**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP AND
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN HOTELS: THE CASE OF
ERZURUM**

Master's Thesis

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MASTER'S THESIS

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP AND
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In this study, the relationship between distributed leadership perceptions and organizational commitment of hotel employees in Erzurum was examined. This study was conducted to determine whether there is a significant relationship between distributed leadership and organizational commitment. Within the scope of the study, a face-to-face survey was conducted with the employees of hotel businesses operating in Erzurum. A total of 1195 people are employed in hotels in Erzurum. Of those employed, 740 are individuals who work in the winter season. The remaining 455 employees are employed as permanent employees of the hotels. Distributed leadership practices and organizational commitment of employees are factors that generally emerge in the long term. From this point of view, 455 employees employed in 4 and 5 star hotels in Erzurum a questionnaire was administered to permanent employees. In the study, the "Distributed Leadership Scale" developed by Wood (2005) and introduced to the Turkish literature by Bostancı (2012) was used. Incorrect and/or incomplete questionnaires within the collected data were separated and the questionnaires with complete information were included in the analysis. After the collected data were entered into the SPSS package program, reliability and validity analyses were performed at the first stage. Then, since the hypotheses were based on causality, each hypothesis was tested with the help of Regression Analysis. According to the findings obtained from the research distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on organizational commitment. The sub-dimensions of distributed leadership also have a positive and significant effect on the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment.

Keywords: Distributed leadership, Organizational commitment, Hotels.

ÖZET

OTELLERDE DAĞITIMCI LİDERLİK VE ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIK ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ: ERZURUM ÖRNEĞİ

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Bu çalışmada, Erzurum'daki otel çalışanlarının dağıtımcı liderlik algıları ile örgütsel bağlılıkları arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın başlıca amacı, dağıtımcı liderlik ile örgütsel bağlılık arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olup olmadığını tespit etmektir. Çalışma kapsamında Erzurum'da faaliyet gösteren otel işletmelerinin çalışanları ile yüz yüze anket çalışması yapılmıştır. Erzurum'daki otellerde toplam 1195 kişi istihdam edilmektedir. İstihdam edilenlerin 740'ı kış sezonunda çalışan bireylerden oluşmaktadır. Geri kalan 455 çalışan ise otellerin kadrolu çalışanı olarak istihdam edilmektedir. Dağıtımcı liderlik uygulamaları ve çalışanların örgütsel bağlılığı genellikle uzun vadede ortaya çıkan faktörlerdir. Bu noktadan hareketle Erzurum'daki 4 ve 5 yıldızlı otellerde çalışan 455 kadrolu çalışana bir anket uygulanmıştır. Çalışmada Wood (2005) tarafından geliştirilen ve Bostancı (2012) tarafından Türkçe literatüre kazandırılan "Paylaşımcı Liderlik Ölçeği" kullanılmıştır. Toplanan veriler içerisinde hatalı ve/veya eksik doldurulan anketler ayrıştırılmış ve eksiksiz bilgi içeren anketler analize dahil edilmiştir. Toplanan veriler SPSS paket programına girildikten sonra ilk aşamada güvenilirlik ve geçerlilik analizleri yapılmıştır. Ardından hipotezler nedensellik üzerine kurulu olduğu için her bir hipotez Regresyon Analizi yardımıyla test edilmiştir. Araştırmadan elde edilen bulgulara göre dağıtımcı liderliğin örgütsel bağlılık üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkisi vardır. Dağıtımcı liderliğin alt boyutları da örgütsel bağlılığın alt boyutları üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahiptir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Dağıtımcı liderlik, Örgütsel bağlılık, Oteller.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

STATEMENT OF COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL PRINCIPLES AND RULES

I hereby truthfully declare that this thesis is an original work prepared by me; that I have behaved in accordance with the scientific ethical principles and rules throughout the stages of preparation, data collection, analysis and presentation of my work; that I have cited the sources of all the data and information that could be obtained within the scope of this study, and included these sources in the references section; and that this study has been scanned for plagiarism with "scientific plagiarism detection program" used by Anadolu University, and that "it does not have any plagiarism" whatsoever. I also declare that, if a case contrary to my declaration is detected in my work at any time, I hereby express my consent to all the ethical and legal consequences that are involved.

Tuğçe YILDIRIM BAŞKAN

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INTRODUCTION

Leadership is a concept that has been the subject of research since the early periods of history. Especially since the beginning of the 20th century, the importance given to leadership research has increased. The studies, which started with the assumption that one cannot be a leader, but is born a leader, continued with researches aimed at determining the characteristics of leaders. Studies on the subject continued with scientific researches to examine the behavioral characteristics of leaders and to determine which common behaviors they have. As a result of the emergence of the approach that thinks that the strategy of being the most effective on the group may vary from situation to situation, the concept of situational leadership emerged and research continued. Studies continued with modern leadership behaviors. Today, instead of a single "hero" in the classical leadership approach, participatory, organizational "distributed" leadership, where the opinions of most or all employees are important approach has started to be used. Distributed leadership helps to increase organizational capacity and has become one of the most important elements of being more efficient (Woods, 2004, p. 5).

Organizational commitment refers to the strength of the bond that employees feel towards the organization they work for. Organizational commitment also means that the values of the employee match with the values of the organization. Organizational commitment is believed to positively affect employee motivation and performance. It is of great importance that employees are committed to the organization in various aspects. Because organizational commitment ensures that employees come to work willingly, reduces employee turnover rate and increases customer satisfaction as the service standards offered will be high. Providing factors that will motivate employees and increase their commitment to the organization should be one of the important tasks of managers.

All studies in the literature have used distributed leadership in the field of education. However, distributed leadership has an important place especially in hotel organizations where mutual interaction is the most intense. In this sense, this study is designed to fill this gap in the literature.

In the light of this information, this thesis will examine the relationship between the concepts of distributed leadership and organizational commitment. The main hypothesis here is distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on organizational commitment.

For this purpose, in the first part of the thesis, definitions of leadership, leadership theories, and classical and modern leadership theories are discussed. Information about distributed leadership, which is one of the modern leadership theories, is also included in this section. In the second chapter, the definition and importance of organizational commitment, factors affecting organizational commitment, organizational commitment classifications, organizational commitment dimensions and results of organizational commitment are examined.

Studies in the literature on the relationship between distributed leadership and organizational commitment of employees are included in the third chapter. An application study on the relationship between distributed leadership and employees' organizational commitment is included in the fourth chapter of the thesis. In this context, firstly, information about the purpose of the research, hypotheses, population and sample, data collection tools and findings are given. The last part of the thesis interprets the findings and attempts to draw conclusions.

1. LEADERSHIP DEFINITION, FUNCTIONS AND THEORIES

1.1. Leadership Definition and Functions

Although it is a universal phenomenon in daily life and literature, it is not so easy to define the concept of leader and leadership within certain limits (Yukl, 2013, p. 7). There is no doubt that from the beginning of human history to the present day, the importance of the smallest to the largest of human communities has made the concept of leadership a much considered and much debated concept. Looking at the history of the concept of leadership, many ancient Greek philosophers such as Socrates and Plato expressed their views on leadership. Caesar, one of the most important leaders of history, has written works on how a leader should be (Tassel & Poe-Howfield, 2010, p. 62). There have even been those who base the origins of leadership on mythological gods (Hatch, Kostera, & Kozminski, 2006).

Leadership is a complex and multidimensional concept and gathering all its dimensions within one definition or theory is not possible. However, when we look at the definitions of leadership, expressions such as "influence" and "leading" come to the fore. In other words, "the ability to gather a group of people around certain goals and mobilize them to achieve those goals" becomes important in leadership (Pazarbaş, 2012, p. V). In addition, leadership is a concept related to the power to determine the goals of the community in which it is a member and to guide the group in the most effective way in achieving these goals (Avcı & Topaloğlu, 2009, p. 3).

Leadership emerges with the group's acceptance and appreciation of the leader's activities and their results rather than the leader's characteristics. Undoubtedly, some other situational factors that affect and determine a leader's actions should not be overlooked (Erol Eren, 2001, p. 466). Therefore, leadership can be defined as an activity or a behavioral function (Koçel, 2020, p. 585). When we look at the definitions of leadership; leadership, followers and situations are functions of leadership.

Some of the definitions related to leadership are given as follows (Zel, 2006, p. 109-110):

• Leadership is the whole of the behavior of the individual to direct behavior of a group towards a common objective.

• Leadership can be described as a process of interpersonal interaction aimimng at achieving predetermined targets in an environment where people experience the process of communication.

• Leadership is initiating the structure with mutual behavior and to continue this structure.

• Leadership is a role that answers all the questions of those who strive to achieve the goals of the organizations.

• Leadership can be described as the activity of affecting an organized human group' behavior to achieve a specific goal.

Personality and character are essential to leadership. According to Adair (2004, p. 121), the characteristics of leaders are as follows:

1. Enthusiasm, desire: It is difficult to be a leader without desire.

2. Integrity: It is important in both personal and business relationships.

3. Toughness: Leaders are often persistent in what they want. Therefore, individuals may be uneasy about the presence of leaders in their environment because their standards are high.

4. Fairness: Competent leaders treat people differently but in an equal manner. Those leaders do not take sides and treat them according to their performance.

5. Warmth: Leaders should be able to appeal to the heart of individuals as well as to their minds.

6. Humility: This is a different trait, but it is the best leaders' trait. Because no one wants to work with an arrogant leader.

7. Self-confidence: It is an indispensable feature. Self-confidence is one of the first conditions of being a good leader.

As a result, when we look at the definitions of leadership in general, it is seen that leadership is related to 4 factors (Özler, 2013, p. 96):

* Purpose: The goals, interests or needs that bring the group members together.

* Leader: A member of the group who has the power to influence the group.

* Followers (members): Group members who accept the power of influence of the leader.

* Environment: Members relationships, competencies, motivation levels, such as achievable factors.

1.2. Leadership Theories

There has been a need for leaders since the beginning of human history, whether they are two people or citizens of a great country, people who gather around a common goal will continue to need leaders to achieve these goals. As such a paramount issue, the interest in leadership is not new and it has been a subject of interest to people and researchers since ancient times. However, the first serious scientific studies on leadership were carried out in the early twentieth century (Güney, 2015, p. 368). These studies focused on different dimensions in different periods, resulting in different theories based on focused dimensions. Before the twentieth century, leadership was more based on the idea of "Great Men" (Leadership Central, 2013). According to this idea, "some were born to manage, some were born to direct" and history consists of the life stories of great men (Şahin, 2012, p. 143). In the 1930s, the "trait theory", a continuation of the 'great men' perspective and focusing on the leader's personal characteristics such as values, skills and character was introduced and research throughout the 1950s was influenced by this theory. Between 1950 and 1960, behavioral theories focused on the behavior of the leader and between 1960 and 1970, situational theories that gave priority to the situations and conditions (Özler, 2013, p. 106).

1.2.1. Trait Theories

At the beginning of the 20th century, the Great Man Theory left its place to the Trait Theories. Although these two theories argue that leaders have different characteristics from the employees who follow them, they differ in opinion about where these characteristics originate. The Great Man Theory argued that the traits that make leaders successful are innate. On the other hand, Trait Theory supported the belief that the characteristics that distinguish the leader from others and make leader successful can also be formed as a consequence of the experiences leader has gained and the training leader has received (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991, p. 48).

It is possible to gather the features discussed in the research on this subject under five groups (Yıldız, 2002, p. 226):

1. Physical attributes (appearance, height, age)

2. Social background (social status, educational background)

3. Character and mental abilities (IQ, honesty, creativity, self-confidence, open-mindedness)

4. Task motives (the need for power and success)

5. Social orientations (communication abilities, popularity, sociability).

According to the trait approach, people with these traits are more likely to be leaders. So "what makes individuals leaders is their physical, intellectual, emotional or social characteristics" (Özler, 2013, p. 106).

If the physical or personality traits which are defined as the characteristics of successful leaders are determined, it becomes easier to determine the leaders who will manage the groups successfully or the person who wants to be trained as a leader can gain these characteristics through education and experience which forms the basis of the "Trait Theories". However, the difficulty of finding a definition for the characteristics of the leader in a measurable way and the possibility of explaining the same features in various ways caused the theory in question to be criticized. (Kocel, 2013, p. 577). For example, there may be people within the group who despite having more leadership characteristics than the current leader and this people cannot rise to the position of leader which contradicts the trait theory (Güney, 2015, p. 376). Finally, new features for leadership are being added every day, making the list of traits endless (Güney, 2015, p. 376). Most research conducted on traits has examined the relevance of individual traits to effective leadership. This approach ignores the relationship of traits to each other and how they interact in terms of influencing leader behavior (Yukl, 2013, p. 156). These and similar reasons made it necessary to look at other variables for a better understanding of the concept of leadership, which led to the development of a behavioral leadership approach.

1.2.2. Behavioral Theories

This theory argues that a leader' effectiveness can be determined by the behavioral characteristics rather than the individual characteristics and that leadership behaviors can be acquired by means of education.

Organizations and different educational institutions have conducted research from different aspects and as a result, they have revealed basic behavioral approaches. The basic approaches obtained in the researches were the same. Researchers generally agreed on 2 types of leadership styles that can be determined. One is task-oriented leadership (task ability, initiative, work orientation); the other is people-oriented leadership (ability, taking into account the person, orienting the employee) (Begeç, 1999, p. 22).

Various studies by management scientists have made prominent contributions to the development of behavioral leadership theory. The main ones are: Ohio State University Leadership Research, University of Michigan Leadership Research, Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid, McGregor's X-Y Theory, Likert's System Model. The common point of all those studies is that leaders care about two issues while revealing their leadership behavior. The first of the issues leader cares about is "work or task oriented" and the second is "personal oriented" dimensions. Based on those studies, various leadership styles were detected and their effectiveness was researched. Behavioral theories have made crucial contributions to the understanding of the leadership process but have been criticized for not giving too much weight to the conditions and environment (Tengelimoğlu, 2005, p. 4-5).

1.2.2.1. Ohio State Leadership Research

A group of researchers studying at Ohio State University decided to analyze how individuals behave while leading a group or organization, considering that it is useless to research leadership through personality traits (Northouse, 2016, p. 72).

Leadership research which started in 1945 at Ohio State University has become one of the most influential studies in the field of leadership and formed the beginning of the behavioral approach. These studies in the military field were conducted to define the behavior of leaders. As a consequence of the studies, researchers identified two notable variables for defining the behavior of leaders. They purported those variables as "initiating the structure" and "consideration" (Chemers, 2000: 28).

Initiating the structure factor represents the leader's behavior to organize group members to reach certain targets, develop efficient communication systems and give instructions regarding work-related issues. Consideration depending on the relationship between the leader and his/her subordinates is also important. The leader's behavior to create respect on followers, to construct friendly relations with followers and to direct a close attention to followers' requirements are handled under the factor of consideration (Vroom & Jago, 2007, p. 19).

Based on the Ohio State University Leadership Research, the behavioral dimensions (initiating the structure and consideration) are completely independent from each other. Since the leader may exhibit both dimensions to different degrees, it shows

that there may be different combinations of these two factors in addition to leadership behavior (Ergeneli, 2006, p. 219).
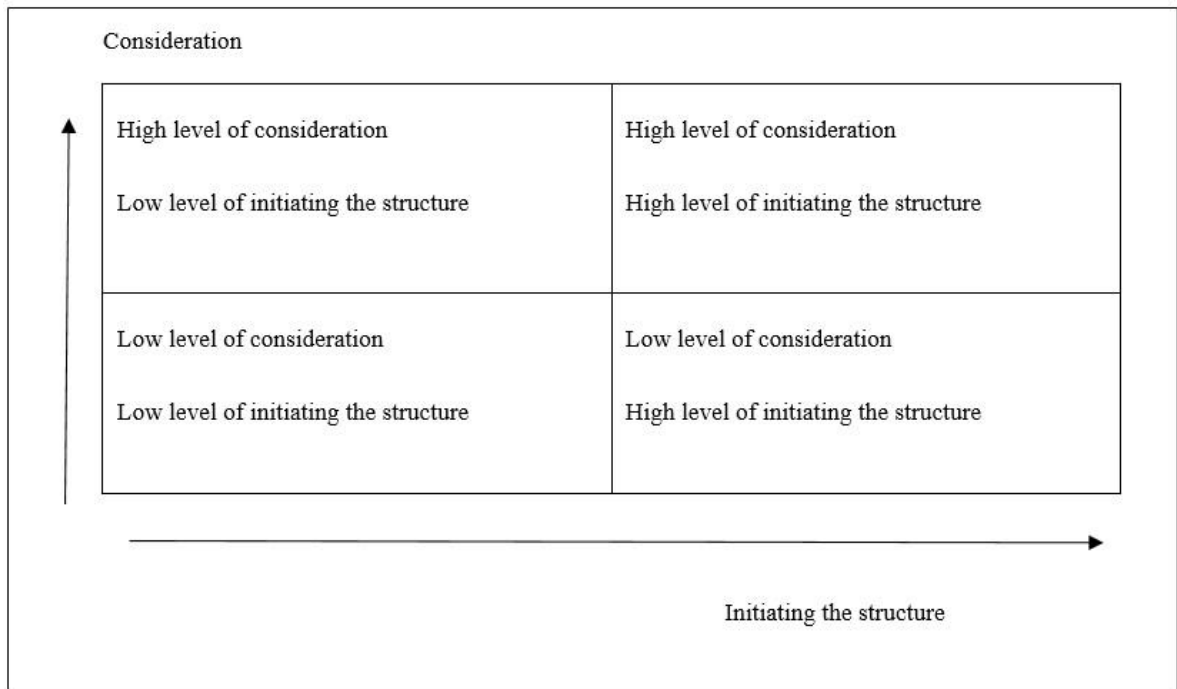
Figure 1-1. *Leadership Behaviors (Şimşek, 2002, p. 194)*

Here are the results from the Ohio State University Studies: (Şimşek, 2002, p. 194);

• While the dimension of initiating the structure is appropriate for groups that want authoritarian leadership, the leader's act of initiating the structure will not be accepted for groups that want less authoritarian leadership.

• In situations where the work is too structured and there is too much time pressure, the leader who shows understanding will not succeed, leaving the group, absences and complaints will increase.

• Insightful motivation will not be helpful in doing things that prevent the self-actualization of the individual and the group.

• In groups where there is little subordinate-superior relationship, authoritarian leadership type is appropriate but in groups where employees are in constant communication, a leader with high understanding will be accepted.

1.2.2.2. University of Michigan Leadership Research

The development of behavioral leadership approaches was contributed to by studies conducted under the direction of Rensis Likert at the University of Michigan in 1947. The

aim of these studies which were conducted on employees at different levels in various industries was to detect the factors that contribute to group members' satisfaction and group's productivity, as well as effective and ineffective leader behaviors. In those researches, criteria such as cost, motivation, efficiency, job satisfaction, turnover rate, absenteeism, complaints were used. Based on the research, Likert grouped leader behavior around two factors. These factors were determined as personal-oriented behavior and job-oriented behavior (Model, 2007, p. 452).

The purpose of Likert's research, carried out at the University of Michigan, was to determine leadership behaviors by examining successful groups. Here, low-producing and high-producing workers and supervisors in groups in various organizations are examined. Thus, they defined and analyzed the difference of an effective leader from another (Özkalp & Kırel, 2010, p. 312).

University of Michigan Leadership Research depends on four key factors, which are listed as follows (Zel, 2006, p. 128):

• *Support*: Behaviors that increase the importance given to group members' personal feelings are crucial and measure personal-oriented behavior.

• *Facilitating Mutual Relationships*: Behaviors that support the development of mutually satisfying and close relationships among group members are crucial and measure personal-oriented behavior.

• *Emphasizing Purpose*: Motivating behaviors are crucial and measure job-oriented behaviors in order to achieve high performance and group goals.

• *Facilitating Work*: Facilitating behaviors are crucial in reaching targets by providing resources such as technical information and tools and measuring job-oriented behaviors.

The first two of those factors measure the personal-oriented behavior, as the other two measure the job-oriented behavior. If the group cares about strengthening mutual relations and supporting its members, the leader is expected to show personal-oriented behavior, if he cares about the goals and facilitating the work, he will show job-oriented behavior.

Unlike the Ohio State Leadership Research, in the University of Michigan Studies, job-oriented and personal-oriented leadership styles are stated as two opposite ends of the same plane. This means that leaders cannot be high in both behavioral dimensions at the same time. In other words, leaders with higher personal-oriented leadership behaviors

will have lower job-oriented leadership behaviors, and leaders with higher job-oriented leadership behaviors will have lower personal-oriented leadership behaviors. However, as a result of recent studies, researchers argued that it is wrong to conceptualize personal-oriented and job-oriented leadership styles as opposite ends on the same plane and it would be more correct to consider them as two completely independent dimensions as in the Ohio State Leadership Research (Kahn, 1956, cited in Northouse, 2008). 2001, p. 38).

1.2.2.3. Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid

Similar to the Michigan and Ohio University Studies, Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid also considers two different dimensions to explain leader behaviors. This model which divides the dimensions into "concern for production" and "concern for people" is mostly used in organizational development and certain training programs (Koçel, 2020, p. 599).

In the Managerial Grid, the dimensions of concern for production and concern for people are formed by dividing them into 9 degrees ranging from "less" to "a lot". As shown in the table below (Table 2), there are 5 different leadership styles created by different grading of the two dimensions. Let's explain these 5 different leadership styles:

• *1,1 Impoverished Management:* The leader makes minimal effort to perform the necessary tasks to stay in the organization.

• *1,9 Country Club Management:* The leader attaches great importance to creating friendly relations with subordinates. On the other hand, leader interest in the task is minimal.

• *9,1 Authority-Compliance Management:* The leader sees her subordinates as a machine, has little to do with human relations, the leader uses authority while ensuring efficiency.

• *5,5 Middle-of-the-road Management:* The leader gives importance to both task and people. Leader tries to keep the morale of the employees in balance with the amount of task to be done.

• *9,9 Team Management:* It is the type of leadership that gives the most value to both the task and the person. The leader tends towards high efficiency while keeping social relations at the maximum level around the common organizational goal (Tucker et al., 2002, p. 227).

Blake and Mouton (1985) argued that people have a single dominant leadership style and generally behave as required by this leadership style in all events. However, these researchers also highlighted that there are spare leadership styles that leaders use when normal behavior styles do not work or they are under pressure (Blake and Mouton, cited in Northouse, 2001, p. 43). It is shown among the advantages of this model that it gives leaders the opportunity to conceptualize their behavior, defines their leadership style and thus enables the person to develop through education by becoming aware of the leadership style (Gibson, Ivancevich, & Donnelly, 1979, cited in Koçel, 2020, p. 598).
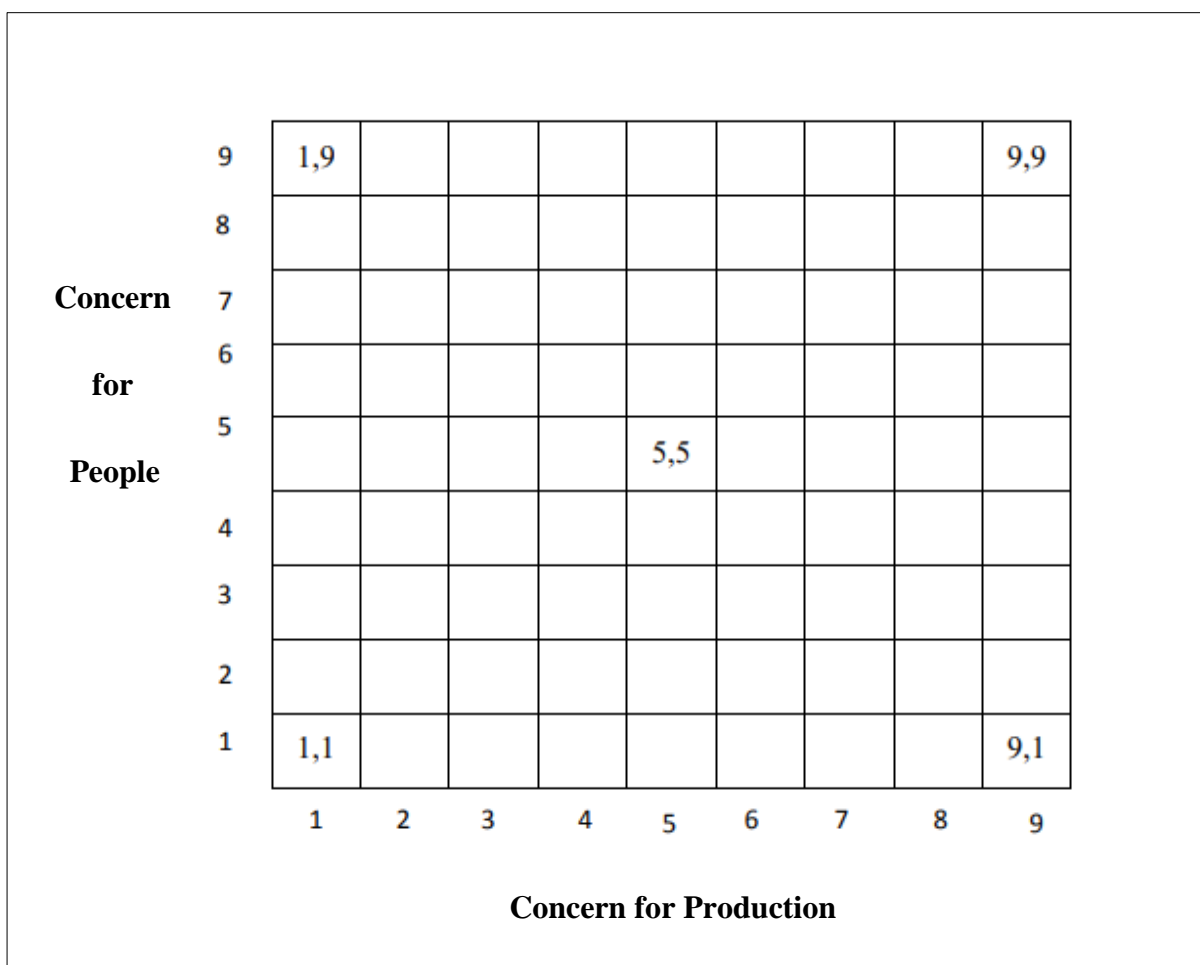
Figure 1-2. *Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (Richard Daft; Management, Fourth Ed., The Dryden Press, 1997, p. 502).*

1.2.2.4. McGregor's X-Y Theory

According to the X and Y Theory introduced in 1957 by Douglas McGregor, the behavior of leaders is shaped according to the perceptions of the employees and how people see these behaviors. McGregor divided employees into two groups as X and Y.

According to McGregor, the assumptions of Theory X are (Eren, 2000, p. 26):

• The average person does not like working and seeks to avoid from work whenever possible.

• People avoid responsibility and prefer to be led.

• People are selfish. They prefer their own goals to the goals of the organization. Therefore, they must be strictly and closely supervised.

• Does not like changes and resists such changes.

• The average person has little creative ability in solving organizational problems.

The assumptions called Theory Y are as follows (Koçel, 2020, p. 599):

• Work done for the employee is as natural as rest or play.

• The person is not inherently lazy and the average person does not hate work.

Thusly, while the managers believing in Theory X will have more intrusive and authoritarian behavior, those who maintain the assumptions of Theory Y will have a more participatory and democratic behavior (Koçel, 2020, p. 599).

THEORY X	THEORY Y
The individual is inactive.	The individual is active.
Employees are blamed.	Managers are blamed.
Economic motives.	Socio-psychological motives.
External audit is implemented.	There is self-control.
The decision making body is the managers.	Employees are involved in decisions.
Authority is strict.	Authority is moderate.

Table 1-1. *Differences between Theory X and Theory Y (Sabuncuoğlu & Tüz,1998, p. 25)*

1.2.2.5. Likert's System Model

System 4 model can be developed by Likert. There are 4 different systems, namely System 1, System 2, System 3 and System 4. According to Likert, organizations that operate on System 4 level tend to be more effective (Brown, 2011). Table 1 shows these different systems in detail (Brown, 2011).

System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4
Exploitative Authoritative	Benevolent-authoritative	Consultative System	Participative/Group System
(a) Employees abide by decisions taken (b) Deliberate exclusion in decision making processes by management (c) The concern of the organisation is the completion of the work (d) No teamwork involved	(a) Top-down approach in decision-making (b) Motivation through rewards rather than threads and fear (c) Upwards mobility of information but restricted to what makes management happy	(a) A degree of involvement in decision-making process (b) Ideas of employees welcomed to a certain degree (c) The degree of major decision-making still the competence of senior management	(a) Management shows complete trust and confidence in subordinates (b) High degree of involvement in decision-making processes (c) Team work is encouraged (d) Individual ability is promoted (e) Individual accountability specific recognition of team and individual accomplishments

Table 1-2. *Likert's System Model (Brown, 2011)*

Rensis Likert conducting research at the University of Michigan and he has developed a model that aggregates leadership behaviors under four groups (Özler, 2013, p. 110; Balcı, 2009, p. 36):

System 1- Exploitative Authoritative: Followers very rarely participate in the decision making process. The leader cannot trust the followers and tries to motivate them with intimidation, punishment and rarely reward. The followers do not feel free to talk to their leaders about the job and the opinion of the followers is very rarely taken. Decisions and goals are taken at the top management level and passed to the followers in a hierarchy from top to bottom.

System 2 – Benevolent Authoritative: The leader has a limited confidence in the followers. Most of the decisions are made by the upper level but in some of the decisions, the opinions of the followers are taken although limited. The leader motivates followers with rewards and potential punishments. Followers don't feel too free to talk to their leaders about the job.

System 3 – Consultative System: Although the leader trusts followers, it is not an unlimited trust. Followers can talk easily with their superiors about their work and the opinion of the followers is taken in general and mostly tried to be used. The leader motivates followers with reward, rarely punishment and participation. The main policies and decisions are determined by the executive but some special technical and specific decisions are made by the followers.

System 4 – Participative/Group System: The leader is completely confident for the followers and the followers is free to talk to their superiors about their work. The leader always takes the opinions of the followers and uses them.

Likert's research has shown that high-productivity groups are under System 3 and System 4 management while low-productivity groups are under System 1 and System 2 management (Koçel, 2020, p. 600).

As a result, System 1 represents a task-oriented, authoritarian and formal management style. On the other hand System 4 is a management system inclined towards relationships based on group work and mutual trust. Systems 2 and 3 are the middle stages between these two points. According to Likert if the management type of the organization is close to System 4, a high and continuous efficiency is provided. System 4 was developed heavily inspired by the human relations school pioneered by Mayo and McGregor (Gençay, 2001, p. 18).

1.2.3. Situational Theories

Although the traits and behavioral approaches are different from each other, one tried to generalize about the traits of the leader while the other tried to generalize about the behavior of the leader. In both approaches, the situational factors of organizations and employees are ignored (Topçu Bresctick, 1999, p. 65).

The general assumption of the situational approach is that different conditions need different leadership styles (Sabuncuoğlu & Tüz, 2001, p. 23).

According to the situational approach explaining leadership, the factors that determine the effectiveness of leadership are as follows (Giderler, 2005, p. 70):

• The effects of environmental conditions on leadership (characteristic of the organization)

• The qualification of the goal to be achieved (goal-tool interaction)

• Abilities and expectations of group members

• Hierarchical level relations where the leader's personal skills and the leadership task are carried out

Situational theories include Fiedler's Effective Leadership Approach, Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Model, Path-Goal Theory of Leadership etc. The common point of these theories can be stated that a relationship-oriented or a task-oriented leadership style will not be valid in all situations and conditions, in some cases a task-oriented leadership style can lead to effectiveness and in some cases, a relationship-oriented leadership style can be productive and effective (Çağlar, 2004). According to this theory, it is paramount to evaluate the situations and determine a leadership style accordingly. So leadership styles varies on situations to situations.

1.2.3.1. Fred Fiedler's Effective Leadership Model

According to this model developed by Fred Fiedler in 1967, for a leader's effectiveness, there must be harmony between leader's personality traits and the current situation (Ergeneli, 2006, p. 222). In this model, the characteristics of the leader are divided into the "task-oriented leader" who cares about reaching the goal, and the "relation-oriented leader" who gives importance to interpersonal relations. Fiedler developed a scale called Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) to measure these leadership characteristics; those who score high on this scale are defined as relationship-oriented leader and those with low scores as task-oriented leader (Northouse, 2001, p. 76).

In addition to the characteristics of the leader (relation-oriented and task-oriented leader), Fiedler also examined the current situation on the basis of sub-dimensions and defined these dimensions as "leader-subordinate relationship", "task structure" and "position power" (Bryman et al. 2011, p. 291). The leader-subordinate relationship deals with the trust and loyalty of the employees to their leaders and the perceived attraction of the leader by the employees. As a result of the evaluation, the leader-subordinate relationship can take two values: strong and weak. The second of the situational variables, the task strcuture deals with the perceptions of the employees about the openness of the work they have to do. According to this model, the increase in the task structure will increase the leader's control over the situation. The task structure as in the leader-employee relationship is divided into two: high and low. The task power, which is the last of the situational variables expresses the authority of the leader to reward or punish the employees. This authority expresses the legal power arising from the position occupied

by the leader and can take two values as high or low as a result of the evaluation (Northouse, 2001, p. 76-77).

When these three variables are brought together eight different combinations are formed. In this model, the most preferred situation is the situations where the leader-subordinate relationship is strong, the task structure is high and the position power is high. The reverse is the least preferred case (Ergeneli, 2006, p. 224; Northouse, 2001, p. 77). Fiedler found that relationship-oriented leaders performed higher in four of these eight different situations and task-oriented leaders performed higher in four of them (Vroom & Jago, 2007, p. 20).

Figure 3 shows Fiedler's Effective Leadership Model. According to this model, the effectiveness of the leader's behaviors will differ according to the values they receive from variables such as the leader-subordinate relationship, task structure and position power. There are eight different situations in Fiedler's Effective Leadership Model and if these different situations are considered on a straight line, the task-oriented leader will be more effective in situations that represent two different extremes (the most positive and the most negative), and in the opposite situations, the relationship-oriented leader will be more effective.

Figure 1-3. *Preferred Leadership Style (Northouse, P. G. (2001). Leadership: Theory and Practice. Thousand Oaks: Sage: 77)*

1.2.3.2. Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Model

In this theory, as in most behavioral leadership theories, two main dimensions are focused on task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership behavior. In task-oriented leader behavior, the leader tells members what, where, when, how, and by whom should be done. In relationship-oriented leader behavior, the leader is in a close individual relationship with the members. The leader's behaviors are generally in the form of listening, encouraging and providing social-emotional support. Based on the basic dimensions of task-oriented behavior and relationship-oriented leadership behavior, Hersey-Blanchard emphasised the following four model leadership styles (Özkalp & Kırel, 2008, p. 323-324):

Telling: High task, low relationship. It tells who will do what and when. This type of communication is one-way. The members are directed by the leader to get things done and achieve determined goals.

Selling: High relationship, high task. Leader both instructs and supports the followers. The leader is moderate in behavior and guides subordinates.

Participating: Low task, high relationship. The leader usually exhibits a decision-making behavior with subordinates. Leader receives the contributions of subordinates and supports them.

Delegating: Low task, low relationship. The leader's relationship with his/her subordinates are weak, leader's support remains low.

Hersey-Blanchard expressed that those four leadership styles are necessary in different conditions and situations. The telling type is a task-oriented leader. Its objective is to get the task done effectively. The selling leader focuses on both task and relationships. While instructing subordinates to do things better and also tries to motivate them. The participating leader, as the name suggests, tries to achieve goals by subordinates' participation. Such type of leadership can be accepted as relationship-oriented. Delegating leadership cannot focus on the task or the relationship and leader cannot engage in close relationships with subordinates.

Hersey-Blanchard who gathered the leadership behaviors under the four groups listed above, stated that the success levels of the group members do not depend only on the behaviors shown by the leader but also the maturity level, which is defined as "the willingness and ability of people to take responsibility in directing their own behaviors". Task-related knowledge and skills of group members are expressed as job maturity and

their willingness and motivation to undertake job are determined as psychological maturity. The maturity levels of employees can be examined in four fundamental dimensions, which reflect the level of traits needed to succeed in a job. Those dimensions are summarized as follows (Yılmaz, 2011, p. 65):

D1: The knowledge and skill levels of the employees to reach organizational targets are very weak and their desire to achieve their task is low. Having such employees, the leader makes the whole decisions alone and endeavours to organize the task. As a result, employees become under strict control as to whether they are doing their task or not.

D2: The skills and technical knowledge of the employees are not sufficient to realize the organizational goals. Those employees do not posssess confidence in themselves. They are not psychologically mature, but they are willing to complete a task in parallel with the tasks given by their leaders.

D3: Group members possess sufficient experience and knowledge to reach the targets in line with the objectives. That is, they are not willing to complete their task, however their task maturity is present. The leader has to perform a more behavior-oriented leadership model in the face of those employees,

D4: At this level, group members are ready to succeed under each condition. Their leaders have great belief in the potential of their group members and gives each of them the authority to take the initiative in the decision-making process. The leader with this group does not have to show too much task-oriented or relationship-oriented behavior.

Members in D1 possess very low level of task as well as psychological maturity. That's why leaders working with those members make all the decisions alone and keep a constant check on whether the members are doing their task. Members in D2 possess psychological maturity while they do not possess task maturity. It is extremely important that leaders working with such members guide and motivate willing and enthusiastic employees. While the members in D3 have task maturity, they do not have psychological maturity. Thusly, leaders who work with those members have to be behavior-oriented. The members in D4, on the other hand, have both task maturity and psychological maturity. Therefore, it is seen that leaders who work with such members show moderate task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviors.

1.2.3.3. Path Goal Theory of Leadership

Robert S. House and Martin G. Evans' Path-Goal Theory, which was developed in the early 1970s, tries to explain the effectiveness of the leader in different situations and the influence of the leader's behavior on the motivation, satisfaction and success levels of the followers. According to this theory, there are two factors that affect human behavior (Sökmen & Boylu, 2009, p. 2384):

• Belief that a person will achieve certain results through a behavior (expectancy),

• The value given by the person regarding these results (valences).

This theory can be illustrated as in Figure 4 below:
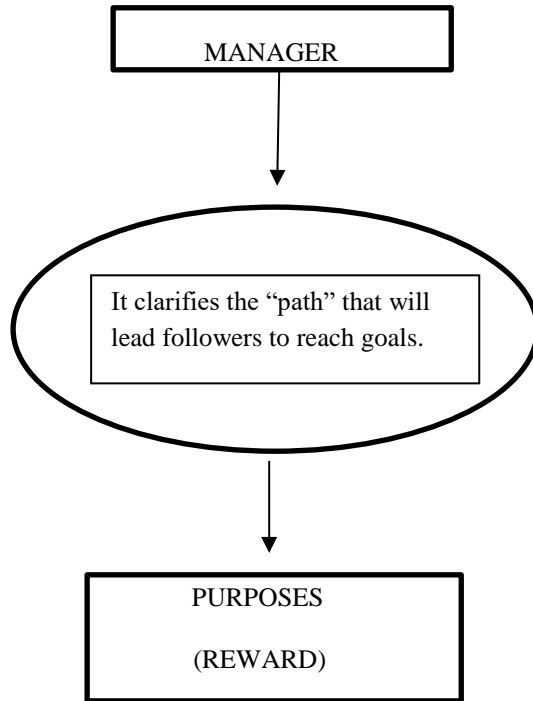
Figure 1-4. *Path-Goal Theory of Leadership (Koçel, İşletme Yöneticiliği, 2020, p. 604)*

According to this model, an individual's behavior depends on individual's needs and his/her ability on that behavior to satisfy needs. The theory is largely based on the expectancy theory of motivation. The meaning of expectancy theory in terms of leadership is as follows; group members can be motivated by the leader in the following subjects (Koçel, 2020, p. 604):

• The extent to which the leader affects group members' expectations (Path) and

• The extent to which the leader affects the valences of the followers (Goal)

In this theory, it is emphasized how the leader influences the followers, how the work-related goals are perceived and the ways to reach the goal (Şimşek, 2002, p. 195).

Path– Goal Theory mentions that there are four types of leadership behavior (Şimşek, 2002, p. 195):

Directive: The followers do not participate in the decisions, the manager makes the decisions on the issues related to the work to be done.

Supportive: The leader is concerned with followers and leader's approach is friendly.

Participative: Decisions are made by the group. Before making a decision, the leader takes the suggestions of other group members and includes them in the decision-making process.

Achievement-oriented: The leader sets crucial goals and trusts followers in achieving goals.

1.2.3.4. Vroom and Yetton's Normative Decision Model

The model describes how many subordinates must be participated in sharing decisions, based on situation's characteristics. That is to say that, the decisions taken by only one individual cannot be of the best quality in all possible situations, in the evaluation of the decisions made, the leaders must make comparisons by taking into account the alternative decisions, and they must give importance to the subordinates' participation in decision making. This model also suggested that the leadership style is based on the the place of leader in the organization and thusly different leadership types will develop (Özkalp & Kırel, 2010, p. 320-321).

Based on this model, four types of decision making can be found. It is possible to list them as follows (Zel, 2006, p. 158-161):

• **Autocratic-1**: The leader solves the problem alone in the light of the available information.

• **Autocratic-2**: The leader asks subordinates for additional information and still solves the problem alone.

• **Consultative-1**: Before making a decision, the leader takes the individual thoughts and proposals of subordinates and then makes a decision.

• **Consultative-2**: Before making a decision, the leader takes the opinions and suggestions of subordinates as a group and then makes the decision.

• **Group-1:** The leader discusses the problem individually with subordinates and a joint decision is made.

• **Group-2:** The leader brings together all subordinates as a group and makes decisions to find a solution for the problem in a democratic way without imposing own thoughts on them.

• **Delegated:** The leader gives information about the solution of the problem and the responsibility of solving the problem to subordinates and asks the subordinate to report how reached a solution.

Based on the explanations above, the decision process' structure is mainly related with the types of leaders.

1.2.4. Modern Approaches to Leadership

Considering that the only constant thing is change itself, it is inevitable that social, commercial and organizational changes will not show themselves in the field of leadership. Although the criticisms towards the situational approach, the behavioral approach, and the trait approach and have decreased, the lack of consensus on the reliability of these theories has led to the emergence of new approaches (Güney, 2015, p. 409).

1.2.4.1. Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is the basis of an exchange connection between the leader and the followers in order to reach a target (McCleskey, 2014, p. 122). The subject of this exchange can be economic, political or psychological, and both sides are interdependent (Özyılmaz & Ölçer, 2008, p. 130). The leader-followers relationship hinges on the effect of both sides on each other. The leader constructs a system of reward for the followers to achieve the certain goal and enables them to unveil higher performance. If the followers cannot perform the expected success, however, they are faced with some punishments. Three fundamental dimensions can be determined for transactional leadership. Those are laissez-faire, contingent reward, and management by exception. We can explain them as follows:

Contingent reward: Leaders determine a common goal and underline how employees who achieve these goals will receive a reward for it. The employee is provided moral and material rewards by the leader in return for achieving the predetermined goals.

More effort is spent by employees spend as rewarding occurs. Thus, conditional reward is called a constructive transaction (Bakan et al., 2015, p. 204).

Management by exception: Management with exception basically possesses two dimensions. Those can be named as passive and active dimensions. The whole of the processes and problems are not dealt with directly by the leader in management by exception. The leader merely interferes when a negative situation occurs. This management style is used as a method especially when the performance of employee is very low.

In the understanding of management with passive exceptions, the leader is content to wait for problems to arise and does not make any special efforts to prevent them. By adopting the management behavior with passive exceptions, he/she does not endeavour to find solutions for the problems emerged in general and expects solutions from his followers to the organizational activities-related problems (Yavuz and Tokmak, 2009, p. 18).

In management by active exceptions, the leader concentrates attention on monitoring the performance of tasks due to issues that may arise and resolving those issues to ensure current performance levels. The leader monitors deviations from the current process and reacts to prevent any irregularities (Okçu, 2011).

Laissez-faire: In this style of leadership, the followers are left alone by the leader. This situation is very common for appointed managers who do not possess leadership qualifications. Those leaders reject their responsibilities and abstain from making decisions (Okçu, 2011).

1.2.4.2. Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership focuses on followers. Transformational leaders trust their followers and establish two-way communication. The leader makes the tasks of the employees more logical for realizing the organizational goals and supports those goals with rewards. Such leaders assume that change is inevitable, they see change as necessary and they make special efforts to cause change (Şimşek, 2006, p.27).

The transformational leader determines behaviors that can position him/her as a role model in the eyes of his/her followers. The leader gives his followers a sense of confidence by overcoming difficult factors. It will also emphasize to its audience the commitment, the significance of goals, and the ethical implications of decisions. Hence,

the followers will seek to resemble the leader and identify themselves with him/her within the framework of common objectives (Demir & Okan, 2008, p. 76).

There are four basic dimensions of transformational leadership (McCleskey, 2014, p.120):

Idealized influence: There are two apparent aspects to the idealized influence, which are the characteristics attributed to the leader by his/her followers and the behavior of the leader. Risks are easily taken by highly idealized leaders.

Inspirational motivation: Transformational leaders are able to motivate their followers easily because they represent their feelings. The leader's determination to solve problems inspires and motivates followers.

Intellectual stimulation: Followers are expected to come up with new ideas by the transformational leaders in the process of solving problems. The ideas of the followers is very important for the leader. Thus, it makes its followers willing and open to innovations.

Individual consideration: Transformational leaders observe their followers very closely and seek to meet their individualistic expectations.

After the aforementioned dimensions of transformational leadership are clarified, its main characteristics are specified as follows (Yılmaz, 2011, p. 81):

- Developing a clear vision,
- Creating new strategies to realize the vision,
- Describing the new vision created,
- Demonstrate confidence that the vision will come true,
- Celebrating achievements,
- Being a role model for followers

1.2.4.3. Charismatic Leadership

The first researcher to adapt the concept of charisma to leadership is known as German sociologist Max Weber. In the Weberian approach, charismatic leaders are separated from ordinary people. They have innate superhuman powers (Aslan, 2009, p. 258). Weber described the concept of charisma not as a legal or traditional authority, but as the leader's influence on followers depending on leader's extraordinary characteristics. Accordingly, charismatic leadership possesses a highly personalised power. Followers show a high level of trust to the charismatic leader. The charismatic leader revives the inspirations and ideas of his/her followers (Okçu, 2011, p. 440). Followers not only

respect their charismatic leader, but they also idealize them as heroes. This can be seen as a worship for them (Özyılmaz, Ölçer, 2008, p.160).

In some cases, charismatic leadership turns into destructive leadership. The leader's relations with followers may be destructive. In this sense, a destructive leader can be described as a type of smug leader that does not take into account others's views, that humiliates followers, and does not respect them (Koçel, 2020, p.610).

1.2.4.4. Servant Leadership

Servant leadership is a concept introduced to the literature in the early 1970s by Robert Greenleaf. The mere priority of this leadership type is to "serve" its followers (Koçel, 2020, p. 613). Within this framework, the servant leader puts the demands and needs of followers ahead of own demands and needs. The servant leader takes into account the effects of his/her decisions on his/her followers and acts them sensitively. This servant leadership is not a force-taught method, but it is the product of leader's inner feeling. Greenleaf's idea of servant leadership is rooted in the Jesus's teachings in the Bible and ten characteristics are specified that form the basis for the development of the idea of servant leadership. As Saylı and Baytok (2014, p. 136) underlined, these teachings are empathy, listening, healing, awareness, persuasion, prudence, conceptualization, responsibility and development, serving and focusing on society.

1.3. Distributed Leadership

Distributed leadership is an issue that has come to the fore especially towards the end of the 1990s. Gronn, who is one of the important names of researchers in theoretical studies on distributed leadership, underlined that the Social Psychology literature in the 1950s can be regareded as the first references to distributed leadership (Ağıroğlu & Bakır, 2013, p.26).

The first known study on distributed leadership was made by Gibb in 1954 (Özdemir, 2012, p.5). In this study, Gibb explained that the leadership was distributed among the group members, and Gronn, who summarized Gibb's ideas in his own work, also touched upon this subject in Gibb's (1954) work called "Handbook of Social Psychology" (Sarıçiçek, 2014, p.10).

Older leadership approaches generally focus on the relationship between leader and followers. In older leadership approaches, an individual takes the responsibility of

leadership alone. In recent years, the view of sharing the leadership within the organization rather than the understanding that the leadership is carried out by a single person is more accepted. Rather than an understanding of a leader who can do everything alone, the understanding of leadership which defines leadership as a process that is distributed and shared and at the same time aims to benefit from the leadership capacities of individuals at the highest level is getting more support every day (Harris et al., 2007).

It is possible to encounter various definitions in the literature on distributed leadership. The first known study of distributed leadership was done by Gibb in 1954. In this work, Gibb advocated the view that leadership is distributed among group members.

According to Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2001), distributed leadership is the process of firstly distributing the work between the leader and the followers and then integrating the work done by the group members. In this sense, the leadership function can be seen a process that involves sharing the work among members of a group and thusly doing it by the interaction of more than one leader. According to Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2001), distributed leadership can be metaphorically compared to a dance performed by the leader and followers. In this dance, the leader and the followers interact. While this interaction is very significant during the dance, it is not sufficient on its own. Because the dance is performed with a musical accompaniment. For this reason, the dancing leader and followers need to adapt themselves to the rhythm of the music. In this context, it is understood that Spillane, Halverson and Diamond consider distributed leadership as harmony between leaders and followers. As it can be understood, Spillane and others' understanding of distributed leadership is similar to Fiedler's Situational Leadership Theory. The theory revealed that the effect of the leader on the group basically depends on the structure of the group (As cited in Coleman & Earley, 2005, p. 10).

Some definitions of distributed leadership are as follows:

• Distributed leadership focuses on the structure and nature of leadership practices and the clear structuring of communication between followers and leaders

• Distributed or shared leadership supports the division of labor experienced in organizations day by day, minimizing the chances of errors from a single leader's limited knowledge compared to highly hierarchical and fixed leadership types (Leithwood et al., 2009).

• Distributed or shared leadership practice is not just a leader's knowledge and ability but a sharing perspective in which people and their situations interact. It is the product of the interaction among leaders, followers and situations (Spillane, 2005).

1.3.1. Basics of Distributed Leadership

Although the distributed leadership approach is among the modern leadership theories, it is possible to see its first traces in the early 20th century when its basics are examined.. Based on this information, it is possible to say that distributed leadership is not a new idea. As I mentioned, the Austrian psychologist Gibb (1954) first used the concept of distributed leadership to explain the interactions between formal and informal groups.

Gibb distinguishes between focused and distributed leadership to identify ways in which leaders in particular groups can influence. While the word "focused" meant to gather all kinds of authority and responsibility on one person, the word "distributed" meant that the leadership was distributed by the individuals in the group and different people took on the leadership role at different times (Harris et al., 2007).

The distributed leadership approach also emphasizes the idea that the leadership capacities of organizations are not static but developable. With this aspect, distributed leadership refers to the understanding of "holism". This understanding argues that when the parts that make up a whole come together, their sums correspond to more than their own capacities.

According to Gronn (2008), in order to better understand the concept of distributed leadership, it is necessary to examine its basics. Understanding the basics of distributed leadership allows us to shed light on the concept in its current form. Gronn (2008) lists the authors who form the basis of distributed leadership, according to the approximate publication date of their works, as follows:

Benne ve Sheats: Benne and Sheats pointed out that the leadership task can be carried out by one or more people with the suggestion that emerged as a result of their study. In addition, these two researchers emphasized shared responsibility and revealed our modern understanding of distributed leadership.

Gibb: Gibb (1954) first expressed the concept of distributed leadership in his work called "Handbook of Social Psychology". Gibb was skeptical of the understanding of leadership carried out by a single person and found the leader-follower distinction

unnecessary. He suggested that leadership can pass from person to person from time to time, depending on the situation of the organization. Gibb's skepticism of the leadership of a single person took him further in 1968 and helping him to introduce the idea that leadership is an activity performed as a group.

French ve Snyder: These two researchers used leadership as one part of the group exerting a social influence over the other. Individuals who show more leadership effectiveness make an impact on the other. According to this situation, followers are defined as people with less leadership. This may be related to their personality traits and other roles.

Katz ve Kahn: Katz and Kahn argued that the spread of leadership to the entire organization rather than the groups would increase the influence of the leadership. They also predicted that formal leaders can use distributed leadership strategies such as empowerment and shared decision-making processes in organizations.

Schein: Leadership has been defined by Scheein (1988) in terms of functions. He argued that better results would be obtained when leadership behaviors were applied not only by formal leaders but also by the entire organization.

Although there are many different definitions of the concept of distributed leadership, the common point is that they oppose the leadership of single person and aim to benefit from the leadership aspects of everyone in the organization. In the modern sense, it is thought that Gronn (2002), Spillane (2006) and Elmore (2000) made the greatest contribution to the understanding of distributed leadership.

1.3.2. Gronn's Distributed Leadership Theories

Gronn is seen as one of the researchers who contributed greatly to the understanding of distributed leadership. Gronn (2002) highligted that the distributed approach has gained a great influence compared to the old leadership theories. He explained the reason for this with the idea that the use of all leadership potential in the organization is significant for the future and success of the leader.

An important part of the concept of distributed leadership is to explain the division of labor and the distribution of leadership in the organization. Gronn (2008) explained the divisions of labor in organizations as follows:

Spontaneous Collaboration: It means that more than one leader is effective in leadership practice together. Gronn explains the spontaneous collaboration as the

individuals who make up the organization use the knowledge they have in line with the goals of the organization and the responsibilities are distributed accordingly (Bolden, 2011). In this application, the distribution of work was generally formed on a voluntary basis.

Intiutive Working Relations: In this method, two or more individuals develop close working relationships and trust each other. These relationships are formed over time. Leadership roles are explained as shared relationships (Bolden, 2011). Distributed leadership roles reveal themselves as leaders completing each other's deficiencies.

Institutionalized Practices: This practice may find a chance to show itself more in the formal structure of the organization. There is a distributed leadership capacity in the structure, defined by Gronn as the "Distributed Leadership Pool" (Gronn, 2008). Teams and groups form this pool and aim to increase cooperation in the organization.

1.3.3. Spillane's Distributed Leadership Theories

Spillane focuses on three main factors that cause the traditional understanding of leadership to be questioned. First, leadership encompasses the behavior of more than one leader. In other words, it may be unright to consider leadership as the individual at the top hierarchical level of the organization telling the followers what to do. Second, leadership is not something that is done to followers. When evaluated within the framework of distributed leadership, followers are a component of the leadership process. Thirdly, it is not correct to consider leadership as a process that emerges as a result of the pure behavior of individuals. The interaction between the leader and the followers determines the leadership process (Kılınç, 2013, p.22).

Spillane defined his views on distributed leadership in three different ways:

Collaborated Distribution: Leadership responsibilities are fulfilled by more than one person.

Collective Distribution: In this approach, while two or more individuals carry out their responsibilities separately, they work autonomously for the same goals at the point of achieving the goals of the group.

Coordinated Distribution: In this approach, two or more people carry out the same leadership tasks in a coordinated manner (Bolden, 2011).

According to Spillane's (2005) perspective, the definitions of distributed leadership are as follows:

• Leadership practice means much more than leader-leader and leader-follower interactions. Because when the parts that make up the whole come together, they have a different meaning.

• Leadership practice allows multiple leaders to work independently but in support of each other.

• Leadership is affected by the interaction of more than one leader, as well as the interaction of the leader and followers.

• Leaders act according to situations defined by other people. Leadership is built through these interactions.

1.3.4. Elmore's Distributed Leadership Theories

Elmore emphasizes the leadership capacity of organizations while defining distributed leadership. Leadership capacity has been defined by Elmore as the sum of the leadership behaviors that the individuals forming the organization can display. Expecting better results from the organization is only possible with the highest level of leadership capacity. Increasing the leadership capacity is possible by including other stakeholders in the management and giving importance to their personal development.

According to Elmore (2000), 5 items of distributed leadership should be considered in order to achieve a great improvement in institutions. These can be briefly defined as the fact that learning takes place by taking a model, the improvement in teaching ensures that learning should be continuous, a good leadership practice is transparent and accountable, and the leadership aims to increase the teaching performance.

2. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.1. Organizational Commitment Definition

Organizational commitment is a paramount concept for both the organization and the employee. While the concept of "organizational commitment", which has been interpreted differently by many different researchers, was seen as the commitment of employees to the organization for financial reasons in the 1960s, the human-related aspects of the concept began to come to the fore in the 1970s. In this process, it has been noticed that the concept has received different interpretations by scientists from many different disciplines in line with their own perspectives (Güçlü, 2006, p. 9).

The increasing interest of various disciplines like social psychology, organizational psychology, and organizational behavior, related to the subject of organizational commitment and the fact that researchers from those fields bring their own standpoints to the subject make it difficult to comprehend the concept of organizational commitment. Therefore, there is no agreed definition of the concept of organizational commitment. In this sense, there are many different definitions. Some of the definitions are given below (Gül, 2002, p. 38):

Meyer and Allen (1991) described organizational commitment as a behavior that possesses a psychological aspect, which is characterized by the relationship between employees and the organization and makes those employees decide to be a permanent organization members (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67).

Yüksel (2000) defines organizational commitment not only as a process of loyalty to the employer, but also as a process in which those participated in the organization express their views and endeavour for the continuity of the organization's well-being and success (Bayram, 2005, p. 128).

According to Huey Yiing and Zaman Bin Ahmad (2009), organizational commitment refers to an employee's belief in the goals and values of the organization, loyalty to the organization and desire to remain a member of the organization (Huey Yiing and Zaman Bin Ahmad, 2009, p. 56).

Based on all these definitions, it may be possible to summarize the definition of the concept of organizational commitment as employees' desire to stay in the organization, employees' identification with the success of the organization, the loyalty of the

employee to the organization and the interest shown in order for the organization to be successful (Bayram, 2005, p. 128).

Organizational commitment is characterized by three factors. These (Eisenberg et al., 1983, p.181):

• Demonstrating a strong belief and acceptance of the goals and values of the organization,

• Willingness to display meaningful effort on behalf of the organization,

• A strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.

Various scales have been developed to determine the importance, scope and degree of impact of the concept of organizational commitment for organizations. The scale, which was developed by Mowday, Porter, Steers and Boulian in 1979, was prepared with a seven-point Likert scale and consisted of 15 questions, has been a widely used scale to measure organizational commitment.

Later, due to the inadequacy of the scales that deal with the subject in one dimension, it was necessary to develop a multidimensional scale. In this direction, the scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990a, p. 3) aims to measure organizational commitment by dividing it into three basic components. This scale not only makes the distinction between job commitment and organizational commitment, but also includes various sub-variables that determine the causes of commitment in both areas.

Meyer and Allen, who studied organizational commitment, argued that organizational commitment has a psychological dimension and defined it as a behavior that is shaped by the relationship of employees with the organization and makes them decide to be a permanent member of the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67).

2.2. Factors Affecting Organizational Commitment

At the beginning of the factors affecting organizational commitment are personal, organizational and external factors. People's expectations, characteristics, new job opportunities, etc. Apart from personal and non-corporate factors, factors such as the nature of the work and management style also affect organizational commitment. This scale, which measures the attitudes of employees about belonging and participation in the organization, aims to reveal the attitudinal component of the concept of commitment rather than the behavioral dimension (Yalçın & İplik, 2005, p. 397).
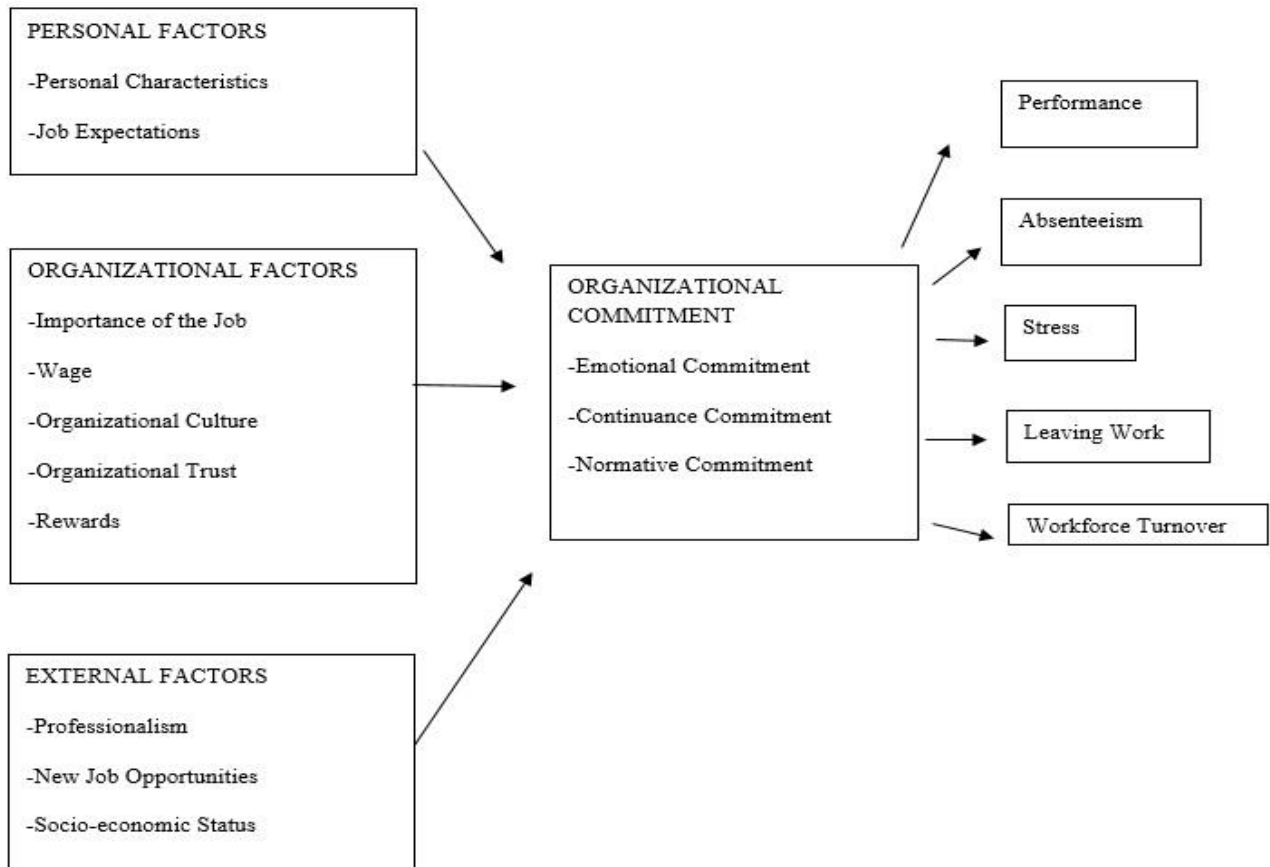
Figure 2-5. *Factors Affecting Organizational Commitment and Their Results (Suliman, 2002, p. 170)*

In this study, the factors affecting organizational commitment were examined in accordance with the general usage in the literature, by dividing them into three as personal factors, organizational factors and external factors (İnce & Gül, 2005, p. 59).

2.2.1. Personal Factors

There is a strong relationship between personal factors and organizational commitment. As a result of the researches made on this subject, concepts such as age, gender, education level, marital status, working time in the organization were taken as personal and demographic factors (Tiryaki, 2005, p. 124).

Personal factors are of vital importance for the adoption of organizational goals and values and the continuity of organizational activities. Job expectations and psychological contract are also included in the scope of personal factors (İnce & Gül, 2005, p. 59).

Researches have shown that the degree of realization of job expectations of individuals is related to organizational commitment. The individual joins the organization

to achieve own goals. The level of achieving these goals by the organization affects the commitment to the organization.

2.2.1.1. Organizational Commitment and Age

In many studies dealing with the age variable, findings have been obtained that the commitment increases as the age increases. As the age of the employee increases, it also means that employee's investments in the organization (such as promotion, wage increase) increase. This reduces the attractiveness of other organizations and business alternatives. On the other hand, it has been revealed that young employees who do not have a large amount of investment in the organization show less organizational commitment level compared to older employees (Çöl & Gül, 2005, p. 295).

Angle and Perry (1981), who obtained findings in the study that organizational commitment increases with age, commented that as the age of the employees increases, the opportunity to receive different education decreases and as a result, the commitment of the employees to the organization they are a member of increases. Allen and Meyer (1993) examined the relationship between age and commitment by considering three different organizational commitment dimensions. Accordingly, while emotional commitment increases with the age of the employee, it is observed that the age of the employee has no effect on continuance commitment (Keleş Çelik, 2006, p. 55).

2.2.1.2. Organizational Commitment and Gender

Today, women have increased their education levels to a great extent and they have started to be as active as men in their working life. However, there is still a social role distribution that has been going on for centuries. Therefore, this difference in the social roles of men and women may cause both parties to have different expectations within the organization (Gümüş & Sezgin, 2012, p. 109). Some researchers have argued that women focus on their domestic roles and therefore their organizational commitment may be lower than that of men (Aven, Parker, & McEvoy, 1993, p. 65). However, some researchers have argued that female employees who do not have problems between their roles in work and family and can easily overcome it are more committed to their organizations. The reasons are highlighted that it is much more difficult for women to change organizations than men, they do not like these changes, and they encounter more obstacles than male employees in order to gain organizational membership (Bakan, 2011, p. 125).

2.2.1.3. Organizational Commitment and Marial Status

Dismissal of a female employee due to marriage or being in a job where married employees are likely to travel frequently are situations that may reduce commitment (Saldamlı, 2009, p. 34). In some studies, it has been argued that married workers show higher commitment than single workers (Benkhoff, 1997, p. 114). It has been argued that the reason is that they feel economic responsibility especially towards the members of their families, and therefore they attach great importance not to interrupt their work and to continue in the organization (Güllüoğlu, 2011, p. 80-81).

2.2.1.4. Organizational Commitment and Education Level

The education level of the employees is one of the important factors that direct their career expectations and perspectives on business life. The higher the education level, the higher the job expectations may differ and increase. Because, employees with a high level of education may want to get the reward (in terms of status, wages, etc.) especially for the effort and time spent on their education (Hoş & Oksay, 2015, p. 6).

2.2.1.5. Organizational Commitment and Term of Office

The tenure and seniority worked in the organization are one of the crucial indicators for organizational commitment. As the time worked in the organization increases, the investment of the employee in the organization increases and it becomes more attractive to stay in the organization in order not to lose the investments employee has made. Therefore, it is argued that there is a positive relationship between organizational commitment and seniority (Çöl and Gül, 2000, p. 296, İnce and Gül, 2005, p. 66-67). It is argued that there is a relationship between the total time worked in the organization and the time worked in any position and organizational commitment. Accordingly, it is argued that there is a correct relationship between seniority and organizational commitment, and an inverse relationship between the number of years spent in the same position and commitment. Because the individual cannot get the chance to continue in a higher and better position during the time employee will spend in the same position, and this situation changes the attitude of the employee. As a result, the time spent in the same position will be counterproductive in terms of commitment (Yalçın ve İplik, 2007, p. 489).

2.2.2. Organizational Factors

Total quality management practices, organizational image, career opportunities, wage system, and flexible working hours, which are the factors related to the organizational structure, have a great impact on organizational commitment (Özdevecioğlu, 2003, p.116).

For instance, an employee's choosing a particular workplace, staying there and working with high motivation are closely related to the wage level and rewards offered to employee (Barutçugil, 2004, p. 443). There may be a positive relationship between continuance commitment and wage. As the wage increases, it will be more difficult for the employees to find another job with the same wage, so the continuance commitment will also increase (Güçlü, 2001, p. 107).

2.2.2.1. Organizational Commitment and Nature of Business

The nature of the business is a paramount concept for the employee. It is a fundamental issue for both the employee and the organization that the employee has knowledge about the job and knows duties and responsibilities. The relationship between the nature of the business and organizational commitment is strong in the researches. The importance of the job for the employee, the increase in the authority and responsibilities given to employee affects the level of organizational commitment. It is argued that while the job done becomes meaningful for the employee, it increases the commitment, and the awareness of the importance of the job done in the external environment will increase the loyalty of the employee towards the organization in a coordinated manner (İnce and Gül, 2005, p. 71).

2.2.2.2. Organizational Commitment and Management Style

The place of leadership in management is very important. Because managers' directing their subordinates and their effects on the achievement of goals are an important and inseparable part of their leadership qualities. Therefore, many researchers working on management see leadership as the most important element of management, and these two elements are emphasized as intertwined concepts. In organization, the necessary resources for the realization of the plans are brought together and the division of labor is made. In the leadership process, the manager tries to increase the commitment of subordinates to the organization and creates an environment where the subordinates can

use their abilities to achieve the predetermined organizational goals (Karahan, 2008, p. 149).

2.2.2.3. Organizational Commitment and Organizational Rewards

It is unthinkable that all employees like and want the same type of rewards. This kind of thinking can be considered a serious mistake in managing people. However, regardless of individual differences, all employees want to hear from their managers how valuable they are to the organization, how important their work is and how great a job they have accomplished. It is an accepted fact today that the most important tool for retaining talented employees is not just money. Employees want their work to be recognized and appreciated. Managers who can do this will have a higher chance of keeping their employees with them. All these explanations reveal the effect of organizational rewards on organizational commitment (Barutçugil, 2004, p. 473).

2.2.2.4. Organizational Commitment and Wage Level

The extent to which the wage is effective on organizational commitment is a matter of the motivating feature of the wage. In a number of studies on this subject, it has been determined that extrinsic motivation is highly related to the tendency to leave the job and less related to the behavior of leaving the job. Economic distress and limited other job opportunities were cited as the reason for this. There are also some studies suggesting that the perceived fairness of the pay may be a much more important determinant of organizational commitment than the amount of pay. According to these, it is argued that if the employee feels an unfair situation in the wage system, the trust in the organization will be lost and organization commitment level will gradually weaken (Keleş Çelik, 2006, p. 63).

2.2.2.5. Organizational Commitment and Organizational Trust

Organizational trust is formed as a result of employees being honest, respectful, reliable and fair to each other in their intra-organizational relations. The organizational trust formed in this way also strengthens the employees' sense of commitment to the organization. As a result of organizational trust, trust in the manager and the organization, identification with organizational values, organizational support, open communication,

organizational commitment based on the sharing of organizational goals and objectives are formed. Similarly, employees' sense of commitment to the organization also increases their sense of trust in the organization. Therefore, we can say that there is a bidirectional relationship between organizational trust and organizational commitment (Demirel, 2008, p. 185).

2.2.3. Job and Role Factors

Job and role factors consist of job content, job scope, role conflict and role ambiguity sub-factors. Depending on whether the job is perceived as an important job or not, organizational commitment is low or high. For example, some positions require more responsibility, so people in senior positions have higher organizational commitment (Salanick, Steers and Porter, 1979, p. 323).

There is a relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. While some researchers argue that job satisfaction affects organizational commitment, some researchers argue that organizational commitment affects job satisfaction.

2.2.4. Other Factors

In organizational commitment factors, factors that do not originate from the organization are categorized as external factors or other factors. Among the factors affecting organizational commitment, alternative job opportunities and professionalism are among the factors that outside the organizational factors. In case of insufficiency of opportunities in the organizations of individuals, the organizational commitment of the employee weakens and employee seeks alternative job opportunities. Individuals who act professionally do not act according to emotional commitment. As a result, when they find a suitable job for them, they can leave their organizations without showing organizational commitment.

2.2.4.1. Professionalism

Professionalism means the individual's commitment to profession, internalizing professional values and identifying with profession. Professional people are characterized as individuals who set their own rules, are independent, socially responsible and very well trained in their fields. In professionalism, the importance given to the profession is at a high level. Therefore, it is revealed that in organizations where the importance given to

the profession is high, the commitment of individuals to the profession and the organization will be more positive (Balay, 2000, p. 70).

2.2.4.2. New Job Opportunities

New job opportunities are affected not only by the personal abilities of individuals, but also by variables such as unemployment rates, socio-economic status of the country, and the state of the sector. The fact that people have more alternative job opportunities makes it easier for them to find a job. This situation is positive for individuals and negative for the organization they work for. Because as new job opportunities increase, organizational commitment will decrease. It is stated that individuals feel committed to the organization due to their fears of losing their job, material and moral losses, and not being able to find a job. It is emphasized that the individual who has a limited number of job opportunities in the sector shows a high level of commitment to the organization. Therefore, it is argued that the individual who is less likely to get another job has a high commitment to organization (İnce and Gül, 2005, p. 94).

2.3. Organizational Commitment Classifications

Various studies and different definitions on organizational commitment have brought different classifications. Some important classifications in the literature are explained in this section.

2.3.1. Etzioni's Classification

Etzioni is one of the first researchers to classify organizational commitment in the literature. According to Etzioni, organizational commitment can be classified in three dimensions. These are (Yağcı, 2007, 118):

2.3.1.1. Moral Involvement

In the dimension of moral commitment, the employee has an intense orientation towards the organization. The goals, values and norms of the organization are assimilated by the employee and are fully identified with the authority given to employee. Employees with this commitment see their work as very valuable and attach great importance to the goals and objectives of the organization (Saldamlı, 2009, 16).

2.3.1.2. Calculative Involvement

The employee calculates whether he or she can bear the costs of leaving the organization. If wages and benefits are sufficient, the employee remains in the organization. It is based on the exchange relationship between the organization and the employee. When employees perceive that what they have received in return for the benefit they have provided to the organization is sufficient, they think about staying in the organization (Newton & Shore, 1992, p. 277; Balay, 2000, p. 19-20).

2.3.1.3. Alienative Involvement

This commitment is used to explain the negative orientation of the employee towards the organization. In this type, although employees do not want to stay in the organization psychologically, they are forced to stay in the organization due to external factors. This commitment emerges when employees behavior is limited within the organization (Newton & Shore, 1992, p. 277; Balay, 2000, p. 19-20).

Etzioni has argued about these three dimensions of commitment that there cannot be more than one harmony system in organizations and that whichever dimension of commitment fits the organization can only exist (Gül, 2002, p.44).

2.3.2. Wiener's Classification

With Wiener's classification, a theoretical model based on the distinction between instrumental commitment and organizational commitment has been established. While instrumental commitment expresses being calculating, utilitarian and self-interested, organizational commitment is realized with motivation based on value. Beliefs constituting this organizational commitment create internalized pressures and enable the employee to behave in a way that meets organizational goals. Thus, while instrumental motivational actions are self-directed, organizational commitment actions have organizational tendencies (Balay, 2000, p. 20).

In this type of commitment, which is also called variational model of commitment between the employee and the organization, the organization expects the employee to contribute to the organization while satisfying some of the motives of the employee. As long as the variational model of commitment is in balance or in favor of the employee,

the employee will not want to leave the organization and will be loyal to organization (Balay, 2000, p. 20).

2.3.3. Allen and Meyer's Classification

Allen and Meyer consider organizational commitment in three dimensions; emotional commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. This classification style is still valid today and is based on studies on organizational commitment.

2.3.3.1. Emotional Commitment

Emotional commitment includes the emotional commitment of the employee towards the organization and integration of the employee with the organization. Those employees that stay in the organization with a dedicated emotional commitment continue to remain within the organization not because the organization provides them their basic needs, but rather because they voluntarily want to stay within it (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67).

This type of commitment consists of employees who feel emotionally close to the organization they are in. Employees have a direct involvement with the goals of the organization. Employees who feel emotional commitment are found in the organization because they really want to work. They have feelings of loyalty and tend to respond to the organization with positive attitudes (Sayğan, 2011, p.220).

Allen and Meyer listed the emotional commitment factors as follows:

• The Lure: The attractiveness of the jobs given to the employee in the organization,

• Role Clarity: The organization clearly states what it expects from the employee,

• Clarity of Purpose: The employee must have a clear understanding of why he/she does his/her duties in the organization,

• Difficulty in Purpose: Particularly demanding of the employee to fulfill the job requirements,

• Openness to Suggestions: Top management take into account to ideas from other employees in the organization,

• Harmony among Employees: Having close and emotional relationships between employees in the organization,

• Organizational Reliability: Employees sincerely believe that the organization will do everything it promises,

• Equality: All employees in the organization have equal rights,

• Importance to the Employee: To encourage the development of feelings that the work done by the employees contributes significantly to the goals of the organization,

• Feedback: Providing continuous information to employees about their performance,

• Participation: To ensure the participation of employees in decisions regarding their workload and performance standards (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 17-18).

Considering the above-listed emotional commitment factors, it can be said that factors such as the attractiveness of the job, the clarity of roles and goals, organizational trust, equality, and giving importance to the individual play a key role in ensuring the organizational commitment of the employees.

2.3.3.2. Continuance Commitment

Employees in a particular organization do not feel willingness to leave the organization in time for reasons such as close working relations with their colleagues, career investments, retirement, and job skills related to the organization. This situation, which is a result of the idea of personal investment, strengthens the intention to stay in the organization. This prevents the creation of a new cost (Umoh et al., 2014, p. 70).

Continuance commitment is about considering the costs of leaving the organization. The main reason why employees are committed to the organization and want to stay in the organization is that they need to stay in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). In the study conducted by Allen and Meyer, the factors of continuance commitment are listed as follows:

• Abilities: Concern about how much of the skills/experiences the employee has gained in the organization he/she works for can benefit him/herself in different organizations and how much of these skills/experiences can be transferred to different organizations,

• Education: The thought that the formal education of the employee will not benefit employee outside the existing organization,

• Replace: If the employee leaves the organization, employee do not want to move to a different place of residence,

• Individual Investment: The employee thinks that he/she makes an individual investment because he/she has spent most of his/her effort in the organization he/she works for,

• Pension Liability: The thought that if the employee leaves the organization, lose the pension liability or employee can receive the pension liability if employee stays in the organization,

• Society: Long years of residence and age of the employee in the settlement where he/she lives,

• Options: The thought that if the employee leaves the organization, employee may have difficulty in finding a similar or better job elsewhere (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 18).

2.3.3.3. Normative Commitment

The employee remains in the organization for ethical reasons, leaving the job means abandoning the organization for employee (Robbins & Judge, 2012, p. 77). This commitment may develop with the influence of the family or social environment when the job is just started, and with the influence of the organization as the working time increases. It is not as strong in terms of affection for the organization as emotional commitment, but it is argued that positive results emerge in this commitment, as in emotional commitment (Wasti, 2002, p. 526).

Normative commitment is affected by the normative pressures that an employee feels to stay in the organization as a result of their experiences both before entering the organization and during their time in the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 4).

Normative commitment also makes the employee feel indebted to the organization as a result of the investments and expenses made by the organization to the employee. Such a situation forces the employee to stay in the organization and binds the employee to the organization normatively. Such an idea of loyalty can end only when the employee pays off his debt to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 72).

2.3.4. O'Reilly and Chatman's Classification

O'Reilly and Chatman, who define organizational commitment as the psychological bond that an employee feels for their organization, divide organizational commitment into three (Balay, 2000, p. 22-23):

2.3.4.1. Compliance Commitment

The main purpose in the compliance commitment dimension, which constitutes the first dimension of organizational commitment, is to achieve certain external rewards. The main purpose of the loyalty of the members and the behaviors they display for this purpose is to obtain certain rewards and avoid certain penalties (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 492-493).

2.3.4.2. Identification Commitment

It is the second stage of commitment. Commitment occurs in order to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship with others. In identification commitment, when the opportunity for self-expression is created for the individual and the opportunity to maintain relations with people is allowed, employee accepts the effects of others. Thus, the individual is proud to be a member of a group. Employees who identify with the organization have high job satisfaction and low tolerance for uncertainty about their job. Identification is more emotional than rational. If the employee is committed to the organization at the beginning because employee's needs are met, job satisfaction is provided and employee is internally motivated, this commitment turns into dependency and identification if these reasons disappear (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 492-493 Bayram, 2004, p. 130-131; Doğan & Kılıç, 2007, p. 43).

2.3.4.3. Internalization Commitment

It is the final stage of commitment. It is entirely based on the harmony between individual and organizational values. Internalization is when the values of the individual are in harmony with the organizational values and the organizational values are effective in the attitudes and behaviors of the individual. In internalization, the individual adopts the values and norms of the organization as their own values and norms without coercion. Attitudes and behaviors related to this dimension take place when individuals make their inner worlds compatible with the value system of other people in the organization (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 492-493; Bayram, 2004, p. 131; Doğan & Kılıç, 2007, p. 43).

Therefore, the basis of employee commitment to the organization can be based on three independent elements (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 493):

- Adaptive or beneficial commitment to arrive at distinctive external rewards.
- Commitment based on desire for membership.
- Commitment based on harmony between individual and organizational values.

2.3.5. Katz and Kahn's Classification

Katz and Kahn argued that organizational commitment is a different reward-based circuit that leads people in an organizational environment to fulfill the requirements of their roles and to feel committed to the organization (Balay, 2000, p. 23).

The actions of the employees within the system are the result of a combination of both internal rewards and some external rewards. Internal rewards represent the expressive circuit and external rewards represent the instrumental circuit. The distinction between expressive and instrumental circuits indicates the nature of the way people give themselves to the system. Where it is intrinsically rewarding, there is the expressive circuit. In cases where similar external rewards are motivating, instrumental circuitry is mentioned (Bayram, 2006, p. 131).

2.3.6. Mowday's Classification

With the classification made, a distinction was made between attitudinal commitment and behavioral commitment. Attitudinal commitment indicates the individual's identification with organizational goals and their willingness to work towards them. Behavioral commitment arises from a person's commitment to behavioral activities (Bayram, 2005, p. 132).

2.3.6.1. Attitudinal Commitment

According to this approach, commitment is an emotional reaction that occurs as a result of the employee's evaluation of the work environment and binds the employee to the organization. In other words, commitment is the relative strength of the employee's integration and participation in the organization. Figure 6 shows the attitudinal perspective on organizational commitment. The solid lines in Figure 6 show the cause and effect relationship of the commitment, while the dashed lines show the complementary variables that make the commitment permanent. The conditions of the

employee affect his psychological state and this causes the behavior of the employee to become permanent. As a result, the employee feels commitment to the organization (Doğan & Kılıç, 2007, p. 40-41).
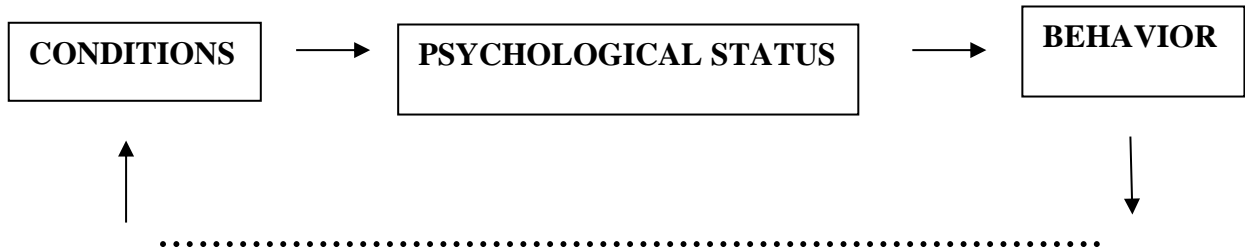
Figure 2-6. *Attitudinal Perspective on Organizational Commitment (Doğan & Kılıç, 2007, p. 41)*

Attitudinal commitment consists of three components. These are expressed as identification with the goals and values of the organization, high participation in work-related activities and loyalty to the organization (Bayram, 2006, p. 129).

2.3.6.2. Behavioral Commitment

Behavioral commitment is based on the socio-psychological perspective. It is related to the process of becoming committed to the organization according to the past experiences of the employee and their adaptation to the organization. Behavioral commitment is a concept related to the problem of an employee staying in a particular organization for too long and how they deal with this problem. Employees who show behavioral commitment are attached to a certain activity they do rather than the organization itself (Çöl, 2004, p. 2).

As can be seen in Figure 7, the behavior of the employee becomes permanent due to some conditions and makes the employee psychologically dependent on the organization. This psychological state of the employee strengthens the employee's commitment to the organization by creating a feedback effect. Behavioral commitment develops for the behavior of the employee rather than the organization (Doğan & Kılıç, 2007, p. 41-42).
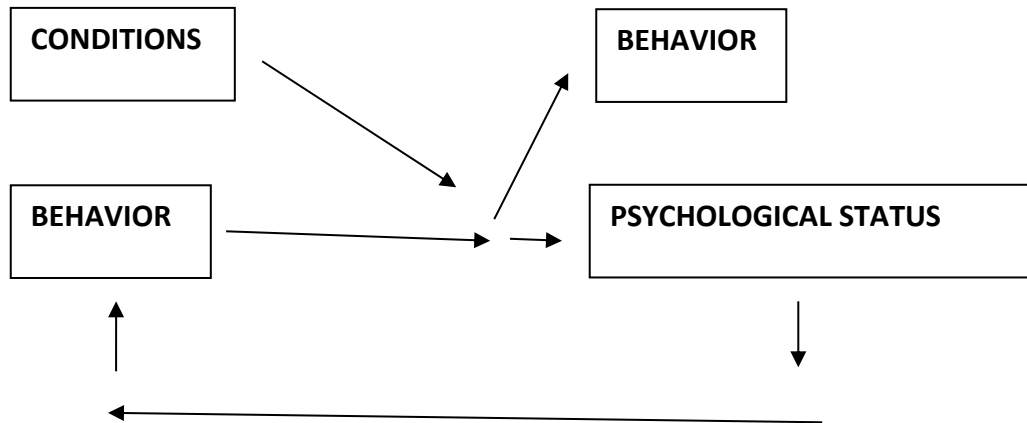
Figure 2-7. *Behavioral Perspective in Organizational Commitment (Doğan & Kılıç, 2007, p. 41-42)*

Mowday's model is shown as an example of the process model. According to Mowday, organizational commitment includes 3 phases (Baransel, 1979):

Pre-employment Phase: The individual collects information about the organization before starting work and develops some expectations from the organization in the light of this information. Personal characteristics, expectations about the job and the reasons for choosing that job affect the commitment to the organization at this stage.

Initial Phase: This phase includes the first few months after entering employment. This period is the socialization period of the individual within the organization and the most important thing in this period is work experience. An individual's work-related experiences, human relations in the organization, and the wage system affect the individual's sense of responsibility.

Career Phase: At this stage, mutual exchange and investments between the personnel and the organization dominate. The positive attitudes of the employee towards the organization are understood by his rejection of other job opportunities.

2.4. Organizational Commitment Levels

Organizations are always in a competitive race in the markets they are in. In order to keep the pressures of competition at a minimum and to meet the demands of the organization, it will be necessary to work with people with a high level of commitment who can use their emotional and physical strength by combining them. However, it is not possible to say that many organizations adequately meet the expectations of their employees in order to ensure the desired level of commitment. Increasing expectations of

employees, who sometimes cannot find even their most ordinary demands, cause burnout over time and the organization commitment level decreases (Balay, 2014, p. 4). Randall, in his research on organizational commitment in 1987, examined the level of commitment of employees towards the organization and found studies explaining the results of their level of commitment. As a result, he evaluated commitment levels at three levels as low commitment level, moderate commitment level and high commitment level (Randall, 1987, p. 462).

2.4.1. Low Commitment Level

At this level, since the employee has a very low commitment to the organization, employee exhibits behaviors such as late coming to work and absenteeism. Because the employee is reluctant to stay in the organization, but continues to maintain membership in line with mandatory needs. The employee works with a low quality of work. Since low organizational commitment carries the dissatisfaction of the employee, it is highly likely that situations such as gossip and complaints may arise as a result. For this reason, the organization may suffer from this situation and experience loss of customer loyalty and loss of income (Randall, 1987, p. 462).

In particular, employee absenteeism can be counted among the important problems for the organization. Studies on this subject show that if there is an employee absenteeism problem that is overly displayed in an organization, there are problems related to attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. If there are behaviors to keep oneself away from the organization in the form of absenteeism or in different ways, it can be mentioned that there are hidden attitudes (not liking their job, very low level of organization commitment) behind this. To put it more clearly, the employee may willingly or unknowingly display feelings and thoughts towards the organization in such a negative way (Sagie, 1998, p. 156). It is possible to talk about positive results as well as negative results for individuals who exhibit this level of commitment. For example, an open-minded mood may arise because the employee is always open to new hopes. Since the employee's commitment to the organization is low, employee can search for new job opportunities, which causes that employee to use the human resources unit more intensively (Saldamlı, 2009, p. 41).

2.4.2. Moderate Commitment Level

Employees with moderate commitment show a protective attitude against the system in the organization. They are closed to change and innovations that the system will bring. Adoption of the organization is not fully realized. They know what the organization expects from them and they meet these expectations. While giving importance to all the values of the organization, they do not accept all of them (Balay, 2000, p. 88). Employees always protect their identity against the system that can shape them in any situation that may occur, but at the same time, they continue to maintain their integration with the organization (Tayfun, Palavar, & Yazıcıoğlu, 2008, p. 7).

2.4.3. High Commitment Level

Employees with a high level of organizational commitment work more willingly, so their performance levels are higher, and therefore their contribution to the organization is much higher. Situations such as absenteeism and being late are almost non-existent. This is because high organizational commitment reduces the proportion of these elements. It is the level of commitment where customer satisfaction is also high (Boylu, Pelit, & Güçer, 2007, p. 57).

As with any level of commitment, negative consequences may arise at this level as well. For example, according to Mowday et al., a high degree of commitment reduces the employees' desire and thought to improve career. In other words, a lower level of creativity is revealed in terms of the organization. Again, it may lead to less innovation. As can be seen, this level of commitment is more closely related to positive results, so its positive contribution to the organization will be more effective. The part that should be taken into consideration here is that the management determines and manages it in the most correct way, at which stage high commitment has negative consequences for the employee and the organization. Therefore, managing the level of organizational commitment is an important responsibility (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p. 191).

2.5. Consequences of Organizational Commitment

In many studies on organizational commitment, it has been observed that commitment affects different work behaviors such as absenteeism, employee turnover rate, and intention to leave the job as an independent variable, or it is affected by variables

such as demographic factors, role conflict or organizational structure as a dependent variable.

Regarding the results of organizational commitment, it has been determined that behavioral outcomes are in strong relationships with commitment. Job satisfaction, motivation, the desire to participate in the decision and stay in the organization are the most important behavioral results that are positively related to commitment, while job change and absenteeism are negatively related to commitment. In addition, various studies have been conducted on the relationship between organizational commitment and work behaviors such as performance, absenteeism, being late for work, stress, and intention to leave. In this context, in this part of our study, the relationship between organizational commitment and performance, absenteeism, being late for work, intention to leave and stress will be emphasized (İnce & Gül, 2005, p. 94).

2.5.1. Organizational Commitment and Performance

According to Alan and Meyer (1990), the performance of the employee who feels happy because of being a member of the organization is at a high level. In the literature, Suliman and Iles (2000) revealed that there is a positive relationship between performance and affective, normative and continuance commitment.

It is often supposed that there is a strong relationship between organizational commitment and performance, but the findings on the relationship between these two concepts reveal that the relationship is weak, contrary to expectations. Zajac, in his study in 1990, argued that the relationship between organizational commitment and performance is very weak. He argued the main reasons for this weak relationship as economic conditions, expectations and family obligations. In addition, high financial expectations such as high wages, social opportunities, rewards and bonuses negatively affect the relationship between organizational commitment and performance, while low financial expectations can affect this relationship positively (İnce and Gül, 2005, p. 95).

Organizations that have employees with high organizational commitment are much more successful than other organizations. Employees with high organizational commitment are less likely to engage in behaviors such as absenteeism, being late for work, and leaving work.

2.5.2. Organizational Commitment and Absenteeism

One of the most crucial issues by organizational commitment researchers has been the relationship between organizational commitment and absenteeism. Absence from work is expressed as the absence of the employee from work despite being included in the work schedule. Absenteeism, which is associated with organizational commitment, refers to the situation of the employee not coming to work voluntarily, that is, even though there is no obligation. Because it is not possible for the absenteeism to be affected by organizational commitment because it is a disease, accident, that is, a legitimate excuse that develops outside of the employees. Absenteeism, which is thought to affect organizational commitment, is mostly the ones that occur in line with the initiatives of the employees (Ersoy & Bayraktaroğlu, 2010, p. 12).

Absenteeism is not observed in employees with high organizational commitment. Although there are some studies in the literature that the relationship between absenteeism and organizational commitment is not very strong, the relationship between absenteeism and commitment should never be ignored by managers.

2.5.3. Organizational Commitment and Turnover

One of the most important behavioral results of organizational commitment is turnover intention or workforce turnover rate. Turnover intention is one of the issues that has been widely emphasized as a result of organizational commitment. There is an inverse relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention. As employees' organizational commitment increases, their intention to leave will decrease. In other words, if employees' commitment is high, their intention to leave is low, and if their commitment is low, their intention to leave is high. However, it is emphasized that there is a positive relationship between compliance commitment and employee turnover. Being too committed to the goals of the organization and being willing to spend a lot of energy due to this commitment will increase the tendency to stay in the organization (Tiryaki, 2005, p. 100; Kaplan, 2010, p. 115).

As a result, it is thought that employees with high organizational commitment will have low turnover rates even if they have alternative job opportunities. One of the most important benefits of organizational commitment for the organization is the assumption that employees' intention to leave work negatively. Because leaving the job means extra time and cost to be spent for the selection of a new employee for the organization and the

adaptation of the selected individuals to the organization. At the same time, employees with low intention to quit will be more interested in being more successful in their jobs rather than looking for alternative jobs (Ersoy and Bayraktaroğlu, 2011, p. 13).

2.5.4. Organizational Commitment and Being Late to Work

It should be taken into account that some employees may be late for work due to undesirable conditions such as the breakdown of their vehicle, weather conditions, and illness. Apart from these, employees who are aware of their responsibilities are expected to have a low rate of being late to work. As in absenteeism, the reasons related to the work and work environment for being late for work will be less in employees with high organizational commitment, so the rate of being to work late for such a reason will also be low. In the case of being to work late for personal reasons, it can be stated that employees with high organizational commitment will try to control the conditions that will negatively affect their work. In this context, the low rate of being late for work is not a sufficient indicator on its own, but it can still be considered as an indicator of organizational commitment (Keleş Çelik, 2006, p. 97).

2.5.5. Organizational Commitment and Stress

One of the most important consequences of organizational commitment is job stress. Stress is the result of excessive demands on people that may cause discomfort in physiological, social and psychological systems, and is the non-specific reaction of the organism to any change. In other words, stress is a situation that occurs when the physical and mental limits of the organism are challenged and threatened, and the individual experiences emotions that have different effects on different people, leading to anxiety, sadness, tension and pressure. Many studies have been conducted examining the relationship between organizational commitment and stress. The most important of these are the studies of Mathieu, Zajac and Mowday et al. (Bakan, 2011, p. 213).

Mathieu and Zajac, in their study in 1990, argued that there is a positive relationship between organizational commitment and stress. In other words, they argued that employees with high organizational commitment are more affected by stress than other employees. The greater organizational sensitivity of such employees causes them to be more affected by organizational dangers, threats and problems. Mowday et al., on the other hand, argued that organizational commitment gives the person a sense of trust and

belonging and that these feelings reduce the negative effects of stress (İnce and Gül, 2005, p. 98).

3. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

3.1. The Correlation Between Leadership Types and Organizational Commitment

Several studies examined the correlation between different leadership types and organizational commitment. Although there is no specific references to any types of leadership, some studies detected the correlation between leadership in general and organizational commitment (Loke, 2001; Karahan, 2008; Çokluk & Yılmaz, 2010; Oyewobi 2022; Ispas & Babaita, 2012; Purnomo, 2022, Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012).

Organizational commitment consists of the intentions and attitudes of the employees towards the job and the organization (Loke, 2001, p. 193). Considering that the intentions and attitudes are dependent on a process and as a result of mutual interaction, the attitudes and behaviors of the management team and the leader of the organization towards the employees also affect the attitudes and behaviors of the employees. Empirical studies have revealed the effects of leader behavior characteristics on organizational commitment from different perspectives. Çakınberk and Demirel (2010) found that the leadership styles exhibited by the managers affect the organizational commitment in the study they conducted with 148 assistant health personnel working in Tunceli and Malatya State Hospitals.

Karahan (2008) examined the relationship between leadership and organizational commitment in his study on health workers with different titles at Afyonkarahisar State Hospital. In his study, he examined leadership in four dimensions as personal characteristics, strategy and vision formation, behavioral characteristics and problem solving, and organizational commitment in four dimensions as field of study, emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. A weak and positive relationship was found between strategy and vision creation and work area, emotional commitment and continuance commitment, and a strong and positive relationship with normative commitment. While there was a weak positive and significant relationship between behavioral characteristics and the field of study, a negative, weak and insignificant relationship with emotional commitment, a positive, strong and significant relationship with normative commitment, no significant relationship was found with continuance commitment.

Çokluk and Yılmaz (2010) examined the relationship between leadership behaviors and organizational commitment in their study on primary school teachers and graduate students in Ankara University Educational Sciences program in Ankara. A moderately positive and significant relationship was found between supportive leadership perceptions of the participants and organizational commitment and emotional commitment, and a low positive and significant relationship was found between supportive leadership perceptions and continuance commitment. A moderately negative and significant relationship was found between the perceptions of directing leadership and organizational commitment and emotional commitment, and a low level of negative and significant relationship between perceptions of leading leadership and continuance commitment.

Oyewobi conducted a survey among private-practice quantity surveyors in the Nigerian construction industry. The results showed a significant relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and leadership styles and that there is a positive correlation between leadership styles and organizational commitment with job satisfaction. Oyewobi has also been found that an employee's commitment to any task is strongly influenced by that person's job satisfaction level (Oyewobi, 2022).

Ispas and Babaita found that hypotheses regarding the links between transactional, transformational, and participatory leadership styles and employee job satisfaction were accepted. These leadership styles have a positive and direct effect on the job satisfaction of the employees, and each has an increasing effect on the job satisfaction of the employee. They also found that employee job satisfaction was positively associated with organizational commitment. The effect of job satisfaction is statistically strong and significant (Ispas & Babaita, 2012).

Purnomo's aim of this study is to investigate how spiritual intelligence, Islamic organizational culture and leadership affect teachers' organizational commitment in Islamic boarding schools. In this study, the mediating effect of Islamic work ethic is enormous. In order to increase the organizational commitment of teachers in Islamic boarding schools, it is necessary to give serious importance to Islamic work ethic (Purnomo, 2022).

Randeree and Chaudhry conducted a study to find out how different leadership styles affect organizational commitment and employee job satisfaction. This study was reviewed through a case study in the construction industry in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). The results show that consensus and advisory leadership styles are prevalent in

the construction industry in the UAE. Also, more than 50 percent of respondents said that leadership strongly influences their job satisfaction. As a result, leadership style moderately strongly influenced the organizational commitment of workers in the construction industry in the UAE (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012).

Several studies examined the correlation between specific leadership types and organizational commitment (Bildik, 2009; Afhsari, 2022; Alabduljader, 2021; Kim & Brymer, 2011; Aboramadan, Dahleez and Hamad, 2021; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, and Lawler, 2005; Korek, Felfe, and Zaepernick-Rothe, 2010; Srithongrung, 2011; Rowden, 2000; Ismail et al., 2011; Ceylan et al., 2005; Erdoğan Morçin and Bilgin, 2010; Hedemoğlu and Evliyaoğlu 2012; Emery and Barker, 2007; Ballı and Çakıcı, 2016; Mahdi, Mohd and Almsafir, 2014; Çekmecelioğlu, 2014; Nguni, Sleegers and Denessen, 2006; Erkutlu, 2008).

Bildik (2009) found a low level, positive and significant relationship between transformational leadership and normative commitment in his study in which he applied in a wide range of areas including private banks, public banks, health, education, industry and various other service sectors. A low, negative and significant relationship was found between emotional commitment and transformational leadership. While it was concluded that there was a positive relationship between transactional leadership and normative commitment and emotional commitment, and that there was a positive relationship between leadership style that allowed total freedom and emotional commitment, no significant relationship was found between normative commitment and emotional commitment.

Afshari investigated the relationships between the idealized influence component of transformational leadership and the organizational commitment of employees in two different cultural contexts. Afshari found significant relationships between two forms of idealized influence (behavior and attribution) and employee organizational commitment in the Iranian case. But in the Australian case, only the idealized influence behavior indicated a significant impact on the employee's organizational commitment. In addition to, the findings indicated that identified motivation mediates the relationship between organizational commitment and idealized influence behavior (Afshari, 2022).

Alabduljader examined the effect of strategic leadership on organizational commitment in Islamic banks in Kuwait. In this research, it has been proven that strategic leadership can affect the organizational commitment of employees by influencing their

attitudes towards their work environment and work. This can be achieved through strategic leadership, which can establish a bond between individuals, enable them to see the goals they need to achieve in unity, develop their feelings of support, and reach their moral values thanks to the bond they have established with the leader (Alabduljader, 2021).

Kim and Brymer researches the effects of ethical leadership on a hotel manager's emotional commitment and job satisfaction, which in turn influence that manager's behavioral outcomes (e.g., turnover intention and extra effort) that can also influence the hotel's performance. The survey was distributed to 30 U.S. hotels representing over 8 international and national brands, and 324 mid-level hotel managers participated in the survey. This study showed that managers' ethical leadership is positively related to their affective organizational commitment and middle managers' job satisfaction. Job satisfaction of middle managers is positively related to organizational commitment, but job satisfaction does not lead to their willingness to put in extra effort (Kim & Brymer, 2011).

Aboramadan, Dahleez and Hamad (2021) searched the effect of servant leadership on emotional commitment and work engagement among academics in higher education. A positive correlation was found between organizational commitment and servant leadership. While the concept of job satisfaction fully mediated the relationship between job engagement and servant leadership, whereas the concept of job satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between emotional commitment and servant leadership. As a result, both emotional commitment and work engagement have a positive effect on the job performance of the academicians in the research (Aboramadan, Dahleez and Hamad, 2021).

Walumbwa and et al (2005) examined the relationship between transformational leadership behaviors, organizational commitment and job satisfaction in two samples from Kenya and the United States. According to the results of the research, the relationship between employees' satisfaction with their leaders and transformational leadership behaviors was stronger in the United States. A positive relationship was found between transformational leadership behaviors and organizational commitment in both America and Kenya, but no significant difference was found between the two cultures in the effect of transformational leadership on organizational commitment. Walumbwa et

al. (2005) interpreted this result as that some work-related attitudes and behaviors occur in the same way in different cultures, that is, they are not culture-specific.

In a study conducted by Korek, Felfe, and Zaepernick-Rothe (2010), the effect of having similar perceptions about the leadership behaviors of their managers on the emotional commitment felt by the employees was examined. According to the results, employees' evaluation of their managers similarly to transformational leadership increases the emotional commitment they feel. However, the meaningfulness of the job and the positive organizational climate mediate the effect of leadership on emotional commitment, and transformational leadership increases emotional commitment by affecting the perceptions of employees towards the meaningfulness of the job and organizational climate.

A recent study by Srithongrung (2011) examined the relationship between the dimensions of transformational leadership, organizational commitment and employee effectiveness. Within the scope of the study, effectiveness is conceptualized as the behavior of employees that are not included in their job descriptions but contribute to the work of the organization and their desire to stay in the organization. Organizational commitment, on the other hand, was examined in three categories as internalization, identification and obedience. According to the results obtained, transformational leadership directly affects the behavior outside the job description and indirectly affects the desire to stay in the organization. It has been determined that the inspirational and charismatic leadership dimensions of transformational leadership are effective on all three categories of commitment, while commitment mediates the effect of transformational leadership perception on employees' willingness to stay at work.

Rowden (2000) examined the relationship between perceived charismatic leadership behaviors and organizational commitment in this research. Rowden measured leadership with the charismatic leadership scale developed by Conger and Kanunga (1994), and organizational commitment with the organizational commitment scale developed by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979). The analyzes revealed that there is a relationship between the sub-dimensions of leadership and organizational commitment, and the strongest sub-dimensions of this relationship are sensitivity to the needs of employees and putting the vision into practice. Rowden (2000) explains the relationship between sensitivity to the needs of employees and organizational commitment with the

obligation one feels. In other words, employees feel indebted to the leaders who meet their needs, so their commitment to the organization increases.

Ismail et al. (2011) conducted their study with 1009 employees, they found that the relationship between transformational leadership and empowerment had positive effects on organizational commitment.

Ceylan et al. (2005) found that three dimensions of transformational leadership style were positively related to all three dimensions of organizational commitment in a study they carried out on 97 academicians in two colleges affiliated to state universities.

Erdoğan Morçin and Bilgin (2014) examined the effect of transformative leadership characteristics on organizational commitment in travel agencies and found that transformative leadership characteristics affected the continuation, affective and normative commitment of organizational commitment.

Hedemoğlu and Evliyaoğlu (2012), in their study conducted on 144 white-collar employees in the private sector, determined that the inspirational motivation component of transformational leadership had effects on the three dimensions of organizational commitment, continuance, affective and normative commitment.

Emery and Barker (2007) examined the effects of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors on employees' organizational commitment and job satisfaction in the banking and food sector. As a result of the analysis, it was determined that the relationship between the sub-dimensions of transformational leadership and organizational commitment was stronger than the relationship between the sub-dimensions of transactional leadership and organizational commitment. Because these sectors operate in a static environment and have a mechanical structure, Bass has adopted the view that transactional leadership behaviors are more appropriate in these businesses (Emery and Barker, 2007, p. 86).

Like Emery and Baker (2007), Erkutlu (2008) also investigated the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership behaviors and organizational commitment. According to the results of the research, a high level and significant relationship was found especially between transformational leadership behaviors and organizational commitment, while a negative relationship was found between transactional and laissez-faire leadership behaviors and organizational commitment. Among the sub-dimensions of leadership, the interest towards the individual has the strongest relationship with organizational commitment, while the laissez-faire leadership

style has the weakest relationship. Erkutlu (2008) also examined the relationship between capital source and leadership style in the same study, and found that enterprises operating with foreign capital mostly adopt a transformational leadership style, while enterprises operating with local capital mostly adopt a transactional leadership style. The researcher explained this result with the perceptions of the managers about the service industry in Turkey. Namely, business managers with foreign capital have defined the service industry in Turkey as dynamic, while business managers operating with local capital have defined it as having a stable structure. Since the high uncertainty in the environment will threaten the existence of the organization, the manager will change the organizational structure to minimize this situation. In such a case, an organic structure that will provide flexibility is more suitable for adapting to uncertainty, while mechanical organizational structures with high control will be appropriate in cases where there is little change in the environment (Erkutlu, 2008, p. 720; Bass and Riggio, 2005, p. 93).

Ballı and Çakıcı (2016), in their study conducted with the participation of 604 personnel of a chain hotel operating throughout Turkey, found that there is a negative significant relationship between dark leader behaviors and organizational commitment. This shows that the dark leadership style in organizations reduces organizational commitment.

Mahdi, Mohd and Almsafir (2014) found a strong relationship between task-oriented directive leadership styles and organizational commitment in a study they conducted on 300 supervisory employees in Malaysia.

Çekmecelioğlu (2014) examined the effect of task-oriented and human-oriented leadership styles on organizational commitment in this study, the research results found that the leader's interest in the task positively affects the organizational commitment of employees, while the human-oriented leadership style has positive effects on emotional commitment and job performance, and negative effects on intention to quit.

Nguni, Sleegers and Denessen (2006) examined the effects of transactional and transformational leadership behaviors on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors in Tanzania. In this study, these researchers considered the charismatic and inspirational leadership dimension, which are sub-dimensions of transformational leadership, as a single dimension and measured leadership with MLQ. Organizational commitment was measured with the organizational commitment scale developed by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979). The organizational

commitment scale used consists of two sub-dimensions; value commitment and commitment to stay. Value commitment measures the degree to which employees adopt the values and goals of the organization, while commitment to stay measures the employee's intention to stay in the organization (Nguni et al., 2006, p. 155). In this study, it was determined that head teachers exhibited transformational leadership behaviors rather than transactional leadership, and teachers also felt value commitment rather than commitment to stay. Nguni et al. (2006) attributed this low level of teachers' commitment to stay to the appointment laws implemented in the country. Namely, according to the law, teachers do not have the opportunity to choose the schools where they will work and the appointments are made by the district education office. According to the results of the research, it has been determined that both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors affect organizational commitment, but the degree and direction change according to the sub-dimensions.

Considering the sub-dimensions of transformational leadership, it was determined that charismatic leadership affects value commitment, individual interest has a low effect on organizational commitment, and mental encouragement does not affect organizational commitment. It has been determined that the sub-dimensions of transactional leadership have a positive and moderately strong effect on the commitment to stay of management according to active expectations, the dimensions of management and laissez faire leadership according to passive expectations have a negative effect on commitment and conditional reward has a strong and negative effect on commitment to stay. Researchers explained the effect of contingent rewarding on commitment to stay by the fact that head teachers do not have the authority to reward employees with promotion or wages.

3.2. The Correlation between Distributed Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Several studies examined the correlation between distributed leadership and organizational commitment (Devos, Tuytens and Hulpia, 2014; Yılmaz and Turan, 2015; Baloğlu 2011; Adıgüzelli 2016; Devos, Tuytens and Hulpia 2014; Yetim 2016; Sevim and Kaya 2022; Özer and Beycioğlu 2013; Bostancı 2012; Özdemir 2012).

Yılmaz and Turan (2015) emphasized the relationships between the distributed leadership, organizational trust and academic achievement of the school teachers working in high schools. When the variables in the study were examined, a high level of positive

relationship was detected between distributed leadership and organizational trust. As a result, when organizational trust increases, it is seen that distributed leadership behaviors can be observed more. In addition, a significant relationship was detected between distributed leadership and organizational support. The help of the leaders who run the school is necessary in ensuring the participation of teachers and other participants in the administration. It is important for principals to support their teachers' leadership behavior in terms of implementing the distributed leadership in schools. It is also possible to associate distributed leadership with school success. Implementing distributed leadership in schools can be possible with the support of politicians who have an impact on education, apart from the support of teachers and administrators.

Adıgüzelli (2016) examined the relationship between organizational trust and distributed leadership behaviors through teachers' perceptions in this study titled "Investigation of the Relationship between Distributed Leadership and Organizational Trust According to Teachers' Views". In the study conducted in Izmir and 410 teachers from 15 public high schools participated. Based on the study, the researcher interpreted the moderate level of principals' distributed leadership behaviors as a result of the fact that principals did not receive the necessary leadership training. The findings of the study revealed that there is a strong link between distributed leadership and organizational trust. When the perception of organizational trust is high, it can be said that distributed leadership is implemented at a higher level.

The realization of an organization's goals and objectives is only possible through the commitment of its employees to the organization. A significant factor in the formation of organizational commitment is employees' trust on their organizations. In this respect, organizational commitment and organizational trust can be accepted as two close concepts.

Devos, Tuytens and Hulpia (2014) examined how an integrative framework of distributed leadership is related to teachers' organizational commitment. In this study, the theoretical model is based on the distributed leadership framework and leadership is defined as a collective effort. The relationship between the leadership of the principals' mediated by the distributed leadership and the organizational commitment of the teachers was examined. According to the conclusion, principals should encourage vice principals and teacher leaders to lead the school, and manage the school with the leadership team' whole members.

Yetim (2016) evaluated the distributed leadership behaviors of principals in primary education institutions according to the perceptions of teachers and to comprehend the relationship between the distributed leadership behaviors that teachers see in their principals and teachers' organizational commitment. As a result of the research, there is a statistically significant positive relationship between the distributed leadership behaviors of the principals and organizational commitment. A statistically significant positive relationship is detected between assistant principals' distributed leadership behaviors and organizational commitment. Moreover, there is a statistically significant positive relationship between the distributed leadership behaviors of the leadership team and organizational commitment.

Based on their research conducted in schools, Sevim and Kaya (2022) endeavoured to comprehend the relationship between distributed leadership and organizational happiness. Based on the results of their research, teachers' perceptions about school administrators' levels of distributed leadership characteristics and organizational happiness levels are at "high" level in schools. Teachers' perceptions regarding school administrators' demonstration of distributed leadership characteristics do not change significantly according to school type, branch, age, marital status, and gender variables. Teachers' perceptions of organizational happiness in schools, however, change significantly according to school type, branch, marital status, and gender variables, but do not change significantly according to the variable of age. The study propounded that there was a significant relationship between organizational happiness and the sub-dimensions of distributed leadership at a "moderate level in a positive direction" in schools. Distributed leadership characteristics of school administrators reveal nearly 68% of the total variance in school organizational happiness.

Organizational commitment and organizational happiness are two similar concepts. An employee who is happy in the organization has a high level of organizational commitment. Karadaş and Akın (2023) and Demircan (2019) studies can be regarded as examples for this situation. In the study of Karadaş and Akın (2023), the goal was to comprehend the level of relationship between teachers' organizational happiness and organizational commitment and the differentiation of teachers' perceptions of organizational happiness and organizational commitment according to independent variables. Their research was carried out in two stages as quantitative and qualitative, and in this context, a mixed design was chosen. The data of the study were collected from

education stakeholders in Mardin Artuklu district. By means of quantitative research methods, firstly, teachers' perception levels of organizational happiness and organizational commitment were examined in the quantitative research phase. During the qualitative research phase, they sought to examine the situations related to the perception level of organizational happiness and organizational commitment in depth by means of the qualitative research. The quantitative study revealed that the perceptions of teachers on organizational happiness and organizational commitment did not change significantly according to the variables of educational level and gender, whereas their perceptions differed according to the variables of seniority in teaching and place of duty. The qualitative study showed that the condotions that increase teachers' happiness about their profession can be determined as constructing positive communication with the stakeholders at school, reducing the class size to a reasonable level, bringing the school' physical facilities to an adequate level, doing the teaching profession with love, and the establishment of a family environment in the school. Considering the teachers' commitment levels, it was determined that the parents were unconcerned with children's school life, the children had behavioral disorders, the classrooms were overcrowded, the schools were not clean enough, they were financially insufficient, and their cultural, social and physical conditions were inadequate. Based on the outcomes reached during the two phases of the research, several suggestions were made.

As a result of Demircan's thesis, it was determined that teachers possess a moderate level of organizational commitment and also a very high level of organizational happiness. As a result, it was detected that there was a significant positive relationship between the organizational commitment levels of teachers and their organizational happiness. On this basis, as the organizational commitment of teachers increases, their organizational happiness also increases. The study found no statistically significant difference between teachers' organizational happiness levels and gender, field, seniority year, working time in the same school and education level variables.

Özer and Beycioğlu (2013) conducted a study titled "Development of Shared (Distributed) Leadership Scale: Validity and Reliability Studies" aimed to design a reliable and valid measurement tool that aimed to describe teachers' perceptions about the level of distributed leadership in primary schools. The study's data were collected from a total of 157 teachers working at primary schools in the central part of Adıyaman province who voluntarily participated in the study. Exploratory and confirmatory factor

analyses were carried out within the scope of validity studies and item-total correlation coefficients were calculated. Within the scope of reliability studies, Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficients and test-retest correlation coefficients were calculated. As a result of the explanatory factor analysis conducted on the data obtained, it was determined that the scale had a single-factor structure consisting of ten items. The Cronbach-Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the scale was calculated as "0.92". The test-retest correlation coefficient between two different applications with a nine-day interval to determine the scale's consistency over time was found to be "0.82". As a result of the validity and reliability analyses, it was predicted that the scale in its current form could be used to describe teacher perceptions of shared leadership in primary schools.

Bostancı (2012) conducted a study titled "Turkish Adaptation of Shared Leadership Perception Scale" to determine the validity and reliability of the shared leadership perception scale. The study group of the research consists of 232 secondary school teachers working in Sakarya province. The results of the research are as follows: As a result of the language equivalence analysis of the scale, a positive and highly significant relationship was found between the Turkish and English forms. The Cronbach Alpha (α) coefficient calculated for the reliability studies showed that α=0.91 in total and α=74 to α=88 according to the dimensions, item-total correlations were between 0.40-0.73, and the item scores of the 27% lower-upper groups differed significantly. Based on the results of confirmatory factor analysis, it was stated that the validity of the scale was also ensured since the goodness of fit values of the scale were at the desired level. The results of all reliability and validity analyses reveal that the Shared (Distributed) Leadership Perception Scale can be used as a reliable and valid measurement tool in those studies where school employees will be taken as a sample in Turkey.

Özdemir (2012) in his study titled "Turkish Adaptation of Distributed Leadership Inventory: Validity and Reliability Studies", validity and reliability analyses were conducted within the scope of the Turkish adaptation of the Distributed Leadership Inventory (DLE) that Hulpia, Devos and Rosseel (2009) had developed. For this purpose, a total of 160 teachers working in eight schools in four central districts of Ankara province were consulted. The analyses revealded that the leadership functions and leadership team cohesion subscales of the Distributed Leadership Inventory have a single factor structure and are a valid and reliable scale suitable for application in Turkish schools. The study

concluded that the Turkish version of the Distributed Leadership Inventory is a data collection tool that can be used in distributed leadership research.

4. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN HOTEL ESTABLISHMENTS: THE CASE OF ERZURUM HOTELS

4.1. Application of the Research

In this part of the study, firstly, the problem and purpose of the research have been specified and then information about the research design, data collection method, universe and sample of the research has been presented. Following the inclusion of the research model and hypotheses created in line with the purpose of the research, the collected data have been analysed. In the phase of analysis, firstly, the demographic information of the participants has been specified, and the distribution of participants' answers to the scales of distributed leadership and organizational commitment used in the study have been examined. Then, exploratory factor analysis was used in order to control the construct validity of the scales and reliability analyses were carried out in order to test the reliability of the scales. After ensuring that the construct validity and reliability were achieved, the basic assumptions of the simple linear regression analysis used for testing the hypotheses have been checked. After the assumptions had been verified, the results of the simple linear regression analysis applied in the last part have been discussed.

4.2. The Problem and Aim of the Research

Instead of a single "hero" in the classical leadership understanding, the participatory and "distributed" leadership approach in which the ideas of most or all of the employees of the organization are important has begun to be used in today's world. Distributed leadership has become one of the most important elements of increasing organizational capacity and being more productive (Woods, 2004, p. 5). When the definitions for the concept of distributed leadership are examined, it is possible to say that the concept is not limited to any sector or line of business. However, most of the studies in the literature have focused on the education sector. Considering that the main theme of distributed leadership is the distribution of leadership, it can be argued that this type of leadership can be applied to many sectors. As in the education sector, the "success" output for hotel businesses in the tourism sector also depends directly on the employees of the organization. For this reason, the study focuses on the applicability and effects of distributed leadership in hotel businesses other than educational enterprises.

Turkey has gained a rising momentum in culture, health, winter and summer tourism especially in recent years. A more professional conduct of hotel management activities has played a major role in ensuring this rise. The increase in tourism activities has led to an increase in hotel businesses and, accordingly, intensification of competition. It is very important to be able to make instant decisions and to implement those decisions quickly in hotel businesses that adopt a customer-oriented approach. The ability of employees, who are in one-on-one interaction with customers, to solve the problems they encounter, enables direct customer satisfaction. When the employee turnover in hotel enterprises is as low as possible, it will be ensured that the service standards do not vary much. Keeping the employee turnover rate at a minimum level is directly proportional to the employees' adoption of the organization. Employees who feel committed to the organization will be able to grasp the goals of the organization correctly. As the service standards offered to customers will be high in hotel businesses that ensure organizational commitment, it will be much more possible to provide customer satisfaction. Based on this argument, it is aimed to measure the perception of distributed leadership in Erzurum hotel businesses operating in the tourism sector and to research the influences of this approach on the organizational commitment of the employees.

4.3. Research Design

Scientific research methods can generally be categorised into two groups: Quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative research refers to researching a problem that can be analysed with numerical measurements and statistical techniques in order to test a theory (Kıncal, 2015, p. 50). Qualitative research, on the other hand, can be defined as a type of research in which findings are produced without any statistical techniques or numerical tools (Altunışık et al., 2010, p. 302). Considering that the data collected and compiled within the scope of the study have numerical measurements, quantitative research techniques have been applied in the study. In quantitative research techniques, the objective approach of the researcher and the explanation of the causality relationship are significant (Balcı, 2016, p. 37). Based on those features of quantitative method, the data have been collected through a questionnaire as explained in the data collection techniques section of the study. Thus, the opinions of the participants have been obtained directly. At the same time, an objective approach has been adopted by this data collection

technique and the causality between the concepts has been revealed through the planned analysis method.

4.4. Research Population and Sample

For the purpose of the study, the data will be obtained from the employees employed in 5-star and 4-star hotel businesses in Erzurum operating in the tourism sector. Kılın and Akdemir (2019) underlined that the communication of managers working in hotel businesses is quite high. However, they emphasized that the behaviour and attitudes of the leaders may have an impact on the happiness of the employees, as the level of communication of the employees with their leaders in the hotel enterprises is high and continuous. As a result of this viewpoint, it is argued that distributed leadership practices can also be detected when it is taken into account that the employees in the hotel businesses operating in the service sector are in one-to-one interaction with the customers. The preference of 5-star and 4-star hotel employees in the study stems from the thought that, as argued by Turan and Cinnioğlu (2020), human resources and managers work more professionally because 5-star and 4-star hotels possess a more institutional structure. Especially in recent years, Erzurum stands out as one of the provinces that provides the most tourism income to Turkey in the area of winter and cultural tourism. Erzurum is one of the provinces that provides the most employment opportunities in the tourism sector in the region, with its hotel businesses that hosts many tourists in many periods of the year, especially in the winter season. Thusly, it can be argued that the hotel businesses in Erzurum are more institutional and experienced in terms of management practises.

The population of the research consists of those employees employed in 4 and 5 star hotels in Erzurum. During the interviews with the hotel managers, it has been detected that a total number of 1195 people are employed in the 4 and 5 star hotels in Erzurum. 740 of those employed are individuals who work during the winter season and are called seasonal workers. The remaining 455 employees are employed as permanent employees in those hotels. Distributed leadership practices and organizational commitment of employees are generally long-term factors. From this point forth, all 455 permanent employees employed in those 4 and 5 star hotels in Erzurum have been accepted as the universe. Since the size of the population was small and accessible, it was decided to use the full census method instead of sample selection. All employees were reached and the questionnaire was distributed.

4.5. Data Collection Techniques

Within the scope of the study, a face-to-face survey has been conducted to the employees of the hotel businesses operating in Erzurum. The "Distributed Leadership Scale" which had been developed by Wood (2005) and adopted to the literature in Turkish by Bostancı (2012) has been used in the study. This scale consists of 18 items in four dimensions: "Collaborative Completion of Tasks" (9 items), "Mutual Skill Development" (2 items), "Decentralized Interaction among Employees" (4 items) and "Emotional Support" (3 items). A 5-point Likert scale ("strongly disagree=1", "disagree=2", "undecided=3", "agree=4", "strongly agree=5") has been used in the scale. The "Organizational Commitment Scale" developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) was used to measure organizational commitment. This scale consists of 18 items as "emotional commitment" (6 items), "continuance commitment" (6 items) and "normative commitment" (6 items) and the data have been collected according to a 5-point Likert scale ("strongly disagree=1", "disagree=2", "undecided=3", "agree=4", "strongly agree=5").

4.6. Research Model and Hypotheses

The model created for the purpose of the study is as follows:

Figure 4-8. *Research Model*
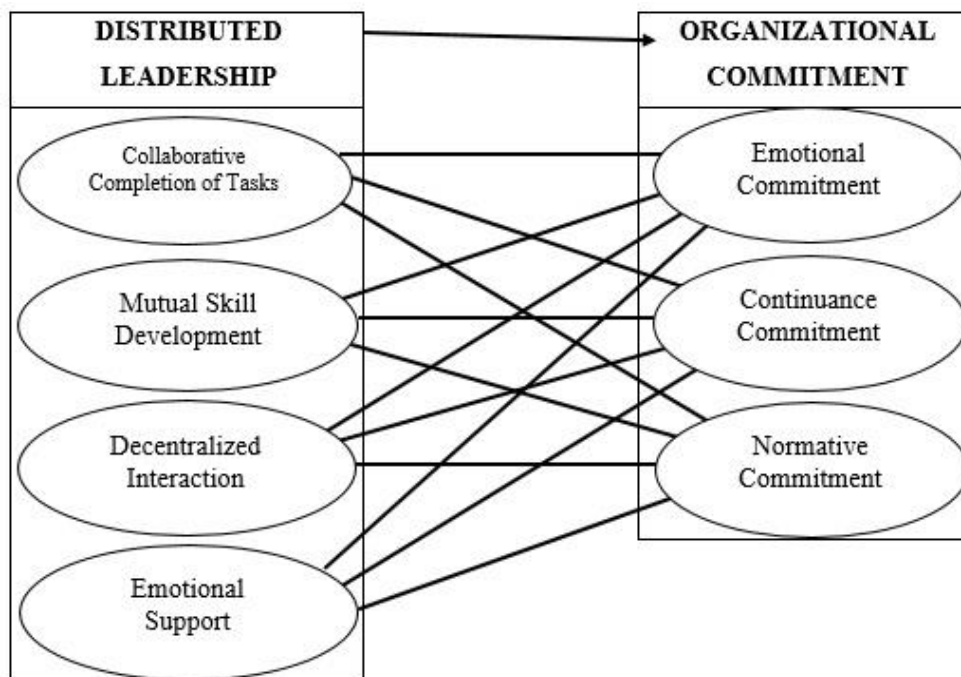
In line with the research model and the purpose determined in the study, the following hypotheses have been formed:

H₁: Distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on organizational commitment.

H₁ₐ: The collaborative completion of tasks dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the emotional commitment dimension of organizational commitment.

H₁ᵦ: The mutual skill development dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the emotional commitment dimension of organizational commitment.

H₁c: The decentralized interaction dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the emotional commitment dimension of organizational commitment.

H₁d: Emotional support dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the emotional commitment dimension of organizational commitment.

H₁e: The collaborative completion of tasks dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the continuance commitment dimension of organizational commitment.

H₁f: The mutual skill development dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the continuance commitment dimension of organizational commitment.

H₁g: The decentralized interaction dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the continuance commitment dimension of organizational commitment.

H₁h: The emotional support dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the continuance commitment dimension of organizational commitment.

H₁i: The collaborative completion of tasks dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the normative commitment dimension of organizational commitment.

H1j: The mutual skill development dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the normative commitment dimension of organizational commitment.

H1k: The decentralized interaction dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the normative commitment dimension of organizational commitment.

H1m: Emotional support dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on normative commitment dimension of organizational commitment.

When the hypotheses are examined, first, the main hypothesis (H_1) has been formed in order to examine the effect of distributed leadership on organizational commitment in general. Then, sub-hypotheses ($H_{1a} - H_{1m}$) have been developed depending on the main hypothesis to measure the effects of the sub-dimensions of distributed leadership on the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment.

4.7. Demographics and Descriptive Statistics

In this section, first, information on the demographic characteristics of the participants, consisting of hotel employees, has been summarized. Then, the distribution of the answers given by the participants to both the distributed leadership and organizational commitment scales have been examined. Demographic information of the participants has been presented in the **Table 3** below.

Table 4-3. *Demographic Characteristics of Participants*

Demographic Charasteristics	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Sex	Female	159	40,4
	Male	235	59,6
	Total	**394**	**100**
Marital Status	Married	58	14,7
	Single	336	85,3
	Total	**394**	**100**
Level of Education	High School	212	53,8
	Associate Degree - Bachelor	163	41,4
	Master Degree	14	3,6
	PhD	5	1,2
	Total	**394**	**100**
Working Period in the Organisation	1 to 5 Years	294	74,6
	6 to 10 Years	69	17,5
	11 to 15 Years	12	3,1
	16 Years and more	19	4,8
	Total	**394**	**100**

When the information in Table 3 is examined, it can be seen that 159 people who make up 40.4% of the participants are women, and 235 people who make up 59.6% are men. According to the findings regarding the marital status of the participants, it has been understood that 58 (14.7%) were married and 336 (85.3%) were single. While 212 (53.8%) of the participants are high school graduates, 163 (41.4%) of the participants possess associate degree or bachelor degree, 14 (3.6%) of the participants have master degree and 5 (1.2%) of the participants have PhD degree. Finally, as the distribution of the participants according to their working period in the organisations they are affiliated with is examined; 74.6% (294 people) are between 1-5 years, 17.5% (69 people) are between 6-10 years, 3.1% (12 people) are between 11-15 years and 4.8% (19 people) are 16 years or more. Following the demographic characteristics of the participants, the distribution of the answers given by the participants to the scale questions has been examined. According to the findings, the descriptive findings of the questions that make

up the 'distributed leadership scale' is as in **Table 4**, and the descriptive findings of the quetions given to the 'organizational commitment scale' is as in **Table 5**.

Table 4-4. *Descriptive Findings to Distributed Leadership Questions*

Question Number	Expression	Number of Participants	Average	Standard Deviation
1	Each employee of the organization plays a role in setting goals for the organization.	394	3,9975	0,96898
2	Each employee of the organization contributes to shaping the vision of the organization.	394	3,9315	0,96655
3	Each employee of the organization helps to identify, diagnose and solve the problems of the organization.	394	3,8909	0,93600
4	Each employee of the organization is evaluated by other employees and is accountable to them.	394	3,9848	0,89088
5	Employees in the organization collaborate in making decisions that affect the organization	394	4,0000	0,88528
6	Each employee of the organization has a say in deciding how resources will be allocated according to the priorities of the organization.	394	3,7640	0,93156
7	Employees in the organization share their ideas about deciding the best course of action when a problem is encountered in the organization.	394	3,7513	0,98024

Table 4-4. *Descriptive Findings to Distributed Leadership Questions (Continuing)*

8	Each employee of the organization intervenes to ensure that the organization fulfils its obligations (even if it is outside their personal responsibility).	394	3,6218	1,05408
9	Each employee of the organization shares information so that all employees can work more effectively in their jobs.	394	3,8959	0,93113
10	Employees of the organization often learn important professional skills from other colleagues in the organization.	394	3,5381	0,90507
11	Employees of the organization help each other to develop their professional skills.	394	3,6802	0,85858
12	There is a subordinate-superior order (hierarchy) in which the superior rules the subordinates in the organization.	394	3,6777	0,92473
13	Despite the professional titles used within the organization, each employee is accepted as "equal".	394	3,7665	0,76587
14	There is one person in the organization who decides what other employees will do.	394	3,4746	0,86234
15	"Everyone for herself/himself" would be a good slogan for this organization.	394	3,6726	0,86605
16	Employees of the organization encourage each other in difficult times in the organization.	394	3,7234	1,04461
17	Employees of the institution tolerate each other.	394	3,2335	1,04177
18	There is a relational and professional bond between the employees of the organization.	394	3,4467	1,07644

When Table 4 is examined, it can be seen that all 394 participants answered the questions in the distributed leadership scale. Therefore, it has been concluded that there is no missing data in the answers given to the questions that constitute the distributed leadership scale. When the averages of the answers are examined, it is seen that the question "Employees in the organization collaborate in making decisions that affect the organization" has the highest average with 4,000. The question "Employees of the institution tolerate each other" was the one with the lowest average with an average of 3.2335. According to the answers given by the participants to the distributed leadership scale, the question with the highest standard deviation with 1.07644 is "There is a relational and professional bond between the employees of the organization", and the question. Despite the professional titles used within the organization, each employee is accepted as "equal" has the the lowest standard deviation with 0.76587.

The descriptive findings of the answers given to the statements that make up the organizational commitment scale are summarized in Table 5:

Table 4-5. *Descriptive Findings to Organizational Commitment Questions*

Question Number	Expression	Number of Participants	Average	Standard Deviation
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my professional life in the organization where I work.	394	3,9442	0,77946
2	I truly feel that the issues of the organization I work for are my own.	394	3,9289	0,76835
3	I do not feel like I belong to the organization I work for.	394	3,9365	0,70515
4	I do not feel "emotionally committed" to the organization I work for.	394	3,8046	0,79431
5	I do not feel myself as "part of the family" in the organization I work for.	394	3,9340	0,77539
6	The organization I work for means a lot to me.	394	3,8376	0,93232
7	I am currently working in this organization out of necessity rather than my own will.	394	3,6244	1,13739
8	Even if I want to leave or not, I am not in a position to leave my current organization.	394	3,5000	1,21745
9	My life would be worse if I left my current organization.	394	3,4518	1,14094

Table 4-5. *Descriptive Findings to Organizational Commitment Questions (Continuing)*

10	I do not plan to leave the organization I work for because I do not have enough alternatives.	394	2,7741	0,96622
11	I have given so much of myself to the organization I work for that I cannot think of leaving.	394	3,7310	0,87586
12	If I were to leave the organization I work for, my opportunity to find another job would be limited.	394	4,0609	0,78559
13	I do not feel an obligation to continue working in this organization.	394	4,2259	0,72557
14	Although it may be advantageous for me, I do not think it is right to leave the organization I work for now.	394	4,2817	0,71289
15	I would feel guilty if I leave the organization I work for.	394	4,0584	0,86442
16	The organization I work for is an organization to which loyalty will be shown.	394	3,7690	0,93828
17	I do not leave the organization I work for now because I feel responsible for the people here.	394	3,8249	0,92039
18	I owe a lot to the organization I work for.	394	3,8807	0,86108

When Table 5 is examined, it is seen that all 394 participants answered the questions in the organizational commitment scale. Therefore, it has been concluded that there is no missing data in the answers given to the questions constituting the organizational commitment scale. When the averages of the answers are examined, it is seen that the question "Although it may be advantageous for me, I do not think it is right to leave the organization I work for now" has the highest average with 4.2817. The question " I do not plan to leave the organization I work for because I do not have enough alternatives" was the question with the lowest average with an average of 2,7741. According to the answers given by the participants to the organizational commitment scale, the question with the highest standard deviation with 1.21745 is "Even if I want to leave or not, I am not in a position to leave my current organization", "Although it may be advantageous for me, I do not think it is right to leave the organization I work for now" has the the lowest standard deviation with ise 0,71289.

4.8. Validity and Reliability Analyses

Before testing the hypotheses created in the study, the structural validity and reliability of the scales used were examined. Construct validity can be defined as an

indicator of the degree to which the test to be applied can accurately measure an abstract concept that is intended to be measured. The most frequently used method in examining the construct validity is the explanatory factor analysis method (Büyüköztürk, 2015, p.180). Explanatory factor analysis is used to find fewer unrelated variables by bringing together related variables in an event with n variables (Saraçlı, 2011, p. 22). Therefore, explanatory factor analysis has been applied for the validity analysis of the distributed leadership and organizational commitment scales used in the study. Explanatory factor analysis results are presented in detail below:

Table 4-6. *Explanatory Factor Analysis Results of the Distributed Leadership Scale*

	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy			0,951
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Square			5336,328
	Degrees of Freedom			153
	Significance			0,000
	Explained Variance (%)			72,947
	Factor Loads of Dimensions			
Question Number	Dimension 1 (Collaborative Completion of Tasks)	Dimension 2 (Mutual Skill Development)	Dimension 3 (Decentralized Interaction)	Dimension 4 (Emotional Support)
1	0,753			
2	0,856			
3	0,816			
4	0,780			
5	0,637			
6	0,557			
7	0,655			
8	0,413			
9	0,403			
10		0,584		
11		0,819		
12			0,676	
13			0,842	
14			0,677	
15			0,614	
16				0,781
17				0,498
18				0,553

KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy), which was examined in the first stage in factor analysis and took a value between 0 and 1, shows whether sampling adequacy can be accepted. A value of 1 indicates that the variables used can predict each other at a perfect rate without error. The lowest acceptable limit of this value is 0,5. Therefore, the KMO value of 0.5 and above reflects the appropriateness of the correlations between the variables. Another indicator is the results of Bartlett's Sphericity Test. This test shows whether the scale is suitable for factor analysis. It is concluded that if the significance level obtained is greater than 0.05, it is not possible to apply factor analysis (Durmuş, Yurtkoru, & Çinko, 2011, p. 79-80). The explained variance in the same section expresses how much of the total variance (100%) of the obtained dimensions is explained by these dimensions. It is desired that the value in this section is 50% and above (Kalaycı, 2010, p. 328).

As a result of the analysis, the KMO value for the distributed leadership scale is over 0,80. In this case, it can be expressed that the number of samples is perfectly sufficient for factor analysis in the distributed leadership scale. As a result of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, it is concluded that this scale is suitable for factor analysis since the significance level of the distributed leadership scale is less than 0,05. Values of 0,5 and above are generally accepted for the explained variance. Since the value calculated for the distributed leadership scale within the scope of the study is greater than 0,5 (approximately 0.73), it is seen that the questions in the scale explain approximately 73% of the variance.

Various rotations are used to calculate factor loads. The most commonly used method in the rotation phase is the varimax method. The aim of the Varimax method is to maximize the factor load in the dimension in which each variable is included, while minimizing the factor load in the other dimensions in which it is not included. Thus, it is ensured that the explained variance calculated according to the factor loads reaches the maximum level (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 625). The factor loads obtained in the factor analysis are used to determine the dimension with which each variable is closely related (Kalaycı, 2010, p. 330). Especially in a data set with 350 or more observations, factor load of 0,3 is sufficient, while factor load of 0,5 and above becomes more important. Therefore, the minimum factor load is accepted as ± 0.3 depending on the number of observations (Hair et al., 2013, p. 115). In the light of the explanations, it was concluded that the factor loads of all the questions in the dimensions were more than 0.4

and therefore they were above the threshold value. The explanatory factor analysis results of the organizational commitment scale, which is another scale used in the study, are included in **Table 7.**

Table 4-7. *Explanatory Factor Analysis Results of the Organizational Commitment Scale*

	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0,859
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approximate Chi-Square		3937,463
	Degrees of Freedom		153
	Significance		0,000
	Explained Variance (%)		60,592
	Factor Loads of Dimensions		
Question Number	**Dimension 1** (Emotional Commitment)	**Dimension 2** (Continuance Commitment)	**Dimension 3** (Normative Commitment)
1	0,717		
2	0,730		
3	0,736		
4	0,504		
5	0,644		
6	0,592		
7		0,845	
8		0,847	
9		0,809	
10		0,564	
11		0,455	
12		0,416	
13			0,761
14			0,765
15			0,764
16			0,829
17			0,817
18			0,783

As a result of the analysis, the KMO value for the organizational commitment scale is over 0,80. In this case, it can be indicated that the sample size is perfectly sufficient for factor analysis in the organizational commitment scale. As a result of Bartlett's Test of Globalization, it was concluded that this scale is suitable for factor analysis since the significance level of the organizational commitment scale is less than 0,05. Since the value calculated for the organizational commitment scale within the scope of the study is greater than 0.5 (approximately 0.61), it is seen that the questions in the scale explain

about 61% of the variance. Finally, when the factor loads were examined, it was concluded that the factor loads of all the questions in the dimensions were more than 0,4 and therefore they were above the threshold value.

As a result of the explanatory factor analyses, it can be expressed that both the distributed leadership and organizational commitment scales used in the study are valid and have the same results with the studies in the literature. After this stage, reliability analyses of the scales and their sub-dimensions were carried out. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient method is used in studies where Likert Type scales are used to measure reliability (Özdamar, 2004, p.622). Reliability analyses results for both scales used are presented in **Table 8.**

Table 4-8. *Reliability Analysis Results*

Scale	Dimensions	Cronbach Alfa	
Distributed Leadership	Collaborative Completion of Tasks	0,940	0,951
	Mutual Skill Development	0,655	
	Decentralized Interaction	0,859	
	Emotional Support	0,835	
Organisational Commitment	Emotional Commitment	0,784	0,871
	Continuance Commitment	0,811	
	Normative Commitment	0,891	

In reliability analyses, a reliability level lower than 0,40 indicates that the scale is not reliable, between 0,40 and 0,60 the scale can be reliable even if it is low, between 0,60 and 0,80 the scale is highly reliable and finally higher than 0,80 shows that the scale is highly reliable (Kayış, 2010, p. 405). According to the results obtained, first of all, the general reliability analysis findings of the scales in the rightmost column of the **Table 8** were examined. The Cronbach Alpha coefficients of both the distributed leadership and organizational commitment scales were calculated as 0,951 and 0,871 respectively. Accordingly, it is possible to say that the distributed leadership scale provides 95,1% and the organizational commitment scale provides 87,1% reliability. When the Cronbach Alpha coefficients belonging to the sub-dimensions of the distributed leadership scale are examined, it can be seen that all of them are more than 40%. Similarly, Cronbach's Alpha coefficients calculated for the three sub-dimensions of the organizational commitment

scale were determined to be 78% and above. Therefore, it is possible to express that the scales are quite reliable on the basis of both general and sub-dimensions.

4.9. Hypothesis Tests and Findings

Simple regression analysis method was used to test the hypothesis created for the purpose of the study. Simple regression analysis is a method used to calculate the values of another variable through the observed values of one variable. In simple regression analysis, there is a dependent (Y) and an independent variable (X) (Armutlulu, 2008, p. 149). In more general terms, simple regression analysis can be defined as a technique that measures the effect of an independent variable on the dependent variable. It can be shown mathematically as follows:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta X$$

Y in the equation represents the dependent variable and X represents the independent variable. The α and β in the equation represent the coefficients of the equation. These coefficients are obtained as a result of simple regression analysis. Simple linear regression is used when the relationship between variables is linear. In the study, organizational commitment was determined as the dependent variable, and distributed leadership as the independent variable. Considering the hypotheses and similar studies, it is seen that there is a linear relationship between distributed leadership and organizational commitment. For simple linear regression analysis to give accurate results, some assumptions must be met. These assumptions can be expressed as follows (Durmuş, Yurtkoru, & Zinc, 2011, p. 155):

- Linearity of the relationship between the variables (Linearity assumption)
- Error terms are normally distributed (Assumption of normality)
- Error terms with constant variance (Assumption of equivariance)

The first of the assumptions is about the variables, while the other two are about the error terms. For this reason, the first assumption is tested before the analysis, while the other two assumptions are tested at the end of the analysis. In order to check whether the linearity assumption is met, both the scatter diagram and the correlation analysis results were examined.

Within the scope of the study, the average scores of the questions in the dimensions of the scales were obtained. For the test of the first hypothesis, the averages of the 18 questions constituting the distributed leadership and the averages of the 18 questions constituting the organizational commitment scale were calculated separately and the overall scores of the scales were obtained. Then, the averages of the questions constituting the dimensions of both scales were calculated to test the sub-hypotheses. The scores of the collaborative completion of tasks dimension were determined by taking the average of the first 9 questions, the scores of the mutual skills developpment dimension were determined by taking the average of questions 10 and 11, the scores of the decentralized interaction dimension were determined by taking the average of the questions numbered 12-13-14-15, and the scores of the emotional support dimension were determined by taking the average of the last 3 questions in the distributed leadership scale. Similarly, the average of the first 6 questions in the organizational commitment scale was taken and the scores of the emotional commitment dimension were obtained. The average of the next 6 questions was taken and the scores of the continuance commitment dimension were obtained. Finally, the average of the last 6 questions was taken and the scores of the normative commitment dimension were obtained. The scatter diagram of the distributed leadership and organizational commitment scores in the main hypothesis is presented in the **Figure 9** below and briefly interpreted. The scatter diagrams created for the linearity assumptions of the sub-hypotheses were interpreted in a similar way. Therefore, the scatter diagrams between the sub-dimensions are included in **Appendix-1.**

Figure 4-9. *Scatterplot Diagram between Dsitributed Leadership and Organizational Commitment*
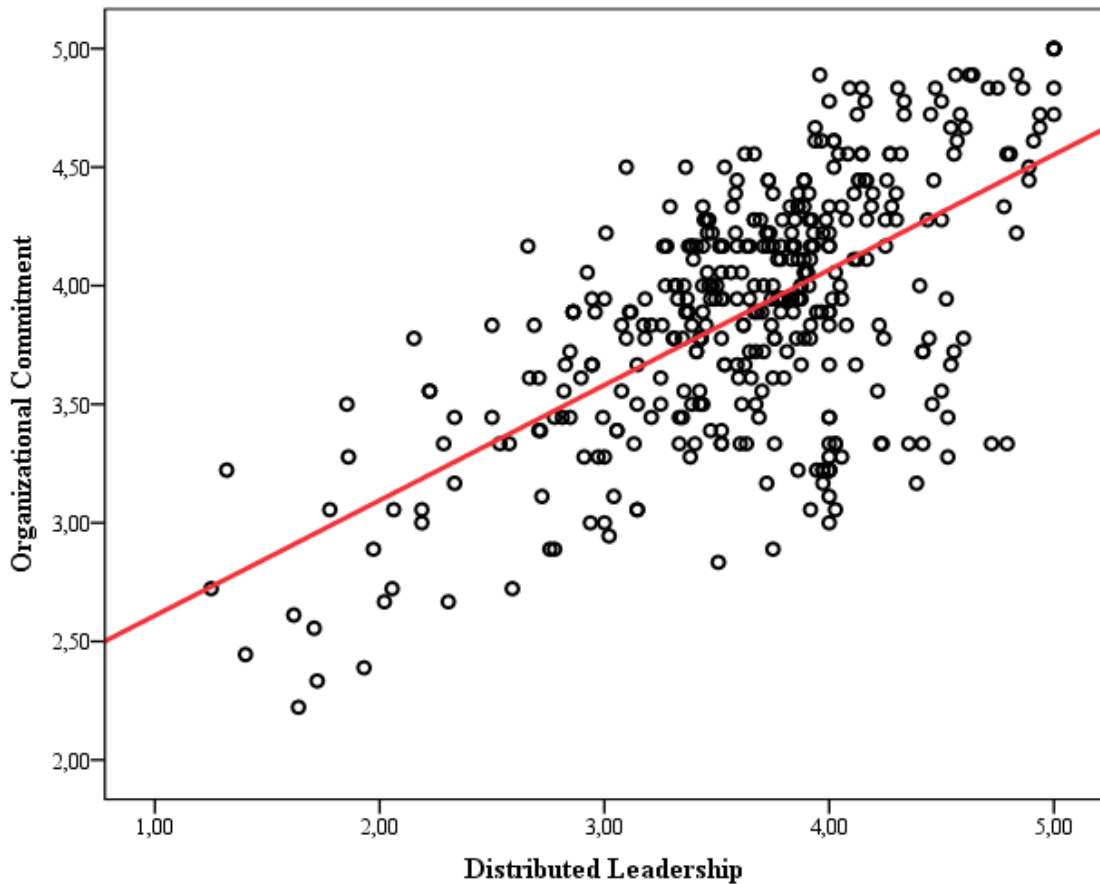
The points in the scatter diagram represent the points where the observed values of the perception of organizational commitment and the recorded values of the perception of distributed leadership intersect. The red solid line is added to see if there is a linear relationship. According to this, it is seen that the points below and above the line increase in the same way (ie, as the perception of distributed leadership increases, the perception of organizational commitment also increases). However, examining the correlation analysis of the perceived scores of the scales and their sub-dimensions together with the scatter diagram is very important in making a more accurate decision. The obtained correlation matrix is as follows:

Table 4-9. *Correlation Matrix of Scale Dimensions*

	Organisational Commitment (General)	Collaborative Completion of Tasks	Mutual Skill Development	Decentralized Interaction	Emotional Support	Emotional Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment
Distributed Leadership (General)	0,623*							
Collaborative Completion of Tasks		1						
Mutual Skill Development		0,535*	1					
Decentralized Interaction		0,694*	0,613*	1				
Emotional Support		0,747*	0,615*	0,696*	1			
Emotional Commitment		0,553*	0,265*	0,448*	0,413*	1		
Continuance Commitment		0,621*	0,413*	0,547*	0,503*	0,348*	1	
Normative Commitment		0,642*	0,401*	0,577*	0,539*	0,337*	0,920*	1
*: Significant at the p < 0,05 level								

It was concluded that all correlations obtained in the correlation matrix were statistically significant at the 0,05 level. When the correlations are examined, it is seen that there is a 62,3% relationship on the distributed leadership and organizational commitment. In addition, a linear relationship has been found between the collaborative completion of tasks dimension of distributed leadership and the emotional commitment dimension of organizational commitment at the rate of 55,3%, continuance commitment at the rate of 62,1% and normative commitment dimension at the rate of 64,2%. When the mutual skill development dimension of distributed leadership was examined, it has been detected that it had a correlation of 26,5% with the emotional commitment dimension of organizational commitment, 41,3% with the dimension of continuance commitment of organizational commitment and 40,1% with the dimension of normative commitment of organizational commitment. There are 44.8% correlations between the decentralized interaction dimension of distributed leadership and the emotional commitment dimension of organizational commitment, 54.7% between the decentralized interaction dimension of distributed leadership and the continuance commitment dimension of organizational commitment and 57.7% between the decentralized

interaction dimension of distributed leadership and the normative commitment dimension of organizational commitment. Finally, it has been determined that the emotional support dimension of the distributed leadership was associated with the emotional commitment dimension of organizational commitment at the level of 41.3%, with the continuance commitment dimension at the level of 50.3% and with the normative commitment dimension at the level of 53.9%. When the scatter diagrams and correlation matrix were evaluated in general, it has been determined that linearity assumptions were met for simple linear regression analyses used in testing all hypotheses.

In controlling the normality assumption, which is another assumption of the simple regression analysis, the normal distribution graphs of the error terms for each model were researched separately. In addition, the kurtosis and skewness values of the error terms were also calculated and it was evaluated together whether the normality assumption was met. The normal distribution graph of the general scores of the distributed leadership and organizational commitment scales is presented in **Figure 10.** The presented graph is briefly interpreted and the graphs created for other models are given in **APPENDIX-2**.

Figure 4-10. *P-P Graph of Error Terms between Distributed Leadership and Organizational Commitment*
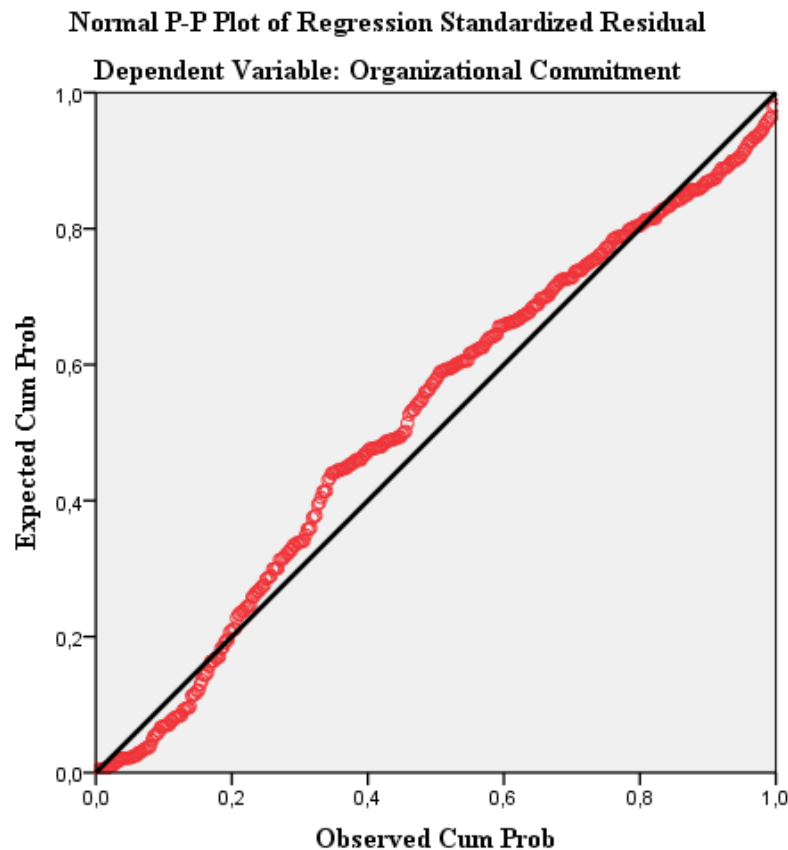
The red dots on the graph for the error terms show the intersection of the cumulative probability distributions of the error terms. It can be decided according to the distribution of the points concentrated around the diagonal line. Accordingly, it can be expressed that the normality assumption is satisfied due to the spread of the points around the line. In addition to this result, the kurtosis and skewness values of the error terms have been also examined and the following results have been obtained.

Table 4-10. *Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Regression Error Terms*

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis
Organisational Commitment	Distributed Leadership	-0,639	-0,145
Emotional Commitment	Collaborative Completion of Tasks	-0,137	0,220
	Mutual Skill Development	-0,634	1,707
	Decentralized Interaction	-0,353	0,991
	Emotional Support	-0,432	1,079
Continuance Commitment	Collaborative Completion of Tasks	-0,589	-0,052
	Mutual Skill Development	-0,408	0,085
	Decentralized Interaction	-0,716	0,366
	Emotional Support	-0,504	-0,152
Normative Commitment	Collaborative Completion of Tasks	-0,673	-0,083
	Mutual Skill Development	-0,435	0,022
	Decentralized Interaction	-0,725	0,306
	Emotional Support	-0,547	-0,184

If the kurtosis skewness values of the variables are between -2 and +2, the variables approach the normal distribution and are considered suitable for the normal distribution (Darren and Mallery, 2016, p. 114). All of the calculated kurtosis and skewness values have been within ±2. Therefore, since the kurtosis and skewness values are in the required range, it is possible to argue that the error terms provide the assumption of normal distribution. The last assumption required for the application of simple linear regression analysis is that the error terms have constant variance. In order to control this assumption, besides the graphic examinations, the simplest test is to examine the relationship between the independent variable and the error terms obtained from the model. For this, the Spearman rho coefficient calculated by Spearman rank correlation test and the statistical significance of this coefficient are examined. If the obtained Spearman rho coefficient is

statistically insignificant, it is concluded that there is no relationship between the independent variable and the error terms. Therefore, it is decided that the error terms have constant variance (Aydın, 2014, p. 249). Within the scope of the analysis, the Spearman rank correlation test results of whether the error terms have constant variance are given in **Table 11.**

Table 4-11. *Spearman Rank Correlation Test Results*

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Spearman rho	Sig.
Organisational Commitment	Distributed Leadership	0,019	0,706
Emotional Commitment	Collaborative Completion of Tasks	0,002	0,964
	Mutual Skill Development	0,012	0,811
	Decentralized Interaction	-0,018	0,721
	Emotional Support	-0,025	0,614
Continuance Commitment	Collaborative Completion of Tasks	0,020	0,690
	Mutual Skill Development	-0,062	0,217
	Decentralized Interaction	0,018	0,722
	Emotional Support	-0,016	0,748
Normative Commitment	Collaborative Completion of Tasks	0,002	0,975
	Mutual Skill Development	-0,013	0,798
	Decentralized Interaction	0,057	0,262
	Emotional Support	-0,017	0,735

When the values in Table 10 are examined, the significance values of the Spearman rho coefficients calculated for all models were calculated as greater than 0,05. In this case, it is seen that the correlation coefficients obtained are statistically insignificant. For this reason, it is possible to say that the error terms have constant variance. As a result of providing all the assumptions, the hypotheses were tested with simple linear regression analysis. The results obtained are presented in **Table 12**.

Table 4-12. *Regression Analysis Results*

Hypothesis	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Coefficient	t	Sig.	Model Sig.
H₁	Organisational Commitment	Constant	2,123	18,527	0,000	0,000
		Distributed Leadership	0,486	15,750	0,000	
H₁ₐ	Emotional Commitment	Constant	2,150	14,922	0,000	0,000
		Collaborative Completion of Tasks	0,480	13,148	0,000	
H₁ᵦ	Emotional Commitment	Constant	3,154	19,726	0,000	0,000
		Mutual Skill Development	0,236	5,450	0,000	
H₁c	Emotional Commitment	Constant	2,466	15,587	0,000	0,000
		Decentralized Interaction	0,422	9,929	0,000	
H₁d	Emotional Commitment	Constant	2,945	24,108	0,000	0,000
		Emotional Support	0,306	8,982	0,000	
H₁e	Continuance Commitment	Constant	1,670	12,453	0,000	0,000
		Collaborative Completion of Tasks	0,533	15,683	0,000	
H₁f	Continuance Commitment	Constant	2,420	16,198	0,000	0,000
		Mutual Skill Development	0,363	8,967	0,000	
H₁g	Continuance Commitment	Constant	1,871	12,770	0,000	0,000
		Decentralized Interaction	0,510	12,939	0,000	
H₁h	Continuance Commitment	Constant	2,452	21,387	0,000	0,000
		Emotional Support	0,369	11,537	0,000	
H₁i	Normative Commitment	Constant	1,053	7,040	0,000	0,000
		Collaborative Completion of Tasks	0,629	16,594	0,000	
H₁j	Normative Commitment	Constant	2,032	11,855	0,000	0,000
		Mutual Skill Development	0,403	8,668	0,000	
H₁k	Normative Commitment	Constant	1,247	7,648	0,000	0,000
		Decentralized Interaction	0,614	13,992	0,000	
H₁m	Normative Commitment	Constant	1,923	15,081	0,000	0,000
		Emotional Support	0,451	12,684	0,000	

First, the Model Sig column in the rightmost column of Table X was examined. The values calculated here show whether the regression models used in the analyses are statistically significant or not. According to the findings, it can be argued that the

established regression models are statistically significant because all Model Sig values are less than 0,05. Similarly, the fact that the Sig values calculated for the t statistics of the coefficients of the constant terms and independent variables calculated for all models are less than 0,05 is an indication that all coefficients are statistically significant. In the light of these data, all results can be explained in detail. According to the results of the analysis of the H1 hypothesis, which was created to understand the effect of distributed leadership on organizational commitment in general, it is possible to say that a one-unit increase in the implementation of distributed leadership increases organizational commitment by 0,486 units. As a result, H1 hypothesis, which is the main hypothesis of the study, is accepted. According to the test results of H_{1a} H_{1e} and H_{1i} sub-hypotheses, which show the effect of the collaborative completion of tasks dimension of distributed leadership on the dimensions of organizational commitment, emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment; it has been concluded that a one-unit increase in the dimension of collaborative completion of tasks increased emotional commitment by 0,48, continuance commitment by 0,533 and normative commitment by 0,629 units. Therefore, sub-hypotheses H_{1a} H_{1e} and H_{1i} are accepted. When the analysis results of the H_{1b}, H_{1f} and H_{1j} hypotheses, which are the sub-hypotheses that deal with the mutual skill development dimension of distributed leadership, are examined; it is seen that a one-unit increase in the mutual skill development dimension of the distributed leadership led to an increase of 0,236 in the emotional commitment dimension of organizational commitment, 0,363 in the continuance commitment dimension and 0,403 unit in the normative commitment dimension, respectively. Accordingly, H_{1b}, H_{1f} and H_{1j} sub-hypotheses are accepted. According to the results of the H1c, H1g and H1k sub-hypotheses, in which the effects of the decentralized interaction dimension, another sub-dimension of distributed leadership, on emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment dimensions of organizational commitment are examined; a one-unit increase in the decentralized interaction dimension provides 0,422 unit increase in emotional commitment, 0,51 unit in continuance commitment and 0,614 unit increase in normative commitment. According to these results; H1c, H1g and H1k sub-hypotheses are accepted. Finally, as the analysis results of the H_{1d}, H_{1g} and H_{1m} sub-hypotheses are examined; it was concluded that a one-unit increase in the emotional support dimension of the distributed leadership increased the emotional commitment dimension of organizational commitment by 0.306, the continuance commitment dimension by 0.369

and the normative commitment dimension by 0.451 units. As with other sub-hypotheses, H_{1d}, H_{1g} and H_{1m} sub-hypotheses are also accepted. In summary, it is possible to say that there is a positive development in organizational commitment with the application of distributed leadership in general. In parallel, it can be argued that the actions to be implemented in all sub-dimensions of distributed leadership will make positive contributions to all sub-dimensions of organizational commitment.

5. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

5.1. Discussion

Erzurum is a significant destination for winter tourism, with hotels serving as key players in the region. As a result, competition among winter hotels is intense. As the success of hotels is closely related to their employees, behaviours that prioritize employee ideas to gain a competitive edge, distributed leadership responsibilities, include employees in decision-making, and foster a sense of ownership among employees can positively impact hotel guests and gain competitive advantage. Again, in terms of competition, the institutionalism of hotels and employees is crucial. It is difficult to achieve this institutionalism in the hotels in Erzurum. Because Erzurum is a province where the effects of local culture are high. Especially in order to achieve institutionalism, hotel employees need to get rid of this local culture. This change may be difficult for employees, there may be some employees who do not want change, and this may negatively affect their organizational commitment. The attitude of the employee, whose organizational commitment is negatively affected, towards the guest may be negative. Finally, when we look at it in the context of organizational culture, the general managers of the hotels in Erzurum generally come from outside the city and there may be some cultural conflicts with the employees. The general manager may not take the opinions of the employee at some points. This may also be a situation that negatively affects the organizational commitment of the employee. This thesis aims to investigate the relationship between the employee's perception of distributed leadership and organizational commitment in hotels located in Erzurum, focusing on the mentioned concepts.

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between hotel employees' perceived distributed leadership behaviors and their organizational commitment. In order to test the hypotheses developed for this purpose, quantitative research methods were utilized and data were collected using the survey technique. Before testing the hypotheses, the construct validity and reliability of the scales used in the study were examined. Exploratory factor analysis was applied for the validity analysis of the distributed leadership and organizational commitment scales used in the study. Simple regression analysis method was used to test the hypothesis formed for the purpose of the study.

As seen in Table 13, the results obtained show that all of the hypotheses put forward are confirmed. It provides important information about the relationship between distributed leadership style and organizational commitment. These results, which are detailed in the previous section, will be briefly summarized and then interpreted in this section.

Distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on organizational commitment. Supporting this result, Yetim (2016) conducted a study to determine the relationship between the distributed leadership behaviors they see in their principals and teachers' organizational commitment based on the perceptions of teachers working in primary schools. He found that there was a statistically significant positive relationship between distributed leadership (principal) and organizational commitment. Again, there is a statistically significant and positive relationship between distributed leadership (assistant principal) and organizational commitment. Another study supporting this result is Uslu and Beycioğlu (2013) examined the relationship between teachers' organizational commitment and their perceptions of principals' distributed leadership roles, it was found that there was a positive and moderate relationship. In their study, Ağıroğlu and Aslan (2014) show that there is a positive, high level and significant relationship between distributed leadership perceptions and organizational commitment perceptions of public and private school teachers. Based on the Pearson Correlation analysis, it can be said that as the distributed leadership perceptions of teachers working in public and private schools increase, their organizational commitment also increases.

When we look at these studies in the education sector, we see that there is generally a positive and significant relationship between teachers' perception of distributed leadership and their organizational commitment. One of the most important reasons for this is that students and administrators are the same people all the time, there is not much change. This may affect organizational commitment positively, but when we look at the hotels, the guests change constantly and the workforce turnover rate is high because the employees are seasonal employees. This situation may negatively affect organizational commitment.

Again, since those working in the education sector are permanent employees, they do not have a fear of losing their job. This situation can positively affect organizational commitment. However, since hotel employees are usually seasonal employees and the rates of dismissal are high due to the current economic conditions in the private sector,

the person may not fully belong to the organization. Again, this is a situation that negatively affects organizational commitment.

Table 5-13. *Hypotheses*

H$_1$: Distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on organizational commitment. **(ACCEPTED)**

H$_{1a}$: The collaborative completion of tasks dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the emotional commitment dimension of organizational commitment. **(ACCEPTED)**

H$_{1b}$: The mutual skill development dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the emotional commitment dimension of organizational commitment. **(ACCEPTED)**

H$_{1c}$: The decentralized interaction dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the emotional commitment dimension of organizational commitment. **(ACCEPTED)**

H$_{1d}$: Emotional support dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the emotional commitment dimension of organizational commitment. **(ACCEPTED)**

H$_{1e}$: The collaborative completion of tasks dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the continuance commitment dimension of organizational commitment. **(ACCEPTED)**

H$_{1f}$: The mutual skill development dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the continuance commitment dimension of organizational commitment. **(ACCEPTED)**

H$_{1g}$: The decentralized interaction dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the continuance commitment dimension of organizational commitment. **(ACCEPTED)**

H$_{1h}$: The emotional support dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the continuance commitment dimension of organizational commitment. **(ACCEPTED)**

H$_{1i}$: The collaborative completion of tasks dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the normative commitment dimension of organizational commitment. **(ACCEPTED)**

H$_{1j}$: The mutual skill development dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the normative commitment dimension of organizational commitment. **(ACCEPTED)**

H$_{1k}$: The decentralized interaction dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on the normative commitment dimension of organizational commitment. **(ACCEPTED)**

H$_{1m}$: Emotional support dimension of distributed leadership has a positive and significant effect on normative commitment dimension of organizational commitment. **(ACCEPTED)**

It can be argued that as distributed leadership practices based on the distribution of leadership among participants are developed instead of traditional leadership approaches, teachers may feel a stronger commitment to their schools. Slavit, Kennedy, Deuel, and Nelson (2011) found that distributed leadership practices increased the feelings of collective responsibility and professionalism among school members. According to many studies in the literature, it is understood that shared leadership practices increase employees' positive feelings towards the organization and their work (Scott & Caress, 2005; Wood, 2005; Wood & Fields, 2007).

As seen in these studies, developing distributed leadership practices based on the distribution of leadership tasks among participants instead of leadership-oriented approaches envisaged by traditional leadership approaches enables employees to feel stronger commitment to their organizations. If leaders want to increase employees' commitment to the organization, they should adopt an approach that distributes their own responsibilities and guides their employees. Leaders should attach importance to human resources, involve employees in decisions, and adopt a democratic approach. Everyone in the organization should cooperate and fulfill their responsibilities to increase the organization's capability.

In the literature, there are few studies examining the relationship between distributed leadership and organizational commitment. In particular, there are almost no studies on the given sub-hypotheses. However, there are close studies on the sub-dimensions of distributed leadership and organizational commitment. In a study (Bostancı et al., 2018), which supports the result, a significant positive and moderate relationship was found between the existence of distributed leadership, joint completion of tasks and emotional support dimensions of distributed leadership in schools and teachers' organizational trust levels and positive feelings towards work. In addition, a significant positive and low level relationship was detected between the decentralized interaction dimension of distributed leadership and both teachers' organizational trust levels and their positive feelings towards work. While there was a significant positive and medium level relationship between the level of existence of the mutual skill development dimension of distributed leadership and teachers' organizational trust levels, a significant positive and low level relationship was found between this dimension and teachers' positive feelings towards work. As it can be understood, there are significant and positive relationships

between distributed leadership practices in schools and the organizational trust levels of teachers and their feelings towards work.

5.2. Conclusion

In today's conditions, organizations experience an environment where innovation, change and transformation processes are experienced and competition is inevitable. The attitudes of organizations towards their employees are also different. In this sense, organizations want qualified employees to continue working with high performance in the organization and to have high loyalty to the organization. This aim is expressed as organizational commitment in the literature. This process, which is based on the mutual relations between the organization and the employee, such as the employee's adoption of organizational goals, making efforts for the organization, and continuing to stay in the organization with a sense of loyalty and commitment, is very important. Another equally important process is leadership. From the first human communities to the present day, the process of the art of gathering individuals around a purpose voluntarily, directing and influencing them has been referred to as leadership and the person as a leader. Distributed leadership, which we discuss in this study, was born as a reaction to today's classical leadership approach. Instead of a single hero, a participative, distributed leadership approach, in which the ideas of most or all of the employees of the organization are important, has started to be used. Distributed leadership has become one of the most important elements for increasing organizational capacity and being more productive. This leadership style can be applied to different sectors, regions and employees. In general, studies on distributed leadership have been conducted in the education sector and there are not many studies on this subject in the service sector. This research was conducted in order to close this gap in the literature. The research was conducted to measure the relationship between the perceived distributed leadership style and organizational commitment of four and five star hotel employees in Erzurum and a positive and significant relationship was found between distributed leadership and organizational commitment.

If leaders want to increase the loyalty of employees to the hotel, they should abandon the understanding of managing the organisation and making decisions alone. They should adopt an understanding that distributes their responsibilities and takes the decisions of their employees. Especially in hotel businesses, since the success output

directly depends on the employees, leaders should give due importance to human resources, involve employees in the decisions taken, and adopt a democratic understanding. All stakeholders in the hotel should cooperate and fulfil their responsibilities in order to increase the success of the organisation. In this sense, raising awareness and training of hotel leaders on distributed leadership is considered important in terms of increasing the commitment of hotel employees to the organisation.

Leaders can receive training to learn about distributed leadership practices. Trips can be organised in which stakeholders are responsible and cooperation is made. Employees can be provided with the necessary authority to fulfil their responsibilities. Employees can be involved in the decision-making process and can be assigned to some important tasks. Employees can be directed to training courses to improve their professional development. Behaviours that make employees feel that they are taken into consideration can be displayed. For example, celebrating employees' birthdays. Practices such as choosing the employee of the month or giving a certificate of appreciation can be made widespread to show that employees are valued. A hotel culture dominated by a distributed leadership approach can be created in hotels.

When leaders in hotels' adopt a distributed leadership style that encourages unity and solidarity with everyone in the organisation, creates a team atmosphere among their subordinates, is aware of the talents and skills of their employees and consults them, makes employees feel that they are strong and reliable by involving everyone in the organisation in the decision-making process rather than alone in the decision-making process, and approaches employees in a way that makes them feel that they are individually important, the desire to continue to stay in the organisation, it will ensure to increase the behaviours of having a sense of loyalty and adopting to continue to the organisation as a duty and will maintain the loyalty of human resources, which is the most important resource of enterprises to the organisation.

5.3. Suggestions

A review of the relevant studies in this field reveals that the number of studies on this topic and content in the service sector is very limited, especially in Turkey. Distributed leadership should not be limited to the education sector. Because the inclusion of other employees in the management process by taking their opinions instead of a single leader will contribute to the organization in every sense and increase organizational

commitment. Therefore, studies on the relationship between distributed leadership style and organizational commitment can be conducted in the service sector. Especially since the interaction between people is very high in hotels, studies on distributed leadership should be conducted in the field of hotel management. Studies can be conducted in which different variables (such as salary, etc.) that may be effective on organisational commitment and distribut leadership can be used.

The study has limitations of place (four and five star hotels operating in Erzurum, Turkey) and time (data obtained in 2022). With this characteristic, the findings of this study cannot represent all four and five star hotels, and the results can only contribute to generalisations. This point should be taken into consideration in the evaluation of the findings. Future research can test the findings of this study by reaching a larger number of four and five star hotel establishments and obtain more generalisable results. Researchers can take this study as a starting point and make applications in hotels operating in different scales and in different cultures.

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