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İŞLETME ANA BİLİM DALI
ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNGİLİZCE) BİLİM DALI

**THE RELATIONS OF LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE WITH
ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIAL CAPITAL: THE ROLE OF
PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST**

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

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ÖZET

Lider-üye etkileşimi, bireylerin çalıştıkları kuruma ilişkin kararlarının, işe yönelik adımlarının en nihayetinde çevreleri ile kurdukları ilişkilerinin üzerinde etkisi bulunan bir kavramdır. Benzer bir şekilde, bireylerin örgütsel güven algıları da bulundukları örgüte uyumu, çalışma arkadaşları ve öğrencileri ile olan ilişkilerini etkileyen bir kavramdır. Sosyal sermaye kavramı ise günümüzde örgütler ve toplumlar açısından giderek önem kazanan bir kavram olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Böylece bu çalışmada lider-üye etkileşimi ve örgütsel güven kavramlarının sosyal sermaye kavramı ile arasındaki ilişkileri incelemek amaçlanmıştır. Literatür taraması neticesinde; lider-üye etkileşimi ve sosyal sermaye kavramlarının arasında pozitif yönde ilişkinin olabileceği ve örgütsel güven kavramının da bu ilişkide düzenleyici rol oynayabileceği ön görülmüştür.

Araştırmada önerilen modeli test etmek üzere eğitim sektöründe görev yapan 226 öğretmenden kesitsel bir araştırma çerçevesinde anket yönetimi ile elde edilen veriler üzerinden yürütülen analizler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Katılımcılar ile demografik bilgileri içeren kişisel bir bilgi formu ile lider-üye etkileşimi, örgütsel güven ve sosyal sermaye ölçekleri ile yapılandırılmış bir soru formu paylaşılmıştır. Verilerin toplanmasının ardından ilgili ölçeklere yönelik faktör analizi, korelasyon analizi, bağımsız gruplar T testleri ve çoklu regresyon analizlerini içeren istatistik analizleri uygulanmıştır. Gerçekleştirilen analizler sonucunda, sosyal sermaye değişkeninin hem lider-üye etkileşimi hem de örgütsel güven ile arasında pozitif yönde ve anlamlı bir ilişkinin olduğu tespit edilerek araştırmanın H1 ve H2 hipotezleri desteklenmiştir. Analiz sonuçları aynı zamanda örgütsel güven kavramının lider-üye etkileşimi ve sosyal sermaye kavramlarının arasındaki ilişkide kısmi düzenleyici etkisinin olduğunu göstermiş ve araştırmanın H3 hipotezi kısmi olarak desteklenmiştir. Bu bulgulara istinaden çalışma hipotezlerinin desteklendiği ortaya koyulmuştur. Araştırma sonucunda elde edilen bu bulgular, kuramsal ve uygulamaya yönelik katkıları açısından irdelenmiştir.

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ABSTRACT

Leader-member exchange is a concept that has an impact on the decisions of individuals regarding the organization, their steps towards the business, and ultimately their relationships with their environment. Similarly, individuals' perceptions of organizational trust is a concept that affects their adaptation to the organization they are in and their relationships with their colleagues and students. The concept of social capital, on the other hand, emerges as an increasingly important concept for organizations and societies. Thus, in this study, it is aimed to examine the relationships between leader-member exchange and organizational trust concepts with the social capital. As a result of the literature review; It is assumed that there may be a positive relationship between the leader-member exchange and social capital, and that the organizational trust can play a moderator role in this relationship.

In order to test the model proposed in the research, analyzes were carried out on the data obtained by survey management from 226 teachers working in the education sector within the framework of a cross-sectional study. A personal information form containing demographic information and a questionnaire structured with leader-member exchange, organizational trust and social capital scales were shared with the participants. After the data was collected, statistical analysis including factor analysis, correlation analysis, independent groups T tests and multiple regression analysis were applied. As a result of these analyzes, it was determined that there is a positive and significant relationship between social capital with both leader-member interaction and organizational trust variables, and the H1 and H2 hypotheses of the study were supported. The results of the analysis also showed that the organizational trust has a partial moderator effect on the relationship between leader-member exchange and social capital, and the H3 hypothesis of the research is partially supported. These findings obtained as a result of the research were examined in terms of their theoretical and practical contributions.

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ABBREVIATIONS

LMX: Leader-Member Exchange

OT: Organizational Trust

SC: Social Capital

KMO: Kaiser Meyer Olkin

α : Cronbach Alpha



1. INTRODUCTION AND THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

Individuals are in search of a continuous communication at both social and individual levels in order to meet their needs. Thus, values such as love, respect, honesty, and trust have an important place in the relationship's individuals establish. Values like these contribute to the social domain that individuals create around them. The accumulation of resources such as reciprocity, trust, honesty, and common economic expectations that ensure the interaction sustained in this field is explained with the concept of "social capital". These values, which are important for individual relationships, are also very important for groups, communities, and organizations. Groups, communities, and organizations that arise from the sharing of different norms or values by different people create a higher level of accumulation through their members' width of social relationships and expectations. It can be stated that the concept of social capital is a sociological and economic concept.

The concept of social capital was first introduced at the beginning of the 20th century during the evaluation of the school system in the USA. The relationship between families' interest in school and school's performance has been defined as the enrichment of social capital (Woolcock & Narayan, 2000). Until the 1980s, many researchers, including Homans, Jacobs and Loury, mostly emphasized the importance of social ties (Bourdieu, 1986). Since the 1980s, social capital has been considered as a very important factor that helps to mobilize the economic and cultural capital of individuals and operates on the basis of social obligations and social networks. With the concept of social capital, the importance of social ties and shared norms for economic efficiency has come to the fore. Social capital, which facilitates the collective efficiency and enables the increase in income and becoming more effective within the total production factor, is defined as the glue that holds societies together in terms of this feature (Bjornskov & Svendsen, 2003). In addition, social capital is evaluated on the source of mutual relations and the resulting norms and the contribution of this resource to human capital (Coleman, 1988). One of the most important contributions to the concept of social capital was made by Putnam. According to Putnam (1995), norms within the social structures of societies are social networks of non-governmental organizations

created by values and relationships on the basis of trust. In other words, Putnam expresses the social capital as a factor that facilitates the trust, networks, communication styles and cooperation actions in the definitions of relationships between individuals, democracy and social capital that make up the society (Ekinci, 2008). Social capital is expressed as an accumulation that prepares the cultural level where individuals can act together and do business. It has been stated that the factors that make up social capital in a society are indicators of trust, honesty in dialogues, opportunities for improvement in income distribution, social mobility, family relations and these factors can also be used as indicators of economic growth (KOSGEB, Küçük ve Orta Ölçekli İşletmeleri Geliştirme ve Destekleme İdaresi Başkanlığı, 2005).

On the other hand, different definitions have been developed for the concept of social capital over the structure and diversity of social networks. Thereby, the relationship between social capital and economic effectiveness at individual, organizational or national level has been analyzed. While macro level social capital studies examine the relationships between economic development and national trust level, micro level social capital studies examine the relationships between organizational trust or leader-member interaction. However, although there are many studies examining the relationship between social capital and education in different contexts in the international literature, it can be said that there are not many studies covering this context in our country.

The concept of social capital, which is accepted as a positive potential in social and organizational context, can be defined as a dynamic concept that continues to be researched both in our country and in the international literature, despite the numerous results and antecedents identified. In this study, the concept of social capital is examined at the micro level, in an organizational context and based on the evaluations of individuals. Based on the question of what kind of individual variables might be related to the evaluations regarding the social capital structure of an organization, organizational trust is examined as an individual level variable and the leader-member exchange is examined as a contextual and relational variable. Hence, leader-member exchange is determined as independent variable and organizational trust was handled as a moderator variable of the study. The concept of leader-member exchange, which has

been relatively less researched in the literature on social capital, has been undertaken from theoretical, philosophical and social psychological perspectives in this study.

Teachers, who are at a sensitive point in the development of organizational processes and at the center of internal and external communication in education, are very important for the organization to achieve a common goal. Although the studies carried out in the literature do not consider the concepts of social capital and leader-member exchange as a whole, they especially examined by their sub-dimensions. The main objective of this study is to investigate the relations of perceived leader-member exchange and perceived social capital and to examine the moderating role of perceived organizational trust on the assumed relationship between leader-member exchange and social capital.

With respect to the preliminary literature review on the study concepts, the research questions that lead the in-dept literature study and generation of the research hypotheses are listed below:

- Q1: What are the factors that are related to social capital perceptions of the teachers?
- Q2: What is the relation of leader-member exchange on social capital perceptions of the teachers?
- Q3: What is the relation of organizational trust on social capital perceptions of the teachers?
- Q4: If leader-member exchange has relations with social capital perceptions, how does organizational trust take a role in this relationship?
- Q5: What are the relationships between demographic variables and research variables? Said with another word, is there a difference for the study variables in terms of the demographic factors?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. The Concept of Leader-Member Exchange

In this part of the study, the definition, theoretical foundations, evolution, stages, dimensions, predecessors, and organizational consequences of the leader-member exchange (LMX) which is examined as the independent variable of the study are presented.

2.1.1. The Definition of Leader-Member Exchange

Leadership is the ability to influence and motivate members who can contribute to the organization's success and effectiveness (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta, 2004, p. 15). Leadership is the sum of the bilateral relations between the leader and his / her members, who have the power to perform any work by making them accepted by others, and which arise in the form of interaction under certain conditions (Şimşek, Akgemci, Çelik, 1998, p. 138).

A lot of research has been done about leadership theories from past to present. Leadership theories are grouped under two main headings as “traditional” and “modern” theories. The traditional concept of leadership is defined as having the qualifications, skills and experience to bring together a community by focusing on specific objectives and to put them into action in order to realize these goals (Bayrak, 1997, p. 356). Traditional leadership theories are “Traits, behavioral and contingency” theories.

In Trait theory, the importance of leadership is emphasized, the concept of leadership is emphasized, and it is accepted that leadership characteristics are the most important factors affecting the process (Keçecioğlu, 1998, p. 26). The aim of behavioral leadership theory is to determine how an individual's behavior can be integrated with leadership and to answer the question of how a leader should behave in order to be effective (Keçecioğlu, 2003, p. 157). On the other hand, contingency theory suggested that the best leadership behavior could change according to the conditions.”

In many of the leadership related theories, the leader offers a certain form of leadership to the total of the members and has a familiar intuition for all employees. However, since organizational activities are based on the human factor, employees and

leaders in the organization cannot be evaluated separately (due to the responsibilities required by the concept of leadership). In addition, communication and interaction within the organization is an inevitable result (Çekmecelioğlu and Ülker, 2014).

Studies have shown that traditional theories in leadership styles are inadequate and have led to the development of new leadership theories. Contemporary theories have uncovered different dimensions of the leadership process, which has not been mentioned much before. The most important change that has come to the fore has been the direction of the relationship between the leader and the member (Bozkurt and Göral, 2014).

In this regard, the perceptions, comments and reactions of the members of the organization were considered to be homogeneous in the first leadership theories and the leader was assumed to treat each member in the same way (Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975, p. 47). However, leadership is a process in which the leader tries to influence the leader as well as the effort of the leader to influence the member (Bandura, 1977). This process occurs when the leader and members are matched (Yammarino and Dansereau, 2008, p. 137). According to Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) leadership is a complex structure consisting of leader, follower, and bilateral relations between them. Therefore, it was pointed out that the researchers should attach importance to these three elements in their leadership studies, and emphasized the theory of leader-member exchange, which emphasized the relationship between the leader and the member.

Scandura, Graen and Novak (1986) made a detailed description of the leading member exchange theory. This definition is as follows:

- a.** Leader-member exchange theory is a system formed by many parts and the relationships between them.
- b.** It is mutual. It includes members of both parties.
- c.** The behaviors of both sides are interdependent.
- d.** The results are folded together on both sides. They win or lose together.
- e.** The pair creates results such as developing methods of understanding different situations, providing solutions to various incomprehensible issues, and obtaining valuable products and services.

The leader-member exchange theory, one of the modern leadership theories, forms the backbone of effective leadership research (Tabak, 2005). Leader-member exchange theory explains how the leader uses the strength of his / her position to increase business relations with various members. According to this new theory, the leader does not show a single form of leadership towards all members in his team; It is a leadership theory that emerges as to how the leader shapes various relationships with each of the members following him, considering that he behaves in various ways to various members (Özutku, 2007, p. 80). These relationships range only from the level of business relations required by the task, namely from low leader-member exchange, mutual trust, sympathy and interaction, that is, high level leader-member exchange (Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975, p. 43).

Social researchers are increasingly studying organizational trust to explain the various levels of cooperation demonstrated in different social, political and educational settings. For the organizational members, in order to be able to cooperate to achieve the common goals, not just knowing each other, but also to trust each other is important. By this way, it becomes possible for them to avoid from exploiting or cheating in their relationship, and this provides the organization truly to benefit from their cooperation (Field, 2006). There are some confusing questions regarding the relationship of social capital and organizational trust. In particular, the two questions are whether trust is an integral or antecedent element of social capital as represented by Coleman (1988), Putnam (1995), and Fukuyama (1995); or is one of social capital's products and consequences as represented by scholars like Woolcock (2001). Within an organizational context, trust and social capital are mutually reinforcing—social capital generates trusting relationships that in turn produce social capital (Adler and Kwon, 2002). In the literature, organizational trust is mostly studied as an antecedent of social capital in educational institutions, but there is lack of study examining the organizational trust as a moderator between the two variables. The study of Bartkus and Davis (2009) is noteworthy which has suggested the moderating effect of organizational trust on the relations between contextual variables and perceived social capital. Within their work, organizational trust's contingent role on the perceived social capital is highlighted. Therefore, the current study focuses on this area and organizational trust is examined

both as an independent variable of perceived social capital and the contingent variable moderating the relationship between LMX and social capital.

Summarizing, leader-member exchange theory differs from traditional leadership theories in that it emphasizes the mutual relations of leaders and members. In addition, different from traditional leadership theories, the interaction of leaders and members and the differences experienced in bilateral relations during this time constitute the essence of this theory (Baş, Keskin and Mert, 2010). It differs from other traditional models and theories as it is the only theory that draws attention to the fact that it will create various, intimate relationships with its members and examines the relationship between them (Ayyıldız, 2008). In addition, the theory of leader-member exchange is a groundbreaking theory, as it draws attention to different bilateral relationships between leaders and their audience and suggests that leaders do not have the same type of relationship with each of the audience (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer and Ferris, 2012, p. 1716).

a) Vertical Dyad Linkage Model

Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975) have developed a leadership theory that focuses on bilateral relations resulting from the interaction between the leader and each member (subordinate). In this approach, which the authors named "Vertical Dyad Linkage" theory; it is stated that the leader (superiors) did not exhibit a certain form of leadership towards members (subordinates) and that they had different relationships with different members. In other words, the leader in organizations is unique and personal to each member. For example, the first encounter and interaction enable parties to get to know each other. If the quality of the interaction between the leader and the member is high at the beginning, it is thought that the leader will give the member better duties. All these factors that come together to affect the relationship between the two (Ayyıldız, 2008).

According to Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975), the relations between the leader and the member are formed as "in-group" and "out-group" through informal relations in the organization. Accordingly, if any member has a qualitative relationship with the leader that has common interests, he/she will be evaluated by the leader as an

“internal group member”. In addition, the internal group member in organizations will be a member of the leader's informal team, both in terms of information exchange and solidarity. On the other hand, the member, who has a low-quality harmony with his/her leader and who is thought to have a relationship that is probably not welcomed by the internal group members for these reasons, will also be considered as the “external group member” (Kılınç, 1995).

According to Liden and Graen (1980), internal group members are selected by leaders based on their skills, abilities, credibility, and incentive to take responsibility. Internal group members contribute to the completion of critical works by assuming responsibilities outside of their official duties for the success of the unit they are in. In return, they receive more attention, support, and sensitivity from their leaders than others.

On the other hand, external group members who were not elected by the leader also deal with the ordinary and the ordinary affairs of the unit they are in. Their interaction with the leader continues in a more formal way. As the “Vertical Dyad Linkage Theory” progressed over time, its name became “Leader-Member Exchange”. The focus is on the quality of the interaction between the leader and the member (low-high), rather than classifying them as intragroup or non-group. In addition, the antecedents, and organizational consequences of the leader-member exchange are emphasized (Liden and Graen, 1980).

b) Formation Process of LMX Theory

According to the model that Graen and Uhl-Bien (1991) established to explain the importance of producing high quality relationships within the organization, the first stage of the formation process of leadership is the phase called “foreigners”. At this stage, individuals come together for the first time as “foreigners”, who have organizational roles that are interconnected. At this stage, interaction between members proceeds in a more formal way. This interaction is in the form of economic interaction based on the logic of "if you pay, you get what you get Interactions in this relationship are only contractual. Leaders provide members with whatever they need to do what is on their contract. Meanwhile, members only do as much as the contractual works. After

this stage, the leader can create an environment for the member to increase business relationships through career-oriented social interaction. This offer can also come from the member. With the acceptance of this offer and the increase in social interaction, the second stage of the development of the relationship between leader and member, the "acquaintance" stage begins.

Further in this stage, social interaction between the leader and the member starts to increase. These interactions proceed within a framework where both sides can evaluate each other, rather than the boundaries of the employment contract. The favors that the leader and the member do for each other are mutually evaluated. This process takes place in a limited time and when the interaction increases, the transition to the next stage can be achieved.

Lastly, when these relationships develop for the next level, this interaction is now called "matured partnership." At this stage, interactions between members are quite high. Interactive situations are everything except money and this relationship can last for a long time in the framework of reciprocity. Individuals feel confident in the way they feel connected and help each other. Mutual relationships are interactions with emotions as well as behavioral. Mutual respect, trust and obligation develop in this process; thus, this stage is an increasing level of influence and leader-member exchange is extremely high (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 236).

2.1.2. Theoretical Foundations of LMX Theory

Several theories have been indicated in the development process of leader-member exchange. These theories are role theory, equality theory, social interaction theory and justice approach and they will be briefly explained below.

a) Role Theory

Leader-member exchange is tasks, bilateral relations or interactions that differ and develop between the leader and the member over time (Bauer and Graen, 1996). The foundations of leader-member exchange are built on role theory (Graen, 1976). According to the role theory, members achieve their work through their roles. The topics that role theory focuses on being the pre-planned, task-based, and hierarchical roles of individuals within social systems. Roles are vital in achieving organizational goals

(Biddle, 1986). Katz and Kahn (1978) defined roles as certain standardized or institutionalized forms of behavior. They also stated that employees must act in line with their job roles in order to perform certain jobs and duties effectively (Katz and Kahn, 1978).

Graen, Cashman, Ginsburg and Schiemann (1977) stated that the members' roles in the organizations are not only written or roles required by the job, but over time, the members formed their own roles through the process called “role creation”. According to this approach, leaders test their subordinates by assigning tasks to fulfill various roles. The degree to which subordinates perform these duties will also determine whether they are trustworthy and will determine the nature of the interaction between the leader and the member. Thus, the leader will give job-related resources (information, compelling job assignments and autonomy) in response to his employees, according to the nature of the leader-member exchange (Graen and Scandura, 1987). The resources provided by the leader in response to the work-related behaviors of the subordinates are indicative of the "exchange" between the subordinate and the superior (Liden and Maslyn, 1998, p. 44). In other words, leaders tell members about their roles and what they have to do. Leaders also give abstract and concrete rewards in response to the members performing these roles the way he wants. Members also think about what they will achieve in return for fulfilling these roles. Members do not have to actively do what the leader says. If necessary, they may refuse to fulfill the expected roles or negotiate again. During the leader-member exchange, both parties offer different resources for interaction (Graen, 1976; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).

b) Equality Theory

The basis of Adams' (1965) theory of equality is that individuals expect others to be fair to them. “Perceived fairness” is at the focal point of the theory of equality (Deluga, 1994). Most of the research on equality theory is about explaining the desire to achieve equality in the business environment. Most of the research on equality theory is about explaining the desire to achieve equality in the business environment. The theory of equality suggests that employees continually compare their labor and gains in return with other employees at the same level and check whether they are equal. Employees are waiting for their reward as wages. Gains such as a good salary, a nice

office, and private car allocation can be given as examples. Labor is what the person does about his job. For example, personal effort, duration and form of education, previous work experience, internship, course etc. (Vecchio, 1991). The basis of the theory of equality is exchanged. Considering the effort, they put into the organization and their jobs while distributing rewards to employees, then an equality can be mentioned within the organization (Hooper and Martin, 2008). According to Can (1999, p. 183-184) the theory of equality is based on four basic concepts:

1. Person: The person exposed to equality or inequality,
2. Other Person: Comparing the gifts that can be obtained in return for the work done by other individuals or groups,
3. Inputs: Personal characteristics used by the employee in his job. For example, talent, experience, age, gender, etc.
4. Outputs: The earnings that come with the person's job. For example, gifts, recognition, wages, income, etc.

Adams (1965) expressed his determinations on justice with an equation named “equation of equality”. In this equation, there are mutual parties, namely the person and the other person. The ratio used is the “input: output” ratio. The equation that Adams (1965) used to express equality is presented in Figure 1 below (Cited in İşbaşı, 2000, p. 45):

$$\frac{\text{Person' Outputs}}{\text{Person' Inputs}} = \frac{\text{Referent Other' Outputs}}{\text{Referent Other' Inputs}}$$

Figure 1. Adams' Equality Equation

As can be inferred from the Figure 1, the inequality in this formula indicates an unfair situation and one side is superior to the other. If the employee does not perceive the rate, perceived about his / her job as equal when compared to that of another person, or when he perceives an inequality between his friends who are at the same level with himself and his own, he will start to display different behaviors to eliminate inequality (Yüksel, 1998, p. 137). There are two variables that the employee considers when

making comparisons. First, ability, features, knowledge, and experience as input; The second one is, as output, wages, status, bonuses, premiums, and similar social benefits provided by the organization for its labor. The employee must establish a balance between these two variables for job satisfaction (Mirze, 2009). The most important task in the theory of equality falls on the employee's manager. For this reason, first, managers should be neutral in their evaluations and should have the awareness of equal work, equal pay, and the reward (Efil, 2006, p. 157).

c) Social Interaction Theory

Social interaction theory is one of the oldest theories in the field of social behavior. Homans (1958, p. 597) stated that every relationship established between individuals for the exchange of resources is social interaction. Sources subject to change can be tangible assets such as money and things, or abstract concepts such as kindness and friendship. The main basis of the social interaction theory is that the parties establish and maintain relationships with each other in anticipation that they will be rewarded (Blau, 1968; Homans, 1958). Homans (1958) developed the first systematic theory of social behavior based on mutual interaction.

Blau (1964) conceptualized this process by expressing that there is an interaction process between the employees and the mutual social relations. He became the first researcher to call this concept "Social Interaction Theory". Thibaut and Kelley (1959) tried to explain how they measure the benefits of interaction in order to determine the commitment of the parties to their relationship with the concepts of "Comparison Level" and "Comparison Level of Alternatives". "Comparison Level" is what rewards an individual expects in certain situations. The individual must know the "Comparison Level of Alternatives" in order to maintain or end a relationship. Emerson (1962) emphasized that the presence of power imbalances between the parties during social interaction causes instability in relationships, therefore interdependence is very important for the sustainability of social interaction (Lambe and Spekman, 1997, p. 4).

Searle (2000, p. 139) briefly explained the principles of social interaction theory. These are respectively:

- a.** Individuals establish their relationships with the aim of obtaining rewards.

- b.** Relationships will continue if the rewards are valuable and develop over time.
- c.** Individuals will continue their relationship with the other party if the other party responds and provides appropriate rewards.
- d.** The cost of the established relationship cannot exceed its benefit.
- e.** It is likely to get the desired rewards.
- f.** There is such a doctrine in social interaction theory: If one party is dependent on the other party's power, a sustainable relationship cannot be mentioned here.

According to the theory of social interaction, people prefer the best and the most satisfactory among the different options and avoid harm. They seek other options with the least loss. Another important issue, according to the theory is that the decreasing marginal benefit law is valid in the social relations of individuals. Finally, in social interaction theory, individuals seek a fair balance between what they give to others in their relationships and what they receive. If an imbalance occurs, individuals cannot be satisfied with their relationship and terminate (Özkalp, 2002). In the presence of high-quality leader-member exchange, more trust emerges between the leader and members, and leaders take the initiative towards the social needs of the members (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). Meanwhile, members respond in return for their support and trust by making more efforts beyond their duties (Wang, Chu, and Ni, 2010, p. 151). It can be said that the main basis of the behaviors that employees show willingly in their organizations is the theory of social interaction (Akdoğan and Köksal, 2014, p. 26).

d) Justice Approach

It is highlighted that one of the reasons that affect the perception of justice within the organization is the quality of leader-member exchange (Homans, 1958; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). “Internal group” members with high leader-member exchange get more positive rewards than “external group” members with low leader-member exchange. Hence, the members who get more rewards think they are treated fair, a situation that will greatly affect the perception of justice within the organization. Moreover, if there is a high level of trust between the leader and the member, it is seen that the members with high leader-member exchange have a high perception of justice.

In the extant literature it is emphasized in the literature of organizational justice that “communication” plays an important role in shaping employees' perception of justice (Liden and Maslyn, 1998). The use of the opportunities provided to members in decision-making processes is related to the quality of leader-member exchange. Accordingly, the members who have a high level of interaction with the leader are more involved in the decision-making processes and benefit from these opportunities. The main assumption of leader-member exchange theory is that the resources of leaders are limited and distributed by making choices while sharing out these resources. These different behaviors exhibited by the leaders cause differentiation of the quality of leader-member Exchange within the organization (Lee, 2001, p. 577). Therefore, research points out that it is important for employees to perceive their leaders fairly during social interaction. It is stated that when employees perceive their leaders as fair and well-intentioned, it is seen that the quality of leader-member exchange increases (Erdogan, Liden and Kraimer, 2006, p. 396).

For a better description on organizational justice construct, the three basic dimensions of organizational justice, which are suggested to be related to leading member exchange theory, will be briefly explained below.

1. Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is a concept related to whether fair behavior is treated in organizations in planning and decision-making processes. It is seen as a concept that shows whether the decisions taken in relation to performance evaluation, career planning and management as well as organizational activities are fair (Eren, 2012, p. 552).

According to Leventhal (1980, p. 42-48), there are six principles that directly affect the sense of justice in organizations. These are as follows:

- a. Consistency rule:** To be consistent with the decisions to be taken regarding sharing in organizations,
- b. Non-bias rule:** Not being biased to employees in organizational sharing and processes,
- c. Accuracy rule:** To provide correct information,

- d. Rectification rule:** To let employees have the right to oppose certain decisions or to have these decisions changed and acceptable,
- e. Representation rules:** To ask employees during important decisions and selecting delegates to represent them,
- f. Ethical rule:** To take decisions, especially related to organizational sharing and processes, in accordance with business ethics (Özdevecioğlu 2003, p. 79).

2. Distribution Justice

As previously mentioned, individuals can perceive the gains (such as return, bonuses, promotion, social rights) they have earned in return for their work in their organizations as fair or unfair. Employee's compare their achievements with those of others. Due to this evaluation, they may have the perception that they are treated unfairly. The distribution injustice perceived by this evaluation can affect and change their attitudes and behaviors. The main purpose in distribution justice is that people have the belief that they get a fair share of the resources distributed. Employees want to learn how gains are distributed in their organizations and which principles are applied during distribution. The distribution is done according to the rules and clear, it gives people peace of mind. On the contrary, in cases where the distribution is not known and confidentiality is more pronounced than transparency, the doubts of employees reveal a weak sense of justice (Özdevecioğlu, Sucan and Akın 2014, p. 139).

3. Interactional Justice

The concept of justice has been firstly used by Bies and Moag (1986) Interaction justice was primarily concerned with ways of interaction and perceived justice among those working within the organization. It is the perception of justice of the employees against the attitudes and behaviors of the practitioners in the processes related to the organizations.

To define the characteristics of interactional justice, Bies and Moag (1986) These are presented below:

- a. Respect:** To be kind rather than rude.
- b. Decency:** To be avoiding asking inappropriate questions and making biased comments.

- c. **Truthfulness:** To be honest, rather than cheating in your communications.
- d. **Justification:** To be made clear and enough explanations for the decision.

Collie, Bradley, and Sparks (2002) defined interactional justice as the attitudes and behaviors of people who interact with each other. Ando and Matsuda (2010) stated that employees are more willing and moral when leaders justify their employees in the fairness of interactional justice in the processes related to the processes.

2.1.3. Dimensions of Leader-Member Exchange

There are researchers who claimed that the Leader-Member Exchange theory is one-dimensional, as well as researchers who indicated that it is multi-dimensional. Schriesheim, Castro and Cogliser (1999) reviewed 147 studies in detail starting from the first leader-member exchange studies (between 1972-1998). In their research, they determined that the theoretical content and dimensions of leader-member exchange have changed significantly over the years. According to the results they obtained from 37 studies on leader-member exchange in the 1980s, they determined 11 different definitions and 35 different dimensions of the leader-member exchange theory. When they examined 82 studies conducted in the 1990s, they pointed out that there was an inconsistency in the dimensions of the leader-member exchange. Despite these inconsistencies, most of the studies studied, the researchers agreed that the theory demonstrates the quality of the interaction between the leader and the member.

Dienesch and Liden (1986), who also investigated the dimensions of the Leader-member Exchange theory, described the dimensions of the leader-member exchange as "loyalty", "emotional interaction" and "contributing". Liden and Maslyn (1998), on the other hand, added the dimension of "professional respect" in addition to these dimensions in their study. The dimensions of "loyalty", "emotional interaction", "contributing" and "professional respect" used to measure the quality of leader-member exchange will be examined below.

a) Loyalty

Loyalty can be explained as the leader and member that supports the goals and personality traits in the society. Loyalty is the protection of leaders and members from forces outside their environment (Dienesch and Liden, 1986, p. 625). Loyalty is fidelity

to the other party regardless of the environment (Liden and Maslyn, 1998, p. 50). Loyalty makes an important contribution to improving the quality of the leader-member exchange and making it permanent. Leaders especially need employees who can make independent decisions and remain loyal to jobs that require responsibility (Uğurluoğlu, Şantaş and Demirgil, 2013, p. 3). The more loyal to its member leader, in return, the leader will provide the member with more autonomous tasks and responsibility. (Liden and Graen, 1980; Scandura, Graen and Novak, 1986). In addition, loyalty goes beyond verbal support in patriarchal societies. Unconditional obedience and commitment to the leader in patriarchal work environments is an inevitable factor of leader-member exchange (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2006).

b) Affect

The affect dimension mentioned by Dienesch and Liden (1986) is based on the mutual sympathy of the leader and the member before the professional values. Affect can be demonstrated by the desire or formation of a relationship with components and outcomes (such as friendship) that reward the person. In the affect dimension, it is mentioned that the leader and the member love each other, see them as good friends and enjoy doing business together (Göksel and Aydınlan, 2012, p. 250). The affect dimension seriously affects the quantity and style of the interactions between the leader and the member, creating a more intimate and friendly atmosphere. When problems or crises arise that are not work-related, but can affect the business environment, the leader and the member will also expect a softer and emotional support (Dienesch and Liden, 1986, p. 625).

c) Contribution

According to Dienesch and Liden (1986), the dimension of contributing is the work-oriented actions that the leader and the member put forward for their open or secret common goals. It is one of the most important points of the contribution dimension that the member takes action by taking responsibility outside his / her duties in the job description or contract and that the leader also provides resources and opportunities to the member during this period. According to Göksel and Aydınlan (2012, p. 250), the contribution dimension includes understanding the number, direction, and quality of work-oriented activities in order to realize common goals in the form of bilateral

relations. Situations such as working outside the definition or scope-specific jobs, performing extra tasks, supporting each other in order to realize common goals are factored of the contribution dimension. The dimension of contributing in relation to social interaction theory is very important in establishing the relational quality. The leader's evaluation of the contributions of the member will directly affect the assignment of valuable jobs and empowerment of resources in the future. At this point, reciprocity occurs in the actions and as a result, the member who receives such resources and proposals will probably contribute more to return (Sullivan, Mitchell, and Uhl-Bien, 2003, p. 191).

d) Professional Respect

Professional respect is the state of appreciation that members feel by evaluating how perfectly their leaders do their jobs. It is also considered as the level of belief in the leader's work experience and skills (Göksel and Aydıntan, 2012, p. 250). Professional respect is the reputation that the leader and members have achieved inside or outside the organization because they do their job very well. Professional respect dimension is based on historical data about the individual. These historical data are things like personal experiences about the individual, comments about people inside or outside the organization, awards won or professional recognition. The professional respect dimension can develop without the need to work or meet the person (Liden and Maslyn, 1998, p. 50). Therefore, professional respect can develop without any interaction.

Liden and Maslyn (1998) defines professional respect as the expert power of the relationship between the leader and the member. Strength is an important element of leadership and social interaction. Therefore, the leader-member duo will have a desire to interact more with those who have power. In addition, the members who believe that their leaders are professionally respected are expected to have more contribution for the organization and show higher performance (Taştan, 2014). Someone who has a high professional respect can have very good connections both inside and outside the organization. Continuing to interact with such a person can yield gains such as visibility and engagement with influential people inside and outside the organization. In addition, having close interaction with someone with high professional respect also improves one's knowledge and skills. Maintaining and preserving the perception of professional

respect should be reinforced through interactions (Sullivan, Mitchell, and Uhl-Bien, 2003, p. 192).

2.1.4. Development Process of LMX Theory

Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995, p. 225–235) classified the development of the leader-member exchange theory into four stages. These stages are briefly explained as below:

- a.** Vertical Dyad Linkage Stage: It is an approach that accepts that leaders interact differently with each member, unlike the average leadership style that accepts that leaders treat each member in the same way. As a result of the relationship between the leader and the member within the organization, groups named as inner group and outer group are formed. Internal group members are members that have certain privileges close to the leader. Outer group members are the group of people outside the inner group.
- b.** Leader-Member Exchange: The change of the name “Vertical Dyad Connection Theory” to “Leader-member Exchange” was at this stage. At this stage, evaluation of the characteristics of leader-member exchange and analysis of the relationships between leader-member e and organizational variables were made.
- c.** Leadership-Making: Beyond the outer group-inner group classification, studies on more effective leadership processes have been carried out. At this stage, the leader-member exchange theory emphasizes leadership that deals with what needs to be done to develop partnerships with each member, rather than leadership that distinguishes members. Attention was drawn to the "partnership" relationship instead of the classic "subordinate" relationship.
- d.** Team-Making: Until this stage, the focus of leading member exchange studies has been independent bilateral relations and bilateral relations within the group. However, this situation is somewhat different in complex structured organizations. In these organizations, the leader interacts collectively with many members. In these organizations, leader-member exchange relations do not take place as independent pairs, but as interconnected bilateral relations systems or network assemblies. It is thought that larger network systems will be established by adopting a system-level perspective and combining different relationships (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Dienesch and Liden (1986) suggested that the development process of leader-member exchange should be explained on solid theoretical foundations and proposed a model for the development process of leader-member exchange by addressing theories such as role, leadership and social interaction within the framework of mutual causality. This model is presented in Figure 2.

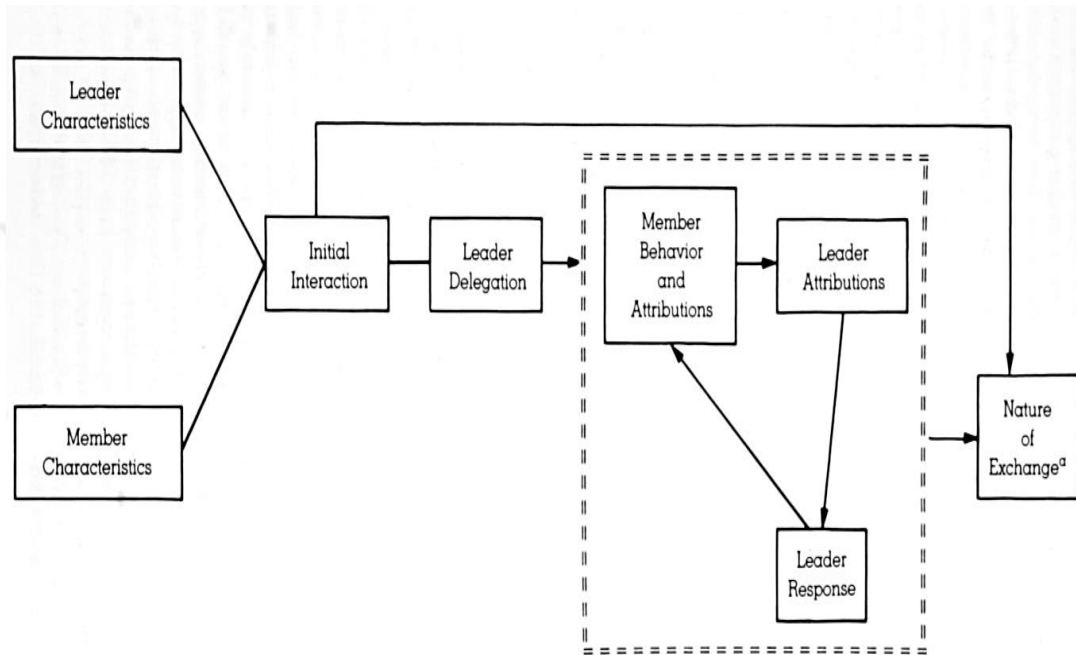


Figure 2. Dienesch and Liden's development model of LMX Theory (Dienesch and Liden, 1986, p. 627)

a) Initial Interaction

Initial interaction can be defined as the first time the leader and the member interact with each other in their positions. It is also the first stage where the physical characteristics, attitudes, appearances, abilities, personalities, experiences, age and past experiences of both parties come together. The initial interaction is a more challenging process for people with first work experience than for more senior employees. In addition to starting a new leader-member exchange process, these people are trying to socialize with other members of the organization. Besides all these, they need to understand the organization's understanding, practices, rules, culture, and norms and therefore they need information. The source of the information is also the leader. These

new hires practically are busy with two jobs. The first is socializing within the organization, and the other is to develop leader-member exchange with a new supervisor (Dienesch and Liden, 1986, p. 627).

As can be seen in the model, it is possible to jump directly from the "initial interaction" phase to the "nature of interaction" phase. This usually happens when the attributes of the member are quite remarkable, and the leader can make a sudden decision and disable the processes in between. For example, a leader with racist tendencies can be prejudices towards a black person, affecting the quality of the interaction between the leader and the member. When such a situation occurs, leading member exchange is focused only on the characteristics of the member and the behavior of the member has no meaning. In addition, the leader is influenced by the abilities, experiences and background of the member and can determine the leader-member exchange by looking at one or two characteristics of the member. However, the situation of determining leader-member exchange based on personality traits is usually an exception (Dienesch and Liden, 1986, p. 628).

Moreover, cognitive processes may be the reason for disabling causal inferences-based steps here. People can sometimes act without thinking and, with very little symptoms, classify external stimuli into specific classes. Therefore, when leaders decide automatically, the intermediate steps of the model shown above will have no meaning. When making causal inferences, people often try to understand the cause of adverse events or situations such as unexpected results and failures. Leader-member exchange process is also generally a problematic process. Therefore, it is expected that steps based on behavior and inferences in the model will be implemented (Dienesch and Liden, 1986, p. 628).

b) Leader Delegation

Dienesch and Liden (1986) stated that the second step of the model is the step where the leader authorizes the member by assigning tasks for trial purposes. These assignments are specifically chosen for the member's position within the organization and for the leader to test the member (Dienesch and Liden, 1986, p. 629).

c) Member Behavior and Attributions

This process is the one in which the leader tries to understand and interpret the member's behavior. The leader, who interprets the behavior of the member, shows actions to increase or decrease the interaction with the member. The leader's implications for the member's performance relate to whether the member's ability and motivation (intrinsic inference) is enough, or whether it is due to an observable behavior (extrinsic inference). Generally, as a result of internal inference, the leader is directed towards behaviors such as coaching the member or changing the authority given.

As a result of the external inference, it displays actions such as providing more resources to the member or changing the duties of the member (Martin, Epitropaki, Thomas and Topakas, 2010, p. 68). The upward influence may affect the leader's conclusions about the member. Kipnis, Schmidt and Wilkinson (1980, p. 445) conducted case studies with 165 sub-level managers. In this study, they investigated what behaviors and attitudes people would exhibit against their managers, colleagues, or employees for the solution of problematic cases. As a result of the research, they determined that 62% of the participants tried 370 different tactics in order to affect their superiors.

2.1.5. Antecedents and Consequences of Leader-Member Exchange

Dulebohn et al. (2012) stated that the leader-member exchange theory has existed for almost 40 years, but the antecedents and consequences of the theory cannot yet be explained. In this context, the researchers examined 247 studies containing 290 samples and identified 21 antecedents and 16 consequences of the quality of leader-member exchange. In this section, the antecedents, and consequences of the quality of leader-member exchange will be explained. The antecedents and consequences of the quality of leader-member exchange are presented in Figure 3.

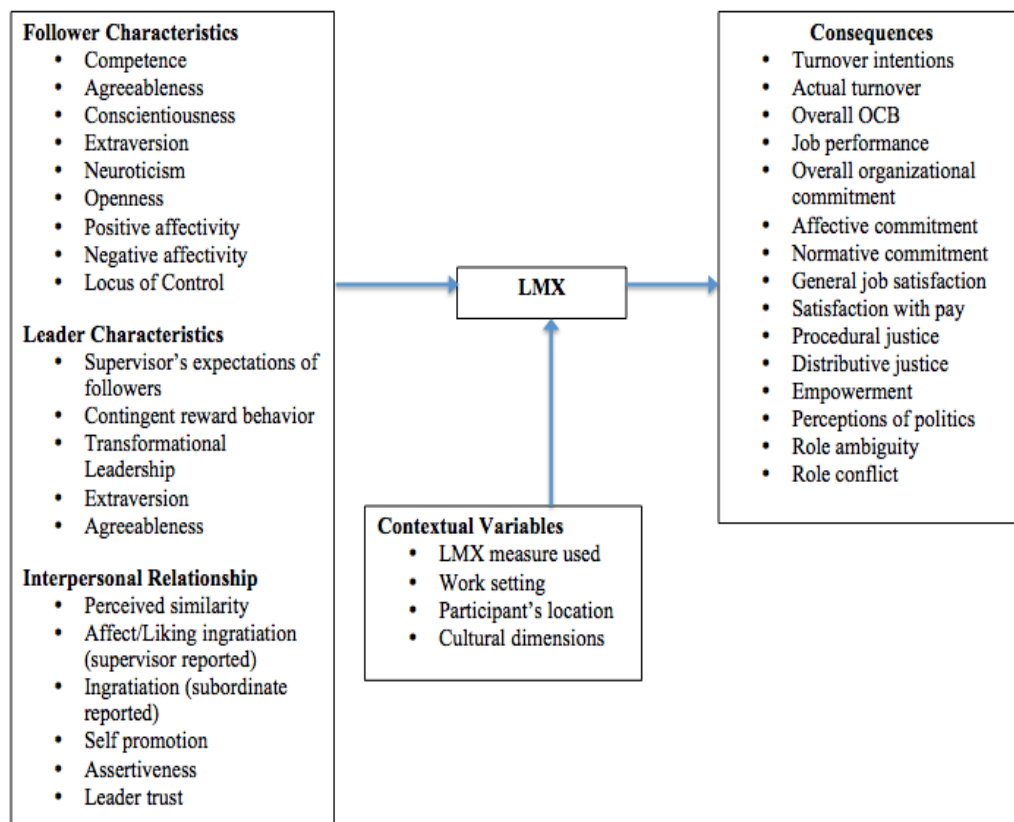


Figure 3. Theoretical model for antecedents and consequences of LMX Theory

1. Antecedents of Leader-Member Exchange

In this section, some of the antecedents of the leader-member exchange theory determined by Dulebohn et al. (2012) will be briefly explained.

a) Member's (Follower) Characteristics

The type of interaction formed between the leader and the member is initially formed according to their personal characteristics. The quality of the interaction between them depends on the physical and personality characteristics of the members. Behaviors developed between the two over time determine the development of the relationship. Leaders according to the type of interaction that occurs; build high-quality leader-member exchange with skilled, talented, and responsible members. In addition, leaders evaluate their abilities by testing their abilities to determine the tasks they will give to the members. The leader observes and evaluates the attitudes and behaviors of

the members in their initial duties. Members who are able to perform their duties effectively establish high-quality relationships with their leaders, while members who are incapable of performing these tasks establish lower-quality relationships with their leaders. (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

b) Internal Locus of Control

Internal focus of control is the thought that the person develops due to his continuing individual characteristics such as the effort or the skill used in the situations that develop around him. The external focus of control is the thought that the situations that develop around the person are caused by situations that he does not control himself, such as luck, the difficulty of the task or other people's movements (Akın, 2010, p. 2). The beliefs of individuals with an internal focus of control are controlling their business environment and influencing their interactions with other members are more than individuals with an external locus of control. This sense of control makes it easier for individuals to integrate comfortably with the environment. For this reason, individuals with an internal focus of control try to take control of the situation and examine what is happening in the environment rather than waiting without doing anything. Thus, they increase the quality of the interaction with the leader by negotiating more about their roles in the organization (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

c) Positive Affectivity

Positive emotionality is defined as a strong positive assessment of life (Paradowski, 2000). People with high positive emotionality are individuals who are happy, willing, lively, pleasant, think positively about themselves, focus quickly, live a vibrant and exciting life (Casciaro, 1999). Leaders also want to establish high-quality relationships with them by giving their pleasant work to individuals with positive emotionality (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

d) Negative Affectivity

Negative affectivity is defined as looking at the world and events negatively (Johnson and Johnson, 2000). It contains feelings of fear, anxiety, irritability, hostility, fatigue, and lethargy. Individuals with high negative affectivity try to see events, people, and situations negatively. Therefore, these individuals most likely perceive their leaders

and their mutual relations with their leaders negatively. These individuals cannot easily establish effective business relationships. These people will have difficulties in establishing high quality relationships based on mutual trust and enjoyment. In addition, since these people are not very much desired around them, the levels of leader-member exchange are expected to be low (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

e) Leader's Characteristics

Leader's behavior, perceptions and personality traits can be listed among the antecedents of leader-member exchange. Leader's behavior is one of the antecedents that determine the quality of leader-member exchange. The leader's behavior affects members' perceptions and responses to the leader. The most remarkable leadership behavior in the current literature is “contingent reward behavior” and “transformational leadership” (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

f) Contingent Rewarding Behavior of the Leader

Leader-member exchange is influenced by the leader's contingent rewarding behavior, such as feedback, rewards, and affirmation of success. These behaviors explain what is expected of members and how they can be rewarded when they meet their leaders' expectations. The quality of high-leader-member exchange is based on trust, respect, and mutual imperative. Members who receive feedback, explanation, recognition, and praise from their leader will feel a sense of necessity. As a result, a high-quality leader-member exchange will likely occur between the leader and the member (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

g) Transformational Leadership

With transformational leadership, an environment where high quality leader-member exchange occurs can be created. Members respond positively to their leaders who inspire and motivate them. This positive response may bring about the desire of members to create higher quality relationships with their leaders (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

h) Interpersonal Relationship

There are some variables that contribute to the quality of leader-member exchange beyond the characteristics of the members and the leader. These variables are linked to leader and member relationships. These represent the factors that affect the

perception of the leader and the member. Therefore, these variables are expected to affect the quality of leader-member exchange. Among the interpersonal relationship variables, perceived similarity, affect/liking ingratiation can be counted (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

i) Perceived Similarity

It is known that the similar feature in social psychology attracts individuals and creates mutual appreciation. Individuals feel more comfortable when they share similar interests, values, and attitudes with their partners with whom they have bilateral relations. Contrary to this situation, differences between leader and member may also result in communication such as barriers to communication, distance, distance, and interpersonal conflicts. These consequences are undesirable situations for the high quality of leader-member exchange (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

j) Affect/Liking Ingratiation

Sense of liking is very important in the quality of the relations between the leader-member. People are attracted to the people they love and often want to establish positive relationships with the people they love. Therefore, emotional judgments affect the reviews about others. As a result, the feeling of liking is an important antecedent of leader-member exchange (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

k) Contextual Variables of LMX

Contextual variables regulate the relationships between leader-member exchange and its antecedents. Contextual variables were selected from the studies conducted as leader-member exchange scales, work environment, and cultural dimensions. For example, the contingent rewarding behavior of the leader appears to be less effective in collectivist cultures and more effective in individualist cultures. Collectivist cultures are more focused on group success and benefit (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

2. Consequences of Leader-Member Exchange

Dulebohn et al. (2012) conducted a study investigating the behavioral, attitudinal, role status and perceptual outcomes of the leader-member exchange. After examining 247 studies, they identified 16 results of leader-member exchange.

The leader-member exchange perceptions of the members are positively correlated with variables such as job performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The leader-member exchange perceptions of the members are negatively related to the turnover rate, intention to quit, and role uncertainty and role conflict (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

a) Emotional and Normative Commitment

Emotional commitment refers to the emotional attachment to the organization, to enjoy being in the organization and to be remembered, and to identify with the organization (Casciaro, 1999). On the other hand, normative commitment is the belief in responsibility that a person has towards the organization. This emotion is a sense of responsibility that requires the organization to act in a way that achieves its goals. There are many reasons that the leader-member exchange has a positive relationship with loyalty. In high-quality leader-member exchange, leaders persuade their members depend on their organizations. In addition, in high-quality leader-member exchange, members are loyal and committed to their leaders (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

b) Psychological Empowerment

One of the remarkable consequences of leading member exchange is psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment is considered as motivation of employees, performing their jobs without hesitation, and even performing at a higher level (Tekiner, 2014, p. 174). Members with high-quality leader-member exchange was challenging tasks, greater responsibility, decision-making competence, the ability to learn, and greater support from their leaders. These characteristics will increase the meaning that the members attribute to their jobs, their belief that they can achieve their job correctly, the possibility of making decisions on their own, and their impact on the functioning of the organization. The support from the leader allows members to be successful and have a sense of self-efficacy. Thus, the increased sense of competence and the ability to determine their own work will increase the sense of self-determination and influence their work. As a result, psychological empowerment levels of members with high-quality leader-member exchange will be higher (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

2.2. The Concept of Organizational Trust

Today, with the effect of organizational and managerial theories, researchers have started to pay more attention to individuals in the organization. Thus, trust in organizations has started to attract a lot of attention lately (Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995). Research on trust reveals that this concept is a psychology-based phenomenon. The first studies on the concept of trust were made by personality theorists. This concept started to be studied by sociologists, political scientists, and economists. Organizational behavior has become the subject of research in the fields of organizational theory and management in 1980 and after (Cerit, 2012; Polat, 2009, p. 2; Sağlam Arı, 2003, p. 21).

Gambetta (2000, p. 218) described trust as a state of certain expectation about the possible behavior of others. According to McAllister (1995), trust is a person's willingness to act on another person's action, decisions, and ideas (p. 25). Trust is the belief and positive expectation of the individual towards a situation or person (Paliszkievicz and Koochang, 2013, p. 117). Similarly, Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer (1998) express trust as a psychological condition that includes positive expectations of others' intentions and behaviors (p. 395). Zucker (1986) discussed trust under three headings: characteristic, institutional and process based. The most important points of character-based trust are the families of the people, the society they live in, the religious beliefs and culture they have. Rules, ethical principles, and professional standards are important for institutionally based trust. Finally, process-based trust gives importance to people's loyalty and commitment (Nooteboom and Six, 2003, p. 23).

In this context, trust is expressed as an element that is one of the important elements of interpersonal relations and organizational life and keeps relations together (Bökeoğlu and Yılmaz, 2008, p. 212). Trust is an emotion inherent in people and has been among the important elements of personal and social relations since the beginning of history. However, its abstract quality and complex structure prevent the concept from being easily defined (Asunakutlu, 2001, p. 2).

Trust is seen as a social expectation regarding caring, honesty, competence, and people's perceptions. Therefore, trust is a situation that encourages or discourages

organizational situations, as well as involving human relations. Trust is the basis for developing people's relationships with each other and is based on actions (Alston, 2013). Trust is positive impressions resulting from the interactions of people (Beheshtifar and Naghian, 2013, p. 13). Huff and Kelley (2003) state that trust contains uncertainty. This uncertainty includes whether the other party is well-intentioned, talented, and faithful (p. 82).

On the other side, individuals' personalities, differences, and social beliefs have an impact on the development of trust. In addition, individuals create trust as a cause or a result of their behavior or the options they encounter (Büte, 2011, p. 174). Das and Teng (2004) state that trust includes three basic structures. The first is in the form of trust, which is based on the perceptions of individuals, the second is based on subjective premises, and the third is based on actions arising from the behavior of individuals.

Trust is a decision taken by people not to risk themselves and remain vulnerable when they do not know the possible consequences of their actions. In addition, trust is a concept that expresses positive expectations from other people around the individual and is based on honesty and integrity in the broadest sense (Çıtır and Kavi, 2010, p. 233; D'Amico, 2003, p. 5). Similarly, Hammoud (2013) states that trust is a risk assessment. In addition, trust is the result of evaluating the effects of individuals when they trust, both positively and negatively. Trust has a state that can only be determined by feeling, is important in people's relations with each other and has an abstract quality. People develop trust against the people they interact with. In other words, people act with behavior, attitude and expectations while creating trust against each other (Asunakutlu, 2002, p. 2).

To elaborate, trust can occur through taking risks in interpersonal relationships. The actions of one side can affect the other in a material or spiritual way. However, both sides express their opinions, problems, and concerns sincerely by taking this effect. In addition, trust is a social mechanism that embodies social relations (Fu, 2004, p. 14-16). Although the trust has an important place in establishing and maintaining relationships with people's jobs, it basically includes reliability and benevolence (Graf, Roberts and Guiot, 2011, p. 81; Graf and Perrien, 2005, p. 3). Trust, a psychological concept, is

social capital for societies. Trust is a basic parameter for sharing information with the community (Hexmoor, Wilson, and Bhattaram, 2006, p. 132; İşcan and Sayın, 2010, p. 196).

It is stated that trust reflects people's behavior patterns, is based on interpersonal interactions, and makes a difference between people (Huotari and Livonen, 2004, p. 8). Trust is the individual's sincerity towards another person's intentions, behaviors, and discourses. In addition, trust means positive expectations of the person towards the behavior of others; distrust expresses negative expectations (Lewicki, McAllister and Bies, 1998, p. 439). Moreover, trust plays an important role in the resolution of interpersonal conflicts. In addition, trust is associated with improved collaboration, information sharing and problem solving, as well as explaining individual orientation differences and helps to understand reliable behavior dimensions (Lewicki and Tomlinson, 2003, p. 3).

As it is mentioned previously, trust is based on the belief that the person is competent, open, relevant, and reliable. For the individual to establish trust, two basic components must be present. These components are faith and behavior. If one of these two components are missing, an individual can trust without willingness, but this confidence is limited. In order for trust to be formed in the full sense of the individual, the expectations of the other side towards both their beliefs and behaviors must be fully realized (Mishra, 1996, p. 264; Moorman, Zaltman and Deshpande 1992, p. 315-316). Trust is expressed as the reliability and integrity of the other party. In addition, trust is a cumulative process that is repeated, based on collaboration, and developed during successful interactions (Nicholson, Compeau and Sethi, 2001, p. 4).

Subsequently, when the definitions made about the concept are examined, it is seen that trust means to rely on the behavior, words, and decisions of the other party. Trust contains positive expectations that the other side will be honest and will not behave for its own benefit (Tüzün, 2007, p. 97). Hosmer (1995, p. 383) states that trust has five basic components. These are laid out below.

- **Integrity:** It is the reputation of the integrity and honesty of the trusted individual.

- **Competence:** The individual has the technical knowledge and interpersonal skills necessary to perform a job.
- **Consistency:** It is the fact that the individual has reliability, predictability, and good decision-making mechanisms in the face of events and situations.
- **Loyalty:** The individual's benevolence is the protection, support, and encouragement of others.
- **Openness:** The individual's willingness to share ideas and information freely with others.

Doney and Cannon (1997, p. 36) stated that trust is the perceived reliability and benevolence of the other side and examines trust under two dimensions. The first is the expectation of the individual to be credible in the verbal or written statements of the other party. The second is that the other party has a good will to make a joint profit. Similarly, Das and Teng (2001, p. 252) state that trust is a multidimensional concept and states that good faith and competence are at the core.

When the literature on trust is examined, it is seen that there are some common points in the results of different researchers. These are listed below (Hosmer, 1995, p. 390-392):

- Trust takes place in the form of an optimistic expectation by the other party about the outcome of an event or the individual's behavior.
- Trust is formed individually, depending on the behavior of other people.
- Trust is related to the benefits that occur in cooperation and the benefits resulting from this cooperation.
- Trust is an agreement to protect the rights and interests of others.

2.2.1. The Definition of Organizational Trust

Rapidly changing and developing environmental conditions, competitiveness of organizations, teamwork and collaborative organizational structures have made trust an important concept for organizations. It does not seem possible for organizations that do not have a trust environment to achieve their goals. Mutual trust in organizations means a vital situation (İşcan ve Sayın, 2010, p. 196; Sağlam Arı, 2003, p. 2).

Mishra (1996, p. 269-270) defines organizational trust as beliefs that individuals or groups are open, honest, believable, and talented towards their organizations in the relations that develop within the organization. Zaheer, McEvily and Perrone (1998) express organizational trust as a measure of trust that members of the organization place on their organizations (p. 142). Organizational trust is the expectations of employees regarding their relationships and behavior within organizational networks (Darrough, 2006, p. 15). According to Gill (2007), organizational trust refers to the level of trust between members of the organization and the organization itself. This trust occurs as a result of interactions between employees, auditors, and organization managers (p. 43). According to Gilbert and Tang (1998), organizational trust is the beliefs of employees regarding their organizations (p. 322). Tüzün (2007) states that trust in the organization is the climate formed within the organization, it is based on organizational roles and relational experiences and there are positive expectations about the intentions of individuals (p. 105).

According to Bromiley and Harris (2006), organizational trust states that employees have belief in the integrity of the organization, that it will not benefit from them and that they will strive with good will to fulfill their commitments (p. 125). Organizational trust expresses the belief that employees believe in each other's and managers' competencies and that decisions based on fair and ethical principles are made within the organization (Taştan and Davoudi, 2019). In addition, trust takes place in the organization in two ways. The first is the trust of the employee in the competencies of the manager and other employees in performing their duties. The second is the trust of the employee in the integrity, words and goodwill of the manager and other employees (Memduhoğlu and Zengin, 2011, p. 212).

The concept of organizational trust in the literature expresses several situations. Organizations have intra-organizational trust, in other words, interpersonal trust. There is also inter-organizational trust or trust between the members of these organizations. In this context, trust can be between individuals, groups, or organizations. These levels need to be analyzed well to understand organizational trust (Adams, Thomson, Brown, and Sartori, 2008, p. 12). Similarly, Polat (2009, p. 11) states that there should be at least two parties in order to develop the perception of trust in organizations and there

should be a relationship between them. Besides, trust; It states that it can develop as individual-individual, group-group, organization-organization, or system-system, as well as individual-group, individual-organization, and individual-system.

Further, it is easier to gain trust when the purpose, vision, mission, values, and goals of the organization are understood and shared by the employees of the organization. Trust essentially involves being honest and caring for the welfare of others. However, this does not mean that the interests of others will prevent the needs of the organization. The important thing here is to balance the needs of individuals and the organization and to demonstrate trust, the actions of individuals must be displayed in the right ways (Alston, 2013)

On the basis of that argument, Cook and Kramer (2004) state that the trust is increasingly important for organizations and relates this to the following reasons. The first is that organizations start to have less hierarchy day by day and their cooperation needs increase. The second is the adoption of organizational models that allow the impact of central control to be reduced, the decision-making authority to be distributed within the company and the participation of employees in this process. The third is the efforts of organizations to keep pace with the environment where there is a rapid change (Gill, 2007, p. 6). Similarly, Levin (1999) emphasizes that organizational trust has an important role in the formation of job satisfaction, willingness to cooperate, performance evaluation, self-managing work teams and decision-making (p.5). Organizational trust, while forming the necessary framework for efficient, provides an encouraging environment for employees to perform the tasks determined for the purposes of the organization and to ensure cooperation (Alston, 2013).

The concept of organizational trust is a complex structure with different meanings for different people. It takes time to establish and develop trust for organizations. Trust, which has a fragile structure, is formed as a result of the positive experiences of the employees. The high level of trust in the organization affects the morale, motivation, and performance of the employees positively. In addition, an environment of trust should be created for permanent solutions of problems in organizations (Reina and Reina, 2010).

In establishing an environment of trust in organizations; meeting the expectations of the employees, exhibiting integrity, and increasing their interest in the organization play an important role. However, the extent to which the above-mentioned measures were approached throughout the historical process can be discussed. The preferred trust in organizations is that managers are sure that they will not be harmed with each other mutually. In addition, trust in organizations enables mutual positive expectations between managers and employees (Asunakutlu, 2001, p. 3-4).

As previously mentioned, building trust in organizations involves a complex process that depends on a variety of factors. However, when trust is successfully established, it is expected to guide the decisions taken within the organization, to ensure that all employees perform their daily duties regularly and that they serve the purpose of the organization (Batchelor, 2013, p. 59). Organizational trust behavior occurs as a result of interaction between the individual and the organization. In addition, individual and organizational features play an important role in building trust. It is important that employees can have tools that support the establishment of an environment of trust within the organization. Trainings can be given to the employees of the organization to learn and carry the characteristics of trust (Polat, 2007, p. 47). Das and Teng (2001) state that building trust is a planned activity and will become an important resource for organizations over time.

Moreover, there are some responsibilities for employees and managers in establishing trust in organizations and there are some elements that are expected to contribute to the formation of trust. These elements are briefly described below (Asunakutlu, 2002, p. 6-9; 2006, p. 18; Gilbert and Tang, 1998, p. 329-331).

- **Rules and regulations:** The rules and regulations of the organization provide a common behavior style and allow employees with different characteristics to come together within certain limits. In addition, everyone's responsibility to comply with the rules and regulations equally allows employees to build a trust against others.
- **Communication:** A well-organized communication system has an important role in preventing problems that may occur within the organization before they

occur. Communication helps parties to understand each other correctly and often prevents problems. It is thought that it will be easier to create a sense of trust between people who understand each other correctly.

- **Delegation and participation:** Instead of concentrating the authority in a single center in organizations, enabling an effective delegation and participation system can contribute to the formation of trust. It is thought that employees' direct participation and taking responsibility will increase their self-confidence and increase their performance.
- **Training and ethical values:** For the people in the organization to maintain their confidence in the organization, it is necessary to provide a training opportunity where they can improve their skills. In addition, the existence of ethical principles in the organization allows to determine the behavior of the employees towards each other and eliminates the uncertainty. In this way, it will be possible to improve the sense of trust of the employees in organizations where there is no uncertainty.

Communication plays a crucial role in establishing trust in organizations. Hence, better regulation of the communication system contributes to the establishment of an environment of trust within the organization. In organizations where trust is provided to employees, they express their feelings and thoughts comfortably and make more efforts to work towards common goals (Mishra and Morrissey, 2000, p. 14). Paine (2007) emphasizes that the establishment of an environment of trust is important for the development of the organization and the employees within the organization, and states that the managers of the organization have important responsibilities in this regard. However, since trust is a fragile and easily damaged feeling, it takes time to develop trust in organizations (p. 41-45). Doney and Cannon (1997) examined the formation of trust in organizations in three stages. The first one is to determine whether the employee is fulfilling the responsibilities and the ability of the other party. The second is the interpretation and evaluation of the other party's behavior. The third is that trust develops during a transfer process (p. 37).

Fraser (2010) states that there are some elements in organizations that will prevent or disrupt trust. These elements are described below, respectively (Kramer and Lewicki, 2010, p. 251-252).

- **Disrespectful behavior:** It involves ignoring the contributions and emotions of the employees and blaming others for the problems that arise.
- **Communication problems:** It includes not understanding and listening to each other.
- **Unfulfilled expectations:** Refers to violations of psychological contracts, confidentiality, and rules.
- **Ineffective leadership:** It includes the inability of the executives to exercise their powers, favoritism and making inappropriate decisions.
- **Reluctance to accept:** No one accepts or assumes any errors or problems occurring within the organization.
- **Performance problems:** It involves the unwillingness of employees to perform their basic duties within the organization.
- **Incompatibility:** The organization's mission and values do not coincide with the behavior displayed in the organization.
- **Structural problems:** It includes the problems arising from deficiencies resulting from system changes made within the organization and the inability to perform the distribution of duties.

Subsequently, the development of trust between managers and employees within the organization allows for increased employee performance, the establishment of an open communication system and the management of the information flow within the organization. Increasing the level of trust of employees towards managers and coworkers is the key to increase the efficiency, efficiency, and cooperation in the organization (Asunakutlu, 2001, p. 2; Hammoud, 2013, p. 45).

2.2.2. Theoretical Foundations of Organizational Trust

During the research on the development of the concept of organizational trust, different models of organizational trust have been developed by a number of

researchers. The main studies on organizational trust are described below under different headings, respectively.

a) Trust Model of Mayer, Davis and Schoorman

Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) developed a model in order to determine the reason for the individual's trust in the other by considering the relationship between the person who trusts in the organization and the person who is trusted (Polat, 2009, p. 40-41). According to the model, trust is one-way. In this model, mutual trust between the trusting person and the trusting person is not taken into consideration. The important thing here is that the trusting person is willing to trust, and the trusting person is worthy to trust. The person's ability, benevolence and honesty are stated as the elements that create trust.

Further, when the model is examined, concepts such as talent, skill and competence come to the fore. Benevolence is the willingness of the trusted person to help the trusting person without waiting for a response. Honesty is the belief that the trusted person is fair in view of their past actions. The perception of risk is to consider the positive and negative results that may occur when the trusting person trusts. There is a cycle between risk taking and trust in the relationship. The fact that the trusting person receives positive results increases the level of trust, while the negative results decrease the level of trust.

b) Trust Model of Mishra

Mishra's (1996) organizational trust model consists of four different dimensions: competence, openness, caring and reliable. These dimensions are described below (p. 261-287).

- **Competence:** Trust within the organization is largely evaluated and formed in terms of the competencies of the managers. The competence dimension is particularly addressed in the context of mutual relations of the organizational and inter-organizational level. In addition, competence is a dimension of the trust that exists between managers, employees, and organizations.
- **Openness:** It covers the fact that managers in the organization act openly and honestly in their relations with the employees. Managers who act openly and

honestly are more followed by employees and support change and innovation. In the research conducted by Butler (1991), it was concluded that the size of openness plays an important role in establishing trust in organizations (p. 655).

- **Caring:** The caring dimension means that one party believes that the other party will not be treated unfairly. The lack of concern that the trusted party will not be opportunistic or consider their own interests is an important factor of this dimension. The dimension of caring also includes being concerned to ensure the well-being or comfort of others.
- **Reliability:** It includes the belief of managers to behave consistently and reliably in relations with employees. Managers' interactions with employees are based on how they behave when they encounter certain events and problems.

c) Trust Model of Zand

In the trust model developed by Zand (1996), there are three basic dimensions: information, control, and influence. Individuals prefer trust or distrust in line with these dimensions (p. 91-97). In this model, there is a circular cycle in which individuals' sense of trust begins with the information they have for the person they trust, continues to influence, and ends with a control. The dimensions forming the trust model developed by Zand (1996) are described below, respectively.

- **Information:** In this dimension, ensuring the flow of information at the right time is important in interpersonal relations. Managers try to create an environment of trust by sharing information in the organization. Sharing information within the organization clearly reveals the goals, intentions and alternatives of all members, and individuals prefer to trust or distrust accordingly. In addition, the level of trust in the organization decreases when employees feel that their managers are hiding information from them or transferring them incompletely and incorrectly. The incomplete and incorrect transfer of information to the employees causes a false perception about the underlying causes of the problems in the organization, and it is stated that this situation creates distrust in the employees.

- **Influence:** Information sharing within the organization affects the behavior and decisions of members of the organization. If managers affect their employees, they increase the trust felt by them. When the suggestions given by the managers affect the employees positively, trust increases, when they affect negatively and the employee is damaged with this suggestion, the trust decreases. At the same time, it is stated that the level of influence of managers who are not trusted by the employees or at a low level is reduced.
- **Control:** Control means regulating and limiting the behavior of another person. This depends on how employees will behave in the future because it is difficult to predict how the behavior will take place. Managers can identify factors that increase the occurrence of problems by collecting information or by assigning employees to analyze problems. The important thing here is to empower employees and trust them in this regard. However, making bad decisions by authorized employees may decrease the level of trust in the organization. As a result, managers may be held responsible for this situation and may even have to resign.

Moreover, Zand (1996) explains the trust cycle in organizations in five steps. (1) First of all, employees accept the information received by their managers and begin to trust them. (2) Employees control the behaviors of their managers in line with the information they have and conclude that these behaviors are correct. (3) Employees decide that it is right to trust their managers and they organize their own behaviors by being influenced by the information they receive. (4) Managers are perceived as reliable by the employees. (5) Finally, the level of trust regarding the managers whom employees perceive as reliability continues to increase in this cycle.

d) Trust Model of Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard and Werner

The trust theory developed by Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard and Werner (1998) were inspired by social exchange and mediation theories. Administrative actions are at the core of this model. Mediation theory describes the process of structuring economic relations between the two parties. In this theory, the parties are composed of managers and employees. Other employees in the organization mediate the protection of the

interests of managers and employees. Social exchange theory helps explain the dynamics of change. In this theory, it is mentioned that one side has the expectation of benefit from the other side. The important thing here is that the parties fulfill their obligations and these obligations are expanded over time (Polat, 2009, p. 41-43; Whitener et al., 1998, p. 514-525).

The basis of this model is the behavior of the organization management. Management is expected to be consistent and honest in their actions, clearly regulate the communication system, show interest in employees, and share and distribute the control with employees (Üçler and Taştan, 2017). In addition, there are some conditions that affect trust in management. These can be examined under three main headings as organizational, relational, and individual factors.

- Organizational factors include the structure and functioning of the organization, the management of human resources and the beliefs, values and norms adopted by the members in the organization.
- Relational factors include expectations of the management and employees from each other and the adoption of the values of the organization.
- Individual factors reflect the employee's tendency to trust, competence, and values. In addition, the distribution of duties within the organization and the areas of expertise of employees affect trust in management. All the factors mentioned above create the perception of trust or distrust in employees.

e) Trust Model of McKnight, Cummings and Chervany

In the trust model developed by McKnight, Cummings and Chervany (1998), the intention to trust is the primary aspect of being able to establish trust. The intention to trust is formed by the people's beliefs, the characteristics of the organization they are affiliated with and their cognitive processes. The tendency to trust directly affects the intention to trust; it directly affects the formation and belief of organizational trust. In addition, trust in the organization affects the trust behavior of individuals (Polat, 2009, p. 46).

In this model, it is stated that the intention to trust is not always realized at a high level. People may have high intentions to trust in the beginning. However, their actions, words and attitudes can lower their intention to trust. There are some antecedents of intent to trust. These are the tendency of people to trust, decisions taken at the events and trust in the organization. In addition, there must be a belief that the trusted person is honest.

f) Trust Model of Shockley-Zalabak, Ellis and Winograd

Shockley-Zalabak, Ellis and Winograd (2000) created a different five-dimensional model by adding the dimension of identification to the four-dimensional trust model that Mishra (1996) developed (Tüzün, 2007, p. 112). These dimensions are briefly described below.

- **Competence:** It includes employees' beliefs about the competence of the organization and the manager of the organization.
- **Openness:** It is the sharing of information accurately and completely with everyone within the organization. It is also stated that it includes the establishment of an open communication system in the organization.
- **Caring:** It is stated that it covers the protection, understanding and considering the needs of the employees within the organization.
- **Reliability:** It includes the consistency and reliability of the groups, employees, and organization within the organization.
- **Identification:** It covers the integration and adoption of the organization's employees with the goals, values, beliefs, and norms of the organization.

2.2.3. Dimensions of Organizational Trust

It should be noted that organizational trust is not only a phenomenon that occurs between organizations and employees, but also includes concepts such as trust in the system, managers, and the organization (Uzbilek, 2006, p. 1). Trust consists of sub-dimensions such as trust between individuals, trust in senior management, trust in the institution and trust among the institutions. Interpersonal trust includes trust between manager and employees; trust between employees includes trust relations between

groups and departments (İslamoğlu, Birsal and Börü, 2007, p. 23). Organizational trust dimensions commonly used in the literature indicate trust in the organization, trust in managers and trust between employees. These dimensions are described below, respectively.

a) Trust towards Organization

Since organizational success does not only depend on the competence and performance of employees, it is important to ensure that high-performance employees adhere to their organizations (Sağlam Arı, 2003, p. 3). One of the important factors that will ensure the organizational commitment of the employees is their trust in their organizations. Trust in the organization can be defined as the level of trust that employees have towards their organizations. According to Mckgniht, Cummings and Chervany (1998), trust in the organization can be defined as the belief of the employee that the structure of the institution is successfully formed (p. 474). Carnevale (1988) defines trust in the organization in the form of trust that employees feel that their organizations will take fair, ethical and non-threatening actions (p. 10). Trust in the literature is also defined as trust in the focus group. Trust the focus group; expresses trust in the organizational structure, the form of the organization, and the written rules of the organization (Yılmaz, 2006, p. 55).

The trust of employees towards their organizations is one of the important factors in the increase of performance. It is often stated in the researches that the fact that the employee sees himself as a complementary element of his/her organization will increase his/her confidence in both himself/herself and his/her company. The sense of trust connects the employee to the organization and contributes to reinforcing the sense of belonging. The continuity of trust in the organization will bring along with it the effectiveness in performance (Ören, 2007, p. 80). Research findings of Çelik, Turunç and Beğenirbaş (2011) show that trust in the organization positively affects organizational performance (p. 185).

Hardin (1996) emphasizes that in order to build trust in the organization, the organizational structure should be organized in a manner that supports the trust environment and horizontal and vertical relations can be provided within the

organization (p. 28). It is stated that there are some factors to build trust in the institution. The trust of the organization can be shown among the factors of the organization to have an honest and fair management system, to have a peaceful environment, to take into account the needs of its employees, to show interest to its employees, to provide long-term employment, to have a positive image (İslamoğlu, Birsen and Börü, 2007, p. 118-119).

Employees can display biased or negative attitudes when evaluating issues that they do not know about. At this point, employees approach suspiciously and fearfully about the issues they do not know, and this situation may negatively affect their attitudes and behaviors. In order to prevent this situation, an effective communication system should be established within the organization and a trust environment should be established (Dinç, 2007, p. 55).

Research shows that employees trust their organizations if they are properly informed, attracted, and do not encounter inconsistent behavior. In addition, establishing corporate communication environments in organizations, sharing experience and knowledge between the subordinate and the top, providing useful advice to employees about their jobs, has an important place in providing trust to the institution (Özarallı and Torun, 2011, p. 111). Mishra (1996) states that competence dimension is an important factor in the formation of trust perception of the organization. Organizations must have the necessary competence to compete and adapt to rapidly changing conditions, and this competence enhances employees' perceptions of trust in their organizations (p. 269). In the light of this information, it can be said that trusting the institution is a subject that should be carefully considered as it has many positive aspects for both employees and organizations.

b) Trust in the Manager

Trust in the manager is considered within the scope of interpersonal trust within the organizational structure. Employees 'trust in their managers is shaped by their managers' ethical and fair behavior (Koç and Yazıcıoğlu, 2011, p. 47) In previous studies, trust in manager is also inferred with the term “trust in supervisor” and “trust in principal”. In the current study, to form a common expression, the concept is described

with the term “trust in manager”. Yilmaz (2009) states that trust in the manager is related to the trust of the managers of their managers, to deal with the problems of the employees, to be consistent in their relations and not to share the information about the employees with other people (p. 476). Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) define trust in managers as the willingness of employees to be vulnerable to the behaviors that their managers cannot control. Employees' trust in their managers increases or decreases depending on their behavior and responses (p. 730). Gilbert and Tang (1998) state that employees' belief that their managers will be correct, honest and fulfill their promises define trust in the manager. In addition, the loyalty and sense of support that employees expect from their managers are among the factors affecting the trust that employees have towards their managers (p. 321-322).

The fact that managers and employees work in cooperation and harmony does not mean that these two parties trust each other. Although there are situations when managers and employees have to cooperate, employees may not trust their managers. Similarly, since managers need to work in harmony and cooperate to provide an environment of trust, but knowing that this is not enough, they may have to perform the management. When considered in this sense, it is stated that the harmony and cooperation between employees and managers is not considered enough in terms of establishing an environment of trust (Asunakutlu, 2001, p. 5).

Inconsistency between the promises made by the managers and their practices in the organization causes disappointment in the employees. Managers need to clearly demonstrate their practices to gain importance in the organization. The situation of overlapping the promises and practices prevents the development of a sense of trust between the manager and the employee. Failure to fulfill the promises made by the managers creates a negative situation within the organization. Therefore, the relationship between the promises made by the managers and their practices should be compatible. Managers are expected to demonstrate ethical leadership behavior and should not compromise on integrity and honesty (Arslantaş and Dursun, 2008, p. 113; Zhu, May and Avolio, 2004, p. 21). Thomas, Zolin and Hartman (2009) state that factors such as informing the employees about the relevant issues by the managers, having a clear communication between the employees and the managers, and ensuring the

participation of the employees by the managers will increase the trust in the managers of the employees (p. 301).

Moreover, Tan and Tan (2000) stated that trust in the organization and trust in the manager are different but interrelated. The authors state that there is a positive relationship between trust in the organization and trust in the manager. While trust in the organization is associated with perceived organizational support; Trust in the manager is associated with the ability, helpfulness, and integrity of the manager's behavior. In addition, the innovative behavior of the manager positively affects employees' trust in their managers (p. 241-260).

In the literature, it is indicated that trust should be initiated by managers since trust in the manager is reflected by the employees throughout the organization. On the other hand, for the employees to trust their managers, some qualifications must be present in the managers. These qualities are that managers behave consistently and honestly, establish a correct and open communication system within the organization, show interest in their employees and share the control within the organization with the employees (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard and Werner, 1998, p. 519-520).

c) Trust between Employees

Tüzün (2007) defines trust between employees as a belief in the competence, fairness, loyalty, and ethical behavior of employees. The presence of trust between employees leads them to act fairly in their words, attitudes, and behaviors (p. 109). Yılmaz (2009) defines the trust between the employees as trusting the employees in the organization, not doubting them, believing that the conversations between the employees will be kept secret and the relationship between the employees is clear and consistent (p. 476). There is no guarantee that the expectations will be fulfilled between the employees. Trust between employees is the result of interactions (Dar, 2010, p. 195). Zaheer, McEvily and Perrone (1998) consider trust between employees as a limit in employee communication with each other. Employees shape their behavior according to these limits and develop trust with their colleagues in this way (p. 142).

Tan and Lim (2009) define trust between employees as the willingness of employees to be vulnerable to each other's behavior and actions. In the study, it was

stated that there is a positive relationship between trust between employees and trust in the organization, and trust between employees has an intermediary role between organizational commitment and job performance (p. 46).

Butler (1991) states that in organizations that have a high level of trust between employees, employees work in cooperation, their self-confidence levels are high, and this increases their performance. In organizations where the level of trust between employees is low, it is stated that employees approach each other with suspicion and their performance and motivation is low (p. 657). Lau and Tan (2006) stated that the level of trust between employees is positively correlated with organizational justice and negatively with work tension. The high level of trust between employees in organizations decreases the work tension and increases their belief that there is a fair functioning in the organization (p. 182).

Trust between employees plays an important role in solving the problems that arise in organizations. In organizations where the level of trust between employees is low, there may be errors or distortions in understanding the problems. In this context, in terms of continuity and development of organizations, it can be said that trust is the most basic condition for employees not to get lost in problems and confusion and to work efficiently (Dinç, 2007, p. 36). Lau and Liden (2008) state that managers play an important role in building and developing trust between employees. Managers help employees shape their perceptions of the work environment. In this way, employees can evaluate their colleagues' behavior more clearly (p. 1131).

2.2.4. Antecedents of Organizational Trust

Many researchers have pointed out that the most important factor affecting trust is organizational culture. Organizational culture evolves and changes over time, so people can change their behavior when they encounter negative experiences or make false predictions about the other party's credibility. In some cultures, the tendency of trust is high as well as the level of trust (Demircan and Ceylan, 2003, p. 143).

Antecedents of organizational trust also include the characteristics of the environment required for the existence of organizational trust and the situations that lay the ground for the formation of organizational trust. Concepts such as organizational

support, organizational justice, and decentralized decision-making processes are antecedents that ensure organizational trust.

The concept of organizational support describes the feelings of the organization's perceptions about the emphasis on employee involvement in the decision-making processes and caring for its well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, Hutchison, and Sowa, 1986, p. 500). Perceived manager and colleague support express the individual perceptions of the employees of the organization to what extent they support their efforts. Relationships with colleagues, managers, and the organization as a whole form the basis of an employee's work experience (Eroğlu, 2014, p. 92). Perceived organizational support, which means employee satisfaction, such as being valued by the organization, not feeling deprived in good and hard days, and meeting organizational support, is effective in establishing a bond with employees' organizations (Turunç and Çelik, 2010, p. 184).

Trust rises when a community shares a series of moral values that create hope for systematic and honest attitudes (Fukuyama, 2000, p. 169). Likewise, the existence of organizational justice through the policies that are determined and implemented regularly and consistently for organizations will increase the sense of trust in organizations. Carnevale (1988) stated that the employees decide whether to develop a sense of trust for the organization after monitoring the organizational environment and getting ideas about other employees and their roles.

It is the rights of employees to be treated fairly in the workplace. Fair treatment means equal treatment, the right to freedom, self-development, and control over life. Trust develops in an environment where there is respect and openness between the parties and ideas can move freely. Relying on someone or an organization is taking risks by being vulnerable to that person or organization that they will be respected, rewarded, and not betrayed (Werhane, 1999, p. 238-239).

Mishra and Morrissey (1990, p. 443) stated that four basic elements affect organizational trust in the organization. These are open communication, significant participation of employees in decision making, sharing important information, and correct sharing of emotions and perceptions.

Trust is an important factor in the development of decentralized decision making. If an employee is not trusted, the decisions they will make are also unreliable and are not included in the decision-making process. Indeed, empowering others to make decisions means increasing dependence or support for others and involves major risks. Dependency is shaped by the transfer of one's authority to another, who did not already have such authority (Mishra, 1996, p. 13). Decentralized decision-making powers increase flexibility and ensure that resources are quickly identified and transferred to the most critical points for the organization to survive (Mishra, 1996, p. 20).

Another factor affecting trust in organizations is feedback. Feedback is defined as giving information to enable employees to measure their successes and failures and to learn correct and wrong. Knowing the purpose of the work done by the employee gives confidence and makes it in a position to make decisions. Giving feedback to employees is also important in terms of enabling intra-organizational communication. By providing feedback, the interaction between management and employees enables the communication to gain a two-way dimension. (Dedehayır, 2002, p. 2).

Another factor that affects trust in organizations is empowerment. Empowerment means that the employee is trusted in his job-related skills and believed to be qualified in doing his job. In this regard, the person who realizes that the management is trusting and valuing him will feel trust in his organization and this will create positive effects such as increasing the level of organizational commitment (Nyhan, 2000, p. 98).

2.2.5. Consequences of Organizational Trust

As one of the most important elements in a person's business life, trust has a different value both in the relationships established within the organization and in the relations between the employee and the managers. This important element brings significant results in terms of organization as well as significant results in terms of career plans and job performance in terms of employees. There are many positive and negative results that trust provides to organizations (Mowday, 1998, p. 389-390).

Building a team and planning, motivation studies with goals, objectives and norms is based on the trust that is thought to exist between the members of the organization. However, distrust can greatly prevent the realization of these expected results. Establishing trust-based relationships in organizations, employees' trust in their leaders and their organizations; can create employees who are emotionally attached to their organizations, who can identify themselves within their organizations, who are satisfied with their jobs and who do not want to leave their organizations (Öztürk and Aydın, 2012, p. 487).

Creating a sense of trust within the organization brings along many positive developments. As a result of these developments, the positive consequences of trust arise in organizations. It is possible to list the positive results of trust in organizations as follows:

- **Job satisfaction:** Whether the employees' relationships within the organization are based on trust affects their job satisfaction. Employee's trust in his organization affects his expectations from the job, his enjoyment of doing his job, the level of displaying his talents and skills. Employee's trust in the organization, colleagues and managers ensure that they strive for organizational goals, depend on the job, improve themselves in the job and have high motivation. Employees who have all of these will be extremely creative and productive. Job satisfaction can be defined as the pleasure of using the talents and skills of the employee in the work environment. In an environment of trust, the job satisfaction of the employee will increase significantly. The common point of job satisfaction and trust is that they are based on the realization of expectations. The trust of the employee in the organization, colleagues, and manager and believing that they act with their needs and expectations will increase their job satisfaction, efficiency, and commitment. If there is no disruption in this process, it will gain continuity by becoming a spiral (Zorlu Yücel, 2006, p. 90).
- **Organizational Commitment:** Organizational trust is the result of employees' being honest, respectful, reliable and fair towards each other in their relationships within the organization. Organizational trust created in this way

also strengthens an employees' sense of commitment to the organization. The result of organizational trust is an organizational commitment based on trust in the manager and the organization, identification with organizational values, organizational support, open communication, sharing of organizational goals and objectives. Similarly, employees' sense of commitment to the organization increases their sense of trust in the organization (Demirel 2008, p. 185).

- **Organizational Justice:** Employees are very sensitive about communicating with their senior management during the preparation and implementation of their organizations' procedures. The presence of the mentioned communication causes the employee to feel like a valued part of the organization and increase the confidence that the decisions and practices are fair (Zorlu Yücel, 2006, p. 90). Practices based on fair procedures of managers will result in employees loyal to the system and trust their managers. Fair attitudes towards employees will increase their trust, commitment to goals and create an extraordinary level of performance (İşcan ve Sayın, 2010, p. 203).
- **Organizational Communication:** The nature and extent of communication between people in an organization or group can affect the trust environment within the organization. Because some researches show that employees who have correct and open communication with managers and managers who freely share their thoughts and ideas of employees see each other as reliable. In organizations where relationships are based on trust, people do what they do because they want. However, if this trust relationship is damaged, it is difficult to find a power to replace trust. Because trust-based relationships are more effective than power-based relationships (Özer, Demirtas, Ustuner and Comert, 2006, p. 106).

2.2.6. Organizational Trust at School

Schools are institutions that are expected to have higher levels of organizational trust than for-profit businesses. The main reason for this is that schools aim to create a positive behavioral change in people and are the institutions where the human element is determinant. Therefore, it is extremely important to maintain healthy interpersonal relationships and establish mutual trust in the school (Yılmaz, 2006, p. 65).

Organizational trust is a multi-dimensional concept in schools. Teachers primarily want to trust school principals who have administrators. Secondly, they want to trust their colleagues and the students and their parents as the last dimension. In summary, organizational trust in the school refers to the trust relationship of all groups to each other (Hoy and Miskel, 2008, p. 180). The consequences of some of the research on the concept of organizational trust at school are shared below.

In a study by Rosen and Jerdee (1977), a positive relationship was found between participation in decision and organizational trust in schools.

In a research conducted by Lindsfold on organizational trust in schools, it was determined that the mutual expectations of teachers and school principals were effective in the formation and level of organizational trust (Lindsfold, 1978).

In the research of Kupersmith, which examines the effect of school principals 'leadership skills on teachers' trust in school principals, it was found that sincere perceived behaviors of school principals increased the level of trust. In the same study, it was found that teachers 'trust in school principals was higher than their colleagues' trust level. It is stated that as the trust in the school principal increases, organizational trust increases. In terms of leadership competencies, it is stated that the person-oriented behaviors of the principal increase the organizational trust. In terms of demographic variables, it was observed that the organizational trust of teachers decreased as their age and seniority increased. The negative relationship between the number of teachers at school and organizational trust is another finding of the research (Kupersmith, 1983).

Culver's (1994) study with teachers, examined how the corporate communication environment and the awareness of the employees about the goals of the organization affect organizational trust. As a result of the research, a positive relationship was determined between the variables. It was observed that as the pressure at school increased, trust decreased. According to demographic variables, it was stated that gender, seniority, school type does not have an impact on organizational trust.

In the study by Glenn (1995), how the level of organizational trust affects the relations in the educational environment has been examined. In the study, where the relationships between individuals and relationships between individuals and

organizations were examined by experimental methods, it was observed that the relationship of teachers within the school improved as the organizational trust increased. A positive, meaningful relationship was found between the level of organizational trust and the quality of the relationship. It has also been determined that trust is an important factor in the development of relations in the organization for a more effective education. In the study conducted by Sheehan (1995), it was determined that the trust in the school principal positively affected the attitudes of the teachers and increased their participation in the functioning of the school. On the other hand, it was stated that as the organizational trust level of teachers increases, their motivation to take risks increases.

Kratzer's (1997) research on the results of trust between teachers has very important findings. It was stated that, with the increase in the level of trust, teachers were more open in their relations with each other. It was observed that teachers were willing to share lesson plans, applications, educational materials, and professional experiences in schools with high level of trust. For this reason, high level of trust turns into a factor that increases the awareness of collaboration and responsibility between teachers.

In the research conducted by Jones and George (1998), it was aimed to determine the effective factors in establishing organizational trust in schools. As a result of the research, the qualifications of the employee, business environment, organizational structure and organizational climate have been stated as effective factors in establishing trust in schools. It was also found that the relationships between teachers affect organizational trust.

Another research on organizational trust in schools was carried out by Mannion. The transformational leadership styles of school administrators within the scope of the research have been found to positively affect the level of trust in both the manager and the organization (Mannion, 1999).

In a research carried out in an educational institution, teachers' opinions about organizational culture and trust were examined. As a result, a positive relationship was found between teachers' trust in institution managers and their trust in the organization. It has been found that school principals who are promoted or newly appointed were

expected to maintain the norms already in the educational institution to build trust. On the other hand, it has been observed that the unity of the ruler and the protection of the cultural structure influence trust (Woolston, 2002). In another study, the effect of the decision-making process in schools with communication characteristics such as openness, accuracy and cooperation were examined on organizational trust. In the findings of the study, it was stated that open communication, collaboration between teachers and accuracy in decision-making process positively affect trust in schools (Blevins, 2001). Supporting this finding, Newcombe (2001) concluded that increased participation of teachers in decision-making processes increases their trust in the organization.

In the research conducted by Cerulli (2003), the level of trust, perceived by trainee teachers was examined. The findings of the research indicated that trainee teachers are eager to actively participate in decision-making processes and expect school principals to share such information. In addition, the leadership skills of school principals were an important factor in organizational trust.

In the study conducted by Moran (2009), the concept of trust in schools has been investigated extensively. When the findings of the study were examined, it was seen that establishing an environment of trust is very important for educational institutions and positively affects the relations between the school principal and the teacher. It has been observed that in schools where trust is not established, it is difficult to achieve goals, it is difficult to establish unity of purpose between teachers, communication is weak, and disruptions occur in organizational activities. It was determined that academic success increased depending on the level of trust perceived by teachers. It was concluded that the trust of parents and students increased due to the level of organizational trust in schools, and accordingly, student-teacher-parent relations were positively affected. The research conducted by Hiltz and Goldman (2004) also contains findings supporting the study of Moran. In this study, an association was found between organizational trust and the creation of an innovative and successful educational environment. A positive relationship was found between the trust of the parents and students to their schools and the level of organizational trust and academic achievement.

In Kling's (1996) study, which examines the relationship between organizational development and trust, a positive relationship was found between trust in the school principal and emotional commitment to the organization. Accordingly, a positive relation was found between the harmonious work of employees and corporate success (Kling, 1996).

Trust is formed over time and has an important place in social relationships. It is possible to be called trustworthy by making positive behaviors permanent. Mishra (1996) also supported the necessity of organizational trust during the change processes since schools need to be competitive to survive in flux and organizational trust and open communication foster the competitive advantage of the organizations. Consequently, the fact that principals and teachers are honest with each other, behave consistently and open to information sharing helps to increase the level of trust in the organization.

2.3. The Concept of Social Capital

2.3.1. Capital and Capital Types

Before and throughout the middle ages capital generally meant money that could be invested. It was an entity that solely described financial aspects. Today, capital is still used in this sense in the business world. However, in the academic sense, the word capital has expanded into abstract dimensions with Adam Smith. Today, there are three different views on the word capital in economics. The first view argues that the word capital should be used in its original meaning, meaning money that can be converted into investment. Schumpeter (1956), Weber (1968), Hobson (1926) is among the proponents of this view. The second view is the view that started with Adam Smith and accepts capital as all physical tools that contribute to the production. John Stuart Mill (1848) followed this view by defining capital as the accumulated stock produced by the workforce and Karl Marx (1965) as all the productive factors. The third view deals with capital in its broadest form, accepting anything visible, invisible, material or intangible that contributes to production. Irving Fisher (1897) used the word human capital for the first time in economics literature. Veblen (1908) opposed it as someone who had adopted the second view. He argued that this view is illegal, that is, human beings cannot be seen as a capital since it is an entity that cannot be bought and sold by law. However,

these criticisms have not been accepted much. Later, Theodore W. Schultz (1960) and Becker (2009) pioneered the spread of the concept of human capital. The concept of human capital has pioneered all new capital definitions that will emerge later.

Although many new definitions of the concept of capital emerged, not all of them received the same attention from the world of science. Basically, capital types are intertwined in the universe and the classifications made are made to facilitate the conclusion in the analyzes to be carried out (Uphoff, 2000).

According to Ostrom (2000), capital is fundamentally divided into two as natural and built. Built capital is divided into two categories as material capital and intangible capital. Both material and intangible capitals are also divided into two categories.

Bourdieu made perhaps the most original and most revealing of the definitions of capital. He defines capital as a concept that recognizes the potential power and capacity as a whole and at the same time, this power and capacity should provide benefits, profit, and convenience (Bourdieu, 1986).

a) Natural Capital

Natural capital can be divided into two within itself:

- **Exhaustible:** It is a type of capital that is extracted from underground such as mines, coal, petroleum, and natural gas and is depleted as it uses and does not renew itself.
- **Inexhaustible:** It is a type of capital that renews itself like land, seas, rivers, lakes, and sun and does not decrease as it is consumed (Ertek, 2015, p. 240).

b) Built Capital

It takes time and effort to create all kinds of unnatural capital. Physical capital is produced consciously, unlike others, while others may also come out of purpose. There are similarities and differences between capital types. No type of capital is itself good or bad. It has positive or negative results depending on the purpose of use (Ostrom, 2000).

c) Material Capital

Material capital is divided into two as financial and physical.

- **Financial:** It is a type of capital formed by money, money, bonds, bills, and gold-like products. Financial capital is the type of capital that comes to mind first when it is called capital among the people.
- **Physical:** It is the type of capital that is produced materially and will be used in the production process to generate income. Vehicles such as buildings, machinery, infrastructure, trucks are all considered physical capital (Ostrom, 2000).

d) Intangible Capital

Intangible capital is divided into two as human capital and social capital.

- **Human:** All kinds of knowledge and abilities obtained afterwards that increase the effectiveness of the individual constitutes human capital. We can also divide human capital into two, voluntarily and involuntarily. An individual's going to school, attending vocational courses, or learning a language can be an example of voluntarily human capital. Involuntarily is the capital gained from the experiences of the person while performing his profession. The material and moral health of man is also within the human capital. As a result, the efficiency of a healthy person will be much higher (Ostrom, 2000).
- **Social:** The existence of a healthy communication, trust and security within and outside of formal and informal institutions such as families, relatives, foundations, associations and public institutions in a society indicates the existence of social capital (Taban ve Kar, 2015, p. 162).

Projects where physical and human capital are highlighted, but social capital is left behind are temporary and of little benefit. Institutions working on a national scale should help institutions working on a regional scale to develop such actions instead of regressing by interfering with their actions (Ostrom, 2000).

Schuller (2001) stated that, unlike other types of capital, social capital is an alternative that saves the individual from the narrow framework of his individual interests. According to him, social capital is the complementary role of human capital. According to Coleman (1990), social capital emerges as involuntarily. In this respect, it differs from other types of capital (Field, 2006).

Social capital, like other types of capital, has a feature that increases productivity. It makes it possible to achieve the targets that are very difficult to reach in its absence. Social capital, like other types of capital, is not completely substitutable. Some social capital components can be useful for certain activities, while other activities can be detrimental. Unlike other types of capital, social capital provides continuity depending on the nature of interpersonal relations or ages by completing the period of use. Social capital cannot be accumulated or stored. Social capital is not visible and tangible like physical capital. It is also not movable (Coleman, 1988). Social capital has taken on a necessary complementary role with other types of capital. It has the potential to produce negative or positive results. While all capital types are necessary for development, none of them are enough alone. There are similarities and differences between all types of capital.

2.3.2. The Definition of Social Capital

As is known, many concepts in the social sciences do not have a single definition that is accepted by everyone. However, having different definitions of the concepts does not prevent them from being used in research. (Castiglione, Van Deth, and Wolleb, 2008). In this context, some researchers followed a more descriptive method while explaining social capital, while others showed a more analytical orientation. The definitions made by some researchers on the concept of social capital are given below.

- Castiglione et al. (2008) consider every resource arising from any social interaction as social capital.
- In his work, Granovetter (1985) makes a criticism that only the mention of the functions of the new corporate economy that are similar to a machine and the other dimensions are not addressed. He stated that, even at the most institutional level, human relations have important effects on the functioning and emphasized the importance of social capital.
- According to Narayan and Pritchett (2000), the social life of the person constitutes his social capital. In other words, social capital consists of the sum of the relations between the networks.
- Economist Robert Solow (2000) stated that social capital is a difficult, complex and equally important concept to research. He pointed out that although

researching social capital is a difficult challenge, someone needs to take responsibility for this business. He defined social capital as serving or contributing to a common goal even if no one knows or sees it. According to this definition, thinking of society more than one's own interests is the basis of social capital. Solow stated that social capital can be seen as the whole of the trust, desire and capacity required for cooperation and coordination, and emphasizes that reciprocity is the most important factor at this point. In other words, the formation of a reassuring environment by repeating the same behaviors contributes to the accumulation of social capital.

- Uphoff (2000) has defined social capital as mass movements that create mutual benefits. He stated that the word social is already a concept involving more than one person and that all the links between people such as cooperation, sacrifice, respect, and love can be included in the meaning of the word social. He stated that feelings like sacrifice, devotion, and loyalty, increase the power of social capital. He stated that values, beliefs, and traditions that form the basis of social capital and take a long time to develop are concepts that can disappear in a short time and are therefore sensitive issues that should be emphasized.
- Serageldin and Dasgupta (2001) stated that after examining all social capital studies, the common opinion is that social capital is formed somewhere between the individual and the state and through the functioning of the civil society mechanism.
- According to Field (2006), human relations form the basis of social capital. Communication networks that reveal the relations and allow sharing of common values are also the source of social capital. He stated that the number of people you know reveals your social capital potential.
- Durlauf and Fafchamps (2004, p. 3) Argued that social capital functions as a catalyst rather than a concept and stated that social capital provides great convenience in revealing interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary relations.

2.3.3. Theoretical Foundations of Social Capital

With the short definitions laid out, research by pioneers of conceptual formation, development and spread of social capital, is be evaluated under separate headings.

a) Pierre Bourdieu and Social Capital

The first serious research on social capital was carried out by the French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu. In his first research in 1973, he defined social capital as the sum of social relations with beneficial returns. In their research with Wacquant in 1992, they defined social capital as their benefit from the communication network that an individual or a group, whether institutional or non-institutional, gained through mutual recognition. The survival of this network, which is obtained according to Bourdieu, depends on the efforts of the person to continue. The value of this communication network also depends on the number of connections it can activate and the actual and potential return of each connection. According to Bourdieu, the purpose of the emergence of social capital is individual interests.

The first criticism of Bourdieu's views on social capital is that he examined the concept as a structure owned only by the upper class within a static society structure. For Bourdieu, who has a Marxist perspective, social capital is the connections developed by the upper class to preserve these superiorities. Another criticism is that it never touched on the negative aspects of social capital (Field, 2006).

Bourdieu examined the concept of social capital at a conceptual and micro level rather than an analytical point of view and claimed that the existence of social capital is only beneficial to the environment in which it is located. It stated social capital groups as homogeneous, class-based, and closed-off groups (Scrivens and Smith, 2013).

b) James Coleman and Social Capital

American sociologist James Coleman is the first researcher to discuss the concept of social capital on the basis of education. He investigated the relationship between social capital and academic performance in American high schools (Coleman, 1988, p. 15). According to Coleman, social capital is an important concept that explains how people can work together in the same environment. The explanation brought by the rational choice theory, which argues that people act according to their own interests and thus the social picture emerges, is insufficient for him. Because sometimes people choose the way of cooperation by ignoring their own interests. It is not possible to explain this situation with rational choice (Field, 2006).

According to Coleman, the importance of social capital is defined by the functions of the components of the social structure. For example, when we say a chair, it is similar to that we consider the difference of its functional features from other furniture, and it states that social structure needs a functional classification and the concept of social capital responds to this need. Social capital consists of several units with two common elements. The first is that it has a social structure, and the second is that it facilitates certain activities of individuals within the structure. Coleman listed these units of social capital as follows (Coleman, 1988, p. 8).

- Liabilities, Expectations and Trust
- Information channels,
- Norms and Effective Sanctions

Coleman emphasized that social capital has the characteristics of both private and public goods. Unlike other types of capital, it provides benefits not only to the benefit of the person, but also to all people in the same social structure. On the contrary, the absence of social capital reflects negatively on the people in that structure. For example, if an association member attends all the meetings planned by the association completely or does not attend any meeting, it will affect all association members positively or negatively. (Coleman, 1988, p. 23)

Unlike Bourdieu, Coleman emphasizes that the reason for the emergence of social capital is common goals that concern society more than personal interests. He says that individual interests can come in second or sometimes third degrees. He also stated that social capital groups are heterogeneous and outwardly open. The main sources of social capital are family and religious institutions (Scrivens and Smith, 2013).

c) Robert Putnam and Social Capital

An American political scientist Robert Putnam conducted his first research on the concept of social capital, "Making Democracy Work" with Leonardi and Nanetti in 1993 in different parts of Italy. He claimed that democracy and administrative management are more effective in places where social capital is stronger. Although this first study was at a micro level, the Bowling Alone book published in 2001 was a macro study in America.

According to Putnam, the concept of social capital includes everything that facilitates social activities. Putnam includes almost all human relations within the scope of social capital. Putnam has covered the scope of the concept of social capital in a broader framework than Coleman. Coleman, while keeping family and religious institutions in the forefront, Putnam puts music organizations or animal associations and similar institutions on the same scale as family and religious institutions (Field, 2006).

According to Putnam, there is no single form of social capital. For example, both the toaster and the plane are physical capital. However, when calculating the total physical capital, it is not said that there are two physical capitals that collect toasters and planes. Just like this, while union organization, the parent - teacher organization are examples of formal social capital types, there are also informal social capital types such as carpet field matches and housewives' days (Putnam, 1995, p. 2).

Robert Putnam is one of the researchers who emphasizes the contribution of social capital to the economy. He claimed that social capital was higher in developed countries and even argued that social capital was higher in more developed regions within the same country (Scrivens and Smith, 2013). He accepted norms, trust and communication networks as the three main elements of social capital. He sees social capital as a public good and accepts every contribution made to social capital as a contribution to both the society and the economy.

Although Bourdieu, Coleman and Putnam form the framework of the concept of social capital, the deep differences between the studies are at a level that will not enable the concept to be brought together on a basis. For this reason, the studies carried out in this field later also varied.

d) Francis Fukuyama and Social Capital

Another name that comes to mind when it comes to social capital is undoubtedly Francis Fukuyama. Fukuyama, who is an expert in political science and political economy in the USA, pioneered the spread of social capital, especially in the academic world with his studies in the second half of the 1990s (Scrivens and Smith, 2013).

Fukuyama defines social capital as the ability of people in groups and organizations to work for common purposes, or the whole of informal values and norms that enable people in a group to work together. (Fukuyama, 1995, p. 10)

According to Fukuyama, norms constitute the basis of social capital. These norms can range from mutual expectations between two friends to norms of different religions. He explains that religions and historical experiences are the primary factors in the formation of norms, traditions and to a certain extent state control as the secondary factors. He argued that the concepts such as trust, networks, and social society expressed by Coleman and Putnam have more consequences than the elements of social capital. He claims that social capital emerged by considering personal interests (Fukuyama, 1995, p. 14).

Researchers who have made great contributions to the social capital literature such as Putnam, Coleman and Fukuyama have accepted the trust and social networks as the main factors of social capital. Apart from these norms, and social participation can be considered as two other common factors. The use of factors is also slightly dependent on the status of the available data. There are different ideas as to whether trust is one of the main factors or outcomes of social capital. Coleman and Putnam accepted trust as the main factor of social capital. According to John Field and Fukuyama, trust is an output rather than an input of social capital. It can even be considered as a variable independent of social capital (Field, 2006). This disagreement among researchers regarding the trust factor is one of the biggest indicators of the disagreement over the concept of social capital.

e) Elinor Ostrom and Social Capital

Ostrom (2000) stated that the concept of social capital consists of the collective knowledge, ideas, norms, rules, and expectations formed by the society for the interactions that will arise during the activities to be carried out together. According to her, the coordination of the activities that people will do together for a common purpose will increase the efficiency and ensure that people make all their efforts focused on the activity. She accepts associations, unions, and foundations as the most obvious

examples of social capital. She sees the family institution as a component of social capital.

Ostrom (2000) claimed that the principle of reciprocity is very important in the emergence of social capital. She briefly explained the principle of reciprocity as waiting for the return of a positive attitude from one person to another. She stated that especially in relations based on trust and reputation, mutual positive expectations provide convenience and comfort, and the continuity of relations is based on mutual positive expectations.

Another point that Ostrom (2000) emphasizes is the concept of reputation. This concept, which he calls reputation, includes features that build trust, create expectations and create norms. He stated that people can have social capital in a direct proportion to their reputation.

Finally, he stated that traditions and customs are a part of social capital. It defines traditions and customs as concepts that are formed over time, accepted by the general population, and have social sanctions when they are not fulfilled (Ostrom, 2000).

2.3.4. Dimensions of Social Capital

Different perspectives are given under this heading, similar to the definitions of the concept of social capital. Putnam (1993), one of the pioneers of the concept of social capital, mentioned the existence of two kinds of social capital as stated below.

- **Bonding social capital:** family, neighborhood relationships, close friends
- **Bridging social capital:** business environment, association, and foundation environment

According to Putnam, bonding social capital has a tendency to bring homogeneous people together, while bridging social capital brings people closer to heterogeneous or people with different structure, identity, culture characteristics. While bonding increases solidarity, bridging contributes to development. According to Putnam, bridging social capital is essential for success in business life, and bonding social capital is essential for success in daily life (Field, 2006).

Drawing attention to the impact of the concept of social capital on education, Coleman (1988) divided social capital into two as stated below.

- **Family Social Capital**
- **Community Social Capital**

Uphoff divides the concept of social capital into two structural and cognitive. Structural social capital consists of rules, roles, networks, and procedures. Cognitive, social capital consists of parts such as culture, values, beliefs, and traditions. While structural social capital can be observed, cognitive, social capital has features that are not noticeable from the outside. However, the two types of social capital are interrelated. They feed each other (Uphoff, 2000).

According to Esser (2008), social capital has both individual and social aspects as shared below.

- **Access to information and social life**
- **Collective and reliable people ready to take risks**
- **Creating support, assistance, and unity**
- **Control mechanism**
- **Trust environment**
- **Validity of norms and values**

Esser (2008) handled all the first three items as social integration and all the remaining items as system integration. Esser emphasizes that social integration, that is, the first three items is more dependent on the individual's own efforts, system integration, that is, the next three items are mostly on collective work. He stated that system integration is more important for the continuity of social capital (Esser, 2008).

In his research carried out in 2001, Woolcock divided social capital into three parts as shared below.

- **Bonding social capital:** family, neighbor, etc.
- **Bridging social capital:** colleagues, friends, etc.
- **Linking social capital:** people from outside the community and belonging to a different community, etc.

Bonding social capital is at the center and it is an indispensable social capital that forms the identity structure of the person. Bridging social capital has gained importance in the focus of career. Linking social capital is social capital that opens the horizon of the individual and gives new perspectives (Field, 2006).

In his research in 2001, Nan Lin divided the bonds between people into two as strong and weak. He also classified social capital over these ties. While bonding social capital consists of strong bonds, bridging social capital forms the whole of weak bonds. He stated that strong bonds are formed among similar people, while weak bonds occur between people with different socio-cultural structures (Field, 2006).

Nahapiet and Ghosha (1998) divide social capital into three units: structural, cognitive, and relational. Structural social capital focused on the characteristics and quality of the communication and information network, the intensity of the use of the cognitive, social capital communication and information network, and relational social capital, such as trust, norms and obligations, that make up this network.

Camps and Marques (2014) studied social capital on 3 factors as structural, cognitive, and relational social capital. The first of these factors, structural social capital, is essential and contributed to the emergence of both relational and cognitive social capital. Relational social capital is the main point to be reached, but its existence depends on the existence of structural and cognitive social capital.

a) Trust Dimension

Individuals mostly build their relationships on the basis of trust when viewed from a social perspective. Trust is one of the most important concepts that enable social and economic activities to be maintained in a healthy way for individuals and organizations. Therefore, it can be stated that the trust dimension is the most important dimension to the concept of social capital. According to Fukuyama (2000), social capital is defined as a competence that comes from the prevalence of trust in a society or some parts of it. Developing trust-based relationships in organizations can increase organizational efficiency by providing cooperation and loyalty among employees. Cohen and Prusak (2001, p. 51) emphasized how important trust is in terms of social and economic activities by saying that trust is the most basic facilitator of all kinds of social activities

that enable people to work and live together. Fukuyama (2000) stated that if people working together in an organization trust each other, costs will decrease. Within this framework, it can be interpreted that developing trust-based relationships among educational organizations can also reduce educational costs.

Trust contributes to social cooperation and is important for reaching a common decision and providing cooperation in solving problems in small-scale communities. According to Ekinçi (2008), it is stated that dimensions such as social relations, networks, norms, and values are difficult to form without the trust dimension.

b) Norms and Values Dimension

Another dimension of social capital is considered as norms and values. Norms and values created by sharing a shared culture in a community or organization affect all social or economic activities performed by individuals. According to Fukuyama (2000), with the becoming the habit of norms and values in a community, interpersonal loyalty is formed and thus accumulation of social capital is acquired.

According to Putnam (1993), norms within social groups and organizations are an important element of social capital, as they are based on mutual relations, although they are unwritten but accepted rules. Strength in interpersonal ties can be explained by the norms and values created by the organization, and by trust relationships for individuals. According to Ekinçi (2008), values refer to preferred and desired views along with existing designs that can be compared and evaluated with existing structures and behaviors, whereas norms are perceptions that indicate how something should be done and shape behaviors.

c) Social Networks and Social Interaction Dimension

Creating a different social impact environment by reaching new people with the reference that emerges as a result of trust-based relationships between people can be defined as a social network. Social interaction can also be defined as reuniting friends who have not met for a long time or communicating with new people, groups, or communities through social activities. In this context, it can be stated that social interaction constitutes a wider social network.

The power of social networks, established through individual and group relationships developed within the organization, can accelerate the transfer of information within the organization and provide effective use of time and resources. According to Cohen and Prusak (2001, p. 20), social capital consists of the sum of active connections between people, trust, mutual understanding and common values and behaviors that connect communities and enable cooperation. Putnam (1995) stated that there are two different social network structures, horizontal and vertical. He stated that horizontal social networks are durable, close, and solidarity-based, and vertical social networks are based on inter-group collaboration behavior, bridges between different peer groups.

According to Bourdieu (1986), higher number of social network connections means that social capital is more effective and productive. Network density, on the other hand, defines the connectivity level of the members of the networks. In order to increase the level of social capital in educational organizations, social networks should be developed both through horizontal and vertical networks among school employees, and through social activities between student families and with school staff.

d) Participation Dimension

Participation, another dimension of social capital, varies with the organizational structure of social interaction. For example, the decision of friends groups to go to the concert refers to the social interaction dimension, and the decision to go to the aid concert organized by the non-governmental organization refers to the dimension of participation. The dimension of participation, which is one of the important determinants of social capital accumulation at the country level, can also be expressed by voting for political parties, trust in state institutions, participating in protests, participating in or organizing social responsibility projects. In summary, the dimension of participation is defined as the situation where individuals are active in society and take responsibility for social interests rather than their individual interests.

According to Putnam, if social interaction cannot be established within social structures and organizations, it is stated that individuals who make up the organization and social structure will not be able to actively participate and social capital

accumulation will be consumed (Field, 2006). According to Print and Coleman (2003), while low social capital and negative social networks are formed due to low trust and cooperation in situations where social interaction and participation are low, ultimately, individuals may experience dissatisfaction and increased individuality.

e) Tolerance to Differences Dimension

Social capital indicators revealed in the studies conducted by the World Bank are democracies, the rate of bribery in the country, the independence of the courts, strikes, student movements, protests, the number of detainees per 100,000 people, the degree of trust in the government and unions, credit availability, personal freedoms, the number of voters. And also, their participation in local communities, participation rates in social activities, empowerment and representation rates, neighborhood connections, family and friendship connections, business connections are expressed as tolerance to difference (KOSGEB, 2005).

It is almost impossible to establish strong social networks or trust-based relationships among people, as the probability of meeting or meeting people alienated due to migration and social stratification in the urban population is reduced. For this reason, a heterogeneous social structure is formed in the areas with high population density, which are expressed as public spaces and open to everyone. Establishing communication, interaction or trust-based relationships between people who differ for social, cultural, economic, or ethnic reasons is possible by tolerating differences.

The fact that primary schools are public spaces and that everyone has to receive primary education without any difference requires organization and social relations established in primary schools to be shaped on the basis of tolerance for differences. According to Jacobs, although the relations established in small settlements are more intense and long-lasting, people become familiar with each other and cannot be connected with each other in large settlements where the settlements grow, and the population increases. According to Ayata, in cities that increase and become heterogeneous with immigration, communication and distrust occur among individuals, and the distinction between social group deepens (Karakurt, 2008).

The fact that primary schools have public space characteristics and that every individual has to receive primary education without any difference requires organization and social relations established in primary schools to be shaped on the basis of tolerance for differences. According to Jacobs, although the relationships established in smaller cities are more intense and long-lasting, people become unable to recognize each other and cannot be linked in big cities where the settlements grow, and the population increases. According to Ayata, in cities where the population increases and becomes heterogeneous with immigration, communication and insecurity occur among individuals and the distinction between social group deepens (Karakurt, 2008).

At this point, it is important to increase the interpersonal communication by extending the tolerance to differences, and to create options where interpersonal communication networks can be created, taking into account the fact that these people are more likely to meet in public spaces, in order to reduce the impact created by the social group distinctions in urban life.

2.3.5. Antecedents of Social Capital

While some researchers working on the concept of social capital emphasize individual determinants of social capital such as personal income, education, family and social status; Some researchers have focused on the impact of institutional factors such as income inequality, trust in the government, the impartiality of policy-making bodies (Christoforou, 2005, p. 3). Supporting this, OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) research also states that concepts such as family, schools, local communities, public institutions, civil society, and ethnicity have a key role in the development of social capital. It contributes to the development of the elements such as emotional interaction, connections and norms, relationships between organizations, information flow, and trust in the family (Eriksson, Dahlgren, Janlert, Weinehall, and Emmelin, 2010, p. 1-4). In addition, it develops connections such as neighborhood relations, norms, friendship, and friendship (Healy and Cote, 2002, p. 44-47).

On the other hand, gender, marital status, age, educational status, and place of residence are effective in the development of social capital on an individual level (Olate, 2003, p. 7). Parts discussed the antecedents of social capital on the individual and social

level, and stated that personal income, education, family and social status and personal characteristics at the individual level constitute the source of social capital. The source of the social level of social capital has been identified as the development, quality, and distribution of public resources of official institutions (Parts, 2013, p. 5). Rothstein and Stolle (2002) emphasize that the antecedents of social capital are hidden in establishing links between civil society, voluntary organizations, and political institutions. Aldridge, Halpern, and Fitzpatrick (2002) counted values such as history and culture, hierarchy in social structures, social classification, civil society, education, and individual consumption tools among the antecedents of social capital (Claridge, 2004, p. 36).

Moreover, Norris and Inglehart (2003) classified the antecedents of social capital in terms of structural, cultural and mediation. It evaluated gender, age, money, knowledge, skill, and time (which can be allocated to voluntary associations) as well as inequality of the distribution of resources as structural antecedents. Cultural antecedents include interests and ideological beliefs that motivate people to join associations. Mediation antecedents focus on informal links between family, friends and colleagues that activate social networks.

2.3.6. Consequences of Social Capital

It is possible to come across research in which the consequences of the concept of social capital are examined under two different titles as benefit and risk in the literature. Adler and Kwon (2002, p. 31) and Tanasescu and Smart (2010) stated that social capital has risks as well as benefits. Therefore, the consequences of the concept are discussed below considering the balance of benefits and risks.

a) Benefits of Social Capital

The concept of social capital was put forward to produce solutions to some social problems. Joining organizations to share organizational goals and collaborate shows the benefits of social capital in general (Tanasescu and Smart, 2010). There are studies in the literature regarding the concept of social capital towards economic development, organizational performance, and the functionality of public institutions (Kim, Subramanian and Kawachi, 2006; Putnam, 1995). In addition, various studies have been conducted on the benefits of social capital on access to education (Coleman, 1988;

Israel, Beaulieu ve Hartless, 2001) and public health (Subramanian, Lochner and Kawachi, 2003).

Individual development, quality of life and human relations are facilitated through social capital (Adam and Roncevic, 2003, 177). According to Lin (1999, 35) stating that individuals participate in networks to gain interest, networks facilitate the flow of information. He even suggested that social ties or hierarchical positions located at certain strategic points offer various opportunities to individuals.

Organizations ensure the employment of qualified individuals through links. Social ties of organizations are effective in decisions such as recruiting and promoting individuals. Fukuyama stated that economic development is related to certain cultural values. He stated that these cultural values that strengthen the economy have important effects on social networks, organization, production, work, and consumption (2000).

The organizational social capital provides individuals with advantages such as knowledge, control and power, solidarity (Adler and Kwon, 2002, p. 29; Sandefur and Laumann, 1998, p. 481). According to Burt (1997), social capital provides power to entrepreneurs. Thanks to the connections, the relationships between groups give individual strength. Bridges built by individuals to prevent conflicts of interest because they control the flow of information. Another benefit of social capital to individuals is social solidarity. In addition, norms increase compliance with internal rules and reduce control pressure.

Whiteley (2000, p. 443) attributes the elimination of negativities such as the decrease in transaction costs in the economy, theft, and corruption of social trust-based relationships in the society. Bhandari and Yosunabi (1999, p. 484) emphasize that social capital has benefits such as facilitating access to information, increasing civic participation, reducing operational costs, and reducing economic risks and uncertainties.

Further, Narayan and Pritchett (1999, p. 873) stated that social capital has benefits such as acting jointly in the solution of problems, reducing false information, expanding innovation, and developing informal relations. According to Tsai and Ghoshal (1998, p. 473), who researches social capital in terms of social interaction and common vision,

social capital strengthens its capacity for innovation in organizations by facilitating information exchange.

In addition, social interaction enables individuals to unite around a common goal, while vision enables individuals to share information. Morrison links information sharing in organizations to the strong and reliable communication networks (2002, p. 1150). The fact that organizational trust and cooperation are strong increases the individual's commitment to the organization. The commitment of individuals to the organization provides organizational integration. As can be understood from these explanations, social capital plays an important role in increasing individual performance, facilitating social networks and trust, and developing mutually beneficial cooperation.

b) Risks of Social Capital

Social capital has its risks as well as its benefits. Bourdieu stated that social capital is a concept that derives inequality and that social capital is used as a tool to protect the superiority of the elite class (1986, p. 255). According to Field, he emphasizes that in the definition of Bourdieu, social capital is seen as a wealth of privileged individuals and that less privileged groups are less likely to benefit from this wealth (1986).

Fukuyama (2000, p. 56) tries to explain the risks of social capital with the metaphor of “the radius of trust”. According to this metaphor, the more an individual goes out of group membership, the more valuable social capital is. However, if trust is only valid among group members, social capital is also weak at that level. Fine (2007, p. 570) states that the World Bank's global social capital efforts are aimed at strengthening participation in society. However, he stated that this situation caused some negative problems such as social corruption, intra-community violence, and racist behavior.

One of the obstacles to the development of social capital in organizations is nepotism. Nepotism, also called relatives nepotism, is the employment or promotion of unqualified people based on kinship relations regardless of factors such as knowledge, skill, and career (Özler, Özler and Gümüştekin, 2007). Thus, social capital classifications put forward by Putnam (1995) are affected by bonding and bridging social capital nepotism. Bonding social capital, which is expressed as close ties between

family and close friends, causes nepotism. In addition, nepotism, which causes lack of trust in organizations, affects social capital adversely based on relations outside the organization, relations between individuals or other organizations. As a result, it can be argued that ethical problems are inevitable in organizations where nepotism is strong compared to social capital, which is formed by cooperation, trust and participation in the organization and developing.

Another factor that prevents the formation and development of social capital in organizations is ethical problems. Ethical problems such as disrespectful behaviors, failure to fulfill duties and responsibilities, observing individual interests instead of common goals, exploiting duties, flattery and gossip arise from individuals. On the other hand, problems such as organization managers being unfair, inconsistent in their decisions, mistreatment of their employees, and harassing their employees are ethical problems arising from managers (Aydın, 2010, p. 85-92). As can be seen, it can be argued that ethical problems arising from employees and managers in the organization can create problems in the development of social capital.

According to Cohen and Prusak (2001, p. 34-35), social capital's negativities can lead such as close ties between male employees within the organization make talented female employees, ignoring others who belong to a certain ethnic or belief group, and the inner sense of us excludes others. Portes (1998, p. 15-17) stated that social networks have problems such as excluding non-group members and preventing members from taking the initiative. In addition, norms, sanctions, and demands other than what the individual wants to create can put pressure on members. The intensity of control systems in networks can lead to individual adaptation and freedom problems. According to Collier (1998, p. 22), networks stated that factors such as participation and trust can cause ethnic conflicts. He also stated that tight kinship ties may cause some negative behaviors such as favoritism, bias in organizational life. The risks of social capital can be listed as problems that increase economic transaction costs, closed networks that prevent social mobility, increases in crime rates and failures in education (Carroll and Stanfield 2003, p. 399; Fine 1999, p. 5).

2.3.7. Social Capital at School

The activities carried out in educational organizations, which are a social institution, are important for the individual in determining their place in the society. In this respect, implemented since 1997 in Turkey without discrimination training with eight years of compulsory education it has been targeted to be delivered to each individual. With the spread of education, the accumulation of social capital in schools has also increased and started to be among the research subjects. Considering that primary and secondary school students do group work, participate in social activities, and learn to cooperate and trust in their education life, schools contribute to the accumulation of social capital within the framework of participation, social networks, norms, values and trust dimensions.

The resources that will ensure the development of social capital in and around the school can be created through the social networks that students set up with each other, with their teachers, their families, and other adults around the school. Similarly, parents can be in a closed social network through the partnership of sending their children to the same school (Morgan, 2000). In this respect, it can be stated that the social capital accumulation of families, establishes an indirect relationship with the social capital accumulation in the school. Coleman (1988, p. 95) stated that having a high level of social capital in and around the family reduces the rate of school dropout and absenteeism in high schools. Similarly, in the social capital research conducted by Norris (2002, p. 17), a significant relationship was found between volunteer membership in civil society organizations, participation in social activities, social trust rates and the education level of countries.

Dika and Singh (2002), who examined the researches on social capital and education, stated that the level of social capital owned in the school, around the school is compared with social networks, participation, trust dimensions and school success and that there are significant relationships. They argued that the relationship and interaction between students' academic success and the various elements of social capital remain uncertain (Ekinçi, 2008, p. 46).

According to Dika and Singh (2002), social capital ensures the balance of socio-economic disadvantages. Coleman stated that the family is very important for social capital, and that a geographical change that the family will make may adversely affect the social capital of the family and cause harmful effects on the education of children. Lauglo, on the other hand, stated that social capital is related to high-level educational performance and is especially important for students with an unfavorable past, and improves weak cultural capital by neutralizing the disadvantages of the social class (Field, 2006).

Feinstein and Symons (1999) stated that the width and quality of a child's social network had a positive effect on their academic success. Halpern (2005) stated that the positive success of immigrant children with their families at home improves their emotional and social control at school and makes them an active learner. It has been stated that the children of economically and socially advantageous families are more successful than the children of disadvantaged families, and the cultural and economic capitals of families reflect positively on the human capital of their children (Field, 2006).

In schools where single-parent families are close to 50% of school size, it is stated that student success is positively affected by social capital if communication between parents is strong (Pong, 1998). In addition, according to McLanahan and Sandefur, divorced single-parent families have narrower and weaker social networks than double-parent families, so their children's school success is lower. Divorced families have more difficulties in strengthening social relations than families with double parents since their domestic income is lower and they move more. This situation indirectly affects social capital and the success of the child through social networks (Halpern, 2005).

The relation of social capital with education has been examined in terms of micro, meso and macro level. At the micro level, the high level of interest shown by parents in the education of their children increases the level of social capital and school success. At the meso level, the fact that the network of schools in the same region is strong, and the high school-family relationship and the relationship that student families establish with each other, generally increase the academic success of the schools in that

region. Finally, it is stated at the macro level that the separation between countries is due to the different socio-cultural backgrounds. Therefore, it is stated that the values that determine the character of a society are shaped by education and social capital is related to economic growth like education (Hargreaves, 2001; Grenfell, 2009).

In this context, Grenfell (2009, p. 28) describes the methods to increase the level of social capital in schools as follows.

- Social capital policies should have an impact on school networks and student success.
- Time and economic resources should be given importance.
- Tensions between institutions and individual networks should be considered.
- Social capital policies require renewal in management structures.
- Social capital policies should be designed in a way that takes into account cultural values and norms and does not ignore the differences.
- Social capital policies should include not only parents of students, but also teachers in the management process.
- The development of social capital is very important in the structure, content, and flow of information.

2.4. The Contextual Framework of the Study and the Generated Hypotheses

Individuals can establish unbalanced and complex relationships within the area of interaction where they share their feelings, thoughts, desires, and experiences. It is important for individuals to feel safe both physically and psychologically in their closeness, community, or organizational relationships. Dienesch and Liden (1986) stated that leader and employee characters are effective in the formation of relations between leader and employee. While the similarity of its characteristics increases the exchange between the leader and the employee and the attraction to each other, the trust created in this context will ensure the continuity of the relationship with the leader of the employee. Based on the concept of leader-member exchange which is important for the commitment of employees to both the organization and the managers, the independent variable of this research is determined as leader-member exchange.

Thereby, it is suggested that when a high-quality mutual relationship is developed between the leader and the member, a relationship of trust is established in an emotional context. In other words, the uncertainty and trust of the employee of the manager vary depending on the quality of the interaction between the leader and the employees (Bauer and Graen, 1996). The extant literature shows that trust in leader has been studied as a moderator variable in a series of research frameworks including variables such as organizational justice, organizational citizenship behavior, job performance, job satisfaction, commitment, and intention to leave (e.g. Chang and Chi, 2007; Schoorman, Mayer and Davis 2007). Trust in the leader is also analyzed as a moderator variable in the relationship between the dimensions of justice and task performance (Colquitt, Scott, Judge and Shaw 2006). Moreover, it was emphasized that affective trust in the leader is the moderator of the relationship between the strategic partner role and employee indicators (Chang and Chi, 2007; Taştan, 2015). Accordingly, based on the previous findings the moderator variable of this research is undertaken as organizational trust.

Furthermore, the concept of social capital is described in the literature research as the capacity and ability of individuals who make up the society to benefit from the activities they participate in through their membership, social relations and connections with official and civil institutions. In the process of leader-member interaction, employees and leaders work within the organization for organizational purposes (Çekmecelioğlu and Ülker, 2014, p. 38). In addition, when leaders support their subordinates, the level of admiration of leaders and subordinates' increases with each other (Ordun and Aktaş, 2014, p. 123).

Caldwell and Hayes (2010) examined the leader-member exchange that was based on trust. According to their empirical study, the leader creates a trust-based relationship between its members with an understanding of ethical principles. This plays an important role in increasing the effectiveness of the organization. In this context, organizational trust, which is an important element for the formation of social capital, is seen as the basic "social glue" that holds the organizational members' relations together within the organization (Pussa and Tolvanen, 2006). It was determined that the presence of a sense of trust affects employees' work behaviors (Özmen, Aküzüm,

Koçoğlu, Tan and Demirkol 2014, p.335). Further, the relationship between organizational trust and social capital has been discussed frequently in the literature, especially researchers who examine the concept of internal social capital emphasized that organizational trust can be a strong determinant in the formation of social capital (Putnam, 1993; Fukuyama, 2005; Adler and Kwon, 2002; Özen and Aslan, 2006). The concept of trust explains the ability of social capital to build a bridge between individuals and communities. At this point, trust creates a connection between social networks and reciprocity norms (Reinhart, Job, and Braithwaite, 2004, p. 2, 3). The mutual trust choices we make are nothing more than determining what kind of people we are and what kind of life we live together. At this point, trust can be considered as a matter of foresight, risk, and attachment, not as a matter of mutual relations (Solomon and Flores, 2001 p. 20, 28). Based on the theoretical explanations and the previous empirical evidences, the generated hypothetical propositions of the study are presented as below:

- H1: There is a positive relationship between leader-member exchange and social capital.
- H2: There is a positive relationship between organizational trust and social capital.
- H3: Organizational trust has a moderator effect on the relationship between leader-member exchange and social capital (The individuals with a high perception of organizational trust, the leader-member exchange has a stronger effect on social capital).

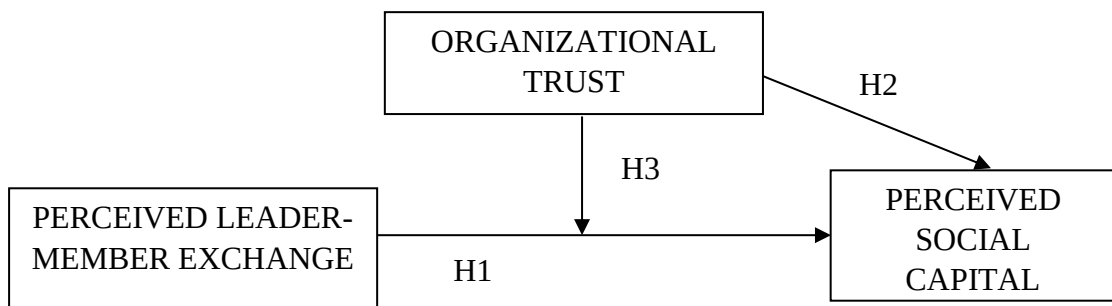


Figure 4. The Hypothetical Relationships among the Research Variables

3. METHODOLOGY

In this section, descriptions about research model, the universe, sample, data collection tools, validity and reliability studies of measurement tools used in research, data collection and analysis are presented.

3.1. The Research Model

The current study, which examines the moderating effect of organizational trust in the relationship between leader-member exchange and social capital based on the opinions of teachers, is a quantitative study organized as a correlational survey model. This model is suitable for research that aims to describe a situation that existed in the past or that exists today. The correlational survey model has been found suitable for such studies as it can be used in the process of conducting research with research models aiming to determine the presence or degree of co-variation between two or more variables (Karasar, 1991). In sum, this model, which is frequently used in educational sciences, provides constructive feedback to educational administrators and teachers.

Correlational survey models make important contributions to theorists and practitioners in understanding and increasing knowledge (Balci, 2013). Creswell (2013, p. 376) stated that there are two different types of correlational survey model: cross-sectional and longitudinal. Cross-sectional screening determines the instantaneous views, thoughts, and beliefs of the individual. Longitudinal screening shows the thoughts and opinions of the individual within a certain period. In this context, the cross-sectional screening method was used in this research.

In research, strong statistical techniques such as correlation and regression are generally used to measure the relationship between two or more variables (Balci, 2013, p. 260-261). The correlation survey model aims to identify differences between situations rather than finding the compatibility of an existing situation to certain standards. Relativity in this model is meaningful and important (Karasar, 1991).

3.2. The Sample and Data Collection

The population of the research consists of teachers working in primary, secondary, and high schools in the central and surrounding districts of İzmir in the 2019-

2020 academic year. The research was designed as a cross-sectional study and a convenience sampling method was chosen for collecting data.

The participants were 57.5% women and 42.5% men as shown in Table 1. In terms of age, 20.8% of the participants were between 22 and 35 years old, 33.6% were between 36 and 45, and 45.6% were 46+ years old as shown in Table 2.

Table 1. Gender Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Female	130	57.5	57.5
Male	96	42.5	42.5
Total	226	100	100

Table 2. Age Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
22-35	47	20.8	20.8
36-45	76	33.6	33.6
46+	103	45.6	45.6
Total	226	100	100

81% of the participations were married, 14.6% were single, 3.5% were divorced, and %0. 9 were widows as shown in Table 3. The graduation degree of the participants was 5.3% of higher education degree, 81% of university degree, 12.8% of master 's degree and 0.9% PhD degree as shown in Table 4.

Table 3. Marital Status Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Married	183	81	81
Single	33	14.6	14.6
Divorced	8	3.5	3.5
Widow	2	0.9	0.9
Total	226	100	100

Table 4. Education Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Higher Education School	12	5.3	5.3
University	183	81	81
Master	29	12.8	12.8
PhD	2	0.9	0.9
Total	226	100	100

When the distribution of the work experience years of the participants is analyzed; 9.3% of the participants had a work experience of 5 years and below, 10.6% between 6 to 10 years, 12.8% had an experience of 11 to 15 years and 67.3% have an experience of 16 years and above as shown in Table 5. 92% of the participants had a regular professional status and 8% of them had a contracted professional status as shown in Table 6. Additionally, 14.6% of the participants had an administrative role and 85.4% of them had no administrative role in their schools as shown in Table 7.

Table 5. Seniority Characteristics of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
1-5 Year	21	9.3	9.3
6-10 Year	24	10.6	10.6
11-15 Year	29	12.8	12.8
16+ Year	152	67.3	67.3
Total	226	100	100

Table 6. Professional Status of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Regular	208	92	92
Contracted	18	8	8
Total	226	100	100

Table 7. Administrative Status of the Sample

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Yes	33	14.6	14.6
No	193	85.4	85.4
Total	226	100	100

3.3. Research Instruments

Due to the purpose of the current study, Leader-Member Exchange Scale, Organizational Trust Scale and Social Capital Scale in Schools were utilized as data collection tools. In addition to these tools, demographic information form was used to determine the demographic characteristics of the participants. Information about the scales used as a data collection tool is presented below.

3.3.1. Leader-Member Exchange Scale

In the literature, various scales have been used to evaluate leader-member exchange. Among them is the two-item scale created by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975). Graen, Novak, and Sommerkamp (1982), Liden and Graen (1980) added two more items to this scale and created a four-item scale. Later, another item was added to these items and a five-item leader-member exchange scale was created (Graen et al., 1982). In some studies, Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire was used instead of LMX scale (Williams, Podsakoff, and Huber, 1992).

Pillai, Schriesheim, and Williams, (1999) stated that 16 different measurement tools were used in the 1980s to evaluate the quality of leader-member exchange. Developed by Graen et al. (1982) and examining the "business relations" between the leader and the members, LMX-7 became the most used measurement tool in the measurement of leading member exchange in the 1980s. However, as Dienesch and Liden (1986) claimed that the concept of leader-member exchange was multi-dimensional and the psychometric properties of the scale were found to be insufficient, the one-dimensional structure of the LMX-7 began to be questioned and the scale development efforts gained momentum again.

Liden and Maslyn (1998) added the fourth dimension, which they designated as "professional respect", to the three dimensions of the leader-member exchange concept that Dienesch and Liden (1986) set as "loyalty", "emotion" and "contribution". As a result, Liden and Maslyn (1998, p. 68) developed a new scale type called Multidimensionality of Leader-Member Exchange to measure LMX. It can be said that the developed scale is stronger than other scales in terms of clarifying social relations as well as business relationships between leaders and subordinates. The scale in question reveals the quality level of leader-member relations in multiple dimensions (Dionne, 2000, p. 32-33). This scale consists of four different dimensions. Questions numbered 1,2,3 measure the emotion dimension, questions numbered 4,5,6 measure the contribution dimension, questions number 7,8,9 measure the loyalty dimension and questions number 10,11,12 measure the professional respect dimension. Recently, Öztürk and Şahin (2015) carried out a pilot application in order to determine the reliability of the Turkish scale with the test-retest method, the test-retest reliability coefficient of the scale was .87 and the Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficient was .96 (Öztürk and Şahin, 2015).

As a result, the Turkish form of the scale was found to be valid and reliable for this research. A six-point Likert-type (1 = Strongly disagree and 6 = Strongly agree) scale was used for the evaluation of the items in the scale. It is interpreted that, the higher the mean score of the leader-member exchange, the higher the perception of individuals' leader-member exchange perception. The leader-member exchange scale used in the study can be seen in the Appendix I.

3.3.2. Organizational Trust Scale

The "Organizational Trust Scale", which was developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2003) was utilized with six point Likert type scale (1 = Strongly disagree and 6 = Strongly agree) in the current study to describe the teachers' perceptions about the level of organizational trust in schools. The higher the mean score of the variable showed the higher level of perceived organizational trust. The scale consists of 3 different sub-dimensions: trust between teachers' dimension, parents and students trust dimension and trust to the principal dimension. In the first dimension of the scale, there are questions aiming to determine the level of trust among teachers working in the

school. In the second dimension of the scale, there are items related to trust in parents and students, and in the third dimension (trust to the principal dimension), items related to trust in the principal. There are 8 items in the 1st dimension, 10 items in the 2nd dimension, and 8 items in the third dimension. It was stated that the internal consistency coefficients of the scale were .93 for trust between teachers, .94 for the trust in parents and students, .98 for trust in school principal, and .96 for overall scale. (Özer et al., 2006)

The study for the Turkish version of the scale was performed with the data gathered from 156 teachers working at five different school districts in Malatya (Özer et al., 2006) Following the pilot study, it has been determined that the data obtained from the study are suitable for factor analysis. In order to determine the suitability of the scale for construct validity, the data were subjected to factor analysis and as a result, it was seen that the items were distributed to three factors as in the original scale. In factor analysis, the criterion of factor loadings of at least .40 items was taken and items that did not comply with this criterion were removed from the scale. The trust between teachers dimension of the scale consisted of 7 items, the trust between parents and students dimension of the study consisted of 8 items, and the trust to the principal dimension of the scale was consisted of 5 items. Item number 20 of the scale was designed as a reverse item. Although the item was coded after correction during the statistical analysis, the item was removed from the scale because the cronbach alpha value was low. The first dimension of the 20-item scale explains 29.80% of the total variance, the second dimension explains 11.76% and the third dimension 7.27%. The total variance rate explained by the factors is 48.83%. The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the scale was calculated and found as .82 for the first dimension, .70 for the second dimension, .87 in the third dimension, and .86 for the overall scale (Özer et al., 2006). The organizational trust scale used in the study can be found in the Appendix I.

3.3.3. Social Capital in Schools Scale

Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998), Tsai and Ghoshal (1998, p. 464) defined the concept of social capital in three dimensions: structural, relational, and cognitive.

The structural dimension of social capital includes the characteristics of the social system and the network of relationships. These features describe the structure of the link between the individual and the units, which is not connected to the individual. This dimension includes general connection patterns and ways of accessing them (Burt, 1997).

The relational dimension of social capital includes the ability to access information that reduces the time to access and increase the value of information that is difficult to access, the benefit to be obtained from this information, the timing of obtaining information, and the opportunity to be informed about the sharing and distribution of information (Granovetter, 1983).

The cognitive dimension of social capital includes shared values. These values consist of a common language and success stories shared among individuals. Shared common language provides the similarity in perceptions and creates a basic framework for thinking in the observation and interpretation of the environment (Pondy and Mitroff, 1979).

The social capital scale utilized in the current study was compiled from Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998), Moran and Ghoshal (1996) and Tsai and Ghoshal (1998), and consists of 26 items that measure the structural, relational and cognitive dimensions of the concept. Göksel, Aydıntan and Bingöl (2010, p. 94) conducted the reliability and validity analyzes of the scale. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of the scale is 0.94. Factor loads, dimensions and explanation rates of the questions are high. The kurtosis and skewness values of the model are in the valid range.

Structural dimension, which is 9 items, with the sub-dimensions of "communication networks", "communication network structures" and "understanding of appropriate organization"; The cognitive dimension, which is 4 items, can be explained with the sub-dimensions of "common language" and "common stories" and the relational dimension with 13 items can be explained with the sub-dimensions of "emotional trust", "norms", "imperative" and "identification" (Göksel, Aydıntan and Bingöl, 2010)

Previously, in the study conducted in Turkish context by Taştan and Davoudi (2015), it was observed that the Cronbach alpha coefficient for the structural dimension of the scale was 0.85, the Cronbach alpha coefficient for the cognitive dimension was 0.88 and the Cronbach alpha coefficient for its relational dimension was 0.90.

Based on previous works' findings, the scale was found appropriate to be utilized in this study and 6-point Likert type rating was used. Statements in the rating were between 1 = Strongly disagree and 6 = Strongly agree. The higher the mean represents the higher level of social capital while the lower the mean shows lower level of social capital. Participants were asked to answer the scale items by thinking about the school in which they work and choosing the most appropriate option for them. The social capital in school scale used in the study is presented in the Appendix I.

3.4. Statistical Analysis

After the implementation and collection of all questionnaires, valid questionnaires were identified and analyses were made on these questionnaires. The statistical analyses of the study were performed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. Firstly, descriptive analysis was applied to identify the frequencies, means, and standard deviations of the sample regarding demographic variables. While deciding which of the parametric or non-parametric test methods to use in the analysis of the data, the normality and homogeneity numbers of the items were examined. During the analysis of the normal distribution of data, mode, median and mean, skewness and kurtosis coefficients, Q-Q Plot graphs, Kolmogorov-Smirnov analysis was examined. Levene test was performed to determine whether the data showed normal distribution and it was determined that they showed normal distribution ($p > 0.05$) (Akbulut, 2010).

Factor analysis was performed to determine the construct validity of measurement tools. Thirdly, the reliability analysis was conducted to all scales and the reliabilities of the scales were determined by Cronbach's Alpha. Due to the reliability analysis, the internal consistencies of all scale items were found, which is related to the degree of interrelatedness between these items (Panayides, 2013).

Moreover, in the current study, variables without explanation power and showing multicollinearity (multiple correlation) were excluded from the model by

following the simple regression method. By this way, it was possible to see whether each factor obtained explains the dependent variable. All analyzes, including hypothesis testing, were carried out on models that tested this suitability. Pearson correlation analysis was used to evaluate the relationships between the variables of the study, and three-stage regression analyzes were used to see the power of the independent and moderator variables to affect the dependent variable. As a last step, series of moderation analyses were conducted by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. Within these moderation analyses, an alpha level of .05 was used to test statistical significance.

4. STUDY FINDINGS

4.1. Reliability and Factor Analysis of the Scales

In this section, the findings obtained from the research are included. The findings of the research are discussed under two headings. First one is the factor analysis of the scales that used in the research, the second is in the form of intermediary tests.

4.1.1. Leader-Member Exchange Scale

As presented in Table 8, the Cronbach α value of the leader-member exchange scale was .965 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale. The Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation is used and factors with Eigenvalues ≥ 1.00 were considered in determining the total variance explained.

According to these results, the leader-member exchange scale had one factor as one-dimensional construct which explained 72.7% of the variance. As seen, all the items had factor loadings of ≥ 0.50 so none of the items were excluded from the scale. KMO coefficient was .937 which was on a significant level and Bartlett 's test of sphericity was also significant which was found to be ≤ 0.05 .

According to the analysis results, all twelve questions were loaded into a single component with factor loads between .76 and .91 for each question. In the literature review, while the scale has a 3 or 4-factor structure in the analyzes for the original scales, it has been loaded on a single factor in the recent study. The cultural differences and socio-demographic characteristics of the original study and recent study samples may have influenced this result.

Table 8. Factor Analysis Results of Leader-Member Exchange Scale

Item No.	Factors of Leader-Member Exchange	% Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
Factor I. Leader-Member Exchange		72,74		0.965
3.	My principal is a very pleasant person to work with.		.915	
2.	My principal is the kind of person everyone would want to be friends with.		.893	
5.	My principal defends me when I am severely criticized by other teachers.		.888	
1.	I like my principal as a person.		.876	
6.	If I made a mistake in good faith unintentionally, my principal will defend me against other teachers at the school.		.874	
12.	I appreciate the professional skills of my principal.		.864	
9.	I do not hesitate to do the hardest work for my principal.		.851	
4.	When it comes to my work, my principal defends me against their superiors even if they do not have full knowledge of the subject.		.850	
8.	I am willing to do more than I normally need to achieve the goals set by my principal.		.836	
10.	The level of knowledge of my principal's job impresses me.		.829	
11.	I respect the knowledge and competence of my school principal in job.		.790	
7.	I also do jobs for my principal that go beyond my job description.		.756	
KMO=0.937				0.965
Chi-Square Barlett's				
Test=3151.709		72,74		
P=0.000				

4.1.2. Organizational Trust Scale

As presented below in Table 9, the Cronbach α value of the Organizational Trust scale was .818 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale. The Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation is used and factors with Eigenvalues ≥ 1.00 were considered in determining the total variance explained. Item number 20 of the scale was designed as a reverse item. Although the scoring was corrected during the analysis, the item was removed from the scale because the cronbach alpha value was low. After the exclusion of this item, factor analysis applied again, and the results were presented in Table 9. According to the results, the organizational trust scale had three factors which explained the 76.4% of the total variance. The factors labeled as trust in parents and students, trust between teachers and trust in principal.

KMO coefficient was .946 which was on a significant level and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant which had a level of ≤ 0.05 .

Table 9. Factor Analysis Results of Organizational Trust Scale

Item No.	Factors of Organizational Trust	% Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
Factor I. Trust in Parents and Students		46,83		0.643
7.	Teachers in this school consider parents of students to be good parents.		.828	
12.	Teachers in this school believe that students are capable of learning.		.826	
9.	The words of the parents of the students at the school where I work are reliable.		.808	
17.	The teachers at the school where I work always feel the support of the parents of the students.		.793	
4.	At the school where I work, it is believed that students will do their part.		.752	
14.	Teachers in this school can believe what parents say.		.749	
2.	At the school where I work, students care about each other.		.726	
Factor II. Trust between Teachers		21,61		0.750
13.	You can believe what the teachers at this school are saying.		.812	
19.	At the school where I work, teachers believe in the honesty of their colleagues.		.804	
16.	At the school where I work, teachers support each other even if they are in a difficult situation.		.797	
8.	The teachers at the school where I work usually look after each other.		.795	
1.	Teachers trust each other at the school where I work.		.782	
6.	At the school where I work, teachers are open to each other.		.767	
10.	At the school where I work, the teachers do their job well.		.651	
Factor III. Trust in Principal		9,95		0.636
15.	Our principal has the skills to manage this school.		.859	
18.	Our principal acts in the interests of teachers.		.856	
3.	Teachers at this school trust the principal.		.825	
5.	Teachers at this school can rely on the principal.		.789	
11.	Teachers at this school believe in the honesty of the school principal.		.788	
KMO=0.946				0.818
Chi-Square Barlett's Test=4144.628		76.39		
P=0.000				

According to the analysis results, all nineteen questions were loaded into a three component with factor loads between .65 and .86 for each question. These results are similar to the analysis results of the original scale.

4.1.3. Social Capital in Schools Scale

As presented below in Table 10, the Cronbach α value of the social capital scale was .905 which represents the high internal reliability of the scale. The Maximum Likelihood Analysis with Varimax Rotation is used and factors with Eigenvalues ≥ 1.00 were considered in determining the total variance explained. Factor analysis results were presented in Table 10. According to the results, the social capital scale had three factors which explained the 78.9% of the total variance. The factors labeled as relational social capital, structural social capital, and cognitive social capital. KMO coefficient was .963 which was on a significant level and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant which had a level of ≤ 0.05 .

According to the analysis results, all twenty-six questions were loaded into a three component with factor loads between .57 and .87 for each question. These results are similar to the analysis results of the original scale.

Table 10. Factor Analysis Results of Social Capital in Schools Scale

Item No.	Factors of Social Capital	% Variance Explained	Factor Loading	Cronbach α
Factor I. Relational Social Capital		50.15		0.905
20.	Willingness and openness to communication and information sharing is a shared value.		.873	
21.	Openness to criticism and different opinions is a shared value.		.855	
19.	There is an understanding that supports teamwork and cooperation.		.841	
17.	If I share my problems with my colleagues, they will react in a constructive and caring way.		.825	
25.	I feel myself as a whole with all the schools and teachers.		.821	
22.	Unwritten rules support information sharing.		.797	
18.	We make significant emotional investments in each other in our business relationships.		.774	
26.	The values of willingness and openness to communication and information sharing drive me to act in this direction.		.765	
24.	I find the shared values compatible with my own values.,		.762	
23.	Willingness and openness to communication and information sharing compel me to act similarly.		.748	
14.	We have a sharing relationship with my colleagues. We can freely share our ideas, feelings and hopes.		.726	
15.	I can freely discuss my work challenges with my colleagues and they would like to listen to me.		.722	
16.	If one of my colleagues is transferred somewhere, both they and we will feel lonely.		.694	
13.	The success stories told are a guide for individuals and units in keeping, sharing and storing information and values.		.567	
Factor II. Structural Social Capital		17.62		0.792
5.	The communication system allows information from different units and people to be transmitted to other people in a timely manner.		.847	
4.	Communication channels allow the dissemination of information available in different units and persons.		.818	
6.	The communication network provides the people in the network with the opportunity to be aware of the opportunities to share and distribute their information.		.816	
3.	Communication channels allow the sharing of information available in different units and persons.		.800	
7.	The communication channel has a large number of people and units to share information and knowledge.		.766	
8.	The communication channel allows people and units who want to share their information to easily join the communication network.		.761	
2.	Communication channels allow me to access information that others have.		.670	
9.	Organizational understanding enables communication and relationships based on different individual and cultural values.		.666	
1.	There are communication channels through which we can share our information with others.		.652	
Factor III. Cognitive Social Capital		10.74		0.831
11.	The common language we use provides efficiency in obtaining, interpreting and understanding owned and shared information.		.756	
12.	The common language we use makes it easy to obtain new information from existing information.		.722	
10.	We use common terms, expressions, and phrases to make it easier for us to understand and communicate with each other.		.692	
KMO=0.963				0.905
Chi-Square Barlett's Test=8058.084		78.88		
P=0.000				

4.2. Correlation Analysis Findings

After completing the factor analysis and its results, the correlation analysis was applied by Pearson Correlation test to reveal the level of relations between all the dependent, independent, and moderating variables of the study.

According to the factor analysis results of the study, the first factors of all the scales explained more than 30% of the total variance (Çokluk, Şekercioğlu and Büyüköztürk, 2016, p.227).

The correlation matrix demonstrated in Table 11 which shows the bivariate correlations between the variables of interest and the correlation levels between the variables as the very weak, weak, moderate, strong, and very strong (Engelbrecht and Aswegen, 2009).

Table 11. Pearson Correlation Coefficient Interpretation	
Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r)	Correlation
0.00 – 0.25	very weak correlation
0.26 – 0.49	weak correlation
0.50 – 0.69	moderate correlation
0.70 – 0.89	strong correlation
0.90 – 1.00	very strong correlation

Following these coefficient evaluations, the inter-correlations between all variables of the study can be found in the Appendix II.

According to the interpretations in Table 12, the correlation coefficient results between the variables of the study can be summarized as below. In this study, although no sub-hypotheses have been proposed, further analyzes were performed over the sub-dimensions of each of the constructs in order to see the correlations among the sub-dimensions. Therefore, also the relations between independent and dependent variables' sub-dimensions were examined. As a result, the following findings are obtained.

Table 12. Correlation Result of the Variables

No		SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.	Leader-Member Exchange	1,24	1	.765**	.607**	.468**	.902**	.561**	.579**	.555**	.539**
2	Organizational Trust	1,00		1	.734**	.833**	.855**	.888**	.763**	.603**	.651**
3	Social Capital	1,04			1	.572**	.600**	.723**	.917**	.902**	.931**
4	Trust in Parents and Students	1,11				1	.515**	.663**	.583**	.452**	.535**
5	Trust in Principal	1,29					1	.645**	.597**	.532**	.524**
6	Trust between Teachers	1,10						1	.798**	.568**	.623**
7	Relational Social Capital	1,13							1	.737**	.787**
8	Structural Social Capital	1,07								1	.761**
9	Cognitive Social Capital	1,20									1

N=226, ** p< .001, (2-tailed)

The summary of the statistical findings regarding the sub-dimensions of the variables are interpreted as follows.

- Positive relations were found between leader-member exchange and relational social capital, structural social capital and cognitive social capital ($r=0.579$; $p<.001$, $r=0.555$; $p<.001$, $r=0.539$; $p<.001$).
- Positive relations were found between trust in parents and students, trust in principal, trust between teachers and relational social capital ($r=0.583$; $p<.001$, $r=0.597$; $p<.001$, $r=0.798$; $p<.001$).
- Positive relations were found between trust in parents and students, trust in principal, trust between teachers and structural social capital ($r=0.452$; $p<.001$, $r=0.532$; $p<.001$, $r=0.568$; $p<.001$).

- Positive relations were found between trust in parents and students, trust in principal, trust between teachers and cognitive social capital which ($r=0.535$; $p<.001$, $r=0.524$; $p<.001$, $r=0.623$; $p<.001$).

Moreover, correlation analysis showed that leader-member exchange has a significant positive correlation with social capital. For this reason, H1 of the study is supported. Additionally, the results revealed that organizational trust has a significant correlation with social capital. Therefore, H2 of the study is also supported.

4.3. Moderation Analysis Findings

As mentioned in the hypothesis development section of the study, organizational trust was considered to play a moderator role between leader-member exchange and social capital in hypothesis H3. Moderating variable plays an important role in the relationship between independent and dependent variable. Moderation helps to understand the question of what conditions make the relationship stronger or weaker between independent variable and dependent variable (Musairah, 2015). Thus, the moderator variable with an interaction effect with the independent variable, changes the direction or the strength of the relationship between the variables (Baron and Kenny, 2006). In order to test the moderating role of organizational trust perceptions of the teachers, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted, and the interaction effect was analyzed. Additionally, further analyzes were performed over the sub-dimensions in order to see the moderation effects of each sub-dimensions of organizational trust construct. The findings obtained are presented in the following part.

4.3.1. Moderator Analysis of Trust in Parents and Students between Leader-Member Exchange and Relational Social Capital

The results of the analysis of the moderator role of trust in parents and students between leader-member exchange and relational social capital are presented in Table 13. Leader-member exchange was entered the analysis for analyzing the main effect in the first step. Secondly, trust in parents and students entered the analysis for defining the explanatory power of the model. Finally, the interaction effect between the variables was analyzed.

According to Table 13, a regression model was statistically significant ($R=.678$; $R^2=.460$; $F=94.89$; $p=0.000$) and leader-member exchange appeared to be a statistically significant predictor of relational social capital ($\beta=.791$; $t=14.2017$; $p=0.000$). The effect of leader-member exchange on relational social capital was significant in case trust in parents and students was included in model.

Table 13. The Moderator Role of Trust in Parents and Students between Leader-Member Exchange and Relational Social Capital

Variable	β	t	p			
Leader-Member Exchange	.579	10.630	.000			
Trust in Parents and Students	.399	7.168	.000			
LMX x Trust in Parents and Students	.791	14.207	.000			
Model Summary	R	R ²	R ² Change	F	F Change	p
	.678	.460	.12	94.89	51.38	.000

** $p < .001$

Table 13 showed that the interaction effect was significant ($\beta=.406$; $t=7.168$; $p=0.000$) and the adjusted R square for the interaction term was increased .12. According to the Cohen's classification system for R^2 values, trust in parents and students had a small moderator effect on the relationship between leader-member exchange and relational social capital (Cohen, 1988). Thus, it can be safely assumed that as the degree of trust in parents and students of the teachers increases, the effect of leader-member exchange on relational social capital increases.

4.3.2. Moderator Analysis of Trust in Principal between Leader-Member Exchange and Relational Social Capital

The results of the analysis of the moderator role of trust in principal¹ between leader-member exchange and relational social capital are presented in Table 14. Leader-member exchange was entered the analysis for analyzing the main effect in the first step.

¹ As mentioned in the earlier part of the study, trust in manager, trust in supervisor and trust in principal have been used commonly in the literature. Since the current research study was performed within an educational setting, the manager is usually accepted as the school administrator or principle. Therefore, the relevant dimension has been named as "trust in principle" in accordance with the research context.

Secondly, trust in principal entered the analysis for defining the explanatory power of the model. Finally, the interaction effect between the variables was analyzed.

Table 14. The Moderator Role of Trust in Principal between Leader-Member Exchange and Relational Social Capital

Variable	β	t	p			
Leader-Member Exchange	.579	10.630	.000			
Trust in Principal	.399	3.229	.001			
LMX x Trust in Principal	.618	5.005	.001			
Model Summary	R	R ²	R ² Change	F	F Change	P
	.604	.365	.030	64.086	10.424	.001

** p< .001

According to Table 14, regression model was statistically significant ($R=.678$; $R^2= .365$; $F=64.086$; $p=0.001$). The effect of leader-member exchange on relational social capital was significant in case trust in principal was included in model. The Table 14 showed that the interaction effect was significant ($\beta=.618$; $t= 5.005$; $p=0.001$) and the adjusted R square for the interaction term was increased .030. According to the Cohen's classification system for R^2 values, trust in principal had a small moderator effect on the relationship between leader-member exchange and relational social capital (Cohen, 1988). Thus, it can be expected that as the degree of trust in the principal of the teachers' increases, the effect of leader-member exchange on relational social capital increases.

4.3.3. Moderator Analysis of Trust between Teachers between Leader-Member Exchange and Relational Social Capital

The results of the analysis of the moderator role of trust between teachers between leader-member exchange and relational social capital are presented in Table 15. Leader-member exchange was entered the analysis for analyzing the main effect in the first step. Secondly, trust between teachers entered the analysis for defining the explanatory power of the model. Finally, the interaction effect between the variables was analyzed.

Table 15. The Moderator Role of Trust between Teachers between Leader-Member Exchange and Relational Social Capital

Variable	β	t	p
Leader-Member Exchange	.579	10.630	.000
Trust between Teachers	.690	14.654	.000
LMX x Trust between Teachers	.882	18.731	.000

Model Summary	R	R ²	R ² Change	F	F Change	P
	.813	.661	.326	217.766	214.766	.000

** p< .001

According to Table 15, a regression model was statistically significant ($R=.813$; $R^2=.661$; $F=217.766$; $p=0.000$). The effect of leader-member exchange of relational social capital was significant in case trust between teachers was included with model. The Table 15 showed that the interaction effect was significant ($\beta=.882$; $t=18.731$; $p=0.000$) and the adjusted R square for the interaction term was increased .326. According to the Cohen's classification system for R^2 values, trust between teachers had a high moderator effect on the relationship between leader-member exchange and relational social capital (Cohen, 1988). Thus, it can be expected that as the degree of trust between teachers' increases, the effect of leader-member exchange on relational social capital increases.

4.3.4. Moderator Analysis of Trust in Parents and Students between Leader-Member Exchange and Structural Social Capital

The results of the analysis of the moderator role of trust in parents and students between leader-member exchange and structural social capital are presented in Table 16. Leader-member exchange was entered the analysis for analyzing the main effect in the first step. Secondly, trust in parents and students entered the analysis for defining the explanatory power of the model. Finally, the interaction effect between the variables was analyzed.

Table 16. The Moderator Role of Trust in Parents and Students between Leader-Member Exchange and Structural Social Capital

Variable	β	t	p			
Leader-Member Exchange	.555	9.995	.000			
Trust in Parents and Studens	.246	4.046	.000			
LMX x Trust in Parents and Studens	.686	11.281	.000			
Model Summary	R	R ²	R ² Change	F	F Change	P
	.596	.356	.047	61.566	16.368	.000

** p< .001

According to Table 16, a regression model was statistically significant ($R=.596$; $R^2=.356$; $F=61.566$; $p=0.000$). The effect of leader-member exchange of structural social capital was significant in case trust in parents and students was included in the model. The Table 16 showed that the interaction effect was significant ($\beta=.686$; $t=11.281$; $p=0.000$) and the adjusted R square for the interaction term was increased .047. According to the Cohen's classification system for R^2 values, trust in parents and students had a small moderator effect on the relationship between leader-member exchange and structural social capital (Cohen, 1988). Thus, it can be expected that as the degree of trust in parents and students' increases, the effect of leader-member exchange on structural social capital increases.

4.3.5. Moderator Analysis of Trust in Principal between Leader-Member Exchange and Structural Social Capital

The results of the analysis of the moderator role of trust in principal between leader-member exchange and structural social capital are presented in Table 17. Leader-member exchange was entered the analysis for analyzing the main effect in the first step. Secondly, trust in principal entered the analysis for defining the explanatory power of the model. Finally, the interaction effect between the variables was analyzed.

Table 17. The Moderator Role of Trust in Principal between Leader-Member Exchange and Structural Social Capital

Variable	β	t	p			
Leader-Member Exchange	.555	9.995	.000			
Trust in Principal	.166	1.296	.196			
LMX x Trust in Principal	.571	4.452	.196			
Model Summary	R	R ²	R ² Change	F	F Change	p
	.560	.314	.005	50.945	1.678	.196

** p< .001

According to Table 17, a regression model was not statistically significant ($R=.560$; $R^2=.314$; $F=50.945$; $p=0.196$). The effect of leader-member exchange of structural social capital was not significant in case trust in principal was included with model. The Table 17 showed that the interaction effect was not significant ($\beta=.571$; $t=4.452$; $p=0.196$).

4.3.6. Moderator Analysis of Trust between Teachers between Leader-Member Exchange and Structural Social Capital

The results of the analysis of the moderator role of trust between teachers between leader-member exchange and structural social capital are displayed in Table 18. Leader-member exchange was entered the analysis for analyzing the main effect in the first step. Secondly, trust between teachers entered the analysis for defining the explanatory power of the model. Finally, the interaction effect between the variables was analyzed.

Table 18. The Moderator Role of Trust between Teachers between Leader-Member Exchange and Structural Social Capital

Variable	β	t	p
Leader-Member Exchange	.555	9.995	.000
Trust between Teachers	.375	6.003	.000
LMX x Trust between Teachers	.720	11.531	.000

Model Summary	R	R ²	R ² Change	F	F Change	P
	.555	.636	.096	75.786	36.037	.000

** p< .001

According to Table 18, a regression model was statistically significant ($R=.555$; $R^2=.636$; $F=75.786$; $p=0.000$). The effect of leader-member exchange of structural social capital was significant in case trust between teachers was included with model. The Table 18 showed that the interaction effect was significant ($\beta=.720$; $t=11.531$; $p=0.000$) and the adjusted R square for the interaction term was increased .096. According to the Cohen's classification system for R^2 values, trust between teachers had a small moderator effect on the relationship between leader-member exchange and structural social capital (Cohen, 1988). Thus, it is inferred that as the degree of trust between teachers' increases, the effect of leader-member exchange on structural social capital increases.

4.3.7. Moderator Analysis of Trust in Parents and Students between Leader-Member Exchange and Cognitive Social Capital

The results of the analysis of the moderator role of trust in parents and students between leader-member exchange and structural social capital are illustrated in Table 19. Leader-member exchange was entered the analysis for analyzing the main effect in the first step. Second, trust in parents and students entered the analysis for defining the explanatory power of the model. Finally, the interaction effect between the variables was analyzed.

Table 19. The Moderator Role of Trust in Parents and Students between Leader-Member Exchange and Cognitive Social Capital

Variable	β	t	p			
Leader-Member Exchange	.539	9.571	.000			
Trust in Parents and Studens	.362	6.131	.000			
LMX x Trust in Parents and Studens	.731	12.382	.000			
Model Summary	R	R ²	R ² Change	F	F Change	P
	.627	.393	.102	72.078	37.585	.000

** p< .001

According to Table 19, a regression model was statistically significant ($R=.627$; $R^2=.393$; $F=72.078$; $p=0.000$). The effect of leader-member exchange on cognitive social capital was significant in case trust in parents and students was included in model. The Table 19 showed that the interaction effect was significant ($\beta=.731$; $t=12.382$; $p=0.000$) and the adjusted R square for the interaction term was increased .102. According to the Cohen's classification system for R^2 values, trust in parents and students had a small moderator effect on the relationship between leader-member exchange and cognitive social capital (Cohen, 1988). Thus, it can be suggested that as the degree of trust in parents and students' increases, the effect of leader-member exchange on cognitive social capital increases.

4.3.8. Moderator Analysis of Trust in Principal between Leader-Member Exchange and Cognitive Social Capital

The results of the analysis of the moderator role of trust in principal between leader-member exchange and cognitive social capital are presented in Table 20. Leader-member exchange was entered the analysis for analyzing the main effect in the first step. Secondly, trust in principal entered the analysis for defining the explanatory power of the model. Finally, the interaction effect between the variables was examined.

Table 20. The Moderator Role of Trust in Principal between Leader-Member Exchange and Cognitive Social Capital

Variable	β	t	p			
Leader-Member Exchange	.539	9.571	.000			
Trust in Principal	.206	1.586	.114			
LMX x Trust in Principal	.559	1.586	.114			
Model Summary	R	R ²	R ² Change	F	F Change	p
	.546	.298	.008	47.372	2.515	.114

** p< .001

According to Table 20, a regression model was not statistically significant ($R=.546$; $R^2=.298$; $F=47.372$; $p=0.114$). The effect of leader-member exchange on cognitive social capital was not significant in case trust in principal was included in model. The Table 20 showed that the interaction effect was not significant ($\beta=.559$; $t=1.586$; $p=0.114$).

4.3.9. Moderator Analysis of Trust between Teachers between Leader-Member Exchange and Structural Social Capital

The results of the analysis of the moderator role of trust between teachers between leader-member exchange and structural social capital are presented in Table 21. Leader-member exchange was entered the analysis for analyzing the main effect in the first step. Secondly, trust between teachers entered the analysis for defining the explanatory power of the model. Finally, the interaction effect between the variables was analyzed.

Table 21. The Moderator Role of Trust between Teachers between Leader-Member Exchange and Cognitive Social Capital

Variable	β	t	p			
Leader-Member Exchange	.539	9.571	.000			
Trust between Teachers	.468	7.729	.000			
LMX x Trust between Teachers	.744	12.292	.000			
Model Summary	R	R ²	R ² Change	F	F Change	p
	.663	.440	.096	87.686	59.739	.000

** p< .001

According to Table 21, a regression model was statistically significant ($R=.663$; $R^2=.440$; $F=59.739$; $p=0.000$). The effect of leader-member exchange on cognitive social capital was significant in case trust between teachers was included in model. The Table 21 showed that the interaction effect was significant ($\beta=.744$; $t=12.292$; $p=0.000$) and the adjusted R square for the interaction term was increased .096. According to the Cohen's classification system for R^2 values, trust between teachers had a small moderator effect on the relationship between leader-member exchange and cognitive social capital (Cohen, 1988). Thus, it can be expected that as the degree of trust between teachers' increases, the effect of leader-member exchange on cognitive social capital increases.

Consequently, according to the findings of moderation analyses, it can be stated that H3 is partially supported, since perceived trust in principal dimension of organizational trust plays no statistically significant moderator role on the relationships between perceived leader-member exchange and structural social capital and cognitive social capital.

4.4. Comparative Analysis

The T-tests were conducted in order to determine whether the means of two different groups were statistically different from each other (Bhattacharjee, 2012). T-tests and Anova tests on gender, age and seniority variables were conducted to determine whether there was any difference between demographic variables.

4.4.1. Independent Samples T-Tests for Gender

The first demographic variable which the t-tests were applied was gender. The means of females and males were compared in terms of leader-member exchange, organizational trust, and social capital scores. As presented below in Table 22, no significant difference of leader-member exchange mean scores was found between females and males ($p=0.105$; $p>0.05$) with a female mean score of 4.14 and a male mean score of 4.15.

Table 22. Gender and Leader-Member Exchange Summary

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Std. Error Mean
Female	130	4.1372	1.1606	0.10179	0.10179
Male	96	4.1493	1.33869	0.13663	0.13663

Independent Sample T-Test of Gender and Leader-Member Exchange

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
2.652	0.105	-0.073	224	0.942	-0.0121	0.1668

As further, significant differences were found in the trust in parents and students and trust in principal dimensions of organizational trust mean scores between females and males ($p < 0.05$; $p < 0.05$) with a female mean score of 3.71; 4.17 and male mean score of 3.46; 4.19 which is presented below in Table 23. Trust in parents and students' scores of female teachers ($M = 3.71$) were higher than male teachers ($M = 3.46$). Trust in principal scores of female teachers ($M = 4.17$) were lower than male teachers ($M = 4.18$).

As it is presented in below Table 23, no significant differences were found in the trust between the teachers' dimension of organizational trust mean scores between females and males ($p > 0.05$; $p > 0.05$) with a female mean score of 4.30 and male mean score of 4.36.

Table 23. Gender and Organizational Trust Summary

Organizational Trust Dimension	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Trust in Parents and Students	Female	130	3.7121	1.0248	0.0899
	Male	96	3.4583	1.2044	0.1229
Trust in Principal	Female	130	4.1723	1.1807	0.1035
	Male	96	4.1896	1.4209	0.1450
Trust between Teachers	Female	130	4.2978	1.1362	0.0996
	Male	96	4.3616	1.0591	0.1081

Independent Sample T-Test of Gender and Organizational Trust

Organizational Trust Dimension	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Trust in Parents and Students	4.657	0.032	1.707	224	0.089	0.2538	0.1486
Trust in Principal	4.394	0.037	-0.1	224	0.921	-0.0173	0.1733
Trust between Teachers	0.687	0.408	-0.429	224	0.668	-0.0638	0.1486

For last, no significant differences were found in the dimensions of social capital mean scores between females and males ($p>0.05$; $p>0.05$; $p>0.05$) with a female mean score of 4.27; 4.38; 4.20 and male mean score of 4.25; 4.32; 4.28 which is presented below in Table 24.

Table 24. Independent Sample T-Test of Gender and Social Capital

Social Capital Dimension	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Relational Social Capital	Female	130	4.272	1.0983	0.0963
	Male	96	4.251	1.1709	0.1195
Structural Social Capital	Female	130	4.382	1.0183	0.0893
	Male	96	4.322	1.1407	0.1164
Cognitive Social Capital	Female	130	4.320	1.1430	0.1002
	Male	96	4.278	1.2893	0.1316

Independent Sample T-Test of Gender and Social Capital

Social Capital Dimension	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Relational Social Capital	0.257	0.612	0.135	224	0.893	0.0205	0.1520
Structural Social Capital	1.068	0.303	0.418	224	0.676	0.0603	0.1442
Cognitive Social Capital	1.292	0.257	0.263	224	0.793	0.0427	0.1625

4.4.2. One-Way Anova Tests for Age

The other variable tested as demographic variable was an age of a sample. In order to determine whether there is a difference in between age levels, Anova tests were applied. According to the results, there were significant difference between leader-member exchange with relation to age, which was categorized into three different levels in the questionnaires as 22-35, 36-45, and 46+. As presented below in Table 25, significant differences were found on the leader-member exchange mean scores

between age groups with a mean score of 4.48, 4.19 and 3.95 ($p=0.046$). Leader-member exchange scores of teachers who aged between 22-35 ($M=3.38$) were higher than teachers who aged between 36-45 ($M=4.19$) and teachers who aged 46+ ($M=3.95$)

Table 25. Age and Leader-Member Exchange Summary

Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
22-35	47	4.4787	1.17601	.17154
36-45	76	4.1952	1.15483	.13247
46+	103	3.9498	1.29491	.12759

ANOVA Test of Age and Leader-Member Exchange

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9.347	2	4.674	3.1140	0.0460
Within Groups	334.67	223	1.501		
Total	344.02	225			

As presented below in Table 26, no significant differences were found on the organizational trust mean scores between age groups with a mean score of 3.53, 3.59, 3.64; 4.35, 4.20, 4.08; 4.39, 4.26, 4.34 ($p=0.843$; $p=0.484$; $p=0.802$).

Table 26. Anova Test of Age and Organizational Trust

Organizational Trust Dimension	Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Trust in Parents and Students	22-35	47	3.5319	1.20215	0.17535
	36-45	76	3.594	1.19273	0.13682
	46+	103	3.6449	1.00596	0.09912
Trust in Principal	22-35	47	4.3532	1.29562	0.18899
	36-45	76	4.2026	1.28602	0.14752
	46+	103	4.0835	1.28323	0.12644
Trust between Teachers	22-35	47	4.3951	1.11742	0.16299
	36-45	76	4.2632	1.23223	0.14135
	46+	103	4.3384	0.99739	0.09828

Anova Test of Age and Organizational Trust

Organizational Trust Dimension		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Trust in Parents and Students	Between Groups	0.424	2	0.212	0.171	0.843
	Within Groups	276.393	223	1.239		
	Total	276.817	225			
Trust in Principal	Between Groups	2.408	2	1.204	0.727	0.484
	Within Groups	369.218	223	1.656		
	Total	371.626	225			
Trust between Teachers	Between Groups	0.54	2	0.27	0.221	0.802
	Within Groups	272.786	223	1.223		
	Total	273.326	225			

Lastly, as presented below in Table 27, no significant differences were found on the social capital mean scores between age groups with a mean score of 4.45, 4.22, 4.22; 4.60, 4.29, 4.29; 4.56, 4.31, 4.18 ($p=0.457$; $p=0.202$; $p=0.197$).

Table 27. Anova Test of Age and Social Capital

Social Capital Dimension	Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Relational Social Capital	22-35	47	4.4468	1.08373	0.15808
	36-45	76	4.2152	1.17892	0.13523
	46+	103	4.215	1.10979	0.10935
Structural Social Capital	22-35	47	4.6052	0.94047	0.13718
	36-45	76	4.2924	1.13469	0.13016
	46+	103	4.2902	1.06939	0.10537
Cognitive Social Capital	22-35	47	4.5603	1.02883	0.15007
	36-45	76	4.3114	1.28275	0.14714
	46+	103	4.178	1.21161	0.11938

Anova Test of Age and Social Capital

Social Capital Dimension		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Relational Social Capital	Between Groups	1.999	2	0.999	0.785	0.457
	Within Groups	283.892	223	1.273		
	Total	285.891	225			
Structural Social Capital	Between Groups	3.672	2	1.836	1.613	0.202
	Within Groups	253.898	223	1.139		
	Total	257.571	225			
Cognitive Social Capital	Between Groups	4.726	2	2.363	1.637	0.197
	Within Groups	321.835	223	1.443		
	Total	326.561	225			

4.4.3. One-Way Anova Tests for Seniority

The other variable tested as demographic variable was seniority of the sample. In order to determine whether there is a difference in respect to the seniority level, Anova tests were applied. However, teachers with 1-5, 6-10 years of seniority were less than 30 (Durmuş, Yurtkoru and Çinko, 2013; p. 132), therefore the population were

grouped in two categories as (1) 1-15 years of seniority, and (2) 16+ years of seniority. As presented below in Table 28, no significant differences were found on the leader-member exchange mean scores between seniority groups with a mean score of 4.34, and 4.05 ($p=0.092$).

Table 28. Seniority and Leader-Member Exchange Summary

Seniority	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
1-15 Years	74	4.3412	1.16790	.13577
16+ Years	152	4.0455	1.26097	.10228

ANOVA Test of Seniority and Leader-Member Exchange

	df	Mean Square	Sum of Squares	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1	4.352	4.352	2.8700	0.0920
Within Groups	224	1.516	339.667		
Total	225		344.019		

As presented below in Table 29, no significant differences were found in the trust in principal and trust between teachers' dimensions of organizational trust mean scores between seniority groups with a mean score of 4.26, 4.24; 4.32, 4.32 ($p=0.516$; $p=0.996$). A significant difference was found in the trust in parents and students' dimension of organizational trust means scores between seniority groups with a mean score of 3.38, 3.70 ($p=0.05$). Trust in parents and students' scores of teachers with seniority of 1-15 years ($M=3.38$) were lower than scores of teachers with 16+ years of seniority ($M=3.70$).

Table 29. Anova Test of Seniority and Organizational Trust

Organizational Trust Dimension	Seniority	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Trust in Parents and Students	1-15	74	3.3977	1.14243	0.13281
	16+	152	3.7049	1.0822	0.08778
Trust in Principal	1-15	74	4.2595	1.26132	0.14663
	16+	152	4.1408	1.29897	0.10536
Trust between Teachers	1-15	74	4.3243	1.09675	0.12749
	16+	152	4.3252	1.10842	0.0899

Anova Test of Seniority and Organizational Trust

Organizational Trust Dimension		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Trust in Parents and Students	Between Groups	4.697	1	4.697	3.866	0.05
	Within Groups	272.12	224	1.215		
	Total	276.817	225			
Trust in Principal	Between Groups	0.701	1	0.701	0.423	0.516
	Within Groups	370.925	224	1.656		
	Total	371.626	225			
Trust between Teachers	Between Groups	0	1	0	0	0.996
	Within Groups	273.326	224	1.22		
	Total	273.326	225			

Lastly, as presented below in Table 30, significant differences were found on the social capital mean scores between seniority groups with a mean score of 4.35, 4.22; 4.42, 4.32; 4.42, 4.24 ($p=0.44$; $p=0.50$; $p=0.27$).

Table 30. Anova Test of Seniority and Social Capital

Social Capital Dimension	Seniority	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Relational Social Capital	1-15	74	4.3465	1.07502	0.12497
	16+	152	4.2227	1.15307	0.09353
Structural Social Capital	1-15	74	4.4249	1.00133	0.1164
	16+	152	4.3231	1.10346	0.0895
Cognitive Social Capital	1-15	74	4.4279	1.16979	0.13599
	16+	152	4.2412	1.2205	0.099

Anova Test of Seniority and Social Capital

Social Capital Dimension		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Relational Social Capital	Between Groups	0.763	1	0.763	0.599	0.44
	Within Groups	285.129	224	1.273		
	Total	285.891	225			
Structural Social Capital	Between Groups	0.516	1	0.516	0.45	0.50
	Within Groups	257.055	224	1.148		
	Total	257.571	225			
Cognitive Social Capital	Between Groups	1.735	1	1.735	1.196	0.27
	Within Groups	324.826	224	1.45		
	Total	326.561	225			

Relational social capital scores of teachers with seniority of 1-15 years (M=4.35) were higher than scores of teachers with 16+ years of seniority (M=4.22). Structural social capital scores of teachers with seniority of 1-15 years (M=4.42) were lower than scores of teachers with 16+ years of seniority (M=4.24). Cognitive social capital scores of teachers with seniority of 1-15 years (M=4.42) were higher than scores of teachers with 16+ years of seniority (M=4.24).

5. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The aim of this study is to examine the relationships between leader-member exchange, organizational trust, and social capital in line with teachers' views. This study was based on a correlation survey and should be referred to the characteristics of the sample, which represents the education sector. In this section, the results of the study will be discussed with an emphasis on previous conceptual and theoretical explanations and empirical research results, and what implications can be in terms of theoretical and practical aspects will be examined.

5.1. Conclusion of the Study

Based on the purpose of the study, Leader-Member Exchange scale was used (Liden and Maslyn, 1998). According to the results of the study, all these items were loaded in only one factor, also named leader-member exchange. In the research on organizational trust levels of teachers, Hoy and Tschannen-Moran's organizational trust scale was used (2003). Item number 20 of the scale was designed as a reverse item. Although the scoring was corrected during the analysis, the item was removed from the scale because the cronbach alpha value was low. Tschannen-Moran's (2003) scale had 3 dimensions as trust in principal, trust in parents and students, and trust between teacher and in the study, it was used successfully with these three factors as in the original. Lastly, the social capital scale used in the study was compiled from Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998), Moran and Ghoshal (1996) and Tsai and Ghoshal (1998). It was consisted of 26 items that measure the structural, relational, and cognitive dimensions of the concept. Each dimension of the scale was used successfully as in the original.

The first finding related with the hypothesis of the study was that the relation between leader-member exchange and the social capital of the teachers was significant. A moderate positive correlation was found ($r=0.579$) between leader-member exchange and relational social capital ($p=.000$). A moderate positive correlation was found ($r=0.555$) between leader-member exchange and structural social capital ($p=.000$). A moderate positive correlation ($r=0.539$) between leader-member exchange and cognitive social capital ($p=.000$). These results emphasize that social capital levels are increased when they have higher leader-member exchange level. Thus, the results supported H1.

The second finding related with the hypothesis of the study was that the relation between organizational trust and the social capital of the teachers was significant. A moderate positive correlation ($r=0.583$) between trust in parents and students and relational social capital ($p=.000$). A weak positive correlation was found ($r=0.452$) between trust in parents and students and structural social capital ($p=.000$). A moderate positive correlation was found ($r=0.535$) between trust in parents and students and cognitive social capital ($p=.000$). A moderate positive correlation was found ($r=0.645$) between trust in principal and trust between teachers ($p=.000$). A moderate positive correlation was found ($r=0.595$) between trust in principal and relational social capital ($p=.000$). A moderate positive correlation was found ($r=0.532$) between trust in principal and structural social capital ($p=.000$). A moderate positive correlation was found ($r=0.524$) between trust in principal and cognitive social capital ($p=.000$). A strong positive correlation was found ($r=0.798$) between trust between teachers and relational social capital ($p=.000$). A moderate positive correlation was found ($r=0.568$) between trust between teachers and structural social capital ($p=.000$). A moderate positive correlation was found ($r=0.623$) between trust between teachers and cognitive social capital ($p=.000$). These results emphasize that social capital levels are increased when they have higher organizational trust levels. Thus, the results supported H2.

Then, the moderating role of organizational trust was indicated as significant between relational social capital and leader-member exchange. The statistical analysis confirmed that trust in parents and students, trust in principal and trust between teachers had a full moderating role was significant ($R=.678$; $R^2=.460$; $F=94.89$; $p=0.000$); ($R=.678$; $R^2=.365$; $F=64.086$; $p=0.001$); ($R=.813$; $R^2=.661$; $F=217.766$; $p=0.000$). The moderating role of organizational trust was seen as significant between structural social capital and leader-member exchange. The statistical analysis confirmed that trust in parents and students and trust between teachers had a partial moderating role was significant ($R=.596$; $R^2=.356$; $F=61.566$; $p=0.000$); ($R=.555$; $R^2=.636$; $F=75.786$; $p=0.000$). The moderating role of organizational trust was demonstrated as significant between cognitive social capital and leader-member exchange. The statistical analysis confirmed that trust in parents and students and trust between teachers had a partial moderating role was significant ($R=.627$; $R^2=.393$; $F=72.078$; $p=0.000$); ($R=.663$; $R^2=$

.440; $F=59.739$; $p=0.000$). According to these statistical findings, H3 is partially supported.

In the study, t-tests were applied according to the demographic variables of gender, age, and seniority of the teachers regarding the variables of the study. In terms of gender, significant difference was found in the trust in parents and students and trust in principal dimensions of organizational trust mean scores between females and males ($p<0.05$; $p<0.05$) with a female mean score of 3.71; 4.17 and male mean score of 3.46;4.19 where the female teachers had higher scores when compared with men.

In terms of age, which was categorized into three different levels in the questionnaire as 22-35, 36-45, and 46+, significant difference was found with leader-member exchange with mean scores between age groups with a mean score of 4.48, 4.19 and 3.95 ($p=0.046$). So, it was confirmed that employees who were between 22 and 35 years old had higher levels of leader-member exchange, whereas they showed lower levels of leader-member exchange.

In terms of seniority which was categorized in two categories as (1) 1-15 years of seniority, and (2) 16+ years significant difference was found in the trust in parents and students' dimension of organizational trust means scores between seniority groups with a mean score of 3.38, 3.70 ($p=0.05$). As a result, it was confirmed that employees who had 16+ years of seniority had higher levels of trust in parents and students' whereas they showed lower levels of trust in parents and students. Also, significant differences were found on the social capital mean scores between seniority groups with a mean score of 4.35, 4.22; 4.42, 4.32; 4.42, 4.24 ($p=0.44$; $p=0.50$; $p=0.27$). It was confirmed that teachers who have seniority between 1-15 years have higher relational, structural, and cognitive social capital levels compared to others.

On the basis of the statistical results, it is summarized that for a teacher, having a high-level quality of leader-member exchange and a high-level of organizational trust was positively related with perceived social capital.

5.2. Discussion of the Study

In this study, the antecedents of the social capital were studied by focusing on the dimensions of organizational trust and leader-member exchange within the

educational sector. Furthermore, the dimensions of organizational trust were also investigated with their moderator roles respectively. Then, an in-depth literature review was made and nine hypotheses were set regarding the relations and moderating effects on social capital. These hypotheses were then statistically tested to evaluate the model, which was set with these hypotheses successfully.

Leader-member exchange is an important concept that is thought to have an impact on employee attitudes within the scope of social exchange theory. According to the leader-member exchange theory, the quality of the relationship between a leader and a member produces results at the individual, group and organizational level. Therefore, the strengthening of the relationship between the leader and the member results in more positive results, especially for employees. In this context, studies show that the leader-member exchange level has a positive relationship with employee attitudes and behaviors (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995; Gerstner and Day, 1997).

According to these results of the analysis, significant positive relationships were found between leader-member exchange, organizational trust and social capital. The leader-member exchange impacts the social capital behaviors of teachers, which was also in-line with the literature. There was also a significant positive relation between organizational trust and social capital behaviors of teachers as suggested initially by the literature. These results did confirm the antecedents in the initial model. Furthermore, the moderator effect of organizational trust between leader-member exchange and social capital behaviors was confirmed, which was also supported by the literature. Consequently, for this specific sample in the Turkish education sector, these results delivered a different perspective, which is contributing to the literature as well.

Organizational trust has been emphasized as an important factor in the formation of social capital in many studies defining the concept of social capital. In fact, social capital represents a resource for both societies and organizations, and it develops with the principle of reciprocity. It is stated that maintaining the relations within the organization with high trust and common values has an important place in terms of enriching social capital reserves (Field, 2006). Thus, an educational organization with widespread trust in the organization and the principal will have higher social more capital potential than the lower one.

Within this study, it has been determined that the organizational trust perceptions and leader-member exchange levels of teachers working in educational institutions at primary and high school levels have a significant effect on their evaluation of social capital structure. This effect is similar to the results of previous studies (Taştan and Davoudi, 2015). Accordingly, it is possible to say that teachers' social capital level can be positively affected by increasing the organizational trust perceptions of teachers and especially the level of trust in their relationships with their superiors.

In this study, it was determined that if teachers working in educational organizations have a high level of leader-member exchange, their evaluation of the social capital structure increases in the same direction. It is also possible to say that the social capital structure may be at a higher level in the institutions where the teachers think that the leader-member exchange in the institution they are in is high. (Miller, 2001). Thus, it can be said that the results obtained in this study are compatible with previous studies and the literature behind the concepts.

This study will also contribute to the efforts of school principals, institutions, and decision-making mechanisms within the educational organization to better regulate issues such as fundamental rights and fair sharing among teachers, and to increase trust relations in educational institutions. In addition, it can contribute to the increase of the social capital potential of educators and educational institutions by initiating efforts to base the relationships between the member-organization and the member-leader on a more positive trust basis.

The research findings show that there is a direct and positive relationship between leader-member interaction and organizational trust, similar to the literature. This result shows that as teachers' interaction with their leaders' increase, their level of trust in the organization increases positively, and a qualified leader-member exchange can be experienced. Scandura and Pellegrini (2006) stated in their study that a quality leader-member interaction cannot be mentioned in the absence of trust. In a study conducted by Wat and Shaffer (2005), it was determined that trust in manager and leader-member exchange are positively related. Similarly, in the study by Liden and Graen (1980) and Sue-Chan, Au and Hackett (2012), it was found that leader-member exchange directly and positively affects the trust in the manager.

Based on the findings of the study, it is suggested for school principals to increase their relations with teachers in practice and ensure that teachers can reach them comfortably and easily. They are advised to create a more positive, sincere, honest, and trustworthy way towards teachers in communication and show that their ideas, thoughts, and decisions are valuable and applicable while cooperating with them. In addition, principals spending more time with teachers, meeting their needs, listening to their problems, and finding solutions to problems together will support a more flexible, pluralistic, democratic and peaceful school environment in which teachers can freely and fearlessly express their ideas, projects, concerns and feelings about their work. The organizational environment should not push teachers into silence with authoritarian and oppressive practices. Finally, school principals are encouraged not to be afraid of being criticized and advised to adopt a culture of dialogue.

According to the results of the research, it is noteworthy that teachers with a high seniority level have higher leader-member exchange levels. Teachers with a high level of seniority can positively change the perspective of younger teachers towards the school, profession, and educational processes. At the same time, they can guide teachers with lower seniority in their communication with the school principal and support the increase in organizational trust levels of them. In general, the optimal environment is one in which teachers work in harmony with school principals and develop their bilateral relations.

5.3. Limitations of the Study

This study makes significant contributions to organizational behavior literature, although it has several limitations, just as with any empirical research. The first limitation of the study is that several other personal and contextual variables may serve as a moderator factor for the outcomes of the teachers in the institutions. Therefore, those variables such as, personality traits, cultural factors, evaluations of self, justice, and psychological contract, etc. could be used in order to create a wider view of understanding related to the conceptualized relationships within the research model.

Second limitation is about the data collection, which is a self-reporting method. This method may cause common method bias. During the implementation, teachers were asked to choose the score that best presents their feeling with regard to the items.

However, people may tend to choose the score that seems most appealing to others despite the fact or reality. It is recommended to the researchers for future studies to utilize multisource method for evaluating the perception of the respondents.

Another limitation of the study is that scales with high social desirability potential, such as leader-member interaction, organizational trust, and social capital, were used to investigate the employee's perceptions about their manager. Therefore, while answering items of the scales, participants may be complied with social desirability mistakes. Therefore, different methods may be used while measuring in the future studies.

Quantitative research method was used in this study. However, analyzes can be improved by adding a qualitative research method for future studies. Subsequently, the findings of the current research are valuable as it was trying to explain leader-member exchange, organizational trust, social capital, and relationships between them.

Finally, since participants of the study were selected through convenience sampling, the external validity of the study may decrease. However, the large sample size limits the negative impacts of sampling procedure on the generalizability of the results. Working with a larger sample group in future studies on post-modern concepts such as leader-member exchange and organizational trust in Turkish culture will increase the generalizability of the results and also contribute to generating a more consistent model.

5.4. Recommendations for Further Research

Based on the shortcomings of this study, some recommendations for further researches suggested as follows:

Firstly, due to the centralized structure of the Turkish educational system, teachers and principals have limited authority to participate in the decision-making processes. Therefore, further studies can examine leader-member exchange in relation with many other factors to provide a broader perspective for social capital behaviors of teachers in educational settings. Hence, the confounding effects of these variables can be avoided by gathering background information in future studies.

Secondly, the majority of the sample of the study consists of teachers working in public schools. However, in future studies, researchers can increase the

generalizability of the findings by reaching teachers working in private schools. Thus, it increases the opportunity to compare the findings of teachers working in private and public schools regarding organizational trust level and leader-member exchange.

Thirdly, the data obtained from the leader-member exchange scale in this study conducted in Turkish culture may create a problem of multiple correlations with the dimension of trust in the manager, one of the sub-dimensions of the organizational trust scale. In future studies where these variables are used together, more reliable results can be obtained with the use of a parallel leader-member exchange scale.

Finally, in consequence of the research design and statistical analysis utilized in the study, no causal relationship was obtained at the end of the study. However, a significant relationship was found between organizational trust and social capital. Therefore, further studies can utilize a research design, which brings the causal relationship organizational trust and social capital.

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APPENDIX I



Değerli Katılımcı,
Aşağıda Marmara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İngilizce İşletme Bölümü Örgütsel Davranış Ana Bilim Dalında gerçekleştirilmekte olan yüksek lisans tez çalışması için hazırlanmış anket formu yer almaktadır. Bu çalışma öğretmenlerin iş yaşamına etki eden dinamiklerin ve psiko-sosyal durumların, davranışları üzerindeki etkisini incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Yoğun bir okul hayatının koşuşturmasında sizi bir süre durup düşünmeye sevk edecek olan bu ankette yer alan her bir ifadeye belirtilen kriterler doğrultusunda içtenlikle yanıt vermenizi rica eder, katılımınızın bilimsel bir araştırmaya büyük katkı sağlayacağını hatırlatmak isteriz. Vakit ayırarak değerli değerlendirmelerinizi paylaştığınız için sizlere en içten teşekkürlerimizi sunarız.

Not: Anket içerisinde yer alan bölümlerdeki tüm ifadeleri eksiksiz yanıtlamanız, araştırmamızın geçerliliği açısından son derece önemlidir ve isim, soy-isim bilgisine ihtivaç duyulmayan bu anket araştırmacıda saklı tutulacaktır.

Saygılarımızla,

Özlem AKÇAY

Marmara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü
İngilizce İşletme Anabilim Dalı/Örgütsel Davranış Bilim Dalı
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

Bölüm I. DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİ FORMU

Bu kısımda sizinle ilgili genel bilgiler sorulmaktadır. Lütfen her bir maddeyi okuyup durumunuzu en iyi yansıtan seçeneği (X) ile işaretleyiniz.

Cinsiyet: () Kadın () Erkek

Yaş: () 22-35 () 36-45 () 46 ve üstü

Medeni hali: () Evli () Bekar () Boşanmış () Dul

Eğitim durumu: () Yüksek Öğretim Okulu () Üniversite
() Yüksek Lisans () Doktora

Okulunuzun hizmet verdiği öğretim düzeyi:
() İlköğretim () Ortaöğretim () Lise

Okulunuzun hizmet türü:
() Devlet () Özel

Mesleki kıdeminiz: () 1-5 Yıl () 6-10 yıl () 11-15 Yıl () 16+ Yıl

Mesleki durumunuz: () Kadrolu öğretmen () Sözleşmeli öğretmen
() Vekil öğretmen () Diğer

Branşınız:

Şu anda kurumunuzda herhangi idari bir görev yürütmekte misiniz?

() Evet () Hayır

Şimdiye kadar herhangi idari görev yürüttünüz mü? Evet ise, yürüttüğünüz idari görevler:

() Müdür () Müdür yardımcısı
() Diğer

Şu ana kadar herhangi bir hizmet içi eğitim aldınız mı?

() Evet () Hayır

Şu ana kadar herhangi bir kurumsal değişim projesinde görev aldınız mı?

() Evet () Hayır

Bölüm II.

Aşağıdaki maddelerde okul müdürünüzle ilişkinizi tanımlaya yönelik bir takım ifadeler yer almaktadır. Her bir maddenin size göre ne ölçüde doğru olduğunu düşününüz ve verilen ölçeğe göre değerlendiriniz. Lütfen, hiçbir ifadeyi cevapsız bırakmamaya özen gösteriniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Okul müdürümü kişi olarak çok severim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Okul müdürüm herkesin arkadaş olmak isteyeceği türden bir kişidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Okul müdürüm birlikte çalışılması çok keyifli bir insandır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Okul müdürüm, yaptığım işler söz konusu olduğunda, konu hakkında tam bilgisi olmasa dahi beni kendi üstlerine karşı savunur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Diğer öğretmenler tarafından sert bir eleştiriye uğradığımda okul müdürüm beni savunur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Şayet iyi niyetle istemeden bir hata yapmışsam, okul müdürüm okuldaki diğer öğretmenlere karşı beni savunur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Okul müdürüm için iş tanımımın ötesine geçen işleri de yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Okul müdürümün belirlediği iş hedeflerine ulaşmak için, normalde gerekenden daha fazla çaba göstermeye hazırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Okul müdürüm için en zor işleri yapmaktan kaçınmam.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Okul müdürümün işi hakkındaki bilgi düzeyi beni etkiler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Okul müdürümün işindeki bilgi ve yeterliliğine saygı duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Okul müdürümün mesleki becerilerini takdir ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Bölüm III.						
Bu kısımda sizlerin okul müdürü, diğer öğretmenler, okulunuzdaki öğrenci ve veliler ile ilişkinizi tanımlaya yönelik bir takım ifadeler yer almaktadır. Her bir maddenin size göre ne ölçüde doğru olduğunu düşününüz ve verilen ölçeğe göre değerlendiriniz. Lütfen, hiçbir ifadeyi cevapsız bırakmamaya özen gösteriniz.						
	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Çalıştığım okulda öğretmenler birbirlerine güvenirlir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Çalıştığım okulda öğrenciler birbirlerini önemserler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, okul müdürüne güvenirlir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Çalıştığım okulda öğrencilerin üzerlerine düşen görevleri yapacaklarına inanılır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, okul müdürüne itimat edebilirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Çalıştığım okulda öğretmenler birbirlerine karşı açıktırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, öğrenci velilerinin iyi birer veli olduklarını düşünürler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Çalıştığım okuldaki öğretmenler, genellikle birbirlerini gözetirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Çalıştığım okuldaki öğrenci velilerinin sözlerine güvenilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Çalıştığım okulda öğretmenler işlerini iyi yaparlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, okul müdürünün dürüstlüğüne inanırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, öğrencilerin öğrenme konusunda yetenekli olduklarına inanırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Bu okuldaki öğretmenlerin söylediklerine inanabilirsiniz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Bu okuldaki öğretmenler, velilerin söylediklerine inanabilirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Okul müdürümüz bu okulu yönetecek kabiliyetlere sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Çalıştığım okulda, zor bir durumda olsalar bile öğretmenler birbirlerine destek olurlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Çalıştığım okuldaki öğretmenler, öğrenci velilerinin desteklerini her zaman arkalarında hissederler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Okul müdürümüz, öğretmenlerin çıkarlarını gözetecek biçimde davranır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Çalıştığım okulda öğretmenler, meslektaşlarının dürüstlüğüne inanırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Bu okuldaki öğrenciler gerçek duygu ve düşüncelerini saklarlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Bölüm IV.						
Şu an çalışıyor olduğunuz okulu düşünerek aşağıdaki soruları size göre en uygun seçeneği işaretleyerek cevaplayınız. Soruların herhangi bir doğru cevabı yoktur. Lütfen, hiçbir ifadeyi cevapsız bırakmamaya özen gösteriniz.						
	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Çalıştığım okulda;						
1. Bilgilerimizi diğerleriyle paylaşabileceğimiz iletişim kanalları mevcuttur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. İletişim kanalları başkalarının sahip olduğu bilgilere erişimime olanak sağlamaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. İletişim kanalları farklı birim ve kişilerde mevcut olan bilgilerin paylaşılmasına olanak sağlamaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. İletişim kanalları farklı birim ve kişilerde mevcut olan bilgilerin dağıtılmasına olanak sağlamaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. İletişim sistemi farklı birim ve kişilerden gelen bilgilerin diğer kişilere zamanında iletilmesine olanak sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. İletişim ağı, ağ içinde bulunan kişilere bilgilerini paylaşma ve dağıtma olanaklarından haberdar olma fırsatı sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. İletişim kanalı yoğun miktarda bilgiye ve bilgi paylaşımını gerçekleştirecek çok sayıda kişi ve birime sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. İletişim kanalı, bilgisini paylaşmak isteyen kişi ve birimlerin kolayca iletişim ağına katılmasına olanak sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Örgütsel anlayış, farklı bireysel ve kültürel değerlere dayalı iletişim ve ilişkilerin oluşmasına olanak sağlamaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Birbirimizi anlamamızı ve iletişime geçmemizi kolaylaştıracak ortak terimler, ifadeler ve sözlerden oluşan bir dil kullanırız.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Kullandığımız ortak dil sahip olunan ve paylaşılan bilgileri elde etmede, yorumlamada ve anlamada etkinlik sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Kullandığımız ortak dil, mevcut bilgilerden yeni bilgiler elde edilmesinde kolaylık sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Anlatılan başarı hikâyeleri; bireyler ve birimler için bilgi ve değerlerin yaratılmasında, paylaşılmasında ve saklanmasında yol gösterici olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. İş arkadaşlarım ile paylaşımcı bir ilişkimiz vardır. Fikirlerimizi, duygularımızı ve ümitlerimizi serbestçe paylaşabiliriz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. İşle ilgili yaşadığım zorlukları iş arkadaşlarımla özgürce konuşabilirim ve onlar da beni dinlemek ister.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Bölüm IV. -Devam						
Şu an çalışıyor olduğunuz okulu düşünerek aşağıdaki soruları size göre en uygun seçeneği işaretleyerek cevaplayınız. Soruların herhangi bir doğru cevabı yoktur. Lütfen, hiçbir ifadeyi cevapsız bırakmamaya özen gösteriniz.						
	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Çalıştığım okulda;						
16. Eğer iş arkadaşlarımdan birileri bir yere transfer edilirse hem onlar hem biz yalnızlık hissederiz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Eğer iş arkadaşlarımla sorunlarımı paylaşırsam, yapıcı ve ilgili bir şekilde tepki vereceklerdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. İş arkadaşlarımla ilişkilerimizde birbirimize belirgin ölçüde duygusal yatırımlar yapıyoruz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Takım çalışmasını ve yardımlaşmayı destekleyen bir anlayış vardır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. İletişime ve bilgi paylaşımına isteklilik ve açıklık paylaşılan bir değerdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Eleştirilere ve farklı fikirlere açıklık, paylaşılan bir değerdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Yazılı olmayan kurallar bilgi paylaşımını desteklemektedir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. İletişime, bilgi paylaşımına isteklilik ve açıklık beni benzer şekilde davranmaya zorunlu kılar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. Paylaşılan değerleri kendi değerlerimle uyumlu buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Kendimi tüm okul ve öğretmenlerle bir bütün olarak hissedebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. İletişime, bilgi paylaşımına isteklilik ve açıklık değerleri beni de bu yönde davranmaya sevk ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6

**THE QUESTIONNAIRE FORM IS INVOLVING THE FOLLOWING
SECTIONS:**

SECTION I: Demographic Questions

SECTION II: Perceived Leader-Member Exchange

SECTION III: Perceived Organizational Trust

SECTION IV: Perceived Social Capital

APPENDIX II.

- a strong positive correlation ($r=0.765$) between leader-member exchange and organizational trust ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.607$) between leader-member exchange and social capital ($p=.000$)
- a weak positive correlation ($r=0.468$) between leader-member exchange and trust in parents and students ($p=.000$)
- a very strong positive correlation ($r=0.902$) between leader-member exchange and trust in principal (manager) ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.561$) between leader-member exchange and trust between teachers ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.579$) between leader-member exchange and relational social capital ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.555$) between leader-member exchange and structural social capital ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.539$) between leader-member exchange and cognitive social capital ($p=.000$)
- a strong positive correlation ($r=0.734$) between organizational trust and social capital ($p=.000$)
- a strong positive correlation ($r=0.833$) between organizational trust and trust in parents and students ($p=.000$)
- a strong positive correlation ($r=0.855$) between organizational trust and trust in principal ($p=.000$)
- a strong positive correlation ($r=0.888$) between organizational trust and trust between teachers ($p=.000$)
- a strong positive correlation ($r=0.763$) between organizational trust and relational social capital ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.603$) between organizational trust and structural social capital ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.603$) between organizational trust and structural social capital ($p=.000$)

- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.651$) between organizational trust and cognitive social capital ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.651$) between organizational trust and cognitive social capital ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.572$) between social capital and trust in parents' and students ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.600$) between social capital and trust in principal ($p=.000$)
- a strong positive correlation ($r=0.723$) between social capital and trust between teachers ($p=.000$)
- a very strong positive correlation ($r=0.917$) between social capital and relational social capital ($p=.000$)
- a very strong positive correlation ($r=0.902$) between social capital and structural social capital ($p=.000$)
- a very strong positive correlation ($r=0.931$) between social capital and cognitive social capital ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.515$) between trust in parents and students and trust in principal ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.663$) between trust in parents and students and trust between teachers ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.583$) between trust in parents and students and relational social capital ($p=.000$)
- a weak positive correlation ($r=0.452$) between trust in parents and students and structural social capital ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.535$) between trust in parents and students and cognitive social capital ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.645$) between trust in principal and trust between teachers ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.595$) between trust in principal and relational social capital ($p=.000$)

- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.532$) between trust in principal and structural social capital ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.524$) between trust in principal and cognitive social capital ($p=.000$)
- a strong positive correlation ($r=0.798$) between trust between teachers and relational social capital ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.568$) between trust between teachers and structural social capital ($p=.000$)
- a moderate positive correlation ($r=0.623$) between trust between teachers and cognitive social capital ($p=.000$)
- a strong positive correlation ($r=0.737$) between relational social capital and structural social capital ($p=.000$)
- a strong positive correlation ($r=0.787$) between relational social capital and cognitive social capital ($p=.000$)
- a strong positive correlation ($r=0.761$) between structural social capital and cognitive social capital ($p=.000$).