996; Misra and McKean, 2000; Mirinda et al., 2000; Nonis and Hudson, 2006) focuses around the headlines.

There are many studies in the literature on research variables. Although the variables are the subject of many researches along with other elements, it was found that the intermediary role of organizational stress in the time management of Hofstede cultural dimensions was not subject to academic studies. Such that, Terzi (2004) revealed the necessity of creating models specific to our own society in both organizational and administrative areas that male and female students differ according to the dimensions of Hofstede Culture. In parallel with such findings, Öncül et al. (2016) have determined significant differences between entrepreneur participants' gender, income status, size of cities they were born, their status in workplace and typologies of the Hofstede organization culture.

In the field literature, Copper (2002) examined anxiety, weak motivation güdülenmand depression attributed to factors related to experience of adverse emotional situations such as frustration, business dissatisfaction,

decreased business commitment, anxiety based on organizational stress; Nel et al. (2004) examined amount of work performance, absence and turnover reducing quality as a result of organizational outcomes of stress; Bellingrath (2009) examined the relationship between chronic work stress, depletion based on organizational stress and allostatic load among women; Boehlko (2009) examined stress based on giving new supervisors new responsibilities, increasing economic concerns, political and managerial pressures, lack of ability to participate in decisions, reward and punishment methods, and failure in being autonomous; Uzun ve Yiğit (2011) examined the results of low wages and long working times; Gökgöz and Altuğ (2014) effects of medium level of organization stress they found among academic staff; Balyer and Gündüz (2014) examined levels of stress experienced by educational inspectors due to their duties; Yamuç and Türker (2015) examined sources of organizational stress; Ayaz and Batı (2017) examined organizational stress and organizational trust relationship; Uğurlu Aldoğan and Aykora (2017) examined organizational stress and time management; Develi, Güğerçin and İplik (2017) examined organizational stress sources and conscious awareness; and Çolak (2017) examined organizational stress and organizational creativity. However, no studies have been found in the literature in which Hofstede Cultural Scale, Time Management and Organizational Stress were examined in the research process.

The findings of this study suggest that organizational stress can contribute to reducing this effect in the influence of Hofstede culture on time management. Therefore, the general proposition put forward in the study confirms the test and the fact that academic and administrative personnel working in universities have an individualistic or collectivist culture, indicating that they are effective in time management. Hofstede allows cultural dimensions to be effective in time management through organizational stress, and that business and project plans are made in a manner that will manage individual, team or department performance taking into account organizational stress elements. It is assessed that this issue will be particularly effective in medical, academic project management and independent supervision.

The acceptance/rejection status of the hypotheses tested, the analysis results are shown en masse in the table below.

Table 236.

Acceptance/rejection status of hypotheses

Hypothesis	Description	Acceptance/Red Status
<i>H.1</i>	In terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities, there are significant differences between time management, perceived stress, organizational stress and Hofstede culture dimensions	<i>Partial Acceptance</i>
H1.1	There are significant differences in the perception of time planning in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Acceptance
H1.2	There are significant differences in the perception of time attitudes in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Rejection
H1.3	There are significant differences in the perception of consuming time in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Rejection
H1.4	There are significant differences in the perception of time management in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Rejection
H1.5	There are significant differences in the perception of insufficient self-sufficiency in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Rejection
H1.6	There are significant differences in the perception of stress/disturbance in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Acceptance
H1.7	There are significant differences in the perception of stress in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Acceptance
H1.8	There are significant differences in the perception of work load in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Acceptance
H1.9	There are significant differences in the perception of control in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Rejection

H1.10	There are significant differences in the perception of social support in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Rejection
H1.11	There are significant differences in the perception of organizational stress in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Rejection
H1.12	There are significant differences in the perception of masculinity in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Acceptance
H1.13	There are significant differences in the perception of power distance in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Rejection
H1.14	There are significant differences in the perception of avoidance of uncertainty in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Rejection
H1.15	There are significant differences in the perception of individualism/collectivism in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Rejection
H1.16	There are significant differences in the perception of long time focus in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Acceptance
H1.17	There are significant differences in the perception of Hofstede culture in terms of Near East and Hakkari Universities.	Acceptance
H2	<i>According to title groups, there are significant differences between the cultural dimensions of Hofstede.</i>	<i>Partial Acceptance</i>
H2.1	There are significant differences in the size of masculinity according to title groups.	Rejection
H2.2	There are significant differences in the size of the power distance compared to title groups	Acceptance
H2.3	There are significant differences in the dimension of avoidance of uncertainty according to title groups.	Acceptance
H2.4	There are significant differences in the dimension of individualism/ collectivism in according to title groups	Acceptance

H2.5	There are significant differences in the dimension of long-time focus according to title groups.	Acceptance
<i>H3</i>	<i>Time management has an mediating role on on individualistic/collective culture and (organizational and perceived) stress.</i>	<i>Acceptance</i>
H3.1	Time management has an effect on individualist/collective culture.	Acceptance
H3.2	Individualist/collective culture has an effect on perceived stress	Acceptance
H3.3	Individualist/collective culture has an effect on organizational stress	Acceptance
H3.4	Time management has an effect on organizational stress.	Acceptance
H3.5	Time management has an effect on perceived stress.	Acceptance
H3.6	Time management has an effect on organizational stress.	Acceptance
H3.7	Time management and individualist/collective culture have an effect on perceived stress.	Acceptance
<i>H4</i>	<i>There are significant relationships between Hofstede culture, perceived stress and organizational stress.</i>	<i>Partial Acceptance</i>
H4.1	There are significant relationships between Hofstede culture and perceived stress.	Rejection
H4.2	There are significant relationships between Hofstede culture and organizational stress.	Acceptance
H4.3	There are significant relationships between Hofstede culture and time management.	Acceptance
H4.4	There are significant relationships between perceived stress and organizational stress.	Rejection
H4.5	There are significant relationships between time management and perceived stress.	Acceptance
H4.6	There are significant relationships between time management and organizational stress.	Acceptance

This research has added a different dimension to the literature by studying Hofstede organizational culture and time management, organizational and perceived stress. Until this thesis study, no studies have been found in which the four elements in question were examined together. In addition, the research is the first to examine the differentiation of the above mentioned variables between Near East and Hakkari Universities and academic and administrative staff.

Because of being open systems, cultures are interacting with the societies they are included. National cultures in which organizations exist have an impact on people involved in these organizations (Leslie and Gelfand, 2012). Of course, it cannot be expected from organizational culture that is a structure consisting of common meanings and symbols shared within itself (Hofstede, 2001; Alvesson, 2013) to avoid getting affected from cultures.

Organizational culture is a historical product, in a sense, affecting interpretations and behaviors (Ying et al., 2014). Employees within the organization, in the process of socializing, are transferred to organizational culture by means of their elements such as story, traditions, symbol and organizational jargon (Güçlü, 2003). Shared values set in an organizational culture also affects internal dynamics and achievements of organizations (Koçel, 2005), and they ensure that organizational culture is considered weak or strong (Robbins, 2000). From this point of view, the organization's culture also carries an organizational learning process (Dauber, Fink, & Yolles, 2012).

Values and norms of an organization refer to how it is emerged in terms of whether it meets individual demands or social demands, how these demands are reflected (Sığrı and Tıǧlu, 2006) and individual's level of integration with groups (Hofstede and Bond, 1988). Societies in which group interests are held in front of individual interests are called collectivist/socialist (Gonzalez and Rima, 2002). Western countries have achieved high individualism scores, while Eastern and Latino countries have shown behavioral tendencies in partnership (Kađıtçibaşı, 2001).

The size of the power range based on inequality in society examines the process of inequality-based conflict (Hofstede, 2010). It tries to determine social power distances by means of examining acceptance of differentiation and distinction between people with different levels of power or expectations of differentiation. Level of societies' acceptance of this inequality differs based on societies. While narrow power distance is seen more in Western countries, wide range distance is seen more in Asian countries. Orders with a wide power distance refers to a power distance containing hierarchically solid lines benefiting from military setup or determinability of military power in general.

Size of masculine/feminine culture is important from expressing the state of relationships between individuals and individuals. In this approach, while generally negative aspects of masculine culture are shown, feminine culture contains positive elements. Gender roles are transferred to every stage of social life through socialization (Hofstede, 2001). In an organization where masculine culture is dominant; passion for ascension, autocratic and oppressive attitudes, importance of competition, ambition of monetization and materialistic tendencies can often be seen (Şekerli and Gerede, 2011). While individuals living in masculine cultures demonstrate a power and success-oriented structure, avoidance of conflict, harmony and synchronization are prioritized in feminine cultures.

The results of the research obtained in the thesis were in line with the related literature.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. Conclusion

In this thesis study, it was concluded that there were statistically significant differences in perception of time planning, perceived stress and Hofstede cultural dimensions between the two universities; there were significant relationships between Hofstede culture and organizational stress, Hofstede culture and time management, between time management and perceived stress, and between time management and organizational stress; and Organizational culture predicted time management and organizational stress of university employees, however, organizational stress predicted statistically and significantly university employees' time management. It was also determined that organizational stress had an intermediary role between university organization culture and university employees' time management. Today, the presence of universities in every province in the Republic of Turkey, the fact that many private universities are operating in industrialized cities such as Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir, and even cities such as Adana, Mersin, Tokat, Trabzon, the presence of our major universities in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus also fuels competition in the field of higher education. This makes the time planning of employees much more important, especially at Foundation universities, and sometimes causes organizational stress. In addition to the large number of courses of the staff at Foundation universities, the necessity of engaging in activities such as the abundance of administrative duties and promotion, requires rigorous time planning in academicians, on the other hand, causing organizational stress.

Strategies that play a proactive and integrated role in adapting to the changes and changes faced by organizations are a dynamic structure developed as a result of certain analyses (Yalcin and Seker, 2016). Therefore, the reflection of social culture on organizational culture should be managed through interactive communication channels (Fang et al., 2011) in organizations formed by coming from different cultures, taking into account that social culture occurs over time with interactive processes defined according to the meanings shared in the organization (Lee et al., 2015).

Culture is one of the most important factors affecting human behavior. In organizational behavior, the effects of culture are also undeniable. Time management is one of the areas where organizational culture has the most pronounced influence. Not every member of culture is the same as the way they perceive time. In some cultures, time is seen as more of a “value to be evaluated”, while in some cultures they consider time as a special value that “needs to be lived”. Western cultures often see time as a very scarce economic “resource” for the acquisition of material values, while in terms of Eastern cultures, time is seen as a value in which cultural and human values are transferred. Taking into account the positive or negative aspects of these two different approaches on time management, the activities of time management can be increased by taking the positive sides. The Western approach to time management (the approach to seeing economic resources at the time) contributes to the development of civilizations in other words, the physical aspects of life. It contributes to the issue of time management and to the development of cultures in the oriental approach. It is that the approach of time perception that will enable the emergence of a rich culture is the most accurate approach, both without abandoning the elements of civilization and culture or without having to make any choices between the two (Tengilimoğlu et al., 2015).

Since people have a long or short-term orientation, they are interested in values that societies attribute to past and future (Hofstede, 2001). Due to different perception of time in Western and Eastern axis societies, differences have also occurred in long or short-term plans and orientations. While Western societies consider time as more linear, planned, standardized and

measurable, time in Eastern societies is evaluated from a traditional perspective that is multidimensional, cyclical and covers the whole life (Hofstede, 2011). While short-term oriented firms expect profit immediately from every activity, long-term oriented firms expect profit as a result of certain processes and after completion of these processes (Roath et al., 2002).

Cultural differences at the individual and social level affect human life, also the presence of different cultures in different organizations emerges as an element that differentiates the way they do business. As a matter of fact, the universities discussed in this study also showed different cultural characteristics.

Managing time well is the most appropriate way of coping with stress (Tutar, 2004). This research was carried out to determine whether the Hofstede culture has an intermediary role in the organizational and perceived stress on the impact of time management. According to the findings, organizational stress plays a partial mediation role in the impact of Hofstede culture on time management. These findings of this study suggest that organizational stress can contribute to reducing this effect in the influence of Hofstede culture on time management. Therefore, the general premise of this study, which is verified as a result of the test, considering the fact that academic and administrative staff working in universities have a culture of individualism or collectivism, shows that these factors are effective in time management. Intermediary role in this effect is organizational stress, and as this effect increases, stress of staff also decreases.

General Assessment of of Demographic Findings

The research survey, which was applied to the group with gender, age and work experience described in the sample section, found a high rate of 0.888 for the entire research for variables such as time management, Hofstede culture dimensions, perceived and organizational stress scale.

Considering the age distribution, it can be seen that a total of 638 participants participated in the survey; 215 (33.7%) of them are 18-30 years old, 291 (45.6%) of them are 31-40 years old, 91 (14.3%) of them are 41-50 years old,

32 (5%) of them are 51-60 years old, 9 (1.4%) of them are 61 years old and older. This number is also the total number of academic and administrative staff of Near East University and Hakkari University who voluntarily participated in the research.

In terms of gender distribution, it is observed that 293 (45.9%) of survey participants are female, and 345 (54.1%) of them are male. It is remarkable that the male employment rate is higher than the employment of women in both universities.

In terms of educational level distributions, it is observed that 249 (39%) of survey participants have received education from verbal fields, 250 (39.2%) of them have received education from science fields, and 139 (21.8%) of them have received education from Maths & Literature fields. Considering the total work experience, it is observed that 336 of survey participants (52.7%) have work experience of 0-10 years, 243 (38.1%) of them have 11-20 years of experience, 47 (7.4%) of them have 21-30 years of experience, and 12 (1.9%) of them have 31 years or more work experience.. In terms of title distributions, it is observed that 27 (4.2%) of survey participants are contracted workers, 278 (43.6%) of them are administrative services workers, 151 (23.7%) of them are Res. Assist./Lecturers, 58 (9.1%) of them are experts, 100 (15.7%) of them are Assist. Assoc. Dr., 15 (2.4%) of them are Assoc.Dr., and 9 (1.4%) of them are Prof. Dr.

Considering in terms of title group distribution, it is observed that 278 (45.9%) of survey participants are administrative personnel, and 360 (54.1%) of them are academic personnel. It is noteworthy that the total percentage of academic staff at both universities is high. Considering in terms of university distribution, it is observed that 269 (45.9%) of survey participants work in Hakkari University, and 369 (54.1%) of them work in Near East University.

Examining cross-tables, gender distribution according to the university is important for this thesis study. It is seen that 68 (23.2%) of participants from Hakkari University are female, and 201 (58.3%) of them are male; 225 (76.8%) of participants from the Near East University are female, and 144

(41.7%) of them are male. From this result, the importance of Near East University to women's employment is clearly understood.

When the title group distributions are examined according to the educational field, 124 (44.6%) of those in verbal field are administrative officers, 125 (34.7%) of them are academic personnel; 95 (34.2%) participants from science fields are administrative officers, 155 (43.1%) of them are academic officers; of the participants from maths & literature field, 59 (21.2%) of them are administrative officers, and 80 (22.2%) of them were academic staff. The distribution of universities according to the title group is as follows. Examining title group results as per university, it is seen that 149 (55.4%) of administrative staff are in Hakkari University, 129 (35%) of them are in Near East University; 120 (44.6%) of academic staff work at Hakkari University, and 240 (65%) of them work at Near East University. This result can also be interpreted as the fact that the Near East University gives importance to the employment of academic staff.

It can be said that the state universities experience staff bloating in terms of administrative personnel. Title group distribution by total work experience are as follows: It can be seen that 143 participants with a total work experience of 0-10 years (51.4%) work in administrative departments, 193 of them work as academicians; 116 participants with 11-20 years of experience (53.6%) work in administrative departments, and 127 of them (35.3%) work as academicians; 17 participants with 21-30 years of experience (6.1%) work in administrative departments, and 30 of them (8.3%) work as academicians; 31 participants with a total work experience of 31 years and higher (0.7%) work in administrative departments, and 10 of them (2.8%) work in Near East University. Total work experience is rare for the 31 years and higher age group in both universities.

General Assessment for Descriptive Statistics

Control as per gender, t-test results

There were no significant differences between time planning ($p=.421$) and time attitudes ($p=.060$) by gender. While the arithmetic mean of women (3,5183) was high in time planning, it was found that men's arithmetic mean (3,3101) was higher in time attitudes (Table 152,153). The high arithmetic mean of women in time planning means that women working in universities are more sensitive to men in time planning. In time attitudes, the fact that men's arithmetic mean is higher than the arithmetic mean of women, because their time attitudes are related to what one does to time management, it means that men are focused on how to use time management rather than planning.

Examining significant differences between factors among time-consuming elements as per gender, significant differences were found ($p=.004$ $p<.05$). The arithmetic mean of men (2,792) was found to be higher than the arithmetic mean of women (2,6418) (Table 154).

Significant differences ($p=.070$) by gender could not be determined when significant differences in time management were investigated in general. However, it was found that the arithmetic mean of men (3.1938) was higher than the arithmetic mean of women (3,1317) (Table 155).

When the perception of inadequate self-suffice by gender was examined, there were no significant differences found between insufficient perception of self-suffice ($p=.391$), stress/discomfort perception ($p=.868$), perceived stress ($p=.663$), workload ($p=.967$), control meaning ($p=.384$), social support ($p=.132$) and organizational stress ($p=.719$). It was determined that arithmetic mean of men was higher in inadequate perception of self-sufficiency (2.3706); arithmetic mean of women was higher in perception of stress/discomfort (2.7117); arithmetic mean of men was higher in perceived stress (2.5364); arithmetic mean of women was higher in workload (3.3220); arithmetic mean of men was higher in control (3,6145); arithmetic mean of women was higher in social support (4.0599); arithmetic mean of women was higher in organizational stress (3.6495) (Table 156- 162).

Gender t test results according to Hofstede organizational culture dimensions

In masculinity which is one of the sub-dimensions of Hofstede organizational culture, significant differences were found according to gender ($p=.000$ $p<.05$). The arithmetic mean of men (2.6519) is higher than the arithmetic mean of women (1.9883) (Table 163).

In power distance which is one of the sub-dimensions of Hofstede organizational culture, significant differences were found in terms of gender ($p=.036$ $p<.05$). The arithmetic mean of men (2.7657) is higher than the arithmetic mean of women (2.628) (Table 164). This result reminds us of the fact that both universities are more prone to masculine values than the male population.

There were no significant differences in gender categories in avoiding uncertainty, individualism and long-term focus on the lower dimensions of Hofstede organizational culture ($p=.91$). It was determined that women had high arithmetic mean in avoiding uncertainty (3,8547), men had high arithmetic mean in individualism (3,7568), and men had high arithmetic mean (3,8377) (Table 165,166,167).

In general, significant differences ($p=.000$) of Hofstede culture were found according to gender. It was determined that arithmetic mean of men (3.3708) was found to be higher than the arithmetic mean of women (3.1746).

Organizational stress and perceived stress by sex, t-test results

examining significant differences in organizational stress according to gender, significant differences were not detected ($p=.591$). Examining significant differences in terms of perceived stress as per university, significant differences were found as per gender ($p=.023$ $p<.05$). It is seen that the arithmetic mean of men (2.6071) is higher than the arithmetic mean of women (2.4793) (Table 173, 174). The low arithmetic mean of women is attributed to the fact that men are more exposed to perceived stress compared to women, and that the 2016 coup conjuncture is also thought to be an effective factor.

Time planning by university, t-test results

Examining significant differences in terms of time planning as per university, significant differences were found as per university ($p=.015$ $p<.05$). It is observed that the arithmetic mean of the foundation university is 3.5516, and that the arithmetic mean of Hakkari University is 3.4147 (Table 175). According to these results, H1.1 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of time planning perception” is accepted. The arithmetic mean of Hakkari University is expected to be lower than the foundation university’s mean. Because of the structure of foundation universities, the much more effective planning of time is inevitable in terms of both profitability and student satisfaction.

Significant differences were not observed between time attitudes by university ($p=.890$ $p>.05$), time-consuming ($p=.054$ and $p>.05$), time management ($p=.784$ and $p>.05$) and inadequate self-sufficiency ($p=.065$ and $p>.05$). Therefore, H1.2, H1.3, H1.4 and H1.5 hypotheses that offer recommendations on these dimensions are also accepted as rejection (Table 176-179).

Examining significant differences in terms of stress/discomfort perception as per university, significant differences were found as per university ($p=.016$ $p<.05$). Examining the table, it is seen that Near East University has an arithmetic mean of 2.765, and Hakkari University has an arithmetic mean of 2.6259. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are lower than those of Near East University. Therefore, H1.6 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of stress/discomfort perception” is accepted. This result is a sign that Near East University is not as flexible in terms of perception of stress and discomfort as Hakkari University (Table 180).

Examining significant differences in terms of perceived stress as per university, significant differences were found as per university ($p=.022$ $p<.05$). Examining the table, it is seen that Near East University has an arithmetic mean of 2.5794, and Hakkari University has an arithmetic mean of

2.4502. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are lower than those of Near East University. Therefore, H1.7 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of perceived stress” is accepted (Table 181).

Examining significant differences in work load by university, significant differences were found according to university ($p=.001$ $p<.05$). Therefore, it was determined that H1.8 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of work load perception” is accepted (Table 182). It is understood that the workload of Near East University is greater than Hakkari University.

The hypotheses that offer H1.9, H1.10, H1.11 propositions related to these dimensions were also rejected because significant differences in control by university ($p=.964$, $p>.05$), significant differences in social support ($p=.523$, $p>.05$), organizational stress significant differences ($p=.083$ and $p>.05$) were not detected when examined (Table 183-185).

Considering the results of significant differences of masculine/feminine according to the university, significant differences were not found ($p=.000$ $p<.05$). According to results, the arithmetic mean of Near East University was found to be 2.0202, and the arithmetic mean of Hakkari University was found to be 2.7989. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are higher than those of Near East University. Therefore, H1.12 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of masculinity” is accepted (Table 186).

Examining significant differences according to power distance categories by university ($p=.909$ and $p>.05$), significant differences in avoidance of uncertainty ($p=.562$ and $p>.05$), significant differences in individualism ($p=.563$ and $p>.05$), no significant differences were found with reference to all three dimensions. Therefore, hypotheses representing H1.13, H1.14, and H1.15 were considered as rejections (Table 187-189).

Examining significant differences in terms of long-time focus as per university, significant differences were found ($p=.0,030$ $p<.05$). Examining arithmetic means, it is seen that Near East University had an arithmetic mean of 3.7439, and Hakkari University had an arithmetic mean of 3.8742. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are higher than those of Near East University. Therefore, H1.16 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of long-time focus” is accepted (Table 190).

In general, examining the university significant differences according to Hofstede culture, significant differences were found at ($p=.000$ $p<.05$) level. Examining the table, it is seen that Near East University has an arithmetic mean of 3.202, and Hakkari University has an arithmetic mean of 3.3897. Comparing arithmetic means, it was determined that Hakkari University arithmetic means are higher than those of Near East University. Therefore, H1.17 hypothesis that “there are significant differences between Near East and Hakkari Universities in terms of Hofstede culture” is accepted (Table 191). From these examinations, it was concluded the fact that the Hakkari University further reflects the dimension of Hofstede culture. This result is not surprising in terms of the subject of the thesis research. In general, Hakkari University can be said to have a higher sense of culture in Hofstede than Near East University.

Examining significant differences in terms of administrative/academic personnel as per university, significant differences were found as per university ($p=.000$ $p<.05$). Considering arithmetic means, it was determined that Near East University had an arithmetic mean of 1.6504, and Hakkari University had an arithmetic mean of 1.4461. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are lower than those of Near East University (Table 192).

Organizational and their perceived stress by university, t-test results

Examining significant differences in organizational stress by university, no significant differences were found ($p=.556$ and $p>.05$) (Table 197). Examining significant differences in terms of perceived stress by university, significant

differences were found ($p=.010$ $p<.05$). Examining arithmetic means, it is seen that Near East University had an arithmetic mean of 2.487, and Hakkari University had an arithmetic mean of 2.6322. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that Hakkari University arithmetic means are higher than those of Near East University (Table 198). Greater perception of perceived stress at Hakkari University has been consistent with both the nationwide coup conjuncture covering 2016 and 2017 and the style of authoritarian governance at the university.

T-test results as per title group

Examining significant differences in organizational stress by title group, significant differences were not found in this category ($p=0.287$ and $p>.05$). Therefore, the H2.1 hypothesis that “there are significant differences in masculinity dimension according to the title group”, is rejected (Table 199).

Examining significant differences in power distance as per title group, significant differences were found in this dimension ($p=0$, $p<.05$). Examining the table, it can be seen that academic staff’s arithmetic mean is 2.5807, and administrative staff’s arithmetic mean is 2.8645. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic means of academic staff are lower than those of administrative personnel. Therefore, the H2.2 hypothesis that “there are significant differences in power distance dimension according to the title group”, is accepted (Table 200). Considering avoiding uncertainty dimension, significant differences were found according to title group ($p=0$ $p<.05$). Therefore, the H2.3 hypothesis that “there are significant differences in avoiding uncertainty dimension according to the title group”, is accepted (Table 201).

Examining significant differences in individualism by title group, significant differences were not found in this category ($p=0.001$ and $p>.05$). When the arithmetic means are examined, it can be seen that academic staff’s arithmetic mean is 3.8132, and administrative staff’s arithmetic mean is 3.6071. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative personnel. Therefore, it was determined that the H2.4 hypothesis that “there are significant

differences in avoiding individualism/collectivism according to the title group” is accepted (Table 202).

Long-time focus; examining significant differences by title group, significant differences were found according to title group ($p=0.002$ $p<.05$). When the arithmetic means are examined, it can be seen that academic staff's arithmetic mean is 3.8801, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is 3.6917. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative personnel. Therefore, it is determined that the H2.5 hypothesis that “there are significant differences in long-time focus dimension according to the title group”, is accepted (203).

Organizational and perceived stress by title, t-test results

Examining significant differences in organizational stress by title group, significant differences were not found according this group ($p=0.398$ and $p>.05$). Perceived stress did not make a significant difference in value ranges ($p=0.585$ and $p>.05$) (Table 208, 209).

Time dimensions by title group, t-test results

Examining significant differences in time planning by title group, significant differences were found ($p=0$, $p<.05$). When the table (210) is examined, it was found that academic staff's arithmetic mean is 3.6486, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is 3.2896. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative to be. It is a known fact that academic staff use time more planned in all their work. The planned use of time is in the nature of the academic world while climbing on the academic career ladder. Therefore, the arithmetic mean of administrative personnel can be explained by the nature of the work that is lower than that of academic staff.

When significant differences in time attitudes were investigated by title group, significant differences were determined in this size ($p=0.001$, $p<.05$) (Table 211). Examining significant differences in time-consuming by title group,

significant differences were not found in time-consuming according title group categories ($p=0.303$ and $p>.05$) (Table 212).

When the perception of inadequate self-sufficiency is examined by title group, significant differences were not found ($p=0.415$ and $p>.05$) (Table 214). Again, examining significant differences between stress/discomfort perception as per title group ($p=0.612$ and $p>.05$), no significant differences were found (Table 215). Examining significant differences in perceived stress by title group, significant differences were not found ($p=0.847$ and $p>.05$) (Table 216).

Examining significant differences in work load as per title group, significant differences were found in this dimension ($p=0$, $p<.05$). Examining the table, it was determined that academic staff's arithmetic mean is 3.3983, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is 3.2186. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative personnel. According to this result, the workload of academic staff in both types of universities shows that the workload is high. It is a well-known fact that academicians carry out both course loads, academic studies and administrative activities together.

Examining significant differences in control dimension as per title group, significant differences were found as per this category ($p=0$, $p<.05$). When the table is examined, it was determined that academic staff's arithmetic mean is 3.7265, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is 3.4152. Comparing arithmetic means, it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative personnel (Table 218). Examining significant differences in social support by title group, significant differences were not found in social support categories at ($p=0.07$ and $p>.05$) level (Table 219).

Organizational stress; examining significant differences by title group, significant differences were found according to title group ($p=0$ $p<.05$). When the table is examined, academic staff's arithmetic mean is 3.7277, and administrative staff's arithmetic mean is 3.528. Comparing arithmetic means,

it can be seen that arithmetic mean of academic staff is higher than that of administrative personnel. From here, the fact that academic staff experience more organizational stress than the administrative staff. Examining significant differences in culture as per task title, significant differences were not found in culture dimension ($p=0.078$ and $p>.05$) (Table 221).

Analysis of mediating role via structural equation model

Chi-Square Goodness, RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation), GFI (Goodness Of Fit Index), AGFI (Adjusted Goodness Of Fit Index), RMR (Root Mean Square Residual), SRMR (Standardized RMR), CFI (Comparative Fit Index), NFI (Normed Fit Index), RFI (Relative Fit Index), IFI (Incremental Fit Index) fit indices were applied for the DFA in this thesis dissertation. To determine whether the structure of scale complies with the theoretical structure, the degree of freedom and chi-square values were examined from the adaptation indexes that emerged as a result of the analyses. The value obtained by calculations showed that the model had perfect fit. If $2/Sd < 5$, it is suitable, if $\chi^2/Sd < 3$, it is good, and if $\chi^2/Sd < 2$, it can be said that there is perfect fit. If the $2/Sd$ value is below 2.5 for studies that are not large in terms of sample, it is considered an indication of the perfect fit of the scale (Kline, 2011)

Examining the confirmatory factor analysis related to Hofstede's cultural dimensions, it is observed that the culture consists of five sub-dimensions. According to the results of the model summarized in Table 228, it can be seen that the model provided perfect fit criteria.

Correlation Analysis

Pearson correlation analysis is used to examine the relationship between variables. To mention a statistically significant relationship between the two variables, correlation shifts must be significant ($p < 0.05$). Correlation coefficient show the level of the relationship. As can be seen in Table 235, the shows, the correlation between Hofstede culture and perceived stress is insignificant; the correlation between time management and perceived stress is significant; the correlation between time management and Hofstede culture

is significant; the correlation between organizational stress and perceived stress is insignificant; the correlation between organizational stress and Hofstede culture is significant; and the correlation between organizational stress and time management is also significant. The fact that the correlation coefficient is greater than 0.70 indicates a high level of correlation between variables, thus creating a problem.

KMO and Barlett t Test Results for organizational stress scale

It can be seen that .828 KMO value seen in Table 228 is over the recommended values. In the study, the Barlett Sphericity test value was found significant at .00 level (Chi-square= 3471.303; df=136; p=.000). These values have revealed that factor analysis can be done. Since Cronbach's Alpha value of the scale is .813, it is possible to say that the reliability of data on the scale is quite high.

7.2 Recommendations

7.2.1 Recommendations for Future Research

This research was conducted only on a working group of university employees who worked at Near East University and Hakkari University in Cyprus and volunteered for the research. Therefore, it will be useful to test validation and reliability analyses on the data obtained from different sample groups. It should not be kept out of sight that our scale is based on the dimensions of Hofstede culture. Apart from the university environment, academic contributions to the measuring power of the model may be needed.

Similar to our research, researchers will make great contributions to the writing, which includes many different variables, such as the level of success that will enable the effect of cultural mediators, such as the psychological capital, motivation and burnout levels of employees, job satisfaction, self-sufficiency, cognitive and sensory characteristics, emotional or organizational intelligence, internal control focuses, multicultural education practices, addictions, non-functional attitudes, corporate culture, interaction with stakeholders.

The quantitative nature of the research will also pave the way for qualitative research on culture and performance. Given that our research model cannot be applied as standard in every institution and should be designed according to that institution, the necessity of qualitative studies in the harmonization phases will be further understood.

It will contribute greatly to the field literature taking comparative evaluation of management and leadership styles based on specific performance indicators such as the role of organizations that have achieved success in the fields of activity, the role of culture in management styles, how cooperation between human resources and stakeholders that achieve success, and how leadership styles arise in success.

7.2.2 Recommendations for Practitioners

Strategies that play a proactive and integrated role in adapting to the changes and changes faced by organizations are a dynamic structure developed as a result of certain analyses (Yalçın and Seker, 2016). Therefore, the reflection of social culture on organizational culture should be managed through interactive communication channels (Fang et al., 2011) in organizations formed by coming from different cultures, taking into account that social culture occurs over time with interactive processes defined according to the meanings shared in the organization (Lee et al., 2015).

It is important that managers approach the organizational problems they face while performing their management functions from a point of view of “organizational behavior” (Bayram, 2017; Şeker et al., 2019). This will also provide a cornerstone of the strategies and policies they will develop in order to ensure the continuity of the organization according to today's competitive conditions.

Mechanisms should be developed to enable educators with a lot of internal control and personal creativity to take the initiative against restrictions and negativity (Cayirdag, 2017). Leaving the authority of the administrator to other business people at the university is a respect, and trust expression for those who work at the same time supporting group processes and

collaborations. Thus, the university's current leadership capacity will be improved (Chamberland, 2009).

Political and legal mechanisms should be developed and encouraged in universities in educational and educational activities. By taking advantage of the expertise and capabilities of academicians, it will be even stronger with joint decisions taken as a result of strategic alliances through effective and functional communication channels with business stakeholders involved in the process of problem solving problems with functional teams. In this way, the burdens arising from administrative activities of managers who are authorized and responsible in the institutional and formal sense will be reduced.

Practitioners should develop practices that reduce the level of work plan and organizational stress, without keeping out the mind of how cultural values affect behavior and why individuals in a culture behave in a certain way.

REFERENCES

- A. R. Gurung, and John A. Updegraff (2000); Biobehavioral Responses to Stress in Females: Tend-and Befriend, Not Fight-or-Flight, *Psychological Review*, Vol. 107, No. 3, 411-429,
- A.O. Engin M. Calapođlu S. Gurbüzođlu, (2008), "Uzun Süreli Bellek ve Öđrenme" *Kafkas Üniversitesi SBED, (Journal of the Institute of Social Sciences) c. s. 2:*
- Abdulghani, H. M., Al-Drees, A.A., Khalil, M.S., Ahmad, F., Ponnamp-Peruma, G.G., Amin, Z. (2014). What Factors Determine Academic Achievement In High Achieving Undergraduate Medical Students? A Qualitative Study. *Medical Teacher*, 36 (1): 43-48.
- Adler, N.J. (1991). *International Dimensions of Organizational Behavior*.USA, PWS-Kent Publishing.
- Akatay, A, N. Yelkikalan, 2008. *Yönetim Bilimleri Journal (Journal of Administrative Sciences) c.6.s.1.*
- Akçakaya, M. (2010). Örgütlerde uygulanan personel güçlendirme yöntemleri: Türk kamu yönetiminde personel güçlendirme." *Karadeniz Araştırmaları.*
- Alay S. (2000). Relationship Between Time Management and Academic Achievement of Selected University Students, *Orta Dođu Teknik Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Ankara, 11-70.*
- Altun S. (2011). Başarılı İlköđretim Okulu Müdürlerinin Zaman Yönetimi Stratejileri, *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi*, 498-506.
- Alay, S. and Koçak, S., (2002). Validity and reliability of time management questionnaire. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Journal*, 22, 9–13.

- Allan, J. (1999), Takımınızın Yeteneklerini Geliştirmede, Zaman Yönetimi, çev. Yrd. Doç. Dr. Mehmet Zaman. Hayat Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Abdel-Halim, A.A. (1978). Employee Affective Responses to Organizational Stress: Moderating Effects of Job Characteristic, Personnel Psychology, 1, 561-579.
- Alpertonga, H., Ünsar, A.S., Koldere Akın, Y. (2016). Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Yüksekokulu Öğrencilerinin Kaygı ve Stres Düzeylerinin Belirlenmesine Yönelik Bir Alan araştırması. Selçuk Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Sosyal Ekonomik Araştırmalar Journal (The Journal of Social Economic Research) ISSN: 2148 – 3043 / Ekim 2016 / Yıl: 16 / Issue: 32
- Altıntaş, E. (2014). Stres Yönetimi.2.bs. Ankara: Anı Publishing.
- Alves, M.G.M; Dora Chor, Eduardo Faerstein; Claudia S. Lopes ve G.L. Werneck (2004), "Short Version of the Job Stres Scale: A Portuguese-Language Adaptation", Rev Saude Publica, 38 (2): 1-7.
- Alvesson, M. (2013). Understanding organizational culture. London, UK: Sage.
- Ardıç, C. (2011). Zaman Yönetimi ve zaman Yönetiminde Dönüştürücü Liderlerin Davranışlarını Belirlemeye Yönelik Bir Araştırma. Postgraduate Thesis. Gazi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Fakültesi. Ankara.
- Atkinson, J. (1997). Zaman Yönetimi Sanatı. çev. Cem S. İslam. İstanbul: Nehir Publishing.13
- Atkinson, J. (2007). Zamanı Yönetme Sanatı, Çev. Cem S. İslam, Nehir Publishing, İstanbul.
- Atkinson, R.L., Atkinson, R.C., Smith, E.E. & Hilgard, E.R. (1987). Introduction to psychology. (9th ed.). NY: Hartcourt Brace Javanovich.

- Ay, C. (2005). İşletmelerde Etiksel Karar Almada Kültürün Rolü. Yönetim ve Ekonomi Volume:12 Say :2 Celal Bayar Üniversitesi. İ.B.F. Manisa.
- Ayaz, N., Batı., T. (2017). The Relationship between Organizational Trust and Stress in Tourism Enterprises: The Case of Kitchen Department Employees, Journal of Business Research Turk, 9/1, 527-541.
- Aydın, Ş. (2004). Otel İşletmelerinde Örgütsel Stres Faktörleri: 4-5 Yıldızlı Otel İşletmeleri Uygulaması, Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Journal, 6(4), 1-21.
- Aydın, İ. (2008). İş Yaşamında Stres. Ankara: Pegem Akademi. ISBN 9.756.802.111
- Aytaç, S. (2002). İşyerindeki kronik stres kaynakları. Hürriyet Gazetesi. June 17, 2002- 10.55
- Ayten, A. M. (2016). Yükseköğretim kurumlarında stratejik sürdürülebilir alan yönetimi. Yükseköğretim Journal, 6(3), 142–154.
- Başak, T., Uzun, Ş. ve Arslan, F. (2008). Hemşirelik Yüksek Okulu Öğrencilerinin Zaman Yönetimi Becerileri, TAF Preventive Medicine Bulletin, 7(5), 429-434.
- Britton B., Tesser A. (1991), Effects of Time Management Practices on College Grades, Journal of Educational Psychology
- Bahar, E. (2011). İşletme Yönetimi, Beta Publishing, İstanbul
- Balcı A. (1990). Zaman Yönetimi, Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Journal,92-102.
- Balçık, B. (2002). İşletme Yönetimi (3. Baskı), Nobel Publishing, İstanbul
- Baltaş, Z., Baltaş. A. (2011). Stres ve Başa Çıkma Yolları.27.bs. İstanbul: Remzi Publishing.

- Balyer, A., Gündüz, Y. (2014). Examining Education Supervisors' Stress Level, They Experience Due to Their Duties. *Education and Science*, 39(174), 325-337.
- Barling, J., Kelloway, E. Kelloway and Cheung, Dominic (1996). Time Management and Achievement Striving Interact to Preriedict Car Sales Performance, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(6), 821-826.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator– mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 1173–1182.
- Baytok. A. (2006). Hizmet işletmelerinde örgüt kültürünün Oluşturulmasında liderin rolü. Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü. İşletme Anabilim Dalı, Doctoral Thesis.
- Beesdo K, Pine DS, Lieb R, Wittchen H.U. (2010). Incidence and Risk Patterns Of Anxiety And Depressive Disorders And Categorization Of Generalized Anxiety Disorder. *Archives Of General Psychiatry*, 67(1), 47-57.
- Behar, M.E., Kaminski M, Peigne E, Vaichere E, Gozlan C, Azoulay S, Giorgi M. (1990). Stress at work and mental health status among female hospital workers, *Br J Ind Med*, 47: 20-28.
- Bellingrath, S., Weigl, T.K., Brigitte, K. (2009). Chronic work stress and exhaustion is associated with higher allostatic load in female school teachers, *Stress*, 12(1), January, 37-48(12).
- Bentley, T. (2003), *Takımınızın yeteneklerini geliştirmede İnsanları Motive Etme*, Hayat Publishing, İstanbul
- Berger, P. L. and Wuthnow, R. J. (2002). *Toplumbilim Teoloji ve Bilgi Sosyolojisi, Din ve Modernlik İçinde*, (Der. ve çev. Adil Çiftçi) Ankara: Ankara Okulu Publishing,

- Bhagat, R.S., Krishnan, B., Nelson, T.A., Leonard, K.M., Ford, D.L. ve Billing, T.K. (2010) Organizational stress, psychological strain, and work outcomes in six national contexts A closer look at the moderating influences of coping styles and decision latitude, *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal* Vol. 17 No. 1, 2010 pp. 10-29.
- Bilgiç, R. (2008). İş Özellikleri Kuramı: Geniş Kapsamlı Gözden Geçirme. *Türk Psikoloji Yazıları*, Volume.11. Issue.22
- Boehlko, J. (2009). What Are Causes of Stres? *Journal of Physiology*, 45(2), 1-12.
- Boslough, J. (1990). Zaman, *National Geographic*, (Der. F. Mefkure Ekici, 1999).
- Braham, B. (2002). Ateş Altında sakin kalabilmek/Stres Yönetimi.Çev. Vedat G. Diker.İstanbul: Hayat Publishing.
- Britton, B. K. ve A. Tesser. (1991), "Effects of Time Management Practices on College Grades", *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83 (3): 405-410.
- Britton, B.K. and Tesser, A., (1991). Effects of time management practices on College grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83, 405–410.
- Bucak, E.B (2002). Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesinde Örgüt İklimi: Yönetimde Ast –Üst ilişkileri. *Muğla Üniversitesi. SBE Journal* Bahar. Issue. 7
- Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2011). *Sosyal Bilimler İçin Veri Analizi El Kitabı*. Ankara: Pegem Akademi
- By McKee, A. and Wiens, K. (2017). Stress Prevent Burnout by Making Compassion an Habit. Copyright Harvard Business Review. School Publishing Corporation.Article. May 11.

- Byrne, B. M. (2006). Structural equation modeling with EQS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Brouillette, J.R. ve Quarantelli, E.L. (1971). Types of Patterned Variation in Bureaucratic Adaptations to Organizational Stress, Sociological Inquiry 41 (Winter): 39-46.
- Can, N. (2005). Öğretmenin Sınıfta Zaman Yönetimi Davranışları. XIV. Eğitim Bilimleri Kongresi Kongre Kitabı. Volume 1, Denizli: Pamukkale Üniversitesi.
- Camkurt, M. Z. (2007). İşyeri Çalışma Sistemi ve İşyeri Fiziksel Faktörlerinin İş Kazaları Üzerindeki Etkisi. TÜHİS İş Hukuku ve İktisat Journal, Volume.20, Issue.6. 80-106.
- Can, H. (2002). Organizasyon ve Yönetim. Ankara: Siyasal Publishing
- Cartwright, S., Cooper, C.L. (1997) Managing Workplace Stress. USA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Cherrington, D.J. (1994). Organisational Behavior, The Management Individual and Organisational Performance. Boston: Allyn and Bacon Inc.
- Chu, R., Chao, L. (2011). Managing Stress and Maintaining Weil-Being: Social Support, Problem-Focused Coping, and Avoidant Coping. Journal of Counseling & Development. Volume 89
- Claessens, B., Roe, R. & Rutte, C. (2009). Time management: Logic, effectiveness and challenges. In Time in Organizational Research, New York: Routledge. 23-41.
- Claessens, J.C.B., van Eerde W., Rutte, G.C., Roe, A. R. (2007), A Review of the Time Management Literature, Journal of Personnel Review, Vol. 36, No:2.

- Clark, M.A., Jesse, S., Michel, R., Early, B.J., Baltes, B. (2014). Strategies for Coping with Work Stressors and Family Stressors: Scale Development and Validation. New York: Springer Science, Business Media. DOI 10.1007/s10869-014-9356-7
- Clayton, S. (2000). Takımınızın Yeteneklerini geliştirmede Yönetim, Çev: Mehmet Zaman, Hayat Publishing, İstanbul
- Cohen, S., Kamarck, T., Mermelstein, R. (1983), A global measure of perceived stress, Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 24: 385-396.
- Copper, C.L. (2002) Psychosocial stress and cancer. Chishester; John Wiley and Sons,
- Cufta, M. (2016). Stres ve Dini İnanç, İlahiyat Fakültesi Journal, Yıl:3, Issue:5
- Çelik, V. (2004). Örgütsel hikâyeler ve okul kültürünün analizi. XIII. Ulusal Eğitim Bilimleri Kurultayı. July, 6-9 2004 İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi, Malatya.
- Drabek, T.E. ve Haas, J.E. (1969) Laboratory Simulation of Organizational Stress, American Sociological Review, Vol. 34, No. 2 (Apr., 1969), pp. 223-238.
- Demirtaş, H., Özer, N. (2007). Öğretmen Adaylarının Zaman Yönetimi Becerileri ile Akademik Başarıları Arasındaki İlişkisi, Eğitimde Politika Analizleri ve Stratejik Araştırmalar Journal.
- Dinçay H. (2010). Seçilmiş Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Zaman Yönetimi Becerileri ve Fiziksel Aktivite Düzeyleri Arasındaki İlişki, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Ankara, 42- 48.
- Dalkıran, E. (2014). Zaman Yönetiminin Hemşireleri İş Verimine Etkisi, (Yayımlanmış Postgraduate Thesis) Beykent Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Fakültesi, İstanbul.

- Daşdağ, F. E. (2017). Görsel iletişimin tarihi, kültürel ve estetik nesnesi olan Diyarbakır surları ve sembolik motifleri. Dicle Üniversitesi Mühendislik Journal. Volume: 8, Issue.2, 3-9 Mayıs (Özel Issue).
- Develi, A., Güğçerçin, S., İplik, E. (2017). Mindfulness and Source of Organizational Stress: The Case of Banking Personnel, Social Sciences Studies Journal, 3(5), 44-51.
- Demirhan, Habip.2017. Etkin Bir Mali Yönetim Aracı Olarak Kamuda Hesap Verme Sorumluluğu ve Kültür İlişkisi: Türkiye Açısından Bir Analiz. Doctoral Thesis.Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Maliye Anabilim Dalı Maliye Programı. İzmir.
- Doğan, A., Demir, R., Türkmen, E. (2016). Rol Belirsizliğinin, Rol Çatışmasının ve Sosyal Desteğin Tükenmişliğe Etkisi: Devlet ve Vakıf Üniversitelerinde Çalışan Akademik Personelin Tükenmişlik Düzeylerinin Karşılaştırılması. Atatürk Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Journal, Volume: 30. Issue:1.
- Doğan, E. (2014). Siyasal reklamlarda Hofstede'nin kültürel boyutlarının kullanımı:2014 Türkiye Cumhurbaşkanlığı seçimi. İstanbul Üniversitesi İletişim Fakültesi Journal, 2015/1 48 39-65.
- Doğan, S., Demiral, Ö. (2009). Örgütsel Bağlılığın Sağlanmasında Personel Güçlendirme ve Psikolojik Sözleşmenin Etkisine İlişkin Bir Araştırma. Erciyes Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Journal. Volume.32
- Ekşi, F., Yaman, E., Dilmaç, B., Hamarta, E. (2015), The Predictive relationships between the Values of University Employees, Mobbing, and Organizational Commitment. Turkish Journal of Business Ethics. DOI 10.12711/tjbe.2015.8.0007.
- Emhan, A., Çayır, C. (2010). Girişimcilerin Stres İle Bahşedebilmesinde Tinsel Değerlerin Etkisi. Atatürk Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Journal, Volume: 24, Issue: 2.

- Erdem, R., Kaya, S. (1998). Çağdaş yerel Yönetimler Journal, c.7.s.2: 106-107.
- Erdul G. (2005). Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Zaman Yönetimi Becerileri ile Kaygı Düzeyleri Arasındaki İlişki Uludağ Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Bursa.
- Eren, E. (2003). Yönetim ve Organizasyon. 6. baskı, İstanbul: Beta Publishing.
- Ereni, E. (2011). Yönetim ve Organizasyon (Çağdaş ve Küresel Yaklaşımlar), Beta Publishing, İstanbul.
- Erkut, H., J., Chafra, B.B. (2011). Organizational Culture's Role in the relationship Between Power Bases and Job Stress. H. Ü. Eğitim Fakültesi Journal (H. U Journal of of Education), vol.40
- Erol, Y., Öztoprak, T. (2015). Psikolojik Şiddetin Tükenmişlik Üzerindeki Etkisinde İş Stresinin Aracılık Rolü: Ankara İlindeki Sosyal Güvenlik Kurumuna Bağlı Çalışanlar Üzerinde Bir Analiz. *İşletme Araştırmaları Journal*. 7/2.
- Erooğlu, F. (1996). Davranış Bilimleri, Beta Basım Yayım Dağıtım A.Ş. İstanbul,
- Ersarı, G., Naktiyok, A. (2012). İş Görenin İçsel ve Dışsal Motivasyonunda Stresle Mücadele Tekniklerinin Rolü. Atatürk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Journal 2012 16 (1): 81-101
- Eskin, M, Harlak, H., Demirkıran, F., Dereboy, Ç. (2013). Algılanan Stres Ölçeğinin Türkçeye Uyarlanması: Güvenirlilik ve Geçerlilik Analizi, New/Yeni Symposium Journal, 2013; 51(3):132-140
- Eurofound. (2012). Fifth European Working Conditions Survey. Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

- Fang, S. R., Fang, S. C., Chou, C. H., Yang, S. M., & Tsai, F. S. (2011). Relationship learning and innovation: The role of relationship-specific memory. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 40(5), 743-753.
- Fidan, Y. (2011). *Adıyaman Üniversitesi sosyal bilimler Enstitüsü Journal*, ,y.4.s.6: ISSN:1308 -9196.
- Folino, D.F. (1999), *Etkili Karar Verme*, Hayat Publishing, Trans.: E. Sabri Yarmalı, İstanbul
- Folkman, S. ve Lazarus, R. S. (1990). *Coping and Emotion*, Ed. Nancy L. Stein, Bennett Leventhal, Tom Trabasso, *Psychological and Biological Approaches to Emotion*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Freudenberger, (1974). "Staff Burnout", *Journal of Social Issues*, Vol.30, No.1, 159-165.
- Gezer, E. Yenel, F. (2009). Stres Veren Yaşam olaylarının öğretim elemanlarının depresyon ve tükenmişlik düzeylerine etkisi. *Gazi Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Bilimleri Journal* Ekim 2009. Volume: XIV. Issue: 4
- Gill, A. S., Flaschner, A. B. ve Shachar, M. (2006). Mitigating Stress and Burnout by Implementing Transformational-Leadership, *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(6), 469-481.
- Gonzalez, J.L., Rime, B. (2005) "Cultural Dimensions, Socioeconomic Development, Climate, And Emotional Hedonic Level", *Cognition and Emotion*, Vol. 16, No: 1.
- Goodluck, I.I. (2012). Time Management Strategies for Improving Librarians' Productivity, *Bilgi Dünyası*, 2012, 13 (2) 568.
- Firth-Cozens, J. (1992) The role of early family experiences in the perception of organizational stress: Fusing clinical and organizational

perspectives, Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology (1992), 65,61-75.

Gökçek Karaca, N., Canbey Özgüler, V., Karaca, E. (2013). İş Sağlığı ve güvenliği Eğitiminin İş Kazaları ve Meslek Hastalıklarının Önlenmesindeki Rolü Çimento Endüstrisi İşverenleri Sendikası Volume: 27 Issue: 4 Temmuz.

Gökgöz, H., Altuğ, N. (2014). Örgütsel stresin öğretim elemanlarının üzerine etkisinin incelenmesine yönelik bir araştırma. Ege Akademik Bakış, 14(4), 519-530.

Gözel E. (2009). İlköğretim Okulu Öğretmenlerinin Zaman Yönetimi Hakkındaki Görüşleri, Postgraduate Thesis, Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Afyonkarahisar, 40.

Graham, H. (1999). Stresi Kendi Yararınıza Kullanın, Çev.M.Sağlam.T. Tezcan.Alfa Publishing. İstanbul. S:24 (Aktaran: Aydın, Şule.2004. Örgütsel Stres Yönetimi.Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Journal.c.6.

Güçlü, N. (2001). Stres Yönetimi. G.Ü. Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Journal. Volume 21,

Güçlü, N. (2001). Zaman Yönetimi. Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi. Eğitim Yönetimi Journal. Kış.

Güçlü, N. (2003). Örgüt kültürü, Kırgızistan Manas Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Journal, 6, 147-159

Gümüştül, O. (2013). Avrupa Birliği'ne Üye Ülkelerde ve Türkiye'de Öğrenim Gören Öğrencilerinin Zaman Yönetimi Anlayışlarının Farklı Değişkenler Açısından İncelenmesi. Postgraduate Thesis. Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Sağlık Bilimleri Enstitüsü. Kütahya.

Gümüştekin, G.E., Öztemiz, A.B. (2004) Örgütsel Stres Yönetimi ve Uçucu Personel Üzerinde Bir Uygulama, Erciyes Üniversitesi İktisadi ve

İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Journal, Issue: 23, July-December 2004, ss. 61-85.

Gökdeniz, İ. (2005) Üretim Sektöründeki İşletmelerin Örgüt İçi Stres Kaynakları ve Mobilyacılık Sektöründe Bir Uygulama, Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Journal, Issue:13, 174-189.

Gök, S. (2009) Çalışma Yaşamının Önemli Bir Sorunu: Örgütsel Stres, Marmara Üniversitesi İ.İ.B.F. Journal, Volume:27, Issue:2, 429-448.

Gümüştekin, G. E., Emet, C. (2007), "Güçlendirme Algılarındaki Değişimin Örgütsel Kültür ve Bağlılık Üzerinde Etkileşimi", Dumlupınar Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Journal, Volume: 17.

Gümüştekin, G.E., Öztemiz, A.B. (2005). Örgütlerde Stresin Verimlilik ve Performansla Etkileşimi. Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Journal,14: 283.

Gürbüz, H. (2014). Kamu Çalışanlarının Stres Düzeylerinin Ölçülmesi ve Eskişehir Kamu Çalışanları Üzerine Bir Araştırma. Journal of Social Sciences Eskisehir Osmangazi University. Vol. 15 Issue 1, p113-132. 20p.

Gürbüz, S, Bingöl, D. (2007). Çeşitli Örgüt Yöneticilerinin Güç Mesafesi, belirsizlikten Kaçınma, Eril-Dişil ve Bireyci-Toplulukçu Kültür Boyutlarına Yönelik Eğilimleri Üzerine Görül Bir Araştırma. Savunma Bilimleri Journal, 6 (2), 68-87.

Güçlü, N. (2001), Stres Yönetimi, G.Ü. Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Journal Volume 21, Issue 1, 91-109.

Güler, Z., Baspınar, N.Ö., Gürbüz, H. (2001). İş Yasamında Stres ve Kamu Kurumlarındaki Sekreterler Üzerine Bir Uygulama, Anadolu Üniversitesi Publishing, Eskisehir, s.16.

Haffner, A. and Stock, A. (2010), 'Time Management Training and Perceived Control of Time at Work', The Journal of Psychology, Vol. 144, No:5.

- Hair, J. F. J., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis Seventh Edition* Prentice Hall.
- Halko, M.L., Saaksvuori, L. (2017). Accepted Manuscript: Competitive Behavior, Stress, and Gender. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.1016/j.jebo.2017.06.014>
- Hamarta, E., Arslan, C., Saygın, Y., Yeşil, Z. (2009). Benlik Saygısı ve Akılcı Olmayan İnançlar Bakımından Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Stresle Başa Çıkma Yaklaşımlarının Analizi, *Değerler Eğitimi Journal*, Değerler Eğitimi Merkezi, 25-42.
- Hansen J., B.A., Sullivan, B.A. (2003). Assessment of Workplace Stress: Occupational Stress, Its Cons and Common Causes of Teacher Stress. In (unknown Ed.) *Measuring Up: Assessment Issues for Teachers, Counselors and Administrators*.
- Harris, O.J. and Hartman S.J. (2002), "Organizational Behavior", New York: Best Business Books, The Haworth Press, Inc
- Hisli Şahin, N., Güler, M., Basım, N. (2009). A Tipi Kişilik Örüntüsünde Bilişsel ve Duygusal Zekânın Stresle Başa Çıkma ve Stres Belirtileri ile İlişkisi. *Türk sikiyatri Journal*. Volume.20. s.6.
- Hodgetts, R.M. ve Luthans, F. (2000). *International Management, Culture, Strategy and Behavior*, 4.Ed., McGraw-Hill, USA.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Motivation, Leadership and Organization: Do American Theories Apply Abroad. *Organizational Dynamics*. 9(1): 42-62.
- Hofstede, G. (1983). National Cultures in Four Dimensions. A Research-Based Theory Of Cultural Differences Among Nations” *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 13(12).46-74.

- Hofstede, G. (1984). Cultural Dimensions in Management and Planning. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, January 1984.
- Hofstede, G. (1984). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values* (2nd ed.). Beverly Hills CA: SAGE Publications
- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's Consequences: comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications
- Hofstede, G. (2011), "Dimensionalizing Cultures: The Hofstede Model in Context", *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture*, 2 (1),
- Hofstede, G., Bond M.H. (1988). The Confucius Connection: From Cultural Roots to Economic Growth. *Organizational Dynamics*.16(4).4-21.
- Hofstede, G., Gofstede, G.J. and Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*, 3rd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill
- Hofstede, G., Minkov, M. (2010). Long- versus short-term orientation: new perspe. *Asia Pacific Business Review*. Vol. 16, No. 4, October 2010, 493–504.
- Hofstede G., Hofstede G. J. ve Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of The Mind*. 3rd Edition, USA: McGraw-Hill.
- Hofstede, G., Robert R. McCrae.2004. Personality and Culture Revisited: Linking Traits and Dimensions of Culture. *Cross-Cultural Research* 2004; 38; 52.
- Hoobler, M. J., Wayne, J. S. ve Lemmon, G. (2009), "Bosses' Perceptions of Family-Work Conflict and Women's Promotability: Glass Ceiling Effects", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 52, No:5.
- Igrer, P. (1989), *Stres*, (Çeviren: Yusuf Haznedaroğlu), MetlerMatbaası, İstanbul (Aktaran: Gökdeniz, İsmail.2005. Üretim Sektöründeki İşletmelerin Örgüt İçi Stres Kaynakları ve Mobilyacılık Sektöründe bir

- Işıkhan, V. (2017). Stres Yönetimi: Tükenmişlikten mutluluğa.1.bs, Ankara: Nika Yayınevi.
- Ivancevich, J. M. (2010). Human Resource Management, 7th Edition, The McGraw-Hill Companies Inc.New York.
- Ivancevich, J.M. & Matteson, M.T. (1980). Stress and Work. USA: Glenview, Scott Foresman. (Aktaran: Demirel, Erkan, T.2013. Mesleki Stresin İş Tatminine Etkisi: Örgütsel Desteğin Aracılık Rolü. Niğde Üniversitesi İİBF Journal, Volume: 6, Issue: 1.
- İşcan, Ö. F, Timuroğlu, K. (2007). Örgüt kültürünün iş tatmini üzerindeki
- İştar, E. (2012). Stres ve Verimlilik İlişkisi. Akademik Bakış Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Journal. Issue: 33, 1-21.
- Jandt, Fred E. (2002). Yönetim sorunlarına Etkili Çözümler, Çev: Levent Akın ve Vedat G. Diker, Hayat Publishing, İstanbul.
- Jeremiah, D., A. (2009). Organizational Stress and Employee Assistance Programs (EAP). Unpublished Master Thesis, Emporia State University, Emporia, ansas. (Aktaran.Özen: Hasan.2011. Üniversite ve Devlet Hastanelerinde Çalışan Hemşirelerin Stres düzeylerinin Karşılaştırılması: Zonguldak Örneği. Zonguldak Karaelmas Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İşletme Anabilim Dalı, Yayımlanmış Doctoral Thesis).
- Jordan, J., Gurr, E., Tinline, G., Cooper, R., Giga, S., Faragher, B., Cooper, C. (2003). Beacons of excellence in stress prevention. Prepared by Robertson Cooper Ltd and UMIST for the Health and Safety Executive.
- Juhnke, G.B., Juhnke, G. A., Henderson, K., (2013). The Homework Identification Plan: A Solution-Focused Activity to Promote Student-

Athletes' Time Management Skills. *Journal of Creativity in Mental Health*, 8 (2): 186-202

Kaleem, A., Shahzad, F., Paksitan, S., Zulfiqar, B., Naveed, T. (2014). Impact of Relationship, Task & Role Conflicton Teaching Performance in Educational Institutes. *International Journal of Management, Accounting and Economics*. Vol. 1, No. 2, September. ISSN 2383-2126 (Online). www.ijmae.com

Karahan, A., Yilmazi H. (2014). Mobbing ve Örgütsel Bağlılık İlişkisine Yönelik Bir Çalışma. *Journal of Yaşar University* 2014 9(33) 5692-5715

Karakaya, A., Gürel, S. (2015). Kardemir A.Ş. Çalışanlarının Stres Faktörleri Algılarına Yönelik Bir Araştırma. *Karabük Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Journal*, Volume.5. Issue.1.

Karalar, R. (2009), Genel İşletme, Meta Basım Publishing, İzmir.

Karaoğlu, B. (2015). Erciyes Üniversitesi Beden Eğitimi Spor Yüksekokulu Öğrencilerinin Zaman Yönetimi Davranışlarının Farklı Değişkenler Açısından İncelenmesi. Postgraduate Thesis. Erciyes Üniversitesi Sağlık Bilimleri Enstitüsü.

Karcioğlu, F. (2001). Örgüt Kültürü ve Örgüt İklimi İlişkisi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Journal, Volume: 15, Issue: 1-2. <http://e-dergi.atauni.edu.tr>. (Access.21.07.2016)

Kartopu, S. (2012). Lise Öğrenci ve Öğretmenlerinin Durumluk ve Sürekli Kaygı Düzeylerinin Bazı Değişkenler Açısından Güncellenmesi: Kahramanmaraş Örneği. *Fırat Üniversitesi İlahiyat Fakültesi Journal*, 17.2, S.147-170.

Kavanagh, J. (2005) *Stress and Performance*, USA, the Rand Corporation

Kaya, U., Serçeoğlu, N. (2013). Duygu İşçilerinde İşe Yabancılaşma: Hizmet Sektöründe Bir Araştırma. *Çalışma ve Toplum*, 2013/1.

- Kaymaz, K. (2010). The Effects of Job Rotation Practices on Motivation: A Research on Managers in the Automotive Organizations. Business and Economics Research Journal Volume 1. Number 3.
- Kehribar, A.Ş., Karabela, N., Kart Yaşar, K, Okur, A., Derya, M., Özgür, C., Çankaya, F. (2017). Çalışma Hayatında Mobbing: Nedenleri, Bileşenleri ve Ülkemizdeki Hukuki Durumu. Bakırköy Tıp Journal, Volume 13, Issue 1.
- Kesik, F., Cömert, M. (2014). İlköğretim Okullarında Görev Yapan Öğretmenlerin İşe Yabancılaşma Düzeylerine ilişkin Algıları. İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Journal Nisan 2014. Volume 15, Issue 1, 27-46.
- Kewok B., Chan. (2017). Work Stress and Coping Among Professionals: Social Sciences in Asia. <https://web.a.ebscohost.com>
- Kılıç, S. S. (2015). Zaman Yönetimi ve Zamanı Etkin Kullanma: Rize Aile hekimliği Örneği, Postgraduate Thesis, Beykent Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İşletme Yönetimi Anabilim Dalı, İstanbul.
- Koçel, T. (2005) İşletme Yöneticiliği, 10. Baskı, Arıkan Publishing, İstanbul.
- Koçel, T. (2014), İşletme Yöneticiliği, Beta Basım Yayım Dağıtım, İstanbul
- Korkmaz, Ö., Mahiroğlu, A. (2007). Beyin, Bellek ve Öğrenme, Kastamonu Eğitim Journal, (Kastamonu Education Journal), Mart 2007 Volume:15 No:1, Access Date: 23.11.2016
- Korkmaz, S., Soylu, E., Gök, Z.B., Yiğit, G. (2016). Çalışan Bireylerde Mobbing Sıklığı ve Depresyonla Olan İlişkisi. Fırat Tıp Derg/Firat Med J 2016; 21(2): 91-95
- Köse, S., Tetik, S., Ercan, C. (2001). Örgüt kültürünü oluşturan faktörler. Yönetim ve ekonomi. Volume:7.s.1.221. Celal Bayar Üniversitesi İBF Manisa.

- Kocabaş İ, Erdem R. (2003), Yönetici Adayı Öğretmenlerin Kişisel Zaman Yönetimi Davranışları, Fırat Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Journal, 203-210.
- Koyuncu, O., Çarıkçı, İ. Hüseyin, (2010). A Research On To Determine The elationship Between The Individualist-Collectivist Culture And Entrepreneurial Trends, Mehmet Akif Ersoy Ü, Sosyal Bilimler Journal, Yıl.2, Issue.3
- Krohne, H. W. (2002). Stress and Coping Theories. Johannes Gutenberg-Universität Mainz Germany: Available online article. PDF.
- Küçükaltan, D., Karalar, S., Keskin, G. (2013) Etkili Zaman Yönetimi Uygulamalarında Yöneticileri Engelleyen Zaman Tuzakları: Edirne İl Merkezindeki Tekstil Fabrikalarında Görev Yapan Yöneticiler Üzerinde Bir Araştırma, KMÜ Sosyal ve Ekonomik Araştırmalar Dergisi 15 (24): 65-73.
- Kyriacou, C. and Sutcliffe, J. (1978). A model of teacher stres. Educational Studies, 4, 1-6.
- Lazarus, R.S ve Folkman, S. (1984). Stress, appraisal, and coping. New York: Springer.
- Lazarus, R.S. (1993). Coping Theory and Research: Past, Present, and Future, Psychosomatic Medicine. 55:234-247.
- Lazarus, R.S. (1995). Psychological stress in the workplace. In R. Crandall & P.E. Perrewé (Eds.), Occupational stress: A handbook (Washington DC: Taylor & Francis. 3–14).
- Lee, S. J., Kim, J., & Park, B. I. (2015). Culture clashes in cross-border mergers and acquisitions: A case study of Sweden's Volvo and South Korea's Samsung. International Business Review, 24(4), 580-593.

- Leontaridi, R.M. ve Ward, M.E. (2002) *Work-Related Stress, Quitting Intentions and Absenteeism*, Germany, IZA Discussion.
- Leslie, L. M. and M. J. Gelfand (2012), "The Cultural Psychology of Social Influence: Implications for Organizational Politics", In Ferris, G. R. ve D. C. Treadway (Ed), *Politics in Organizations Theory and Research Considerations*, USA: Taylor and Francis Group, LLC.
- Luthans, F. (1989). *Organizational Behavior*, New York: Mc Graw Hill.
- Macan, T. H. (1994). Time management: Test of a process model, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79,381-391.
- Macan T., Shahani C., Dipboye R., Phillips A. (1990). College Student's Time Management: Correlations with Academic Performance and Stres, *Journal of Educational Psychology*
- Maccorquodale, K., & Meehl, P. E. (1948). On a distinction between hypothetical constructs and intervening variables. *Psychological Review*, 55, 95–107.
- Mackenzie R. Alec. (1989). *Zaman Tuzağı, Zamanı Nasıl Denetlersiniz? Çev: Güneri Y, İstanbul: İlgı Yayınevi.*
- Mackenzie, A., Nickerson, P. (2009), *The Time Trap: The Classic Book on Time Management*, Fourth Edition, American Management Association, June 17
- MacKinnon, D. P., Krull, J. L., & Lockwood, C. M. (2000). Equivalence of the mediation, confounding and suppression effects. *Prevention Science*, 1, 173–181
- MacKinnon, D.P., C.M. Lockwood, J.M. Hoffman, S.G. West, V. Sheets (2002) A Comparison of Methods to Test Mediation and other Intervening Variable Effects, *Psychological Methods*, 7, 83-104.

- Marangoz, M, Biber, L. (2011).İşletmelerin pazar performansı ile insan kaynakları uygulamaları arasındaki ilişkinin araştırılmasına yönelik bir çalışma. Doğu Üniversitesi Journal, 8 (2).
- Maslach, C. Jackson S.E. (1981). The Measurement of Experienced Burnout, Journal of Occupational Behavior, 2, 99-113.
- Mendenhall, M., Punnett, B. J., ve Ricks, D. (1995). Global Management. Blackwell Pub, Oxford, UK.
- Mentor, Pocket, (2017). Stres Yönetimi. Harward Business Review Press.Çeviren. Burcu Çekmece. İstanbul: Optimist Yayım Dağıtım
- Miranda A. G. Peeters ve Christel G. Rutte (2005). Time Management Behavior as a Moderator for the Job Demand–Control Interaction, Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 10 (1), 64–75.
- Misra, R. & Mckean, M. (2000). Collage Students' Academic Stress and Its Relation to Their Anxiety, Time Management and Leisure Satisfaction. American Journal of Health Studies. 16(1), 41-51.
- Misra, Ranjita & McKean, M & West, S & Russo, T. (2000). Academic stress of college students: Comparison of student and faculty perceptions. College student journal. 34. 236-245
- Moore, P. (1994). The Influence of Time Management Practices and Perceptions on Academic Performance. Doctor of Philosophy, Hofstra University, New York.
- Mohr, D.C. (2010). Workbook: The Stress and Mood Management Program for Individuals with Multiple Sclerosis.Oxford University Press. Sayaf.16 EBSCO Publishing: eBook Academic Collection (EBSCOhost)- printed on 7/5/2017 10:50 AM via Hakkâri University.
- Naktiyok, A., Polat, F. (2015). Çalışanların Psikolojik Taciz algısının Örgütsel Bağlılıkla İlişkisi. Atatürk Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Journal, Volume: 30. Issue: 1

- Nel, S., Van Dyk, P., Schultz, H., Werner, A. (2004). Human resource management. Halfway house: Southern Book Publishers.
- Nonis, S. A. & Hudson, G. I. (2006). Academic Olan İşletmelerde Zaman Yönetimi Üzerine Ampirik Bir Araştırma: Bursa İli Örneği. Postgraduate Thesis. Balıkesir.
- Özden, K., Najimudinova, S. (2013). Örgüt kültürü görsel öğelerinin örgüt çalışanları tarafından algılanması: Bişkek örneği. Journal of Yaşar University 2013 29(8) 4813- 4834
- Özen, H.Ö. (2011). Çalışanların cinsiyetine göre örgütsel stresten etkilenme düzeyleri: Zonguldak ilinde görevli hemşireler üzerinde bir araştırma. Gümüşhane Üniversitesi sosyal bilimler elektronik Journal. Issue 8., 75-95.
- Özen, H.Ö. (2011). Üniversite ve Devlet Hastanelerinde Çalışan Hemşirelerin Stres Düzeylerinin Karşılaştırılması: Zonguldak Örneği. Doctoral Thesis. Zonguldak Karaelmas Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İşletme Anabilim Dalı.
- Passig, D. (2007). Melioration as a higher thinking skill of future intelligence. Teacher College Record, 109(1), 24–50.
- Pehlivan, B. Muratoğlu, (2017). Kültür, kolektif bilinçdışı ve semboller: miyazaki ve 'ruhların kaçışı' üzerine bir inceleme. Erciyes İletişim Journal "akademia" Volume (Volume): 5, Issue (Number): 1, (362-378)
- Perrewe, P. L., Zellars, K. L., Ferris, G. R., Rossi, A. M., Kacmar, C. J. ve Ralston, D. A. (2004). Neutralizing Job Stressors: Political Skill as an Antidote to the Dysfunctional Consequences of Role Conflict, Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 47, No: 1,
- Pathak, D. (2012) Role of perceived organizational support on stress-Satisfaction relationship: An empirical study, Asian Journal of Management Research, Volume 3 Issue 1, 153-177.

- Pira, A., Sohodol, Ç. (2004), *Kriz Yönetimi, Halkla İlişkiler Açısından bir Değerlendirme*, İletişim Publishing, İstanbul.
- Polatçı, S., Özyer, K. (2015). Rol Stresörlerinin Tükenmişlik Üzerindeki Etkilerine Yönelik Bir Araştırma. *International Journal of Social Science* Doi number: <http://dx.doi.org/10,9761/JASSS2810> Number: 33, p. 29-40,
- Raitano, S.T., Kleiner, B.H. (2005). *Stress Management: Stressors, Diagnosis, and Preventative Measures*, Emerald Insight Staff (CB). Stress Management. Bradford, GBR: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Rajan, D. (2014). *Work Stress Among Pharmacists: A Comparative Analysis*. Sona Global Management. Volume.8.İssue.2,
- Ramsey, J., Punnett, B.J., Greenidge, D. (2008). A Social Psychological Account of Absenteeism in Barbados, *Human Resource Management Journal*, 18(2): 97–117.
- Rivera, C. (2007), *Time Management*, Global Media. Sahih Al- Buckari
- Rodoplu D. (2001). *Stratejik Yönetim Düzeyinde Zaman Yönetimi ve Yetki Devri*, Postgraduate Thesis, Kocaeli Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, 118120.
- Roath, A.S., Miller S.R., Cavusgil, S.T. (2002). A Conceptual Framework of Relational Governance in Foreign Distributor Relationships, *International Business Review*, 11, 1-16.
- Robbins, S. P. (1998). *Organizational behavior*. Eighth Edition, New Jersey, Prentice- Hall Int., Inc,
- Robbins, S.P. (2000), *Essentials of Organizational Behaviour*, Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, New Jersey.
- Rogovsky, N., Schuler, R.S. (1997) "Managing Human Resources Across Cultures", *Business & The Contemporary World*, Vol. IX. No.1.

- Ross, G. F. (1997). Career stress responses among hospitality employees. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(1), 41-51.
- Rowshan, A. (2011). *Stres Yönetimi: Hayatınızın Sorumluluğunu Almak için Stresi Nasıl Yönetebilirsiniz? Çeviren. Şahin Cüceloğlu. Yeni Basım. İstanbul: Sistem Publishing.*
- Sabuncuoğlu, Z., Paşa M. (2002). *Zaman Yönetimi. Bursa: Ezgi Publishing.*
- Sarason, I.G. & Johnson, J.H. (1979) Life Stress, Organizational Stress, and Job Satisfaction, *Psychological Reports*, 44, 75-79.
- Sakal, Ö., AYTEKİN, İ. (2014). Bireycilik-toplulukçuluk Değerlerinin başarı amaç yönelimlerine etkisi Üzerine karşılaştırmalı bir Araştırma. *Kafkas Üniversitesi İktisadi ve*
- Sakal, Ö., Yıldız, S. (2015). Bireycilik ve toplulukçuluk değerleri, kariyer çapaları ve kariyer tatmini ilişkisi. *Journal of Yasar University*, 2015, 10/40, 6612-6623
- Samuk, E. (2014). *Üniversitelerde Görev Yapan Akademik ve İdari Personelin Fiziksel Aktivitelere Katılmalarının Zaman Yönetimi Açısından İlişkisinin Araştırılması: Osmangazi Üniversitesi Örneği. Postgraduate Thesis. Kütahya*
- Sarıcı Bulut, S. (2017). Beş Faktör Kişilik Özellikleri, Stresle Başa Çıkma ve Depresyon Arasındaki ilişkiler: Gazi Eğitim Fakültesi Örneği. *Uluslararası Türkçe Edebiyat Kültür Eğitim Journal*, 6(2), 1205-1221. Issue: 1
- Schabracq, M.J. ve Cooper, C.L. (1998) Toward a Phenomenological Framework for the Study of Work and Organizational Stress, *Human Relations*, 51 (5), 625-648.
- Silahtaroğlu F. (2004). *Akademisyenlerde Zaman Yönetimi*, 108.
- Schein, E.H. (1984). Coming to a New Awareness of Organizational Culture, *Sloan Management Review*, 25:2.

- Schein, H.E. (1976). Örgütsel Psikoloji, Eskişehir İ.T.İ.A. Yay.No:167, Eskişehir.
- Schermerhorn, J.R. (1996) Management, Fifth Edition, USA, John Wiley & Sons Inc. (Aktaran; Gökgöz, Hakan.Nevin Altuğ,2014. Örgütsel Stresin Öğretim Elemanlarının Performansı Üzerine Etkisinin İncelenmesine Yönelik Bir Araştırma. Ege Akademik Bakış. Volume: 14. Issue: 4
- Schmidt, S., Roesler, U., Kusserow, T., Rau, R. (2012). Uncertainty in the workplace: Examining role ambiguity and role conflict, and their link to depression—meta-analysis. European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology Vol. 23, No. 1. [http://dx.doi.org/10,1080/1359432X.2012,711523](http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2012.711523)
- Selye, H. (1950). Stress And The General Adaptation Syndrome. British Medical Journal London Saturday, June 15.
- Selye, H. (1966). Forty years of stress research: principal remaining problems and misconceptions. CMA Journal.July 3.vol. 115
- Selye, H. (1976). The Stress of Life, McGraw-Hill, New York. Krohne H. W. (2002); Stress and Coping Theories, 2002, [http: // userpage.fu-berlin.de/~schuez / folien / Krohne_Stress.pdf](http://userpage.fu-berlin.de/~schuez / folien / Krohne_Stress.pdf)).
- Shelley E. Taylor, Klein, L.C., Brian P. L., Tara L. Gruenewald, Shrout, R., Bolger N. (2002). Mediation in Experimental and Nonexperimental Studies: New Procedures and Recommendations, Psychological Methods, 7, 422-445
- Sığırı, Ü., Gürbüz, S. (2014). Örgütsel Davranış, Beta Basım Yayım Dağıtım, İstanbul
- Sığırı, Ü., Tıǧlı, M. (2006). Hofstede'nin "Belirsizliken Kaçınma" Kültürel Boyutunun Yönetmel – Örgütsel Süreçlere ve Pazarlama Açısından Tüketici Davranışlarına Etkisi.Marmara Üniversitesi.İİBF Journal.c.21.s.1:328.

- Slavin, L.A., Karie L., Rainer, Mıcah L. McCreary, Kalpana K. Gowda. (1991). Toward Multicultural Model of the Stress Process. *Journal of counseling & Development*. September/October 1991. Vol.70
- Smith, H.W. (1998). Hayatı ve Zamanı Yönetmenin 10 Doğal Yasası: Üretkenliği ve iç Huzuru Artırmak İçin Kanıtlanmış Stratejiler, Çeviren: Adalet Çelbiş. İzmir: Sistem Publishing.
- Smythe, J. A., Robertson I. T. (1999). On The Relationship Between Time Management and Time Estimation, *British Journal of Psychology*, Vol:90.
- Sofyalıoğlu, R. Aktaş, A. (2001). Kültürel farklılıkların Uluslararası İşletmelere etkisi. *Yönetim ve Ekonomi*. c.7.s.1:76
- Soysal, A. (2009). Organizational Stressors On Workers Working In Different Sectors: A Survey In Kahramanmaras And Gaziantep. *Suleyman Demirel University The Journal of Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences*. Vol.14, No.2 pp
- Soytürk, K. (2011). Eğitim yönetiminde Stres: Bakırköy İlçe Örneği. İstanbul: Akademik Kitaplar BSCO Publishing: Hiperkitap (eBook Collection) - printed on 7.8.2017 12.56 PM via Hakkari University
- Stordeur, S., D'hoore, W. And Vandenberghe, C. (2001) Leadership, Organizational stress, and emotional exhaustion among hospital nursing Staff, *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 35(4), 533-542.
- Stora, J.B. (1994). Stres. Çev. Ayşen Kalın. 2. Bask. İstanbul: İletişim Publishing.
- Swanson, G.N. (2000), *Journal of the American Women's Medical Association*. 55.
- Şahin, A. (2010). Örgüt Kültürü-Yönetim İlişkisi ve Yönetimsel Etkinlik. *Maliye Journal*. Say.ı 159. Temmuz-Aralık.

- Şahin, D.C. (2015). Verimli Örgüt Yönetimi İçin Zaman Yönetimi: Bir Özel Hastane Örneği. Postgraduate Thesis. Atılım Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.
- Şahin, F. (2011). İşe Devamsızlığın Nedenleri, Sonuçları Ve Örgütler İçin Önemi. Niğde Üniversitesi İİBF Journal, 2011, Volume: 4, Issue: 1, s. 24-39 24
- Şekerli, E. B., Gerege, E. (2011), "Kültürün EKY'ye Etkileri ve Türk Pilotların Hofstede Kültür Boyutları Açısından Durumları", "İŞ, GÜÇ" Endüstri İlişkileri ve İnsan Kaynakları Journal, Volume: 13 Issue: 1.
- Şenel, B. (2012). Devamsızlık Nedenleri ve Maliyetinin Araştırılması. Marmara Sosyal Araştırmalar Journal. Issue 3, Aralık 2012.
- Şimşek, A.S. (2013). Mobbing Kaderimiz Midir? Barış Araştırmaları ve Çatışma Çözümleri Journal. Volume.1 No.2
- Şimşek, M.Ş. (1996), Yönetim ve Organizasyon, Damal Ofset Matbaacılık, Konya
- Şimşek, Ö.F. (2007). Yapısal eşitlik modellemesine giriş: Temel ilkeler ve LISREL uygulamaları. Ankara: Ekinoks Publishing.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). Using Multivariate Statistics (Fifth Edition b.). USA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Taş, A., Cevrioğlu, E. (2013). Ulusal kültürü oluşturan değerler tipolojisi-stratejik yönetim ilişkisi: kültürel kodların işletmelerin stratejik yönelimlerine etkisi üzerine bir araştırma AİBÜ Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Journal, Güz, Volume.13, Yıl:13, Issue.2.417
- Tengilimlioğlu D., Tutar, H., Altınöz, M., Başpınar, N.O., Ve Erdönmez. C. (2007), Zaman Yönetimi. H. Tutar (Ed.). Zaman Yönetimi içinde. İkinci Baskı, Seçkin Publishing.
- Tengilimoğlu, D., Altınöz, M, Başpınar, N.Ö., Erdönmez, C. (2015). Zaman Yönetimi, (Ed.H. Tutar.4.Baskı), Seçkin Publishing, Ankara

- Terzi, A.R. (2004), Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Güç Mesafesi Ve Belirsizlikten Kaçınma Algıları Üzerine Bir Araştırma, Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Journal, 6(2), 65-76.
- Theorell T, Perski A, Akerstedt T ve ark (1988). Changes in Job Strain in Relation to Changes in Physiological State, Scand J Work Environ Health, 14: 189-196.
- Thompson, L Brad. (2002). Yeni Yöneticilerin El Kitabı, Yönetim Fonksiyonları.Çev: Vedat Diker, Hayat Publishing, İstanbul
- Tokat, B., Kara.M., Kara, Y. (2013). A-B Tipi Kişilik Özelliklerine Sahip İş Görenlerin Olası bir Örgütsel Değişime Yatkinlıklarının Araştırılması.Ankara. Turkish Studies- International Periodical For The Languages, Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic Volume 8/8 Summer.
- Tong, Myriam, René Schwendimann, Franziska Zúñiga.2017. Mobbing among care workers in nursing homes: A cross-sectional secondary analysis of the Swiss Nursing Homes Human Resources Project. International Journal of Nursing Studies.66
- Tuna TP. (2011). Yapı Üretiminde Zaman Yönetiminin Ürün Kalitesine Etkisi, Postgraduate Thesis, Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü, İstanbul,101-105.
- Trueman, M., Hartley, J. (1996). A Comparison Between The Time-Management Skills And Academic Performance Of Mature And Traditional-Entry University Students, Higher Education, September, 32 (2): 199-215
- Tutar, H. (2004). Kriz ve Stres Yönetimi, Seçkin Yay., Ankara.
- Tutar, H. (2011). Zaman Yönetimi. Ankara: Nobel Yayın Dağıtım Ltd. Şti.
- Tutar, H. (2016). Kriz ve Stres Yönetimi, Ankara:4.Baskı.Seçkin Publishing

- Tutar, H., Yılmaz K., Erdönmez C. (2008.) Genel ve Teknik İletişim, Seçkin Publishing, Ankara.
- Tutar., Altınöz, M. (2004), Büro Yönetimi ve İletişim Teknikleri, Seçkin Publishing, Ankara
- Uğurlu Aldoğan, E. and Aykora, D. (2017), Examination of Organisational Stress and Time Management of Health Organisation Personnel: Sample of Bitlis Province, Journal of Bitlis Eren University Institute of Social Sciences, 6(1), 41-56.
- Uyaniker, Eray A. 2014.Yönetici Hemşirelerin Genel Öz Yeterlilik İnancı İle Zaman Yönetimi Arasındaki İlişki. Postgraduate Thesis. Haliç Üniversitesi Sağlık Bilimleri Enstitüsü.
- Uzun, Ö. and Yiğit, E. (2011). Örgütsel Stres ve Örgütsel Bağlılık İlişkisi Üzerine Orta Kademe Otel Yöneticileri Üzerinde Yapılan Bir Araştırma. Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Journal, 6 (1), 181-213.
- Ülkü, K., (2010). Algılanan İş Stresi Hafifletme Tarzlarının İş-Ev Etkileşim Tipleri Üzerindeki Etkisi. e-Journal of New World Sciences Academy. Volume. 5, Number.1, Article Number: 3C0031
- Varışoğlu, Ş. & Yılmaz (2012). Türkçe öğretmeni adaylarının zaman yönetimi becerileri ve tutumlarının incelenmesi, A. Ü. Türkiyat araştırmaları enstitüsü Journal, 47, 75-86.
- Vasil, P., Serafimovska, H. (2016). Organizational culture imperative for higher innovation in enterprises in the Republic of Macedonia. Economic development no. 3/ 2016, 61-74.
- Völlink, T., Bolman, C. A., W., Eppingbroek, A. and Dehue, F. (2013). Emotion-focused coping worsens depressive feelings and health complaints in cyberbullied children. Journal of Criminology, Volume 2013 (2013), Article ID 416976.

- Wells, G. (1993). Time Management and Academic Achievement. (Master of Arts in Psychology), University of Windsor, Canada.
- W. Sroka, j. Vveinhardt.2016. Mobbing And Harassment In The Steel Enterprises. Metalurgija. Issn 0543-5846. Metabk 56(1-2) 275-278 (2017).
- Wu, Ming-Yi (2006). Intercultural Communication Studies XV: Hofstede's Cultura Dimensions 30 Years Later: A Study Of Taiwan And The United States, Intercultural Communication Studies XV: 1
- Yakar, Y. M. (2016). Tarihsel Bilinç Aktarımı Bağlamında Gülsevin Kırıl'ın Eserleri: İstanbul'u Çalıyorlar ve Çalınan Kent. Uluslararası Türkçe Edebiyat Kültür Eğitim Journal, 5(1), 310-323.
- Yalcin, I, Seker, M. (2016). Examination of Interaction And Statistical Differences Between Information and Communication Within Internal Control And Managers' Perceived Communication Skills. European Scientific Journal, March, 12, No.8, 240-257.
- Yamuç, V.A., Türker, D. (2015). Örgütsel Stres Kaynaklarının Analizi: Bir Üretim İşletmesinde Kadın ve Erkek Çalışanlar Üzerine İnceleme, Yönetim Bilimleri Journal, 13(25), 389-423.
- Yeloğlu, H.O. (2011). Türk toplumsal kültürünün örgüt yapılarına olan etkilerinin belirlenmesine yönelik bir çalışma. ODÜ Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Sosyal Bilimler Araştırmaları Journal, Volume: 2 Issue: 4.
- Yeşil, S. (2013). Kültür ve Kültürel Farklılıklar: Liderlik Açısından Teorik Bir Değerlendirme. Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Journal, Volume.12. Issue.44.54.
- Yıldırım, Ö. (2015). Zaman ve Stres Yönetiminin Havacılık Sektörü Çalışanları Üzerindeki Rolü ve Kârlılığa Etkisi, Postgraduate Thesis, Beykent Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İşletme Yönetimi Anabilim Dalı, İşletme Yönetimi Bilim Dalı, İstanbul.

- Yamuç, V.A., Türker, D. (2015) Örgütsel Stres Kaynaklarının Analizi: Bir Üretim İşletmesinde Kadın ve Erkek Çalışanlar Üzerine İnceleme, Yönetim Bilimleri Journal Volume: 13, Issue: 25, pp. 389-423.
- Yılmaz, A., Aslan, S. (2002). Örgütsel Zaman Yönetimi. C.Ü. İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Journal, Volume 3, Issue 1, 2002.sayfa.43
- Yılmaz, A., Ekici, S. (2003). Örgütsel Yaşamda stresin Kamu Çalışanlarının Performansına Etkileri Üzerine bir Araştırma.Yönetim ve Ekonomi Journal.Celal Bayar Üniversitesi.c.10. Issue.2:
- Yılmaz, B., Halıcı, A. (2010). İşgücü Devir Hızını Etkileyen Etmenler: Sekreterlik Mesleğinde Bir Araştırma, International Journal Of Economic And Administrative Studies, Year: 2 Volume: 2 Number: 4, Winter, 93-107.
- Yin, S., Lu, F., Yang, Y., & Jing, R. (2014). Organizational culture evolution: An imprinting perspective. Journal of Organizational Change Management, 27(6), 973-994.
- Yolcu, H. (2016). Organization culture and related organizational outcomes: A theoretical study. Journal of Human Sciences. Volume: 13 Issue. 3;
- Zampetakis L, Bouranta N, Moustakis V. (2010) On the Relationship Between Individual Creativity and Time Management, Thinking Skills and Creativity Journal, 23-32.
- Zerenler, M.T. (2008). İşletmelerde Kriz Yönetimi, Konya.

APPENDIX

Annex 1. Survey Form


Dear Participant, we would like to thank you in advance for helping us by answering your survey for academic purposes.

	① 18-30 years old	② 31-40 years old	③ 41-50 years old	④ 51-60 years old	⑤ 61 years old and older
Gen	① Female	② Male	Your	① State	② Private
Educ ation	① Verbal Field	② Science Field	③ Maths & Literature		
Total Work Experience	① 0-10 Years		② 11-20 Years	③ 21-30 Years	④ 31 years and higher
Task Duration in your Current Work	① 0-10 Years		② 11-20 Years	③ 21-30 Years	④ 31 years and higher
Task Title	① Contracted	② Tech./Health. Personnel	③ Administrative Serv.	④ Audit/Coun. Serv.	⑤ Manager
	⑥ Res.Asst./	⑦ Expert	⑧ Asst.Prof.Dr.	⑨ Assoc.Dr.	⑩ Prof.Dr.

Choose the option that best reflects your point of view, feelings or thoughts.

		NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
1	Would you set a number of goals for the institution for the	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	Will you plan your day before the day begins?	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	Do you spend time planning every day?	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	Would you set out a number of purposes for that week at the	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	Do you program activities that you have to do on a daily basis?	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	Is it clear what you want to achieve for the next week?	①	②	③	④	⑤

Annex 2.

YAKIN DOĐU ÜNİVERSİTESİ  NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY

Ref: MH-068/2017
05/05/2017

Fakülte Dekanlıkları, Enstitü, Yüksek ve Meslek Yüksekokulu Müdürlükleri'ne

Yakın Dođu Üniversitesi Öğretim Görevlisi Doç. Dr. Mustafa Sağsan'ın, "**Zaman ve Stres Yönetimi: Yakın Dođu Üniversitesi Karşılaştırmalı Örneđi**" adlı anketinin uygulanması uygun bulunmuştur. Bilgi ve geređini rica ederim.


Doç. Dr. İrfan Suat Günsel
Mütevelli Heyeti Başkanı

Ek-1, Anket Formu

BIOGRAPHY (optional)

RESUME

Name - Surname: Lecturer Hikmet Yaşar

E-mail: hikmetyasar30@gmail.com , hyasar@hakkari.edu.tr

Education Information

2016- 2020: Near East University SBE-Business Management, PhD,
Cyprus/Nicosia

1994-1998 Anadolu University (formal education) FEAS-Economics
Department, Eskisehir

2008: Ahmet Yesevi University, Management Organization, Master's Degree,
Ankara

1991-1993: Ataturk High School, Department of Social Sciences, Van

2014– 2019: South Russian-Rostov on Don – Institute of Management,
Business

and Law

2016– 2019: TRNC – Near East University, Faculty of Economics and
Administrative

Sciences, Business Administration (English), Doctorate

Professional Career

1999-2008: Yüzüncü Yıl University, Hakkari Vocational School, Insurance
and the Banking Department, Lecturer.

2008-2020: Hakkari University, Çölemerik Vocational School, Insurance and
Banking Department, Lecturer.

Administrative Tasks

2005-2008: Yüzüncü Yıl University, Hakkari Vocational School, Asst.
Manager

2008-2010: Hakkari University, Hakkari Vocational School, Asst. Manager

2008-2010: Hakkari University Health Culture and Sports Department,
Founder Vice.

2010-2012: Rector's Consultancy for Health Culture and Sport

2012-2013: Hakkâri University, Çölemerik Vocational School Assistant Manager.

2017-2019: Hakkâri University, Çölemerik Vocational School Assistant Manager.

2.019 -2020: Hakkâri University, Çölemerik Vocational School Principal Manager.

2019-2020: Hakkari University, Administrative Financial Affairs Department Deputy.

2020: Hakkâri University Health Culture and Sports Department Deputy.

2019 2020: Hakkari University Çölemerik Vocational School, Insurance and Banking, Head of Department

Academic Career

Published Articles

SCI

- * Yasar, H. And Sağsan, M. (2020), The Mediating Effect of Organizational Stress on organizational Culture and Time Management: A Comparative Study With Two Universities, Sage Open April-June 2020:1-11, DOI: 10.1177/2158244020919507

International Peer-Reviewed Journals

- * H. YASAR, I. BILGEN, N. M. BÜYÜKSIVASLIOGLU & M. SEKER, Exmination of the effects of some variables in internal control and organizational stress managment via multiple regression on perception of risk and uncertainly, International Journal of Human Sciences, 2020, 2458-9489, 15, 1, 155-162.
- * M. SEKER, A. ÖZSOY & H. YASAR, İnteraction between emotional intelligence and environmental sensitivity: a research on kayserifirms, which entered the top 500'in turkey between 2014 and 2017, Avrasya Sosyal ve Ekonomi Arastirmaları Dergisi (ASEAD) Eurasian Journal of Researches in Social and Economics (EJRSE), 2019, 2148-9963, 6, 6, 332-348.

International Congress Announcements

- * H. YAŞAR & A. Yoldas, the effects of total quality management applications on çölemerik vocational high school, sözlü sunum, European conference on science, art & culture (ecsac,2018), 19- 22 Mart 2018.
- * H. YASAR, İş Anlamı ile Yönetimsel Risk Algısı Arasındaki İlişkinin İncelenmesi, sözlü sunum, european conference on science, art & culture (ecsac,2018), 19- 22 Mart 2018.
- * Vlada, I. PISHIK, Doğan, D. YAŞAR, H. ŞEKER, M. (2016), Examining Coaches' Work Stress Levels according to Some Variables in Terms of Sports Management, Oral presentation,14th International Sports Sciences Congress,01-04 November, Bellek/Antalya

Professional Certificate Programs

2005- Eastern Anatolia Development Program Education Certificate

2007- E-Marketing Certificate

Applied GCC Certificate under Law No. 2009-5812, Ankara

2011- Institute of Human Canteens (GCC Law Education) Certificate, Nevsehir

2012- Total Quality Management Certificate

2013- Provincial Employment and Vocational Education Executive Board Education Certificate

Certificates obtained after training programs organized by the World Quality Federation & World Quality Association

2017- ISO 9001:2015 Quality Management System Certificate

2017- ISO 14001:2015 Environment Management System Certificate

2017- ISO 22000: 2005 Food Safety Management System Certificate

2017- OHSAS 18001:2007 Professional Health and Safety Management System Certificate

2017- Strategic Management Certificate

2017- ISO19011:2011 Internal Auditor Certificate

2019- ERasmus + Confirmation of Erasmus + Teaching Assignment

Mobility, Certificate, Alba Lulia, Romania

Conferences

- 2005- Behavioral Sciences and Police Public Relations, Governor's Conference Hall, Hakkari
- 2006- Libraries as Social Heritage, University Conference Hall, Hakkari
- 2008- What is the Republic? Governor's Conference Hall, Hakkari
- 2009- Personal Development and Communication, Hakkari
- 2010- Nawruz's Place in Our Culture, Hakkari
- 2011- EU and Information process, University Conference Hall, Hakkari
- 2012- Democracy and Human Rights, University Conference Hall, Hakkari

Prizes

- 2001- Certificate of Appreciation, Hakkari Provincial Police Department, Hakkari
- 2005- Thank You Plaque, Zümürdü Anka Project Coordinator, Hakkari
- 2007- Thanksgiving Certificate, I Want to Know Group, Hakkari
- 2010- Certificate of Honor, History Culture Education Association, Ankara
- 2018- Best Article Award Certificate, Antalya
- 2019- Certificate of Appreciation, by the Rector's Office, Hakkari
- 2019- Certificate of Appreciation, Association of Hakkari Veterans and Families of Martyrs, Hakkari,
- 2019- Certificate of Honor, Association of Martyrs and Veterans Families, Ankara

Association and Club Memberships

- 2003-2010:S.S. Founding Member of The Donated Agricultural Development Cooperative Board
President
- 2002-2020: President of Donated Sports Club
- 2010: Founder and Consultant of Hakkari University Mountaineering and Outdoor Sports Club
- 2012: Tema Foundation Representative

PLAGIARISM REPORT

TIME AND STRESS MANAGEMENT: COMPARATIVE SAMPLE OF NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY AND HAKKARI UNIVERSITY HİKMET YAŞAR

ORIGINALITY REPORT

12%

SIMILARITY INDEX

PRIMARY SOURCES

1	journals.sagepub.com Internet	3142 words — 3%
2	www.edusolutions.org Internet	580 words — 1%
3	inased.org Internet	460 words — < 1%
4	www.ijhsdr.com Internet	387 words — < 1%
5	burkonturizm.com Internet	363 words — < 1%
6	www.eab.org.tr Internet	339 words — < 1%
7	oenb.co.at Internet	320 words — < 1%
8	repository.lib.cuhk.edu.hk Internet	298 words — < 1%
9	eprints.qut.edu.au Internet	296 words — < 1%
10	www.scribd.com Internet	255 words — < 1%

ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL**BİLİMSEL ARAŞTIRMALAR ETİK
KURULU**

02.05.2017

Sayın Doç. Dr. Mustafa Sağsan,

Bilimsel Araştırmalar Etik Kurulu'na yapmış olduğunuz YDÜ/SB/2017/7 proje numaralı ve **“Zaman ve Stres Yönetimi: Yakın Doğu Üniversitesi ve Hakkari Üniversitesi Karşılaştırmalı Örneği”** başlıklı proje önerisi kurulumuzca değerlendirilmiş olup, etik olarak uygun bulunmuştur. Bu yazı ile birlikte, başvuru formunuzda belirttiğiniz bilgilerin dışına çıkmamak suretiyle araştırmaya başlayabilirsiniz.

Yardımcı Doçent Doktor Direnç Kanol
Bilimsel Araştırmalar Etik Kurulu Raportörü

Not: Eğer bir kuruma resmi bir kabul yazısı sunmak istiyorsanız, Yakın Doğu Üniversitesi Bilimsel Araştırmalar Etik Kurulu'na bu yazı ile başvurup, kurulun başkanının imzasını taşıyan resmi bir yazı temin edebilirsiniz.