



REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

**THE MODERATING INFLUENCE OF IN-GROUP
COLLECTIVISM ON SOCIAL LOAFING: AN EXPERIMENTAL
STUDY ON A MANUFACTURING COMPANY**

Ph.D. THESIS

Selami KOÇAL

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION

ANKARA-2022

REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

**THE MODERATING INFLUENCE OF IN-GROUP
COLLECTIVISM ON SOCIAL LOAFING: AN EXPERIMENTAL
STUDY ON A MANUFACTURING COMPANY**

Ph.D. THESIS

Selami KOÇAL

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION

Supervisor

Prof. Dr. Kerim ÖZCAN

ANKARA-2022

APPROVAL PAGE

The Dissertation prepared by Selami KOÇAL and titled “The Moderating Influence of In-Group Collectivism on Social Loafing: An Experimental Study on a Manufacturing Company” is accepted as a doctoral thesis at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Management and Organization.

Title, Name, and Surname	Institution	Signature
Prof. Dr. Kerim ÖZCAN	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University	
Prof. Dr. Cem Harun MEYDAN	Ankara Science University	
Prof. Dr. Hasan Engin ŞENER	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University	
Doç. Dr. Mustafa ÇOLAK	Ankara Social Sciences University	
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Emre Burak EKMEKÇİOĞLU	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University	

Thesis Defense Date: June 6, 2022

I certify that this dissertation fulfills the requirements to be deemed a doctoral thesis at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Management and Organization.

Assoc. Prof. Seyfullah YILDIRIM
Acting Director of the Institute of Social Science

PLAGIARISM PAGE

I hereby declare that all information in this thesis has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all materials and results that are not original to this work; otherwise, I accept all legal responsibility. Date (.06.2022)

Selami KOÇAL

Signature:



DEDICATION

*To my beloved wife Ayşe and
Our dear children Eda & Yavuz*



ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Firstly, I would like to thank Prof. Dr. Kerim ÖZCAN for his ongoing support as my advisor during this challenging journey and for facilitating my academic growth since we started working together. I have felt his support in every step of my endeavors.

I would also like to thank Prof. Dr. Cem Harun MEYDAN and Prof. Dr. Hasan Engin ŞENER for being part of my dissertation jury and for their constructive feedback. I also want to thank my friend Dr. Necip ÖZFİDAN for assisting me with the analysis of the data.

Most importantly, I thank my wife, Ayşe KOÇAL, and our children, Eda and Yavuz Kağan, for supporting me to endure the Ph.D. process. This dissertation would not be complete without your unwavering understanding and empathy.

ABSTRACT

The Moderating Influence of In-Group Collectivism on Social Loafing: An Experimental Study on a Manufacturing Company

Social loafing is the motivation of individuals to exert less effort when working in a collective fashion rather than an individual or coactive one. This effect has been widely discussed in terms of its importance, consequences on working life, conditions on minimizing or eliminating, and generalizability. Plus, some conditional factors have been found to moderate the extent to which individuals take part in social loafing, but very little research has inquired about the influence of personal differences on personal motivations within groups. In this study, the impact of context on social loafing was investigated. We examined especially whether cultural context, particularly in-group collectivism, moderates the social loafing effects. Since 1980, culture and its consequences (Hofstede, 1980) have become a very powerful variable in most social and organizational studies. However, after Hofstede's seminal work, so many researchers studied this phenomenon and came up with some specific versions of it, one of which is in-group collectivism. In this study, as an independent variable, House et al.'s (2004) in-group collectivism cultural values were experimented with within the course of understanding and explaining its causal impact on social loafing and performance. In this study, House et al.'s (2004)' in-group collectivism cultural values were employed to understand and explain the causal mechanism between social loafing and performance. After the experiments were implemented and the causal mechanism tested with the analyses, the findings and the results demonstrated that all three hypotheses were supported, meaning that in-group cultural values moderate the relationship between social loafing and performance.

Keywords: social loafing, cultural values, in-group collectivism, reduced effort, the GLOBE Cultural Study

ÖZ

Grup İçi Kolektivizmin Sosyal Kaytarma Üzerinde Düzenleyici Etkisi: Bir İmalat Şirketi Üzerinde DeneySEL Bir Çalışma

Sosyal kaytarma, insanların bireysel veya ortaklaşa çalışmaktan ziyade kolektif bir şekilde çalışırken daha az çaba sarf etme yönündeki motivasyonudur. Bu etki, önemi, çalışma hayatı üzerindeki sonuçları, azaltma veya tamamen ortadan kaldırma koşulları ve genellenebilirliği açısından çok geniş çapta literatürde tartışılmıştır. Ayrıca, bazı durumsal faktörlerin, bireylerin sosyal kaytarmaya katılma derecesini azalttığı bulunmuştur, ancak kişisel farklılıkların grup içindeki bireysel motivasyon üzerindeki etkisi hakkında çok az araştırma yapılmıştır. Bu çalışmada bağlamın sosyal kaytarma üzerindeki etkisi araştırılmış olup, kültürel bağlamın, özellikle grup içi toplulukçuluğun, sosyal kaytarma etkilerini azaltıp azaltmadığını incelenmiştir. 1980'den beri kültür ve sonuçları (Hofstede, 1980), çoğu sosyal ve örgütsel çalışmada çok güçlü bir değişken olarak incelenen bir faktör olmuştur. Bununla birlikte, Hofstede'nin kültürel değişkene yönelik bu ufuk açıcı çalışmalarından sonra, pek çok araştırmacı bu fenomeni (kültür) incelemiş ve birçok alt boyutlarını ve versiyonlarını bulmuştur. Bunlardan bir tanesi ise, House ve arkadaşlarının (2004) bulmuş oldukları grup içi toplulukçuluk (*in-group collectivism*) kültürel değer olmuştur. Bu çalışmada bağımsız değişken olarak House ve ark. (2004)'nın grup içi toplulukçuluk kültürel değerlerin sosyal kaytarma ve performans üzerindeki nedensel etkisi anlamaya ve açıklamaya çalışılmıştır. Deneyler yapıldıktan ve analizlerle nedensel mekanizma test edildikten sonra elde edilen bulgular öne sürülen üç hipotezin de desteklendiğini, yani grup içi kültürel değerlerin sosyal kaytarma ve performans arasındaki ilişkiyi düzenlediğini göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: sosyal kaytarma, kültürel değerler, grup içi toplulukçuluk, azaltılan çaba, GLOBE Kültürel Çalışma

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	i
ÖZ	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	v
LIST OF FIGURES	vi
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. CONCEPTUAL / THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES.....	6
2.1. The Conceptual Roots of Social Loafing	6
2.2. Antecedents of Social Loafing	10
2.3. Coordination Loss or Reduced Effort?.....	11
2.4. Typical (Low) and Maximum (High) Performance	12
2.5. Group Cohesiveness	14
2.6. Personality Traits.....	14
2.7. Reward and Punishment.....	15
2.8. Participant's Expectations.....	16
2.9. Providing Feedback.....	16
2.10. Boosting Involvement	16
2.11. Two Related Effects and Their Scopes	17
2.11.1. Free-Rider Effect.....	17
2.11.2. Sucker Effect.....	18
2.12. Contextual (Individualistic vs Collectivistic Culture) Aspect of Social Loafing	19
2.13. Linking Cultural Values to Social Loafing	20
3. METHOD	22
3.1. Sample	22
3.2. The Experiment Field.....	23
3.3. Task	23
3.4. Design.....	25
3.5. Procedure and Manipulations	25
3.6. Data Collection Instruments	25
3.6.1. Condition 1 (Low In-Group Collectivist Participants)	26
3.6.2. Condition 2 (High In-Group Collectivist Participants).....	26
3.7. Manipulations Check.....	28

4. MEASURES	29
4.1. Independent Variables	29
4.1.1. In-Group Collectivism.....	29
4.1.2. Social Loafing	31
4.2. Dependent Variable	31
4.2.1. Performance	31
4.3. Control Variables	31
4.3.1. Need for Affiliation (nAff).....	32
4.3.2. Need for Achievement (nAch)	32
5. APPLICATION OF THE EXPERIMENT AND PROBLEMS FACED	34
6. ANALYSES AND FINDINGS	36
6.1. The Case of Low Collectivist Groups	37
6.2. The Case of High Collectivist Groups	39
6.3. Comparison of Low and High in-Group Collectivist Experimental Groups	41
6.4. The Effect of Control Variables on Performance.....	43
6.5. The Effect of Manipulations on The Performance	44
6.6. Regression Analysis of Control Variables [n(Ach) and n(Aff)] and Manipulations Check Questions Made Together	45
6.7. The Effect of The Age As a Control Variable on Performance	47
7. DISCUSSION.....	49
8. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS	58
9. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH	61
10. REFERENCES	63
11. APPENDICES.....	79
APPENDIX-A GLOBE In-Group Collectivism Scale and Translated Version.....	79
APPENDIX-B Needs Assessment Questionnaire (NAQ) Original Version.....	82
APPENDIX-C Translated Version of NAQ.....	84
APPENDIX-D Manipulations Check Questions	85

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1.	Studies on variables related to social loafing phenomenon.	3
Table 2.1.	Strength of subject pulling and pushing as a function of group size.....	11
Table 4.1.	Operational definition, concept, and measurement	29
Table 4.2.	Operational definition, concept, and measurement	31
Table 6.1.	Low collectivist control group	37
Table 6.2.	Low collectivist experimental group	37
Table 6.3.	Descriptive statistics.....	38
Table 6.4.	Test statistics	38
Table 6.5.	High collectivist control group.....	39
Table 6.6.	High collectivist experimental group	39
Table 6.7.	Descriptive statistics.....	40
Table 6.8.	Test statistics	40
Table 6.9.	Low collectivist experimental group	41
Table 6.10.	High collectivist experimental group	41
Table 6.11.	Descriptive statistics.....	42
Table 6.12.	Test statistics	42
Table 6.13.	Descriptive statistics.....	43
Table 6.14.	Mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients of the variables.	43
Table 6.15.	Multiple regression analysis results.	43
Table 6.16.	Descriptive statistics.....	44
Table 6.17.	Mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients of the variables.	44
Table 6.18.	Multiple regression analysis results.	45
Table 6.19.	Descriptive statistics.....	45
Table 6.20.	Mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients of the variables.	46
Table 6.21.	Multiple regression analysis results	46
Table 6.22.	Descriptive statistics.....	47
Table 6.23.	Mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients of the variables	47
Table 6.24.	Multiple regression analysis results	47

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1. Conceptual model of the present study.	21
--	----



1. INTRODUCTION

Many of the tasks can only be fulfilled through group work (*sports teams, committees, R&D teams, and quality control teams & circles*), and a great many group tasks are collective tasks that need contribution and the addition of each member's input. These are all examples that combine individual efforts to constitute a single output (Karau and Williams, 1993). With the development of technology after the post-industrialization era, team (*e.g., quality control teams & circles*) and group work (*e.g., task forces*) have become very prevalent and indispensable. Therefore, determining which factors motivate or demotivate individuals within these collective type groups or team-based working conditions/contexts has become far more important thereof (Karau and Williams, 1993).

Research findings of groups indicate that task performance is influenced by the presence of others (Spector, 2012). People generally think that working with others should inspire them to maximize their potential and efforts called "*the social facilitation effect*". According to this effect, working with others causes individuals to maximize their potential, however scholars, particularly scholars of social loafing, argued by providing empirical evidence that it is not always the case by stating that in some situations/conditions or contexts the behaviors of individuals vary across by each distinct condition/context (*e.g., across various cultural contexts*) (Spector, 2012). Researchers revealed that under certain conditions, then called "*the social inhibition effect*", which was coined as "**social loafing**" aftermath, people often put less effort into collective tasks compared to the tasks that are fulfilled individually or coactively (Latané, Williams, and Harkins, 1979; Williams, Harkins & Latané, 1981; Klehe and Andeson, 2007). A very common situation in real-world organizations is co-acting groups, where individuals in workgroups perform similar tasks independently of one another (Harkins, 1987) and individual performance, rather than group performance, is measured.

Social loafing is simply defined as "**the reduction in motivation and effort when individuals work collectively compared with when they work individually or coactively**" (Karau and Williams, 1993, p.681; Karau and Williams, 1997, p.156). According to Williams, Harkins & Latane (1981), social loafing "refers to the reduction of

individual effort exerted when people work in groups compared to when they work alone (p.303)”.

The background of the concept is based on the work of French scientist Max Ringelmann. In 1880, Ringelmann wanted to determine the impact of humans, animals, and machinery on agricultural practices. In his experiments with students and a group of prisoners, he noticed an inverse relationship between the size of the group and the effort made per person in group work which entered the literature aftermath as the **Ringelmann effect**. In the famous rope pulling experiment he carried out, he asked the individuals to pull the rope with the tension meter at the end with all their strength, and at the end of the experiment, he found that the sum of the force spent by the individuals alone, and the sum of the force spent within the group were different from each other. The surprising point in this experiment was that as the number of individuals in the group increased, the total performance gradually decreased (Kravitz & Martin, 1986; Ingham et al., 1974).

Several antecedent factors render social loafing before individuals exhibit it. These factors are associated with internal and external factors. Therefore, it would not be correct to link the factors or conditions that may cause loafing behavior only to the individual's characteristics or only to group dynamics and climate. Researchers generally categorize the factors affecting the social loafing of individuals under four main headings (Özek, 2015) **a) Personal Characteristics, b) Situational Features, c) Group Features and d) Cultural and Social Norms.**

There are so many studies that examined either personal traits of loafer or situational/contextual factors and group features, however, there is no study that has taken cultural issues as a variable in nationwide social loafing literature. For example, after scanning “Ulusal Tez Merkezi”, “Dergipark”, and Web of Science databases on 20 March 2022, we came across **26 Master Theses** and **7 Dissertations** in “Ulusal Tez Merkezi” and **28 Articles** in “Dergipark” databases. These studies are summarized in **Table 1.1.**

Table 1.1. Studies on variables related to social loafing phenomenon.

Year	Dissertations	Master Theses	Articles
2021		1. Job satisfaction and Organizational commitment (Yıldızöz, 2021) 2. Neurotic structure of special education staff (Çavuş, 2021) 3. The mediating role of the organizational commitment between social loafing and job satisfaction (Mete, 2021) 4. The quality of work-life on social loafing and procrastination behavior (Kurtoğlu, 2021) 5. Demographic characteristics and organizational cynicism (Gümüş, 2021)	1. Work alienation (Yurdakul & Öneren, 2021) 2. Organization Cynicism and task visibility (Ayduğ, Himmetoğlu & Agaoglu, 2021) 3. Organizational Tightness-Looseness and Innovation (Uğurlu & Begenirbaş, 2021). 4. Group Cohesiveness and Job Satisfaction (Kaya & Pazarcık, 2021).
2020	1. Organizational justice, communication satisfaction, and cultural tightness-looseness (Kara, 2020). 2. Learned helplessness, organizational silence, and social loafing (Arıbaş, 2020).	1. Employer branding (İnanç, 2020) 2. Group cohesion and Job satisfaction (Kaya, 2020) 3. Five-factor personality characteristics and Organizational justice (Yavaş, 2020) 4. Effect of teamwork (Özbunar, 2020) 5. Employee performance (Avcı, 2020) 6. Work alienation and Occupational burnout (Aksan, 2020)	1. Personality traits and Service orientations (Özkan, Yumuk & Demiralay, 2020) 2. Five-factor personality traits, and Organizational justice (Yavaş, 2020) 3. Cultural tightness-looseness, Organizational justice, Communication satisfaction (Uğurlu & Aydoğan, 2020) 4. Perception of discrimination (Okur & Balta, 2020) 5. Organizational ostracism, and Demographic variables (Aydın & Akın, 2020) 6. Organizational Justice, and Political Behavior (Köksal, 2020) 7. Personality traits and psychological contract violation (Kirmanoğlu & Erbay, 2020)
2019	Positive psychological capital and perceived leadership behavior (Kayıkçı, 2019).	1. Organizational cynicism (Şarkaya, 2019) 2. Occupational burnout (Ayyıldız, 2019) 3. Organizational commitment (Ersöz, 2019) 4. Work alienation (Yurdakul, 2019) 5. Perceived organizational support and Work engagement (Metiner, 2019) 6. The effect of perceived leadership (Aydemir, 2019). 7. Perceived task visibility and Leadership style (Soylu, 2019)	1. Role ambiguity, and Political behavior (Köksal and Gürsoy, 2019) 2. Personality features (Tok, 2019)
2018		1. Organizational cynicism (Biroğlu, 2018) 2. Personality traits of employees (Özkan, 2018) 3. Organizational commitment and Organizational citizenship (Yıldırım, 2018) 4. Self-efficacy and Intention to leave (Türk, 2018)	1. Entrepreneurial characteristics (Saygın & Mavi Doğru, 2018) 2. Quality work-life (Kanten, 2018) 3. Compulsory citizenship behavior, and Organizational cynicisms (Yakın & Sökmen, 2018) 4. The tendency of conflict (Aydemir, 2018) 5. Political Behaviors (Himmetoglu, Ayduğ & Terzi, 2018).

Table 1.1. (Continued) Studies on variables related to social loafing phenomenon.

Year	Dissertations	Master Theses	Articles
2017		1. Perceived organizational support (Çakır, 2017) 2. Effects of religiosity (Özgüven, 2017)	Authentic Leadership and Life Satisfaction (Şimşek, Özgener & İlhan, 2017)
2016	Organizational cynicism and Presenteeism (Balcı, 2016).		1. Hierarchy, and Team trend dimensions of Organizational culture (Gök & Koca, 2016) 2. Impression Management Tactics (Yıldız, İşçi & Taşçı, 2016)
2015	Psychological climate (Özek, 2015).		1. Psychological empowerment (Kesen, 2015) 2. Turnover intention and Role overload (Akgündüz et al., 2015) 3. Perceived organizational culture (Sünnetçioğlu, Korkmaz & Koyuncu, 2015).
2014			1. Job satisfaction, and Organizational commitment (Şeşen & Kahraman, 2014) 2. Organizational justice (Demir & Çavuş, 2014) 3. Emotional exhaustion, Workplace incivility, and Intention to leave (Kanten, 2014)
2012	Trust and Psychological empowerment (Bozkurt, 2012).		Task visibility (Doğan, Bozkurt & Demir, 2012)
2011		Task visibility and perceived group-based performance (Buz, 2011)	
2010	Emotional intelligence, Leader-member exchange, and Organizational citizenship behaviors (İlgin, 2010).		
2006		Personality and Justice perceptions (Ülke, 2006)	

It is very clear from **Table 1.1.** that **“Culture”** as a variable hasn’t been studied in **domestic** social loafing literature enough (*Actually there is only one study, that is **cultural tightness-looseness***); **in international literature**, on the other hand, the research is only very limited, (e.g., Earley (1989) and Klehe & Andeson (2007)). Therefore, this study is significant in terms of its objective to fill in this missing point in the related literature. Moreover, considering Turkey's collectivist nature (Hofstede, 1980, 1984, and 2001), after this study is completed, we expect to make theoretical and practical contributions to the House et al. (2004)’s 62-country wide cultural study, namely GLOBE (*Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness*), in which Turkey is also involved.

GLOBE is a multinational research project with 17,300 participants in 951 organizations in 62 different societies, with the contributions of 170 researchers. The project started in 1993 and still continues today. Based on data collected from various sectors, this study succeeded in adding organization and leadership dimensions to Hofstede's (1980) groundbreaking work to explain intercultural differentiation.

Social loafing studies have focused mainly on recognizing circumstances under which the effect can be **decreased** or **removed** totally. Previous studies have focused on the social loafing phenomenon and performance relationships mainly assuming that all sorts of group combinations, no matter how composed of or whatever the condition (***including cultural contexts***) would yield the same result, simply “**loafing**”. However, as it is known, this concept and its theoretical framework were constituted within a highly individualistic North American (*including the US and Canada*) cultural context (Latane, Williams, and Harkins, 1979). Therefore, previous studies, mainly formulated and tested hypotheses within these theoretical assumptions. Although there are some cross-cultural studies on social loafing (Early, 1989), they are very scarce and do not tap into **sub-cultural** issues such as **in-group collectivism**. So, this study will help us understand this cultural variable (*in-group collectivism*) effect in the same context (*within the same country, not cross-culturally*) by using an experimental design. Finally, to the best of our knowledge, among numerous moderator variables investigated so far in the literature, this is the first study investigating **in-group collectivism as a moderator variable** between social loafing and performance variables.

The objective of this research is to investigate the effect of culture on the relationship between social loafing and performance in conditions when the individual effort is perceived to be unidentifiable and/or unaccountable. This study is significant in that, unlike many previous studies, **rather than using the country's cultural value score as a proxy** (Bryan and Christine, 2003; Wasti et al., 2007) for individualism/collectivism based on Hofstede's (1980, 1984 & 2001) country-level cultural value scores, in this study **in-group collectivism values**, were directly measured from each participant. Thus, we ensure that our sample bears the traits of and complies with our research purpose. The vast majority of previous social loafing studies were conducted in a laboratory setting using students as subjects (*the groups were formed only for study purposes, not a real group*) (Liden et al., 2004), yet this field investigation employed groups from a manufacturing organization which is another important contribution in terms of generalizability of the concept to the intact organizational work-groups.

2. CONCEPTUAL / THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

2.1. The Conceptual Roots of Social Loafing

Social loafing is defined as reduced effort in the performance of individuals who operate as a member of a group rather than alone (Ingham et al., 1974; Latane, Williams, and Harkins, 1979). Individuals who are convinced that they are acting on a task with others **reduce their performance, apart from any probable loss that is ascribable to the distraction or lack of coordination** during real group performance (Steiner, 1972). Social psychological and economic studies investigated **the drawbacks of group-based work**, positing that group-based works may induce “**reduced effort**” under certain situations, called “**social loafing**” (Latané, Williams, and Harkins, 1979).

In the seminal social loafing study conducted by Latane, Williams, and Harkins (1979), participants were prompted to perform a task either alone or in “**pseudo groups**” in which they were convinced that they were performing the task with the rest of the participants in the group, though they were performing alone. The performance was found to have decreased as the group size increased. Subsequent research made by Latané (1986) and other researchers demonstrated that when **outcomes are identifiable, tasks are visible** (George, 1992), and persons are **held accountable for their outcomes**, the loafing effect is **eliminated or removed** totally. In their conclusion, Karau and Williams (1997) wrote “social loafing is robust across a wide variety of tasks and most populations,” (p.50), and they also warned saying that “anyone working in a setting in which unidentifiable efforts are pooled into a **single output** could fall victim to social loafing” (p.58).

Insights into the nature and possible causes of social loafing can be derived from the theories that have been advanced so far. In general, **the theoretical accounts** associated with the social loafing phenomenon (Karau and Williams, 1993, p. 682-684) are as follows:

1. Social Impact: The basis of social impact theory is the social force field. Individuals functioning in the presence of others is examined in social impact theory. As social beings, we are affected by our social environment and the diversity of opinions around us. In Latané's (1981) view, everyone has the potential to either become the “source” of social influence or the “target” of it - or both at the same time. The concept of social influence pertains to the

way people are influenced by others in social settings. **Social force** is made of **a)** Strength (*power or social status*) of the group, **b)** Immediacy (*physical or psychological distance*) of the group, and **c)** The number of individuals in the group exerting social influence. These three elements increase the likelihood of someone responding to social influence. Latané (1981) suggests that source influences target if these three factors are present. Latane (1981) also stated that if a person is the target of social impact, increasing the number of other people boosts the social pressure associated with the impact on that person.

2. Arousal Reduction: Jackson and Williams (1985) suggested an explanation of social loafing based on a “drive theory”. They argue that co-workers serve as co-targets of outside sources of social impact, so the presence of other workers reduces drive. Jackson and Williams (1985) also cited studies that showed people who were faced with an inherently frightening situation tended to prefer being with others and concluded that the presence of others is not necessarily motivating (*as in social facilitation*). Supporting their logic in an experiment combining the characteristics of social loafing and social facilitation, Jackson and Williams (1985) concluded that other members of the team should only be driving forces when they are **sources of impact**, not if they are **serving as co-targets**.

3. Evaluation Potential: Social loafing is defined by researchers (Harkins & Szymanski, 1989; Kerr & Bruun, 1983) as motivation loss in groups caused by reduced identifiability or evaluation. According to these authors, social loafing occurs because individual inputs can only be evaluated in the condition of coactivity. Collectively, individual inputs, of course, become one group product. Therefore, in collective tasks, individuals can avoid taking responsibility for poor performance by “hiding in the crowd” (Davis, 1969). Collective tasks can also cause individuals to feel “lost in the crowd” (Latane et al., 1979) so that they are not given the credit for the success of the group effort. As a result, Harkins and Szymanski (1989) suggested that evaluating an individual's collective inputs can eliminate social loafing in a variety of circumstances.

4. Dispensability of Effort: Another possible reason for social loafing has been suggested by Kerr and Brunn (1983), stating that individuals may exert less effort when working together because they think that their contributions are not indispensable to a quality group outcome. Individuals also tend to reduce their overall efforts when the group succeeds, as further efforts are unnecessary. As a result, individuals may be reluctant to exercise effort when they believe they won't make a significant impact on the group's final product (Kerr & Brunn, 1983).

5. Matching of Effort: According to Jackson and Harkins (1985), when working together, people tend to match the efforts of their co-workers. Those who engage in social loafing reduce their efforts to maintain equity because they anticipate others will slack off in groups. In Jackson and Harkins' (1985) experiment, participants' expectations of the amount of effort their coworker would exert on a shouting task were manipulated such that participants thought their coworker might either exert effort or not exert effort. Participants matched each other's work efforts that determined their social loafing behavior. Researchers have also found that perceptions of and motivations toward jobs are also influenced greatly by the assessment of their tasks by peers (Zalesny & Ford, 1990). For instance, a study conducted by Williams and Karau (1991) found that individuals may increase their collective effort when they anticipate their co-workers performing poorly on meaningful or interesting tasks, however, performance may decrease as well in boring or simple tasks.

It is also significant both theoretically and practically to determine the conditions under which people engage in social loafing. It may be possible to devise interventions that reduce or eliminate social loafing in everyday groups and organizations by identification of the moderating variables. Researchers have found many moderators that moderate social loafing. The most common ones are presented in the following lines. In their meta-analytic review of social loafing literature, Karau and Williams (1993) put forth 9 moderators to social loafing behavior.

1. Group Size: The number of task performers and the size of the group were both positively related to social loafing. In studies where more individual inputs were combined into one product and when more people achieved the task in each session, effect sizes were larger.

2. Task Complexity: In simple tasks, individuals performed better cooperatively than collectively, but they performed equally well collectively as coactively in more complex tasks

3. Gender: Study samples that included only male subjects showed greater social loafing than those that included either mixed samples or only female samples

4. Culture: Subjects from Western cultures were more likely to engage in social loafing than subjects from Eastern cultures. Their priorities are presumably more group-oriented than those of Western cultures.

5. Evaluation Potential: Studies indicated that as evaluation potential was held constant across the coactive and collective conditions, the tendency for individuals to engage in social loafing decreased. Thus, individuals are more likely to loaf if only their outputs can be evaluated in coactive conditions, as opposed to when their outputs can be evaluated in both coactive and collaborative conditions.

6. Task Valence: Individual effort on collective tasks is directly correlated with task valence. Under low or uncertain task valence conditions, individuals loafed, but not in high valence situations (Karau and Williams, 1993). As task valence increases, they say, social loafing tendency decreases. Compared with either high valence or unspecified task valence, low task valence was associated with a greater tendency to loaf. This maintains that personal involvement or task meaning eliminates loafing. These results also suggest that task valence is directly related to individual effort on collective tasks, given that the unspecified tasks were likely relatively moderate in valence (Karau and Williams, 1993).

7. Group Valence and Group-Level Comparison Standards: The loafing did not occur when valence was high in a group, but it did occur in all other conditions. The tendency to loaf was thus lower in groups with high group valence than when the group valence was medium, low, or unclear. The individual also loafed more when the group's valence was low or unknown than when it was moderate. Lastly, loafing was reduced when group valence was high as opposed to when it was low. When participants were provided with a standard of comparison at the group level, the tendency to loaf was reduced as well. In sum, these results suggest group cohesiveness or group identity may reduce or even eliminate social loafing, and that individuals do value group outcomes in some circumstances.

8. Expectations of Co-Worker Performance: When coworkers are expected to perform well, individuals do loaf; but do not loaf when coworkers are expected to perform poorly.

9. Uniqueness of Individual Inputs: Individuals may believe their efforts have less significance in achieving valued outcomes when their contributions are either dispensable or overlap with those of others. People work just as hard collectively as they do individually when their contributions are unique, but slack off when their contributions are redundant.

Another argument that relates to social loafing behavior is about its antecedents. An individual's degree of feeling that their job requires close contact with other group members

(*task interdependence*), task visibility, and how they perceive distributive and procedural justice were identified as particular antecedents of social loafing **at the individual level**. Group cohesiveness, group size, and perceptions of social loafing were observed as antecedents **at the group level** (Liden et al., 2004).

2.2. Antecedents of Social Loafing

Liden et al. (2004) carried out studies to determine the variables that trigger social loafing. As a result of these studies, they classified the antecedents of social loafing into two main categories individual level and group level. **The antecedents at the individual level** are task interdependence, task visibility, identifiability, evaluation potential, task involvement, perceived importance of the task, the significance of the task, uniqueness of individual participation, individuals' perceptions of distributive and procedural justice, personality traits of individuals, cultural and gender differences of individuals, and organizational citizenship behaviors. **The antecedents at the group level** are group size, group cohesion, and the prevalence of perceived social loafing among group members.

At the individual level, task visibility decreases social loafing whereas task interdependence increases. Distributive justice is also related to a greater occurrence of social loafing. An increase in group size and a decrease in cohesiveness are related to social loafing at the group level. There is also an association between co-worker perceptions of social loafing and reduced social loafing among group members (Liden et al., 2004).

Liden et al. (2004) found that interdependence between tasks was positively associated with social loafing, but task visibility and distributive justice negatively correlated with social loafing. A positive link existed between group size and social loafing, while a negative link was found between cohesiveness and social loafing at the group level.

Social loafing has consistently been manifested in team settings with various tasks, such as swimming (Williams, Nida, Baca, and Latané, 1989), sound production (Latane, Williams, and Harkins, 1979), rope-pulling (Ingham et al., 1974), clapping, brainstorming and vigilance (Harkins and Petty, 1982; Rietzschel, Nijstad, and Stroebe, 2006), idea-generating (Stroebe and Diehl, 1994) and decision making (Price, 1987).

Group performance is generally based on the additive outputs of individual group members (Ingham et al., 1974). There are some drawbacks to applying additive group

performance ratings. For instance, Olson (1965) argued that, albeit group members may share a benefit in reaching a collective good, they do not share a collective benefit in **paying the cost of** reaching it. Researchers pinpoint that participant of the study stated that they loafed because they thought that their effort would get lost in the crowd so that they would not get a fair share as a result of their hard work (Kameda et al., 1992).

There are other important factors affecting social loafing like group size. **Group size** is an important determinant/motivator of social loafing. Kerr and Brunn (1983) found that individuals who believed their efforts to be unnecessary reduced their efforts within the group as the group size increased. As shown in the table, individual effort declines with the size of group members and reaches half of the original performance when the group makes 8 persons.

Table 2.1. Strength of subject pulling and pushing as a function of group size.

Group Size	Expected Pull (Kgs)	Actual Pull (Kgs)	Percentage of Actual to Expected Performance
1	1	1	100
2	2	1.86	93
4	4	3.08	77
8	8	3.92	49

Source: Spector, P. E. (2012). *Industrial and Organizational Psychology Research and Practice*, John Wiley, Asia

2.3. Coordination Loss or Reduced Effort?

According to Latane et al. (1979), some of the variances of reduced efforts could be attributable to coordination loss. In their study of shouting tasks, they found that half the **performance decrement** was due to **incoordination** and a half was due to social loafing. Therefore, it is of utmost importance to take care of this issue **when implementing an experiment** in the course of identifying the social loafing effect.

Steiner's (1972) useful categorization of tasks for social loafing studies are; maximizing, additive, and unitary tasks. According to him;

1. In a Maximizing Task: Group success relies on how much or how fast something is fulfilled and supposedly on how much effort is exerted; in contrast, in an optimizing task, precision and correctness are crucial.

2. In an Additive Task: Group success is dependent on the *sum of all individuals' efforts* in the group. That is each individual's performance is added up to represent the group score. Groups generally outperform individuals at such tasks, but overall group productivity rarely meets its maximum potential due to social loafing.

3. In a Unitary Task: Task cannot be split into distinct subtasks. Each person works together doing the same task, and neither division of labor nor accountability is possible.

In addition, Kerr & Brunn (1983) suggested that individuals' ability to perform **conjunctive** and **disjunctive tasks** should influence their perception of dispensability in the opposite direction.

4. In a Conjunctive Task: a group task or project (for example, a factory assembly line) that cannot be successfully completed until all members of the group have completed their part of the work. This means that the pace and quality of work are determined by the least qualified member. On a conjunctive task, in which only the least able member's performance matters, despite their high ability, **the high-ability members tend to reduce their efforts due to the fact that performance above the least able member's is dispensable** (Kerr & Brunn, 1983).

5. In a Disjunctive Task: a group task or project, such as solving a complex problem that is completed when a single solution, decision, or group member's recommendation is adopted by the group. This means that the group's performance tends to be determined by the most skilled member. The predictions suggest that **members whose performance is dispensable become free riders on a disjunctive task**, where only one member's accomplishment counts (Kerr & Brunn, 1983).

2.4. Typical (Low) and Maximum (High) Performance

Performance is usually conceptualized as a parameter of ability and motivation. Scholars, especially in the last decade, have focused on performers' reactions to typical (*low*) vs maximum (*high*) performance conditions (Klehe & Anderson, 2007; Sackett, 2007).

Typical performance conditions stand for lasting work situations in which performers are not aware of any performance assessment or instruction to exert effort, whereas **maximum performance** conditions describe short and evaluative situations during which the instruction to exert effort is quite salient. Yet, several questions related to the distinction have not been examined enough, such as the potential overlap with the literature on social loafing (Karau & Williams, 1993) and the impact of personality and **cultural variations on performers' motivation** in typical vs maximum performance conditions (Klehe and Anderson, 2007).

Sackett et al. (1988) introduced the difference between typical and maximum performance to depict variations in job performance. They argued that during **typical performance situations**, performers **(a)** do not realize their performance will be observed or evaluated, **(b)** do not try to continually perform their “*absolute best*” and **(c)** work on their task for extended periods. **A maximum performance situation**, however, requires that performers **(a)** are very aware of being evaluated, **(b)** are aware of and accept explicit instructions on how to maximize their effort, and **(c)** is observed for a short enough time to keep their attention focused on the task at hand.

Sackett et al. (1988 & 2007) also maintained that the interplay between ability and motivation was particularly related under typical performance situations. Under maximum performance situations, however, the performance was initially a function of performers' abilities, as the characteristics of maximum performance situations obliged motivation to be high across performers. The choice to perform was high because of individuals' knowledge of being tracked. The level of effort was high, as persons were aware of and accepted the instruction to exert effort. Finally, maximum performance situations should be short enough to make sure that lack of attention does not become a problem. The basic debate is that during conditions of maximum performance, when performers are encouraged to invest their full effort and are assessed based on their performance, the link between performance and external rewards becomes highly obvious. This promotes performers to be increasingly motivated in that the outcome becomes a manifestation of their ability, and high effect (Sackett et al., 1988 & 2007).

2.5. Group Cohesiveness

Individuals may work as hard collectively as individually when **working with respected colleagues or friends to maintain a positive self-image** (Karau and Williams, 1997), which is coined as group cohesiveness.

The American Psychological Association (APA) Dictionary of Psychology defined group cohesion as *“The unity or solidarity of a group, including the integration of the group for both social and task-related purposes. Group cohesion is indicated by the strength of the bonds that link members to the group as a whole, the sense of belongingness and community within the group, the feelings of attraction for specific group members and the group itself as experienced by individuals, and the degree to which members coordinate their efforts to achieve goals. In many cases, the higher the cohesion, the stronger the members’ motivation to adhere to the group’s standards”*.

Thus, social loafing can be eliminated through group cohesiveness when efforts are viewed as valuable to the group's performance. Group cohesiveness can also moderate social loafing in a way that's distinct from other attributes such as **friendship or teammate status that may influence loafing behavior**. It is also possible to overcome social loafing by activating individuals' concern for collective outcomes and their reflection on themselves via factors that increase intragroup attraction (Karau and Williams, 1997).

An experiment made by Karau and Hart (1998) tested whether social loafing could be reduced or eliminated among groups of cohesive individuals. 59 pairs discussed a matter that they either agreed strongly with (*high cohesiveness*), disagreed strongly with (*low cohesiveness*), or disagreed mildly with (*control*), then worked both co-actively and collectively to generate ideas for a project. As a result, low-cohesiveness and the control condition participants **displayed substantial social loafing effects**, rendering them to work harder coactively than collectively. A group with high cohesiveness, on the other hand, **worked equally as hard collaboratively and co-operatively**.

2.6. Personality Traits

In the study made by Klehe and Anderson (2007), the relationship between social loafing behavior and personality traits was tested. Out of five-factor personality traits, they found a significant relationship between agreeableness and conscientiousness traits and

social loafing such that the higher individuals got either agreeableness or conscientiousness the less they engaged in social loafing. In the other study made by Yavaş and Kanten (2020) in search of five-factor personality traits and social loafing behavior relationship, they found out that **conscientiousness** and **neuroticism** are related to social loafing; on the other hand, no relationship was found between openness to development, agreeableness, extraversion and social loafing. In another study, out of the five personality traits, Özkan (2018) found a relationship only between **neuroticism** and **openness to development** traits. Although the findings are mixed, there seems to be a certain relationship between some aspects of personality and social loafing. Thus, we had better take into account personality traits when we argue about the social loafing phenomenon.

2.7. Reward and Punishment

Latane et al. (1979, p. 830) noted that, since individual scores can't be identified by groups, people cannot receive accurate credit nor appropriate blame for their performance. People may have felt "***lost in the crowd***" and unable to obtain their fair share of the positive consequences of hard work, or they could have "***hidden in the crowd***" and avoided the negative consequences of slacking off. As such, individuals may engage in social loafing because they believe that their efforts will not be rewarded or they will not be punished for their lack of effort (Latane et al., 1979).

In a study by Podsakoff et al. (1984), **contingent rewards** were found to be positively related to worker performance, while **contingent punishments** did not. Further, they demonstrated that **non-contingent reward** behavior did not impact performance, while **non-contingent punishment** behavior negatively affected performance. In a contingent reward, a supervisor or leader transmits several pieces of information to the subordinate. This is primarily due to the fact that the supervisor has taken note of a subordinate's behavior or actions and considers them important or valuable. As well as rewarding competence and work efficiency, contingent rewards provide subordinates with information and feedback. In other words, when supervisors assign rewards contingent on individual performance, even if the work is performed in groups, subordinates are likely to perceive that their efforts are valued and will be rewarded accordingly. It is less likely that individuals will engage in social loafing under these circumstances since they are more confident that they will be properly rewarded for their efforts (Shepperd, 1993)

George (1992) posited that some of the results of laboratory studies of social loafing are generalizable to ongoing groups of workers in organizations. After that, George (1995) found out that in ongoing groups, supervisor contingent rewards were **negatively related to social loafing**, and supervisor non-contingent punishments were **positively related to social loafing**. Accordingly, neither contingent punishment nor non-contingent reward was significantly related to social loafing. All in all, rewarding and punishing behaviors do not occur symmetrically, and punishment seems to produce unintended negative outcomes. Social loafing appears not to be deterred by a supervisor's contingent punishment strategy, as predicted. While the first reaction of a supervisor may be to reprimand a worker for poor performance, over the long run, such behaviors are unlikely to be as effective as recognizing and reinforcing desirable behavior (George, 1995).

2.8. Participant's Expectations

Another critical aspect of the demonstration of loafing is the participant's expectation concerning others' behavior (Adams, 1965). Jackson and Harkins (1985) found that participants contribute to the task in line with the expected contributions of other group members. According to the result of their study, group members did not loaf if they worked with other members whom they anticipated to work hard. However, if they anticipated other members to loaf then they loafed too. This aspect is also manifest in the discussion of the “matching of effort”

2.9. Providing Feedback

The meta-analysis made by Karau & Williams (1993) found that providing individuals with **feedback** about their performance **reduces social loafing**. Performance feedback, particularly, has a greater impact when it directly affects their self-evaluation.

2.10. Boosting Involvement

Boosting members' **involvement** also **lowers social loafing**, according to Brickner et al. (1986). A personal involving situation is one in which subjects feel involved because the event has intrinsic value, personal meaning, or impacts on their lives significantly (Petty & Caccioppo, 1979). Harkins and Petty (1982) found two additional ways to eliminate the

loafing effect in their studies. Participants who worked on a **difficult task** as a group (*as opposed to a simple task*) did not loaf, even when their responses were not measurable. Likewise, in studies where subjects **contributed uniquely** (*rather than redundantly with coworkers' efforts*), the loafing effect was suppressed whether or not individual contributions were identifiable.

In their study, Brickner et al. (1986) determined that whether or not their products were identifiable, participants did not loaf when subjects believed they would personally benefit from the outcomes of their efforts. On the other hand, low-involvement participants were willing to work only if their outputs could be identified or measured. Otherwise, they loafed.

There are two additional concepts related to social loafing, the free-riding effect and the sucker effect. They are sometimes used interchangeably, yet they are three distinct concepts. Before going further in our social loafing literature, we had better shed light on these differences and clarify their scope not to confound.

2.11. Two Related Effects and Their Scopes

2.11.1. Free-Rider Effect

The conceptual difference between free-riding and social loafing is that the former develops out of rational calculations, whereas the latter can take place without conscious intention. However, **free riding and social loafing are analogous in their origin and effects: both results from an unwillingness to cooperate in group endeavors**, and both threaten group well-being and performance (Kidwell & Bennett, 1993). A fear that others may free-ride is an alternative explanation for the social loafing effect (Orbell & Dawes, 1981). Free-riding is a deliberate attempt to receive a benefit from group membership without bearing a proportional share of the costs. Specifically, individuals may fear that other members of the group will withhold efforts and thus benefit from their contributions (Jackson & Harkins, 1985). People who engage in free-riding generally assume that *"someone else will handle the task"* (Orbell & Dawes, 1981). The tendency is most likely to occur when members feel dispensable (Kerr & Bruun, 1983). In general, subjects who believe their partners will not loaf do not loaf as well. However, individuals who believe that others consciously will not perform adequately, although they have the ability to perform, most probably will reciprocate by free-riding too (Kerr, 1983).

2.11.2. Sucker Effect

It is defined in The American Psychological Association (APA) Dictionary of Psychology as “*A phenomenon in which individuals reduce their investment in a group endeavor because of their expectation that others will think negatively of them for working too hard or contributing too much (considering them to be a sucker)*”. The sucker effect involves a belief that others will benefit from an individual's efforts. Members of groups often assume that others will withhold effort in group performance, so they withhold effort themselves as well to avoid being played as suckers (Schnake, 1991). Sucker effects occur when individuals believe that others in the group will withhold effort, or intend to withhold. As a result, individuals with this perspective withhold effort themselves in an attempt to avoid being played for a sucker. People may find being played for a sucker unpleasant, so they may withhold their efforts themselves if they are convinced others in the group will do the same (Orbell & Dawes, 1981). A coworker may develop such perceptions as a result of observing his or her behavior or hearing comments from the coworker that suggest that withholding of effort is in the works.

During a lab experiment, Kerr (1983) demonstrated the existence of the sucker effect. People who witnessed a capable partner fail to perform a task consistently displayed reduced levels of effort. The motivation losses of these subjects were greater than those of subjects whose failing partner's performance could be attributed to a lack of ability. Subjects whose failing partner's performance was attributed to a withholding ability suffered greater motivation losses than those whose partner's failure could be attributed to a lack of ability. Since the partner was capable of performing but didn't do so, the observer logically concluded that the partner withheld effort. Kerr notes (1983, p.823) “*Apparently subjects sometimes preferred to fail at the task rather than be a sucker and carry a free rider.*”

Kerr (1983) suggests that the sucker role is aversive to many people for three reasons. The first reason is that suckers violate equity norms. Often, individuals are sensitive to others receiving the same number of rewards for less work or effort (Adams, 1963). Secondly, it violates a social responsibility standard: that is, everyone should do their fair share. Finally, the practice of free-riding may violate a reciprocity norm as well. There is a possibility that individuals think that their contributions at least indirectly benefit the group. Because they have done something that has benefited others, they have a moral responsibility to reciprocate.

2.12. Contextual (Individualistic vs Collectivistic Culture) Aspect of Social Loafing

Individuals with a high level of collectivism prioritize the collective's needs and preferences and are more likely to share their resources with their peers within the group (Kim et al., 1994; Triandis, 1995). An important disposition of a collectivistic society is that people subordinate their self-gains to the goals of their group or community (Triandis et al., 1985). Thus, the motivating factor in a collectivistic culture is collaboration to attain group ends and guarantee group well-being (Earley, 1989). Each person in the group is aware of personal responsibility for group success and a sense that he/she has vital contributions to the group's self-sustaining and survival (Hofstede, 1980). Moreover, through emotional pleasure, they gain satisfaction with the success of their group's achievements. On the other hand, in an individualistic culture, importance and value are given to self-sufficiency, the desire for individual aims that may or may not be congruent with groups' aims (Earley, 1989). People from individualistic cultures often quit or drop their groups if being a part of them becomes a burden or constraint for reaching their personal goals (Earley, 1989).

In an individualistic culture, people often pride themselves on their accomplishments and achievement and get pleasure and happiness with their high performance (Wagner and Mosh, 1986). As a result, **members of the individualistic culture** are very much inclined to pursue self-interest and achievements by channeling works from reaching collective benefits to self-interests and goals (Earley, 1989).

The highly individualistic American culture consists of various intracultural communities. For example, American employers stress strong work ethics underlining individual achievement and goal orientation (Harris and Moran, 1987). The motive for high performance and achievement is inevitably tied to self-interest. On the other hand, although not very high like China or Japan in collectivistic ratings according to Hofstede (1980, 1984, and 2001), Turkey may be characterized to a certain extent as a collectivist culture. Besides, according to House et al.'s (2004) cultural values study containing 62 societies, **Turkey's score** is considerably high (**5.26 over 7; ranking 10 over 62 countries**) in terms of **in-group collectivism**.

On the other hand, just simply taking Turkey's in-group collectivism value by giving reference to House et al. (2004)'s GLOBE study as a proxy for cultural variance at the

collective level does not yield valid results since there may be various subcultures within a country/culture or other types of contextual issues that may affect individuals' in-group collectivism ratings. So, rather than taking Turkey's GLOBE in-group collectivism value as a proxy, this study aims to measure the value ratings on the individual level for each participant for the sake of providing more valid and reliable results.

2.13. Linking Cultural Values to Social Loafing

A meta-analysis of 78 studies conducted by Karau and Williams (1993) displayed that social loafing is robust and can be generalized across diverse tasks. According to these scholars, several variables are related to social loafing, such as evaluation of potential, other individuals' expectations of co-worker performance, task meaningfulness, culture, and so on...

Researchers generally report that those social dynamics change according to the norms held by persons concerning proper social behavior and that these norms change across cultural contexts (Triandis, 1972). For example, confrontation or disagreement with one's supervisor is avoided in Japan and Turkey, although such behavior is quite welcome in the United States (Adler et al., 1986; Wasti, S. A., 1998; Danişman, 2010).

The most salient and extensively studied attribute of cultural value is individualism-collectivism. Individualism vs. collectivism refers to the extent to which a culture promotes individualistic inclinations as opposed to group or collectivistic inclinations (Triandis et al., 1985). In his cross-cultural study, Early (1989) found that social loafing behavior did not occur in highly collectivist Chinese worker's groups in contrast to highly individualist US workers' groups within the same context. Thus, it seems logical to further test other types of specific cultural value aspects (*in this study, in-group collectivism*) and their interactions with social loafing behavior.

Plus, Karau and Williams (1993) maintained that individuals with a collectivistic orientation continue to display effort in contexts although the situation offers them social loafing. The dimension of individualism-collectivism appears to be relevant to social loafing and varies significantly across cultural settings (Klehe and Andeson, 2007). Thus, it seems probable that the antecedents of social loafing—*perceived dispensability, identifiability, accountability, and expectation of others' efforts*— may be related to an individual's

attributes and be affected by cultural background. Also, a large body of research revealed that personal responsibility and task visibility are major factors contributing to social loafing reduction (Williams, Harkins & Latane, 1981; Harkins & Szymanski, 1989; George, 1992). Hence, conditionally and/or contextually we can safely say that in-group collectivism values may moderate (Hayes, 2017) the relationship between social loafing and performance (*Exerted Effort*). In other words, the more individuals express/exhibit in-group collectivist cultural orientation, the less they will loaf.

Conceptual Model of The Present Study

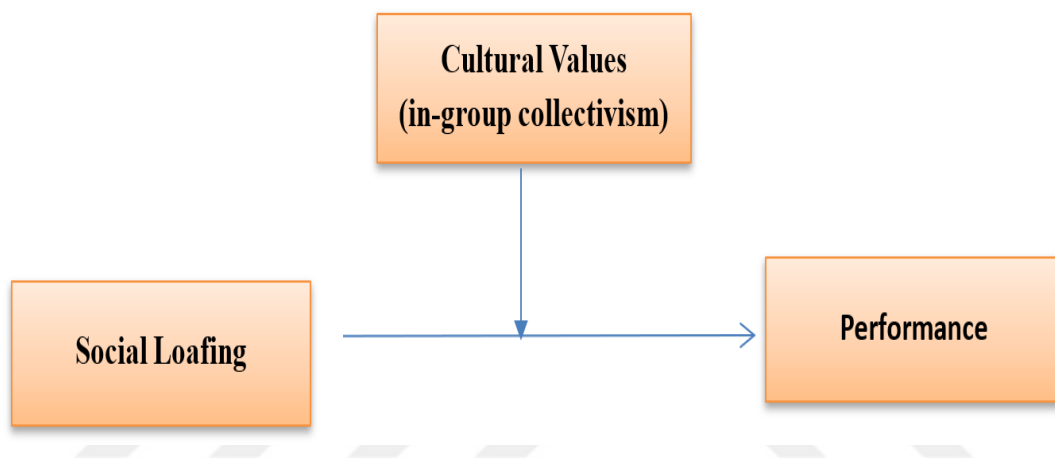


Figure 2.1. Conceptual model of the present study.

Therefore, it seems reasonable to predict and test the following hypotheses under the condition of experimental design;

Hypothesis 1. Randomly assigned first experimental group's participants (*randomly assigned mixed group- with the report of low in-group collectivism value*) will loaf, so their additive effort or performance will reduce considerably, if not eliminated.

Hypothesis 2: Although the situation invites social loafing, randomly assigned second experimental group's participants (*randomly assigned mixed group with the report of high in-group collectivism value*) will not loaf, so their additive effort or performance will not reduce, if not increase.

Hypothesis 3. Culture (*in-group collectivism*) will moderate the relationship between social loafing and performance (*exerted effort*), such that, the performance differences of the participants in the low collectivist group will be higher than those in the high collectivist group.

3. METHOD

3.1. Sample

Meta-analysis made by Karau and Williams (1993), indicates that previous studies of social loafing were mainly conducted in a laboratory setting (140), some of which were field setting (23), and “Cultures of Subjects” were largely Western (148) rather than Eastern (15). Although being very old, it is believed that the trend would follow a somewhat analogous pattern in the following studies “because of the nature of social loafing phenomenon’s limitation on not being able to find readily natural settings”. Therefore, other than individual cultural context, in this study, **collectivist cultural context** is selected for the sake of contributing to the richness and diversity of knowledge of social loafing literature. The population of this study could be any workplace and any worker in the Turkish Business Context. Just for the sake of accessibility and applicability of the experiment, convenient sampling was used.

Although being convenient sampling, the criteria that our sample should bear directed us to find a sample that **a)** Simple task which is mostly present in an assembly-line type of jobs found generally in manufacturing companies, **b)** The number of workers should be large enough to find enough participants that meet high and low in-group collectivists after the in-group collectivism scale employed, **c)** In order to be able to observe social loafing the task should fit the **collective type** of work, not coactive, conjunctive, disjunctive or any other type of work, **d)** In order to be able to attribute reduction in efforts solely to social loafing, but not any other features, the task should be suitable for working in maximizing condition. Initially, I looked for many companies that may potentially meet our criteria in many cities in Turkey and many various types of industrial companies for about three months, however, I was not able to find a suitable place for the study.

Finally, I could find a company where in the past I myself worked for a period of time as an HR specialist. The company to be recruited for this study was a porcelain insulator assembling factory where 200 employees work. All participants were active employees working in that factory, with no known disease or work-limiting conditions, and with certain working experience in this line of work.

3.2. The Experiment Field

Although laboratory experiments have been necessary for refining a theory of social loafing (Karau & Williams, 1993), **field research** help to determine whether the results of the studies can be generalized to intact workgroups in an organizational setting (George, 1992). Thus, to be able to generalize our results, we opted for field research. Moreover, we wanted to employ experimental research since we wanted to see better “*before and after picture*” of participants’ performances to figure out whether there will be any reduction in the efforts of participants due to social loafing. Another reason why we preferred to apply experimental research in the present research is that it is the most suitable tool to understand the causal mechanism between the related variables in the model.

The research field where the experiment was conducted is the largest factory that produces electro porcelain insulators in Turkey today. It was founded in 1996. The production started in Ankara İvedik Organized Industrial Zone, and today it continues in Sincan Organized Industrial Zone in facilities of modern machinery and industrial robots. It has a 48,000 square meters production area. 472 Personnel are currently working in that factory.

The manufactured products are as follows;

- Porcelain Insulators
- Insulator Fittings
- Transformer Equipment and Protection Tools

Our participants produce the boxes manually to put the above products in them and send them to the department in charge of dispatching them to the consumers.

3.3. Task

Jackson and Williams (1985) determined in their study that individuals performed less in group studies where **simple tasks** were performed and that they performed higher in new or difficult tasks. Harkins and Petty (1982) maintained that participants who worked on a **difficult task** as a group did not loaf, and also, they did not loaf when they believed their **contributions were unique**, no matter their efforts were identifiable. Furthermore, Kerr & Brunn (1983) maintained that the conjunctive or disjunctive tasks matter in terms of the

dispensability of effort in that they induce free-riding. Therefore, the task in this study couldn't be conjunctive or disjunctive as our research focus is social loafing, not "free-riding" or "sucker effect".

Taken from the above research findings, the task in this experiment is simple and easy (*not complicated*) and does not require a high level of cognitive ability, so neither the education levels of participants nor personal involvement is not a matter of effect in this task. Therefore, we abide by two key features of the original social loafing experiments **a)** The tasks are simple and easy, and **b)** Every participant carries out exactly the same activity (Ingham et al., 1974; Latané, Williams & Harkins, 1979; Harkins and Petty, 1982).

Basically, the task is the real job (*making boxes of porcelain insulators in an assembly line of an industrial factory*) which is done permanently in the factory. Research shows that one of the reasons for reduced effort is that participants think that the given tasks require an optimum level of effort, not the highest level. Based on these findings, rather than "*optimizing task*" in which success is a determinant of how closely the group attained the "best" or "desired" outcome, and "*typical performance task*" in which performers are not aware of any performance assessment or instruction to exert effort; **in this experiment** "*maximizing performance task*" (*short and evaluative situations during which the instruction to expend effort is quite apparent*) is applied in which success is based on how many or how fast a task is accomplished. Maximum performance situations must be **short enough to prevent persistence** from becoming an issue (Klehe & Anderson, 2007). Thus, in the present study, we confined the performance duration to one hour for each attempt.

Shirakashi (1985) instructed Japanese students to shout and clap when they were in groups that included either strangers or members of their own sports clubs. All participants in high and low cohesion worked hard cooperatively and collectively (*perhaps in accordance with the cultural emphasis on collectivism*). Accordingly, we can infer from the above findings that culture may confound group cohesiveness in terms of the social loafing effect and thus must be controlled or disregarded in this experiment. If we look at our group composition from the perspective of group cohesiveness; since our groups are formed with mixed individuals from diverse working lines of the factory based on their culture value scores, **we are secure in terms of confounding factors of group cohesiveness as well.**

3.4. Design

The design is a “**true (pure) pretest-posttest experimental design**” in which both experimental and control groups take place and the assignments to the groups are random. So, the highest internal validity for experimental design is expected to be secure. Two sets (*conditions*) of the experiment (*with and without cultural value measurement*) were conducted in succession along with pretest-posttest applications before and after treatments were made.

3.5. Procedure and Manipulations

There were two sets of experiments that were conducted in separate conditions. One was fulfilled “**with no or low in-group collectivism value**” and the other was conducted “**with high in-group collectivism value**”. In the beginning; all of the convenient employees’ (N=50) in-group collectivism cultural values were measured by a questionnaire developed by House et al. (2004) (*known as the GLOBE study*). Then, in a timely manner, each employee’s maximum level of individual performance was measured. After that, employees with no or low in-group collectivism cultural values were reserved for condition one, and employees whose in-group collectivism cultural values score high were reserved for condition two.

3.6. Data Collection Instruments

In the first step, the GLOBE In-Group Collectivism Scale was translated into Turkish by using Brislin’s translating-back translating method with the help of subject-matter experts.

In the second step, as per our control variables n (Ach) and n (Aff), Heckert et al. (2000)’s ‘Needs Assessment Questionnaire’ which was most suitable and applicable to our study was translated into Turkish by the same method.

GLOBE In-Group Collectivism Scale and translated version are at the **APPENDIX-A**. The needs Assessment Questionnaire's original version is at **APPENDIX-B**, the translated Turkish version is at **APPENDIX-C**, and finally, the Manipulations Check Questions are presented in **APPENDIX-D**.

3.6.1. Condition 1 (Low In-Group Collectivist Participants)

1. Participants that have no or low in-group collectivism value were randomly assigned into two groups.
2. The first group was the experimental group, and the second group was the control group.
3. In order to impede confounding factors, they were led to work in maximizing effort, and in a timely manner, within certain stable working physical conditions, such as light, heat, air condition, etc.
4. For making social loafing conditions, the experimental group was led to think that their individual performance would not be **identifiable and/or accountable by not being present there as the experimenter** during the time they were performing.
5. By not making any treatment, the control group was directed to work in a real working environment. In other words, each participant's performance could be **identifiable and accountable**; that is, the experimenter was present throughout the experiment and counted each box they made in front of them. The experimenter also wrote the number of boxes they produced on his notebook in front of them. Thus, the work setting in which their performances were **identifiable and measurable or accountable** and they would be **held responsible** for their performance was created.
6. The two groups' total performance was measured additively and compared with the sum of their previous individual performances to test social loafing if any.
7. If there were any significantly reduced effort in the experimental group than in the control group, then we would interpret that the difference could only be ascribed purely to social loafing, but no other factors. In other words, the results of the experiment would be due to the reduced effort originating from social loafing, and there would be no alternative explanation other than social loafing.

3.6.2. Condition 2 (High In-Group Collectivist Participants)

1. Participants, with high in-group collectivism cultural values, were randomly assigned into two groups. The first group was the experimental group, and the second group was the control group.
2. The experimental group was instructed to work under the same conditions, as in the previous experiment, so as not to confound again.

3. To create conditions for social loafing conditions, the experimental group was directed to believe that their performance would be **unidentifiable and unaccountable**. However, using the above-mentioned procedures and instructions, their individual performances were monitored and noted, and this perception was tried to create in the participants.

4. By not making any treatment, the control group was directed to work in an actual working setting which meant each one of their performances would not be **identifiable and/or accountable by not being present there as the experimenter** during the time they were performing.

5. Their individual and additive (total) performance was measured as well and contrasted with the sum of their individual and group performances to test social loafing if any.

6. If there occurred any significantly reduced effort in the experimental group than in the control group, then we would interpret that the outcome was the result of “social loafing”, **which was not anticipated**.

Finally, if participants in our experiments perceive making boxes in an assembly line of an industrial factory as an optimizing rather than a maximizing task, they might feel the optimal level of boxing output could be reached more easily in groups than alone, thereby they might reduce their effort (Latane, Williams and Harkins, 1979). Therefore, the experimenters reiterated their request to yell **“we will make boxes as much as we can”** over and over again during the experiment. The groups were asked just "how many boxes they were supposed to do before and during the experiment just to make sure that participants would not perceive the task as anything other than maximal. Lastly, for the sake of preventing contamination of reduced effort, **coordination loss** was prevented by sparing enough place and area for each participant’s working conditions.

3.7. Manipulations Check

After the experiment was completed, to make sure that the manipulations indeed worked, the participants of experimental groups were asked if they had ever thought, during the experiment, that their performance was/could be monitored and tracked and they would be held responsible for their efforts/performances or outputs. The answer to the question was a **7-point Likert scale** that ranged from 1-Absolutely thought to 7-Absolutely not thought.

To make sure that the prospected reduced effort would take place solely by the social loafing effect, the participants were asked if they had had any difficulties in coordinating and executing the task. The question again was a **7-point Likert scale** that ranged from 1- Strongly had, to 7- Strongly hadn't. They were also asked if they had understood the ask anything other than maximizing. The answer to this question was: 1- Yes or 2- No

4. MEASURES

4.1. Independent Variables

There are two independent variables in this study model. One is social loafing, and the other is in-group collectivism cultural value.

4.1.1. In-Group Collectivism

Table 4.1. Operational definition, concept, and measurement.

Variable	Conceptual Definition	Measurement Instrument
In-Group Collectivism (Individual-level)	The extent to which individuals should express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations, groups, and/or families. The GLOBE variable name is “in-group collectivism”.	The GLOBE In-Group Collectivism

Traditionally, the self is seen as an attribute of groups in collectivist cultures such as Japan; however, in individualist cultures such as the USA, the self is perceived as an entity independent of groups. Consequently, personal goals are prioritized over in-group goals in individualistic cultures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). According to this logic, cultural value dimensions, such as in-group collectivism, also show cross-cultural differences (Hofstede, 2001; House et al., 2004)

Bochner and Hesketh (1994) stated that individualized culture measures within nations require measurements that tap individual perceptions of culture. The manifestation of culture at the individual level can be seen in the cultures that individuals bring to the workplace, based on the environments in which they were raised and socialized (Klehe & Andeson, 2007). Rather than the collective level, in this study, we measured and obtained cultural value scores on an individual level. Hence, **the GLOBE scale was used** instead of Hofstede’s (1980, 1984, and 2001), because the former was developed specifically to assess collectivism value at the individual level while the latter was designed to assess the national level.

In-Group Collectivism Cultural Value:

Researchers in the fields of management, organizational behavior, and entrepreneurship has taken an interest in the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) Project (House et al., 2002). By asking each parent to complete the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) questionnaire individually (House et. al, 2004) they were able to find out the cultural values of parents. Nine cultural value dimensions have been identified as a result of the GLOBE initiative: performance orientation, uncertainty avoidance, in-group collectivism, power distance, gender egalitarianism, humane orientation, institutional collectivism, future orientation, and assertiveness. In addition, the scales are highly reliable and valid in comparison to other cultural scales, such as Hofstede's cultural dimensions, Schwartz's value scales, and the World Values Survey (House et. al, 2004).

The scales were developed to explain differences between societies. Scores for each country ("as is" scores) quantify each culture's existence and scores for individuals ("should be" scores) reflect what society hopes to achieve. The study measured the values to which individual parents aspired at the time of the study ("should be"). As parents choose to set up their child's environment based on their values, attitudes, and beliefs these values should reflect the activities, routines, and messages they wish to convey (Harkness & Super, 2002).

Cultural values in one's in-group refer to the extent to which one should express pride, loyalty, or cohesiveness in their group or family (Dorfman et al., 2012; House et al., 2004). These values are obtained using a questionnaire that asks participants to report their beliefs about norms and values in their society (Dorfman et al. 2012). According to House et al. (2004)'s seminal cultural study, *namely, GLOBE*, the sub-items of this measurement scale are three levels **a)** Individual-Level, **b)** Organizational-Level, and **c)** Societal-Level. Each item was rated using a **7-point Likert scale** (1-Strongly agree, to 7- Strongly disagree).

The details about the levels of the scale are presented in **Appendix-A**.

In the present study, **in-group collectivism cultural values** were measured by the individual expression of the participants according to House et al. (2004)'s seminal cultural study, *namely the GLOBE scale*, which was employed on each of them. **The GLOBE's** original scale was adapted to Turkish for this research. Meticulous attention was paid to avoid loss of meaning by first translating from English to Turkish, then from Turkish to

English, and again from English to Turkish by applying Brislin (1970)'s "translation-back translation method". As in the original scale, in-group collectivism value scores were measured by 6 items.

4.1.2. Social Loafing

In this study, is defined as having occurred when there is a significant reduction in the number of boxes produced, that's "**reduced effort**", by an individual employee after experimental procedures applied in comparison with the number of boxes produced by each employee individually.

Table 4.2. Operational definition, concept, and measurement.

Variable	Conceptual Definition	Measurement Instrument
Social Loafing	The reduction in motivation and effort when individuals work collectively compared with when they work individually or coactively.	Reduced Effort (Decrease in the effort, if any)

4.2. Dependent Variable

4.2.1. Performance

The performance was measured by maximizing (*not optimizing*) fashion and the performance criterion was additive which means that the sum of all individual performances was added (pooled) to the total score of any given group.

4.3. Control Variables

To rule out alternative explanations and not to confound the model, four control variables were used **a)** age, **b)** gender, **c)** need for affiliation (nAff), and **d)** need for achievement (nAch).

Murray (1938) was the first to mention the Need for Achievement, the Need for Power, and the Need for Affiliation as components of an integrated motivational model. Later, McClelland (1961) published “The Achieving Society” in which he proposed that these three needs provide the basis for human motivation in the workplace. The Need Theory and the Learned Needs Theory are two of his ideas that explain how the three needs (*Need for Achievement, Power, and Affiliation*) may influence people's actions in a professional setting.

4.3.1. Need for Affiliation (nAff)

Need for Affiliation is the desire for a friendly and close interpersonal relationship? The strongest (nAff) people are social and enjoy working with others (McClelland, 1975). People who have a high *Need for Affiliation* love creating and maintaining social relationships, enjoy belonging to groups, and want to feel loved and accepted (Sokolowski & Heckhausen, 2008). McClelland (1961) proposes that social needs are linked to a sense of self and a need for external stimulation in individuals with a high (nAff). People high in this need seek to be liked by others and to be helped in high regard by those around them. This makes high affiliation people good team/group members (Cicarelli and White, 2014; Robbins and Judge, 2012). Thus, in this experiment, we propose that the *Need for Affiliation* (nAff) values of individuals needs to be controlled. Participants’ (nAff) values were measured by a scale developed by Heckert et al. (2000) called the “Needs Assessment Questionnaire.” Participants reflected their opinions on a five-point Likert scale (1= *Strongly Disagree*; 5= *Strongly Agree*).

4.3.2. Need for Achievement (nAch)

People who are high in (nAch) look for careers and hobbies that allow others to evaluate them because these high achievers also need to have feedback on their performance along with the success of achieving their goals. Achievement motivation appears to be strongly related to success in work settings and the quality of what a person produces (Cicarelli and White, 2014; Spector, 2012). Therefore, (nAch) values of individuals also need to be controlled. Participants’ *Need for Achievement* values were measured by a scale developed by Heckert et al. (2000) called “Needs Assessment Questionnaire.” Participants reflect their opinions on a five-point Likert scale (1= *Strongly Disagree*; 5= *Strongly Agree*).

The coefficient alpha is 0.77 for (nAff) and 0.81 for (nAch), which means that “the Needs Assessment Questionnaire” is reliable. As per the convergent validity of “the Needs Assessment Questionnaire” and “the Manifest Needs Questionnaire” developed by Steers and Braunstein (1976), the correlation between the two scales is 0.56 ($p < .001$) for the (nAch) scales, 0.48 ($p < .00$) for the (nAff) scales. $X^2(165) = 333.03$, $p < .001$. The other fit indices (GFI = 0.86 and AGFI = 0.82). However, although the chi-square values remained statistically significant, both the GFI and AGFI increased in the student sample (0.92 and 0.89, respectively) and the worker sample (0.89 and 0.85, respectively). Taken together, the results from these four studies provide the support that the NAQ is a reliable and valid alternative to the Manifest Needs Questionnaire, with both student and worker samples, for measuring the needs for achievement, and affiliation (Heckert et al., 2000).



5. APPLICATION OF THE EXPERIMENT AND PROBLEMS FACED

In the first step, we tried to apply the experiment to the boxing line of production, however, we saw that only 3 people were working in that line at the same time which was not a satisfactory number for this study. Then we examined the whole factory in terms of suitability to our experiment criteria such as size, additive fashion, collective fashion, maximum performance condition, loss of coordination, identifiability, and accountability terms.

We looked for production lines that would meet our research criteria, but none of them was appropriate due to the following reasons;

For example, one line was not suitable for the study because the work was done coactively rather than collectively,

Another line was not suitable again because only 1 or 2 workers were working there at the same time, in other words, we could not constitute the required groups,

One of the other lines was not suitable due to the fact that the task was not simple but complex, in addition, it relied heavily on machine and automation working.

Unfortunately, we could not find an appropriate line that met our experiment criteria, terms, and conditions. We had to find a solution. Thus, we simply turned to our original idea of a production line, **box making line**. We talked with the foreman and workers of **box making line** to find out how many workers can work maximum at the same time without having any loss of coordination, or any other obstacles to working harmoniously. After trying every possible option and variation, we discovered at last that we could implement the experiment with **as many as 5 people that could work at the same time** without violating our experiment criteria and conditions.

When we started executing the conditions step by step we came across some sorts of problems. These problems were basically as follows;

First of all, the number of boxes did not decrease in the experimental group of low in-group condition, in contrast, it increased a little bit. When we searched for the reason we

found that they changed their work condition by putting the woods nearby them. Plus, they learned the tips and tricks of the job during the individual performance setting which accelerated their working speed when it comes to working in a group setting.

Furthermore, their hands and body positioning (*ergonomy*) become habitual behavior both physically and cognitively (*processing the information from the procedural memory, but not from declarative memory*) (**Declarative Memory**: involves some degree of conscious effort, as information must be consciously brought to mind and “declared” (McKee & Squire, 1993). On the other hand, **Procedural Memory**: is remembering (but not processing) previously executed movements, such as the steps of a dance or tying the laces of a shoe. It is rather an unconscious process (Cohen & Bacdayan, 1994). Using procedural memory, Individuals learned and exhibited improved performance, but they were not aware that they had learned. Because of this, our participants accelerated their movements in a group setting in contrast to an individual setting.

When we corrected and controlled these obstacles (*For instance, we had them get training and repeat the process over and over again for about 1 hour just before the experiment*), we saw that the number of boxes in the group-based setting application (*which was the second one and the workers acquired some experience compared to the first one*), declined only to the same level of individual performance, which was still contrary to our expectations.

So, we thought that there might be other factors that we did not take into consideration or we did something wrong. We made a group-based meeting with the participants about their experiences with our application. And of course, by asking some questions, we tried to find out the root cause of the unexpected results.

Eventually, both verbally from their mouth of words and from the answers they gave to **our manipulation questions** after the experiment (*We asked the participants of experimental groups if they ever thought, during the experiment, that their performances were monitored and tracked and they would be held responsible for their efforts/performances or outputs.*), We found out that our manipulations did not work at all. Therefore, after making the required changes according to the feedback we got, we made manipulations work. Subsequently, we repeated the same experiment, but this time with different participants, because the first group had already learned the nature and aim of the experiment.

6. ANALYSES AND FINDINGS

There are two types of statistics; one is parametric, and the other is non-parametric. A parametric statistic utilizes assumptions regarding the distribution of a population from which the sample was taken. For example, the most basic assumption of independent samples t-test or paired t-test is that the data conform to a normal distribution. Therefore, these two tests are parametric. Nonparametric statistics do not assume anything about the characteristics of the sample or whether the observed data is quantitative or qualitative. Plus, unlike parametric tests, **a non-parametric test assumes no distribution assumption**, nor does it assume the data to be analyzed come from any distribution. Therefore, **the data can be collected from any sample that is not characterized by a certain distribution** (Gürbüz & Şahin, 2014).

Field (2013) stated that “*Mann-Whitney U*” and “*Wilcoxon T*” tests are both non-parametric tests. “**Mann-Whitney U**” is a non-parametric alternative to the t-test for **independent samples** and the “**Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test**” for paired or **dependent samples**. Under these conditions, two groups, dependent or independent, in comparison, if;

1. Data are obtained with interval and proportional scales, but it does not conform to the normal distribution,
2. Data are presented as score values on a composite scale (such as points) calculated,
3. Data is calculated on an ordinal scale,
4. The sample size (for a group) is very small, in general $n < 7$.

Then Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test and Mann-Whitney U test should be used instead of t-tests.

Considering the nature of our data set, we should subscribe to the “**Mann-Whitney U Test**” and use it in our analyses since;

1. The sample size is 5 for each group ($N=20$); consequently, it does not conform to the normal distribution,
2. The sample size is very small ($N=20$).
3. The groups are independent.

We employed SPSS 26 version for making our analyses in this study.

6.1. The Case of Low Collectivist Groups

Table 6.1. Low collectivist control group.

Participants	Cultural Value Score Over 42	Mean Cultural Value Score Over 7	Control Group		Performance Difference
			Ind. Perf.	Group Perf.	
Participant 1	24	4	28	27	-1
Participant 2	31	5,16	52	52	
Participant 3	35	5,83	29	29	
Participant 4	34	5,66	40	41	
Participant 5	34	5,66	23	22	
			172	171	99,419

Note: Performance here indicates the number of boxes produced in the given duration. The mean cultural value score is obtained by dividing the maximum score (42) of in-group collectivism scale to the number of 6 questions in that scale.

The results of the Low Collectivist Control Group are given in **Table 6.1**. Participants' individual performances, additive performances, and their performance differences indicate from the face value that the results (*the performance difference*) came out to be as predicted.

Table 6.2. Low collectivist experimental group.

Participants	Cultural Value Sum	Mean	Experimental Group		Performance Difference
			Ind. Perf.	Group Perf.	
Participant 6	36	6	38	171	-36
Participant 7	20	3,33	44		
Participant 8	31	5,16	38		
Participant 9	33	5,5	48		
Participant 10	23	3,83	38		
			206	171	83,01

The results of the Low Collectivist Experimental Group are given in **Table 6.2**. Participants' individual performances, additive performances, and their performance differences indicate from the face value that the results (*the performance difference*) came out to be as predicted as well.

The Mann-Whitney U test is applied to test whether there is a difference between the performance changes (*individual perf. – group perf.*) of a total of 10 employees grouped (5 in each group) according to their cultural values.

Results of The Mann-Whitney U Test:

Table 6.3. Descriptive statistics.

Group Name	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Control Group	5	0,200	0,837	-1,00	1,00
Experimental Group	5	7,004	0,783	6,46	8,16

The descriptive statistics are given in **Table 6.3**. Before any manipulation was performed, the average of the individual performance differences of the participants was 0,200, and the standard deviation was 0,837. After dividing them into groups and performing the necessary manipulations, the average of the performance differences of the participants within the group *increased* (Mean: 7,004; Std. Dev.: 0,783).

Table 6.4. Test statistics.

Assessments	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Z	P
Individual Performance	5	0,200	0,837	-2,660	0,008**
Group Performance	5	7,004	0,783		

** $p < 0.05$

The test statistics are given in **Table 6.4**. The findings show that the difference between the additive individual performances of the participants and the additive group performances was significant at a significance rate of 0.05, after dividing them into groups according to cultural values and performing the necessary manipulations ($Z = -2,660$, $p < 0.05$). So, we can say that ***there is a significant difference between the control and the experimental group*** ($p < 0,05$). This result indicates that participants **whose in-group collectivism is low loafed considerably** when they were performing their tasks.

As a result, **Hypothesis-1 is accepted**. That's: "*randomly assigned low in-group collectivist experimental group's participants loafed, so their additive effort or performance reduced considerably*". In other words, the additive performances before the cultural grouping and the additive performances after the cultural grouping and necessary manipulations applied are not the same.

6.2. The Case of High Collectivist Groups

Table 6.5. High collectivist control group.

Participants	Sum Of Cultural Value	Mean	Control Group		Performance Difference
			Ind. Perf.	Group Perf.	
Participant 6	42	7	50	50	6
Participant 7	42	7	30	28	
Participant 8	42	7	40	38	
Participant 9	41	6,83	26	26	
Participant 10	41	6,83	60	70	
			206	212	

The results of the High Collectivist Control Group are given in **Table 6.5**. Participants' individual performances, additive performances, and their performance differences indicate from the face value that the results (*the performance difference*) came out to be as predicted.

Table 6.6. High collectivist experimental group.

Participants	Cultural Value Sum	Mean	Experimental Group		Performance Difference
			Ind. Perf.	Group Perf.	
Participant 1	41	6,83	60	207	-2
Participant 2	41	6,83	38		
Participant 3	41	6,83	45		
Participant 4	41	6,83	26		
Participant 5	40	6,66	40		
			209	207	99,043

The results of the High Collectivist Experimental Group are given in **Table 6.6**. Participants' individual performances, additive performances, and their performance differences indicate from the face value that the results (*the performance difference*) came out to be as predicted.

The Mann-Whitney U test is applied to test whether there is a difference between the performance changes (*individual perf. – group perf.*) of a total of 10 employees grouped (5 in each group) according to their cultural values.

Results of The Mann-Whitney U Test:

Table 6.7. Descriptive statistics.

Performance Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Individual Performance	5	-1,200	5,020	-10,00	2,00
Group Performance	5	0,418	0,123	0,26	0,60

The descriptive statistics are given in **Table 6.7**. Before any manipulation was performed, the average of the individual performance differences of the participants was -1,2 and the standard deviation was 5,020. After dividing them into groups and performing the necessary manipulations, the average of the performance differences of the participants within the group increased (*Mean: 0,148; Std. Dev.: 1,14*).

Table 6.8. Test statistics.

Assessments	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Z	P
Individual Performance	5	-1,200	5,020	-,525	,599
Group Performance	5	0,148	0,123		

$p > 0.05$

The test statistics are given in **Table 6.8**. The findings show that the difference between the additive individual performances of the participants and the additive group performances was not significant at a significance rate of 0.05, after dividing them into groups according to cultural values and performing the necessary manipulations ($Z = -,525$, $p > 0.05$). So, we can say that ***there isn't any significant difference between the control and the experimental group*** ($p > 0,05$). These results indicate that participants **whose in-group collectivism is high did not loaf** when they were performing their tasks.

As a result, **Hypothesis-2 is accepted**, meaning: “Randomly assigned high in-group collectivist experimental group’s participants did not loaf, so their additive effort or performance did not reduce”. In other words, the additive performances before the cultural grouping and the additive performances after the cultural grouping and manipulations applied are the same.

6.3. Comparison of Low and High In-Group Collectivist Experimental Groups

Table 6.9. Low collectivist experimental group.

Participants	Cultural Value Sum	Mean	Experimental Group		Performance Difference
			Ind. Perf.	Group Perf.	
Participant 6	36	6	38	171	-36
Participant 7	20	3,33	44		
Participant 8	31	5,16	38		
Participant 9	33	5,5	48		
Participant 10	23	3,83	38		
			206	171	83,01

Table 6.10. High collectivist experimental group.

Participants	Cultural Value Sum	Mean	Experimental Group		Performance Difference
			Ind. Perf.	Group Perf.	
Participant 1	41	6,83	60	207	-2
Participant 2	41	6,83	38		
Participant 3	41	6,83	45		
Participant 4	41	6,83	26		
Participant 5	40	6,66	40		
			209	207	99,043

The results of the **Low & High** Collectivist Experimental Groups are given in **Table 6.9. & Table 6.10.** Participants' individual performances, additive performances, and performance differences initially indicate that the results are in the same direction as hypothesized.

The Mann-Whitney U test was applied to test whether there is a difference between the performance changes (*individual perf. – group perf.*) of a total of 10 employees grouped (5 in each group) according to their cultural values (*low and high*).

Results of The Mann-Whitney U Test:

Table 6.11. Descriptive statistics.

Performance Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Low-in-Group Experimental	5	7,004	0,837	6,46	8,16
High-in-Group Experimental	5	0,418	0,123	0,26	0,60

The descriptive statistics are given in **Table 6.11**. After dividing them into groups and performing the necessary manipulations, the average of the performance differences of the participants in the low collectivist group is 7,004 with a standard deviation of 0,837, in the high collectivist group was 0,418 with a standard deviation of 0,123. As a result, the average of the low collectivist group was higher than the high collectivist group's average.

Table 6.12. Test statistics.

Assessments	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Z	P
Individual Performance	5	7,004	0,783	-2,643	,008**
Group Performance	5	0,418	0,123		

** $p < 0.05$

The findings from test statistics are in **Table 6.12**. show that the difference between the additive individual performances of the participants and the additive group performances was significant, after dividing them into groups according to extent of in-group collectivism and performing the necessary manipulations ($Z = -2,643$, $p < 0.05$). So, we can say that there is a significant difference between the two experimental groups (High and Low). This result demonstrates that the participants of the experimental group whose in-group collectivism is low loafed when they were performing their tasks whereas the experimental group of **high in-group collectivist participants did not involve in social loafing** as hypothesized.

As a result, **Hypothesis-3 is accepted**. That means “*Culture (in-group collectivism) moderated the relationship between social loafing and performance (exerted effort), such that, the more a participant expressed in-group collectivism cultural value the less he/she loafed*”. In other words, the additive performance difference between the high in-group collectivist experimental group and the low in-group experimental group's performance differences were not the same.

6.4. The Effect of Control Variables on Performance

In order not to confound the variables in this relationship we initially determined four variables, age, gender, n (Ach), and n (Aff), however, we ignored gender as there was only one participant in our sample, which means we controlled the remaining three variables. To find out if there is any significant effect of these control variables on the dependent variable, we made a regression analysis of the model. The descriptive statistics results are given in **Table 6.13.** below.

Table 6.13. Descriptive statistics.

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Performance Difference	1,605	4,026	20
Achievement n(Ach)	6,600	,658	20
Affiliation n(Aff)	5,170	,779	20

Table 6.14. Mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients of the variables.

Variables	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3
Performance Difference	1,605	4,027	-	0,056	-,285
Achievement	6,600	0,658	0,056	-	,152
Affiliation	5,170	0,779	-,285	,152	-

The Means, standard deviations, and correlation coefficients of the regression analyses are presented in **Table 6.14.**

Table 6.15. Multiple regression analysis results.

Variables	B	Std. Error	Beta
Achievement n(Ach)	,624	1,430	,102
Affiliation n(Aff)	-1,553	1,208	-,301
Constant	5,518	10,538	-

Note: R Square= 0,091; Adjusted R Square= -, 015; F (2, 17) = 0,856, p>0, 05

According to the results of regression analysis in **Table 6.15**, we see that the results are statistically **insignificant** [$F(2, 17) = 0,856, p > 0,05$]. Adjusted R Square is -0,015. Therefore, we can conclude that two control variables, namely **n (Ach)** and **n (Aff)**, **did not affect performance, the dependent variable**, which we also predicted.

6.5. The Effect of Manipulations on The Performance

In this study, we asked three manipulations check questions, however, the third question (*“Did you understand the task anything other than maximizing?”*) was about whether they knew that their task was to produce boxes in maximum fashion but not optimum or any other fashion **resulted in total “yes” responses from the participants**. Therefore, including it would not have any significant effect on this analysis, so **we excluded this manipulation question** from this analysis. The descriptive statistics results are given in **Table 6.16**. below.

Table 6.16. Descriptive statistics.

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Performance Difference	1,605	4,026	20
Manipulations Check Questions (Q1 and Q2)	3,033	1,288	20

The questions that were asked are as follows;

Q1: Have you ever thought, during the experiment, that your performance was monitored and tracked, and you would be held responsible for your effort/performance or output?

Q2: Did you have any difficulties in coordinating and/or executing the task?

Table 6.17. Mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients of the variables.

Variables	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2
Performance Difference	1,605	4,026	-	,147
Manipulations Check Questions (Q1 and Q2)	3,033	1,288	,147	-

The mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients are presented in **Table 6.17**.

Table 6.18. Multiple regression analysis results.

Variables	B	Std. Error	Beta
Manipulations Check Questions (Q1 and Q2)	,460	,729	,147
Constant	,212	2,393	-

Note: R Square= 0,022; Adjusted R Square= -0,033; F (1, 18) = 0,398, $p > 0,05$

According to the results of regression analysis in **Table 6.18**, we see that the results are statistically **insignificant** [F (1, 18) = 0,398, $p > 0,05$]. Adjusted R Square is -0,033. Therefore, the predictor variables, which are manipulations, **did not have a significant effect ($p > 0,05$) on the performance variable** as hypothesized. Therefore, we can conclude that the **manipulations we applied did work** in the experiments.

6.6. Regression Analysis of Control Variables [n (Ach) and n (Aff)] and Manipulations Check Questions Made Together

To find out the interactional relationship between control variables and manipulations on the dependent variable we made regression analyses. Descriptive Statistics results are presented in **Table 6.19**.

Table 6.19. Descriptive statistics.

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Performance Difference	1,605	4,026	20
Manipulations Check Questions (Q1 and Q2)	3,033	1,288	20
Achievement	6,600	,658	20
Affiliation	5,170	,779	20

Table 6.20. Mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients of the variables.

Variables	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4
Performance Difference	1,605	4,026	-	,147	,056	-,285
Manipulations Check Questions (Q1 and Q2)	3,033	1,288	,147	1	,310	,176
Achievement	6,600	,658	,056	,310	1	,152
Affiliation	5,170	,779	-,285	,176	,152	1

The mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients are presented in **Table 6.20.**

Table 6.21. Multiple regression analysis results.

Variables	B	Std. Error	Beta
Constant	6,608	10,766	-
Manipulations Check Questions (Q1 and Q2)	,593	,777	,190
Achievement	,287	1,514	,047
Affiliation	-1,682	1,235	-,326

Note: R Square= 0,123; Adjusted R Square= -0,041; F (3, 16) = 0,750, $p>0,05$

Having made regression analysis on control variables and manipulation questions concurrently, we see from **Table 6.21.** that the results are statistically **insignificant** [F (3, 16) = 0,750, $p>0,05$]. Adjusted R Square is -0,041. Therefore, the predictor variables, which are manipulations, n (Ach) and n (Aff), did not have a significant effect ($p>0,05$) on the performance variable.

Therefore, we can conclude that **neither manipulations nor control variables, n(Ach) and n(Aff), altogether did not affect the experiment made, in other words, the manipulations we applied and the variables we controlled paid off.**

6.7. The Effect of The Age as a Control Variable on Performance

The effect of age on performance can also be examined with regression analysis. In fact, age could be categorized, but the analysis would be meaningless because the sample is very small. The descriptive statistics results are given in **Table 6.22**.

Table 6.22. Descriptive statistics.

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation
Performance Difference	1,605	4,026
Age	34,200	9,105

Table 6.23. Mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients of the variables.

Variables	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2
Performance Difference	1,605	4,026	1	-,133
Age	34,200	9,105	-,133	1

The Mean, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients are shown in **Table 6.23**.

Table 6.24. Multiple regression analysis results.

Variables	B	Std. Error	Beta
Constant	3,611	3,651	-
Age	-,059	,103	-,133

Note: R Square= 0,018; Adjusted R Square= -0,037; F (1, 18) = 0,322, $p>0,05$

The results of the regression analysis are presented in **Table 6.24**. The results are **statistically insignificant** [F (1, 18) = 0,322, $p>0,05$]. Adjusted R Square is -0,037. Therefore, the predictor variable, **age**, did not have a significant effect ($p>0,05$) on the dependent variable performance difference. Thus, we can conclude that **age as a control variable did not affect the dependent variable performance difference** in the experiments.

Finally, not to confound again between the variables in this relationship besides three variables, age, *n* (Ach), and *n* (Aff) we set **gender as a fourth control variable**. However, only one participant was female out of N=20 participants. Consequently, since involving this control variable would not have any significant effect in this analysis, **we did not take it into consideration**.

Having made all the necessary analyses, we saw that all three hypotheses are supported. In other words, the variable in-group collectivism as a cultural value moderated the relationship between social loafing and performance.

Note that, we did not apply the typical procedure of analysis in determining the moderation effect of the moderator variable on the dependent variable in that the independent variable is not a certain numerical to measure in advance of analysis made and then make necessary regression analysis to find out the moderation effect if any. Furthermore, our sample was not suitable enough to find out the relationship between the variables through regression analysis which is also a part of moderator analysis. Rather, in this study, it is an inferential deduction we made based on the required analyses we made. Therefore, the results and conclusion (*no reduction in the effort of high in group collectivist experimental group*) from the model **after eliminating all the possible alternative explanations** through applying necessary manipulations and controlling certain variables, were derived and explained as moderator effect of in-group collectivism.

7. DISCUSSION

Before discussing this study's results and consequences we better first compare and contrast the past research results with the results of the present one and try to draw a parallelism between them by going through them one by one separately. But, keep in mind that never before there has been a direct study like this one on in-group collectivism and social loafing, and thus we are not able to compare and contrast any study to find out convergent and divergent issues and discuss the reasons for divergences or controversies if any.

The concept of cultural tightness and looseness was mentioned for the first time by Peltó (1968). He examined the differences between tight and loose societies by researching how societies express themselves and how they adhere to social norms. For example, he evaluated Japan as a tight society, where the norms are very strict and precise and severe penalties are imposed for deviations from these norms, while he evaluated Finland as a loose society, where the norms and rules are not so strict, they can be stretched when necessary, and deviations from these are tolerated.

Organizations, like societies, have their unique cultural structures. Employees produce different results within these different cultural structures. When viewed, in educational institutions with a strict organizational culture, rules are more effective, trainers expect obedience, and trainees try to behave like others because they know they are being watched. The cultural structure of the organization is also effective in social loafing because culture also determines value judgments. **Based on these value judgments, the individual knows that loafing behavior toward other employees will not be tolerated** (Kara & Beğenirbaş, 2021). In the literature, studies are showing that the tightness-looseness dimension is similar to the individualism-collectivism dimensions, that individualism is closer to the loose culture structure, while collectivism is closer to the tight culture structure (Carpenter, 2000; Triandis, 1989).

Drawing from the above argument by applying to academicians working in universities, Kara & Beğenirbaş (2021) postulated that **a)** Organizational tightness affects individuals' perceptions of social loafing negatively and significantly. **b)** Organizational looseness affects individuals' perceptions of social loafing positively and significantly. As a result, they found that organizational tightness-looseness and perception of social loafing

among individuals are moderately correlated in hypothesized directions. **This result is in parallel to our findings that culture is a determinant factor in social loafing, and collectivistic cultural values like cultural tightness negatively affect individuals' social loafing behavior.**

Social identity theory suggests that individuals are attracted to individuals who are similar to themselves because these individuals reinforce their self-image, and they perceive and treat other members of the same group more favorably than those who belong to other groups (Gómez, Kirkman & Shapiro, 2000). Generally, collectivists discriminate against out-group members and tend to favor in-group members. Collectivists also provided better ratings for members of their workgroups when they perceived them as in-group members than when they perceived them as out-group members. Additionally, studies of differential treatment have shown that differential treatment leads to larger reward allocations and decreased social loafing (Earley, 1993; Hui, Triandis, & Yee, 1991).

In collectivist societies, people tend to allocate their rewards more generously to recipients who are in their group (Hui, Triandis, & Yee, 1991). Positing that *“The collectivist evaluates an in-group member of the team more generously than the individualist when that team member is part of his or her in-group”* Gómez, Kirkman & Shapiro (2000) found that, rather than individualists, in-group membership was more important to the collectivists by adding that “it appears that **collectivists tend to behave more positively and allocate more resources to their in-group** when their assignments include colleagues perceived to be members of their in-group and this pattern emerges across three dependent measures (social loafing, money allocations, and evaluations)”. **This finding also justifies our initial arguments and findings that when we grouped participants of our field experiment according to their in-group cultural values, they behaved more positively toward their co-workers and hence did not reduce their effort for the collective good of their group as opposed to the low in-group collectivist participants.**

Individuals are more likely to favor their in-group than their out-groups if they have strong group loyalty. Gampe, Blaumeiser & Daum (2022) investigated the relationship between parental cultural values, as assessed by the GLOBE Questionnaire (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004), and children's expressions and attitudes toward group loyalty. To assess parental cultural values, parents were asked to complete the GLOBE Questionnaire. The results show that kids' loyalty to their groups is associated with an

important aspect of group formation, in-group collectivism. Findings from this study suggest the environmental and cultural niches set by parents affect children's attitudes toward group loyalty. In other words, parental values in in-group collectivism have a strong effect on children's loyalty. **Consequently, we can predict people's future behaviors, one of which is social loafing as in our case, by measuring their in-group collectivism values and hence their sense of loyalty stemming from in-group collectivism values to their groups. Therefore, the results of this study corroborate our findings as well.**

People prefer to treat members of their group and discriminate against members of other groups based on psychological factors, namely in-group favoritism. Discrimination against out-group members can be explained by people's subconscious beliefs rather than by a conflict of interests at least partly influenced by the environment they inhabit (Yamagishi, Jin & Miller, 1998). Individuals give preferential treatment to in-group members because they have affection for those who share their values and attitudes, or because their membership in the group gives them a sense of belonging. For instance, workers in Japan give priority to their company because they expect it will be reciprocated for the favors they do (Yamagishi, Jin & Miller, 1998). **According to this explanation, perhaps it may be that our participants in the experimental group did not prefer to loaf by their subconscious belief that their efforts would be reciprocated, which could be another explanation for the results we obtained.**

In another study, researchers examined the influence of cultural dimensions on entrepreneurial orientation in two service sectors, healthcare, and tourism (Nedeljković & Pavluković, 2020). Within this study, they focused on the cultural indicators (*parameters*) concerning tourism and entrepreneurship by using the GLOBE project stating that the GLOBE had been widely accepted and used in a variety of fields, including entrepreneurship, therefore, providing insight into the impact of culture dimensions on entrepreneurial orientation. So, they hypothesized that GLOBE Culture dimensions are predictors of entrepreneurial orientation dimensions. Based on the results they obtained through analysis, in-group collectivism was found to be significant on the criterion variable entrepreneurial orientation. According to this result, they reasoned that in communities without clearly defined institutional support for entrepreneurship development, group collectivism implies support from the group and the wider family, which is very significant support for launching entrepreneurial activities.

Through empirical evidence, Bao, Zhang & Chen (2015) attempted to identify how various dimensions of collectivism influence knowledge sharing through the mediation of in-group identification. An individual's identification with an in-group is based on the value or emotion of the members of that group and the strength with which they rely on or feel connected to them. The collectivist believes that his/her fate is tied to the fate of the collective, and s/he invests heavily in collectives to establish his or her identity. **Collectives must, therefore, verify that their partners are in the same boat before sharing knowledge** (Bao, Zhang & Chen, 2015).

Through in-group identification, they tried to provide insight into how collectivism affects knowledge sharing from a cultural perspective. According to Hwang & Kim (2007), knowledge sharing is said to be intrinsically motivated by culturally embedded intrinsic motivation, and collectivism is said to encourage knowledge sharing. Noticeably, those with high orientations to collectivism tend to differentiate within and between in-group and out-group members, and they are more willing to share their knowledge within their groups than with others (Chow, Deng, & Ho, 2000). A collective need to make sure that the members they share knowledge with are members of the same group as themselves (Bao, Zhang & Chen, 2015). Thus, they are required to identify another as an in-group member before sharing knowledge with them. In light of this, they sought to answer how management can manage employees' collective orientation to effectively encourage knowledge sharing in organizations.

Their study revealed valuable information regarding in-group collectivism and knowledge sharing. According to the cultural approach, the effect of collectivism on knowledge sharing in organizations is partly mediated by employees' identification with their groups, which in turn leads to stronger knowledge sharing among organizations. **From this perspective, it may be that one of the reasons that high in-group participants' performances in our experiment did not decline since they shared their knowledge in terms of “know-how” with their group members or helped each other when necessary as they were performing the task.**

In their study, Pathak & Muralidharan (2016) examined how informal institutions - such as societal values of in-group collectivism and interpersonal trust - affect individuals' likelihood of engagement in Social Entrepreneurship (SE) and Commercial Entrepreneurship (CE). Collectivist values within groups are defined as the extent to which

each individual should show pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness within their group (Dorfman et al. 2012; House et al. 2004). More specifically, these values reflect how much individuals feel a sense of belonging to a given society (Dorfman et al., 2012).

Based on the above premise, they predicted the presence of SE to be higher in societies that demonstrate high in-group collectivist values because of their underlying motivation to create social value as opposed to creating individual wealth, as in the case of commercial entrepreneurs. Based on the same reasoning, they suggested that societies that value in-group collectivism and group cohesion may discourage entry into CE, since such acceptance signals that the individual is putting his or her interests above those of the group, and therefore may not need to seek approval from stakeholders outside the commercial entrepreneur.

In societies where in-group collectivism is valued, social entrepreneurs will receive a higher level of support when it comes to accessing information and resources from local social networks since these networks focus on small groups. A society with a higher proportion of individuals who value group interests over individual interests would support social entrepreneurs via in-group collectivist values (Pathak & Muralidharan, 2016). Therefore, they hypothesized and tested “*Individual-level commercial entrepreneurial behavior is negatively correlated in-group collectivism*” and “*The likelihood of social entrepreneurship behavior at the individual level is positively correlated in-group collectivism*”. According to the results, in-group collectivistic values hinder the formation of a commercial enterprise driven solely by economic motives, but they facilitate the formation of social enterprises. Nevertheless, supplementary analyses show that in-group collectivist values can be conducive to CE which has a social motive as well as an economic one (Pathak & Muralidharan, 2016). **Accordingly, our participants' underlying motivation to create social value, noting that they already knew they were the members of an important experiment for scientific purposes that would serve as social value as well as the scientific value, might be another cause that they did not reduce their efforts and thus did not commit social loafing.**

Although many cultural studies maintain that social loafing is contextual there is some exception such as Clark & Baker (2011). Their study contradicted the assertion by some researchers that individuals from collectivist cultures are less likely to withdraw their efforts from a group; on the contrary, their findings suggest that some Chinese students were aware

that they weren't contributing equally to their groups and that it was contrary to their interests to do so. However, they ascribed this finding that there may well be a reason why social loafing occurs in diverse student groups due to pragmatism demonstrated by both collectivist and individualistic students (Clark & Baker, 2011). Chinese students, they suggest, are more likely than Western students to view education as a means to an end. In most cases, Chinese students do not see the pedagogical benefit of group work (*They say: "I don't see the point"... "It is time-wasting"*). As a result, it is inferred that student samples and school settings may not fit in workplace settings or contexts of social loafing studies. **Thus, we are now more convinced and confident that the results obtained in this study were not contaminated with sampling error since our sample consisted of real-life workers working in a manufacturing company at the time of the experiment.**

Having discussed our study with the previous studies in the relevant literature, now we continue with our discussion of the findings and results regarding this study as well as underlining the theoretical and practical contributions we made.

Undoubtedly, one of the most counterproductive organizational behaviors is social loafing. Social loafing is one of the most undesirable organizational behaviors in that it is of great importance for managers that the employees fully perform the duties they are obliged to perform in line with their employment contracts. However, managers who are always concerned about increasing performance and reducing social loafing cannot be as successful as desired in solving the problem, since they often do not have enough information on this subject.

Many global tasks are carried out by teams of individuals working together on collective tasks in which the inputs of each member are combined as a final product. For instance, Individual contributions are combined into a business committee report, symphony orchestra members create a piece of music together, and relay racers add their times together to get a team score. Today, competitive conditions are even getting harder and changes in dynamic environments are accelerating day by day. Organizations strive to be in continuous development to keep up with these rapid changes, cope with competition, and survive; in this case, it becomes more important than ever to be able to increase the performance of employees and prevent performance losses. In order to increase the performance of the employees and to prevent the decrease in their performance, the organizations are in different pursuits both in the selection of new employees and in directing their existing employees.

According to Latane, Williams, and Harkins (1979), social loafing only occurs when people believe that their performance is not identifiable because they think that “they can neither receive precise credit nor appropriate blame for their performance” (Latane et al., 1979, p. 830). Consequently, we can say that social loafing behavior is a two-faceted continuum: reward and punishment in which precise credit is associated with reward whereas blame is associated with punishment. Therefore, we derive from the above conclusion that people do not engage in loafing just because they assume that they will not be identifiable and thus unaccountable for their effort/performance but they may also loaf thinking that they will not receive any credit for their proper performance since their effort is unidentifiable. So, before we blame the workers for their reduced effort, we should be aware that their reduced effort may be the result of our work design and performance evaluation system (*note that “evaluation potential” is one of the moderators of the social loafing effect*), and take actions against these issues and remedy them.

It is also important both from a theoretical and practical perspective to understand the conditions under which individuals engage in social loafing. In practice, identifying moderating factors of social loafing suggests ways to reduce or eliminate social loafing through intervention processes in everyday workgroups and organizational settings.

People who grow up in individualistic cultures tend to become autonomous, unique, and separate. Individuals' needs, wishes, desires, and goals are given priority over group goals in these cultures. Conversely, collective cultures promote interdependence between individuals within a group. The individual in these cultures sacrifices personal goals and needs for the sake of the common good (Klehe & Anderson, 2007). Therefore, as we presented and shed light in the current study, being aware of the cultural aspects of individuals and acting accordingly in designing the workgroups or teams would certainly add value to the organizations.

The results of the present study highlighted several important concluding points. Our first conclusion is that these results showed strong support that culture as a variable could play an essential role in the social loafing behavior to the extent that individuals who hold in-group collectivist cultural values will not engage in social loafing. Second, although laboratory experiments have been necessary for refining a theory of social loafing (Karau & Williams, 1993), field research help to determine whether the results of the studies can be generalized to intact workgroups in an organizational setting (George, 1992). As laboratory

studies with student participants predominate in the vast majority of social loafing studies, we believe that our study is valuable in that it was designed to investigate social loafing in organizational settings which were intact workgroups and generalizable across industrial work settings. Third, certain management practices, such as self-managing work teams (Kirkman & Shapiro, 1997; Nicholls, Lane, & Brechu, 1999), have been on the rise. The members of these sorts of teams are often responsible for setting goals, inspecting their work, and even evaluating their own performance. Hence, the managers, for sure, would like to have employees in their self-managing work teams or workgroups that have collectivistic cultural values, as in in-group collectivism, against reducing their effort and productivity that originates from social loafing. Fourth, virtual teams or groups working remotely have been dramatically on the rise during the pandemics era and are predicted to increase exponentially even in the post pandemic era worldwide. Consequently, since close observation and monitoring of workers will suffer in remote working conditions, managers need to have employees more than ever that have proper collectivist orientation. Fifth, since values have changed dramatically for nearly 40 years since Hofstede (1980) collected his data, studies need to include actual measures of values to decrease the possibility of making errors in assumptions (Kirkman & Shapiro, 1997). For instance, Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars (1996). found that the United States was not the most individualistic nation despite ranking as the top individualistic country in Hofstede's study. Taken from this point of view, rather than relying on data collected nearly 20 years ago by House et al. (2004) named the GLOBE study, in the present study the data were collected directly from the participants.

In theoretical terms, we contribute to the literature in the following ways. First, to the best of our knowledge, among several moderator variables researched so far, this is the first study investigating **in-group collectivism as a moderator variable** between social loafing and performance variables. Next, we believe we contribute to the literature in the sense that we tapped into the subculture and used one of the cultural aspects of a widely known and accepted GLOBE study as a variable apart from the previous research and found evidence that supports our hypotheses. Third, we also believe that our findings can make a significant theoretical contribution to House et al. (2004)'s 62-country-wide cultural GLOBE study since **Turkey is one of the countries to be examined in this ongoing groundbreaking project**. Fourth, rather than relying on the fact that Turkey's score is high in terms of in-group collectivism value and taking it as a proxy, this study aimed to measure the value

ratings on the individual level for each participant for the sake of providing more valid and reliable results which also served as theoretical contribution regarding previous research method that relies on upon and use these data for their research. Finally, both the meta-analysis by Karau and Williams (1993) and subsequent studies show that studies on social loafing are mostly done in a laboratory setting while only a limited number of studies are done in the field, and also the context and participants were largely highly individualistic North American culture. For that reason, it is considered that this study will contribute significantly to the richness and diversity of information in the social loafing literature, due to the cultural context, the cultural values of the participants, and the fact that it is a field study conducted in a real working environment.

The primary goal of the present study was to understand the properties of certain cultural values that influence the widely searched social loafing phenomenon in the Turkish context. Our findings provided evidence that in-group collectivist cultural values have a significant determinant effect on the relationship between social loafing and exerted effort or performance. All in all, we have provided a more detailed and refined articulation of how in-group collectivism influences performance (exertion) through social loafing, contributing to the existing body of literature on the cultural influence on social loafing.

8. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

In contemporary work life, group assignments are popular. However, social loafing negatively affects the quality and quantity of work done by workers. This study provides valuable new insights into addressing the issue of social loafing. The results indicate that collectivism within the group is very important for social loafing, such that a low level of collectivism within the group contributes to social loafing. It is crucial for managers or team leads to focus on building collectivist group compositions so as to promote cooperation and participation, especially when they are working collaboratively, to reduce social loafing behavior.

It is therefore essential to consider cultural factors when distributing group assignments, especially when supervisors or managers are not present or when close supervision isn't possible or feasible. Otherwise, other factors such as shared responsibility, accountability, and identifiability should nevertheless be taken into account in situations where social loafing is a problem because these might still act as that necessary "push" to motivate workers to actively participate in group work. For organizations to gain and maintain an advantage in today's competitive world, they must closely monitor changes in socio-cultural areas. Likewise, organizations must also be able to change their strategies in response to change.

The problem of social loafing extends beyond the lost productivity of the participants. In addition, those who engage in social loafing may reduce their own efforts to avoid being seen as “sucker” (Kerr, 1983). Jackson and Harkins (1985), for example, found that when group members expect others to engage in social loafing, they may lower their own efforts to keep up with the loafers. Social loafing may thus cause others to lower their own efforts when working in a group or team setting other than the factors and situations that offer to loaf.

As a result of working with others within the organization, individuals are likely to develop several attitudes and behaviors. Social loafing tends to be among these behaviors. The perceived culture of the organization should be created in such a way that prevents the social loafing behavior of these individuals, reveals their actual capabilities, and leverages them to the organization's advantage (Kara & Beğenirbaş, 2021).

The managers should be aware of the fact that on the positive side there is a tendency for in-group members to be more cooperative and cohesive and to be more committed to, satisfied with, and trusting of their teams; however, on the flip side, as Kirkman & Shapiro (1997) underlined achieving fair performance evaluations between team members may suffer as in-group collectivistic raters may not be willing to distinguish between the good and bad performance of their in-group members.

People who work in an environment where their unidentified efforts are combined into one output may be prone to social loafing. Thus, business practices that merely group workers into teams to enhance group spirit, job satisfaction, and productivity may not be effective or may not lead to any benefits. Therefore, we suggest that business people or practitioners should be particularly wise, and pay attention to the factors that increase in-group attraction or commitment, or those that activate individuals' concerns about self-validation collectively that contribute to the reduction of social loafing.

As a result, this study offers an enhanced framework regarding the aspects of in-group cultural values that influence performance as well as an in-depth analysis of how performance reduction in groups/teams in organizations can be effectively eliminated by promoting in-group collectivism. Since there is no other study in the national literature that deals with the variables in question as a whole, it is considered that it will contribute to the literature and will also lead to changes in the managerial behaviors of managers and practitioners.

Latane et al. (1979) suggested that social loafing is **a kind of social disease** that causes negative consequences for individuals, social institutions, and societies, such as inefficiency, low motivation, and decreases in profitability. In this case, it is of great importance for organizations to combat social loafing. The tools to be used in this struggle are hidden in the elements that make up social loafing. **Group cohesion** and **group size** are the primary factors that organizations can easily evaluate to reduce or, if possible, eliminate social loafing. The level of social loafing is expected to decrease in organizations that **encourage group cohesion** as well as **keep groups as small as possible**. Although there is a tendency in organizations to assign interdependent tasks to group employees, **reducing interdependent work** as much as possible is an important step in coping with social loafing (Liden et al., 2004).

Rothwell (2004) suggested **group motivation** as a solution to social loafing. For motivation, he suggested the application of the concepts of "collaboration," "content," and "choice," known as the "3 Cs of motivation". What Rothwell (2004) means by "**collaboration**" is the assignment of specific and meaningful tasks to all group members. "**Content**" on the other hand, represents the importance of the individual's task to the group. The concept of "**choice**" also represents allowing group members to choose the task they want to perform. According to him, when these three concepts are applied, a significant decrease in social loafing is observed.

On the other hand, eliminating social loafing is not as easy as in experiments performed in artificial environments. Social loafing is widespread in task and effort types, and also it is not limited to tasks aimed at the highest level. This problem is also experienced in tasks where the most appropriate level is targeted. Social loafing can be valid for **cognitive, physical, and perceptual efforts**. In addition, although it has been determined that it is less common in Eastern cultures and women; however, it does not disappear entirely under these conditions. Moreover, although the potential of the participants to be evaluated separately or the significance of the tasks is tried to be kept high, as in real-life laboratory conditions, it is not always possible to easily distinguish individual inputs and to assign inspiring and exciting tasks to individuals.

Even in occupations with high intrinsic value, at least some essential parts of the job can be repetitive or boring. Finally, it was observed that even when all participants were trained with very close friends, high levels of group cohesion did not eliminate, if not reduce, loafing all the time (Karau and Williams, 1993). Plus, in real life, individuals often do not know their colleagues well enough to socialize, and thus they may not be together. In this case, it would be logical for organizations to **use as many of the factors that alleviate social loafing together as possible** to at least reduce this problem as much as possible.

All in all, in addition to what scholars found in the previous studies such as giving individuals feedback about their performance or the performance of their workgroups, monitoring individual performance or identifying such performance, assigning meaningful tasks, and making tasks unique enough for individuals to feel more responsible for their work, improving the cohesiveness of the workgroup, and allowing individuals to feel that they have an important role, paying close attention cultural factors, namely in-group collectivism, could also eliminate or limit social loafing.

9. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study has several limitations which open up research avenues in the future. This study is limited in the sense that the sample is restricted and convenient which may pose a threat as a form of sampling error. Although they are control variables, having a sample size of 20 may also pose a threat to our findings, since the threshold for making regression analysis is 25 (Jenkins & Quintana-Ascencio, 2020). Furthermore, not being able to include any female participants in the analysis we made can be counted as a limitation as well. Consequently, there may be questions regarding the generalizability of the findings from this study based on the sample used. Thus, it is premature to generalize findings from this study until they have been replicated in other samples. Another issue is that the result of the experiment is bound to the respondents' candid and honest responses to the GLOBE in-group collectivism cultural value scale and their understandings/perceptions of the meaning of the mentioned terms, concepts, and/or wordings/meanings of the items given in the questionnaire. The study is also limited in terms of researchers' assumptions about control variables that are taken into account since there may be other missed potential control variables which in return would threaten and contaminate our research's results as well. Finally, in our study, we only had one female participant whose performance was not taken into consideration due to statistical reasons as discussed earlier. Thus, our sample consists of male participants. Consequently, future studies had better involve females in their sample as well.

There are several levels at which future research can be productive. To begin with, the sample is of a limited scale, the size of the group could be increased and the results should be seen as well since our group was small. Hence, future empirical studies would be well-served by using a larger sample to examine the effects of in-group collectivism on social loafing and performance in many dimensions. Secondly, the empirical result of our study is based on samples taken from a typical collectivist culture, however, since collectivism is a behavioral orientation applicable to any culture, cross-cultural observations further substantiate the results of our study.

The fact that this study is the first study that examines the relationship between in-group collectivism and a social loafing relationship to date, future studies should replicate the study with or without the same context to further support this research. In addition, for the sake of the generalizability of in-group collectivism and a social loafing relationship, this

relationship would be further addressed by additional research examining the related variables cross-culturally since this was conducted only in one country with a moderate in-group collectivism cultural value score.

Many organizations rely on virtual teams and groups to function. As compared with their face-to-face counterparts, virtual team members performed less well and scored lower in satisfaction. The popularity of virtual teams stems from the fact that they allow people from diverse locations to work together. By assembling asynchronously geographically distributed groups, virtual teams can solve problems efficiently (Taras et al, 2018). However, Pillis & Furumo (2007) concluded that virtual teams often encounter free-riders who fail to carry out their share of the responsibilities. Thus, future researchers should figure out whether in-group collectivism is still in effect for virtual teams as well.

As far as we know, to date, this is the first cultural study that attempted to find this relationship using the GLOBE study. Future research should also attempt to identify the GLOBE's other components as potential moderators of social loafing, such as **performance orientation** (*the degree to which an organization or society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence*) (p.42), or **humane orientation** (*the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies encourage and reward individuals for being fair, altruistic, friendly, generous, caring, and kind to others*) (p.42) which may provide valuable and insightful avenues to the literature as well.

Having established that social loafing is a phenomenon, researchers set about identifying what contextual and personality factors are associated with it and ways to curb it. A variety of factors, such as increasing group size (which decreases individual visibility), the degree to which individuals view themselves as unique compared to their peers, fatigue, and even gender, have all contributed to individuals engaging in social loafing. Additionally, researchers discovered that identifying a collaborator's contribution to a project, increasing the difficulty of the task, and even self-evaluating the task all led to a reduced incidence of loafing (Simms & Nichols, 2014).

In conclusion, as previous researchers suggest we believe that there may be many more moderators for social loafing. We also believe that a better understanding of these moderators, one of which is in-group collectivism according to the results of this study, would serve to identify the conditions/context where group performance or team effort is most likely to suffer from a process loss.

10. REFERENCES

- Adams, J. S. (1963). Toward an understanding of inequity. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 67, 422-436.
- Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in Social Exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*. New York: Academic Press, pp. 267- 300.
- Adler, N. J., Doktor, R., & Redding, S. G. (1986). From the Atlantic to the Pacific century: Cross-cultural management reviewed. *Journal of management*, 12 (2), 295-318.
- Aksan, B. (2020). *The intermediation role of work alienation on the effect of burnout on social loafing in business life: A research on the Y generation*. Master Thesis, Bahçeşehir University Institute of Social Sciences, İstanbul.
- APA Dictionary of Psychology. (2022, June 4). Dictionary.Apa.Org. Retrieved April 29, 2022, from <https://dictionary.apa.org/free-riding>.
- APA Dictionary of Psychology. (2022, June 4). Dictionary.Apa.Org. Retrieved May 20, 2022, from <https://dictionary.apa.org/sucker-effect>.
- Akgündüz, Y., Akdağ, G., Güler, O., & Sünnetçioğlu, S. (2015). The Effect of Turnover Intention and Role Overload on Social Loafing Behaviors of Hotel Employees. *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 16 (4), 515-536.
- Arıbaş, A. N. (2020). *The role of psychological security in the effects of learned helplessness, organizational silence and social loafing: An application on health professionals*. Ph.D. Thesis, Selçuk University Institute of Social Sciences, Konya.
- Avcı, S. (2020). *Analysis of social loafing and employee performance in the small-scale food and beverage businesses. An application in Balıkesir*. Master Thesis, Balıkesir University Institute of Social Sciences, Balıkesir.
- Aydemir, K. (2019). *The effect of perceived leadership on social loafing: A research on the kitchen department staff of five-star hotel businesses in Antalya*. Master Thesis, Ondokuz Mayıs University Institute of Social Sciences, Samsun.

- Aydemir, S. (2018). The Effect of Perceived Social Loafing on the Tendency of Conflict in Organisations. *MANAS Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 7 (2), 259-275.
- Aydın, Ş. N., & Akın, A. (2020). Relationship between Organizational Ostracism and Social Loafing and Examination of the Differences According to Demographic Variables. *Kırıkkale Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 10 (2), 423-448.
- Ayduğ, D., Himmetoğlu, B., & Ağaoglu, E. (2021). Relationships between Teachers' Opinions on Perceived Coworkers' Social Loafing, Organizational Cynicism and Task Visibility. *International Primary Education Research Journal*, 5 (2), 200-211.
- Ayyıldız, R. (2019). *The Effect of Social Loafing Behavior on Occupational Burnout: A Research on Health Professionals*. Master Thesis, Selçuk University Institute of Health Sciences, Konya.
- Balcı, O. (2016). *Examining the relationship between organizational cynicism, presenteeism, and social loafing of the administrators/teachers working in primary schools: The case of Arnavutköy district*. Ph.D. Thesis, Istanbul Arel University Institute of Social Sciences, Istanbul.
- Bao, G., Zhang, Z., & Chen, J. (2015). The mediation of in-group identification between collectivism and knowledge sharing. *Innovation*, 17(3), 341-363.
- Biroğlu, E. (2018). *The relationship between organizational cynicism and social loafing: A study on hotel establishments*. Master Thesis, Balıkesir University Institute of Social Sciences, Balıkesir.
- Brickner, M., Harkins, S., & Ostrom, T. (1986). Effects of personal involvement: Thought-provoking implications for social loafing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(4), 763-770.
- Brislin, R. W. (1970). Back-Translation for Cross-Cultural Research. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 1(3), 185-216.
- Bochner, S., and Hesketh, B. (1994). Power Distance, Individualism-Collectivism and a Job-Related Attitudes in a Culturally Diverse Work Group. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Study*, 25 (2), 233-257.

- Bozkurt, F. G. (2012). *A study about the moderating effect of trust in managers in the relationship of delegation of authority with psychological empowerment and manager's perceived social loafing*. Ph.D. Thesis, Hacettepe University Institute of Social Sciences, Ankara.
- Bryan, S. C., and Christine, M. R. (2003). A Review of Cross-Cultural Methodologies for Organizational Research: A Best Practices Approach. *Organizational Research Methods*, 6 (2), 169-215.
- Buz, E. (2011). *The relationship between perceived group-based performance appraisal and social loafing and the moderating role of task visibility*. Master Thesis, Marmara University Institute of Social Sciences, İstanbul.
- Çakır, S. (2017). *Opinions of secondary school teachers on their level of perceived organizational support and social loafing behavior*. Master Thesis, Abant İzzet Baysal University Institute of Educational Sciences, Bolu.
- Carpenter, S. (2000). Effects of cultural tightness and collectivism on self-concept and causal attributions. *Cross-Cultural Research*, 34, 38-56.
- Çavuş, S. (2021). *The relationship between the neurotic structure of special education staff and social loafing*. Master Thesis, Maltepe University Graduate Education Institute. İstanbul.
- Chow, C. W., Deng, F. J., & Ho, J. I. (2000). The openness of knowledge sharing within organizations: A comparative study in the United States and the People's Republic of China. *Journal of Management Accounting Research*, 12, 65–95.
- Ciccarelli, S. K., and White, J. N. (2014). *Psychology*. Pearson New International Edition, London: Edinburgh Gate.
- Clark, J., & Baker, T. (2011). It's not fair: Cultural attitudes to social loafing in ethnically diverse groups. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, 12 (1), 124–140.
- Cohen, M. D., & Bacdayan, P. (1994). Organizational routines are stored as procedural memory: Evidence from a laboratory study. *Organization Science*, 5 (4), 554-568.

- Danişman, A. (2010). Good Intentions and Failed Implementation: Understanding Culture-based Resistance to Organizational Change. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 19 (2), 200-220.
- Demir, U. Y., & Çavuş, M. F. (2014). Organizational Justice and Loafing Behaviors. *Ordu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Sosyal Bilimler Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 4 (9), 51-54.
- Doğan, A., Bozkurt, S., & Demir, R. (2012). A Research about Investigating the Relationship between Social Loafing Behavior and the Perception of Task Visibility. *Sosyal Ekonomik Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 12 (24), 53-80.
- Dorfman, P. W., Javidan, M., Hanges, P. J., Dastmalchian, A. and House, R. J. (2012). GLOBE: A Twenty-Year Journey into the Intriguing World of Culture and Leadership. *Journal of World Business*. 47 (4), 504-518.
- Davis, J. H. (1969). *Group performance*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley
- Earley, P. C. (1989). Social Loafing and Collectivism: A Comparison of the United States and the People's Republic of China. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 34, 565-581.
- Earley, P. C. (1993). East meets West meets Mideast: Further explorations of collectivistic and individualistic workgroups. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36, 319-348.
- Ersöz, Z. (2019). *An investigation of the relationship of the researchers between organizational commitment and the social loafing behaviors*. Master Thesis, Bursa Uludağ University Institute of Educational Sciences, Bursa.
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. Sage.
- Gampe, A., Blaumeiser, J., & Daum, M. M. (2022). Children's group loyalty is related to parental in-group collectivism. *Cognitive Development*, 61, 101-130.
- George, J. M. (1992). Extrinsic and Intrinsic Origins of Perceived Social Loafing in Organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35 (1), 191-202.
- George, J. M. (1995). Asymmetrical effects of rewards and punishments: The case of social loafing. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 68 (4), 327-338.

- Gómez, C., Kirkman, B. L., & Shapiro, D. L. (2000). The impact of collectivism and in-group/out-group membership on the evaluation generosity of team members. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43 (6), 1097-1106.
- Gök, A. G., & Koca, D. (2016). The Impact of Healthcare Providers' Hierarchy and Team Trend on Social Loafing: Case of Isparta District Hospitals. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 8 (17), 354-375.
- Gümüş, E. (2021). *Examining the relationship between demographic characteristics and organizational cynicism and social loafing*. Master Thesis, Niğde Ömer Halisdemir University Institute of Social Sciences, Niğde.
- Gürbüz, S., & Şahin, F. (2014). *Sosyal bilimlerde araştırma yöntemleri*. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık, 271.
- Harkins, S. G., & Petty, R. E. (1982). Effects of Task Difficulty and Task Uniqueness on Social Loafing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 45, 1214-1229.
- Harkins, S. G. (1987). Social loafing and social facilitation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 23, 1-18.
- Harris, P. R., & Moran, R. T. (1987). *Managing Cultural Differences*. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing.
- Harkins, S. G., & Szymanski, K. (1989). Social loafing and group evaluation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56 (6), 934-941.
- Harkness, S., & Super, C. M. (2002). Culture and parenting. *Handbook of parenting*, 2 (2), 253-280.
- Hayes, A. F. (2017). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. Guilford publications.
- Heckert, T. M., Cuneio, G., Hannah, A. P., Adams, P. J., Droste, H. E., Mueller, M. A., & Roberts, L. L. (2000). Creation of a new needs assessment questionnaire. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 15 (1), 121-136.

- Himmetoğlu, B., Ayduğ, D., & Terzi, C. (2018). Relationships between Political Behaviors of School Principals and Perceived Coworkers' Social Loafing among Teachers. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 18 (76), 1-20.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's Consequences*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. (1984). *Culture's Consequences. International Differences in Work-Related Values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations across Nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- House, R., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., & Dorfman, P. (2002). Understanding cultures and implicit leadership theories across the globe: an introduction to project GLOBE. *Journal of world business*, 37 (1), 3-10.
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., and Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hui, C. H., Triandis, H. G., & Yee, C. (1991). Cultural differences in reward allocation: Is collectivism the explanation? *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 30, 145-157.
- Hwang, Y., & Kim, D. J. (2007). Understanding affective commitment, collectivist culture, and social influence in relation to knowledge sharing in technology-mediated learning. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, 50, 232–248.
- İlgin, B. (2010). *The roles of emotional intelligence and leader-member exchange in the occurrence of the organizational citizenship behaviors and their relationship with the social loafing*. Ph.D. Thesis, Hacettepe University Institute of Social Sciences, Ankara.
- Ingham, A. G., Levinger, G., Graves, J., & Peckham, V. (1974). The Ringelmann Effect: Studies of Group Size and Group Performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 10, 371-384.
- İnanç, C. S. (2020). *Research on examining the relationship between employer brand and social loafing*. Master Thesis, Recep Tayyip Erdogan University Institute of Social Sciences, Rize.

- Jackson, J. M., & Harkins, S. G. (1985). Equity in Effort: An Explanation of the Social Loafing Effect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 49, 1199-1206.
- Jackson, J. and Williams, K. (1985) Social Loafing on Difficult Tasks: Working Collectively Can Improve Performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 49 (4), 937-972.
- Jenkins, D. G., & Quintana-Ascencio, P. F. (2020). A solution to minimum sample size for regressions. *PloS ONE*, 15 (2): e0229345.
- Kafes, M., Kaya, Ş. D. (2017). Sosyal Kaytarma Davranışı Üzerine Yapılmış Çalışmaların İncelenmesi. *Türk ve İslam Dünyası Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 4 (11), 227-245.
- Kameda, T., Stasson, M., Davis, J., Parks, C., & Zimmerman, S. (1992). Social Dilemmas, Subgroups, and Motivation Loss in Task-Oriented Groups: In Search of an "Optimal" Team Size in Division of Work. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 55 (1), 47-56.
- Kanten, S. (2018). The Effect of Quality of Work-Life on Social Loafing and Procrastination Behavior: The Role of Ethical Climate Perception. *Yönetim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 16 (32), 559-576.
- Kanten, P. (2014). The Mediating Role of Emotional Exhaustion in the Effect of Workplace Incivility on Social Loafing Behavior and Intention to Leave. *Aksaray Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 6 (1), 11-26.
- Kara, A. U. (2020). *The mediated effect of organizational justice and communication satisfaction in the effect of cultural tightness-looseness on social loafing*. Ph.D. Thesis, Gazi University Institute of Social Sciences, Ankara.
- Kara & Beğenirbaş (2021). Örgütsel Sıkılık-Esnekliğin Sosyal Kaytarma Algısı ve Yenilikçiliğe Olan Etkileri: Akademisyenler Üzerinde Bir Araştırma. *Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*. 2021 (45), 413-429
- Karau, S., and Williams, K. D. (1993). Social Loafing: A Meta-Analytic Review and Theoretical Integration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65 (4), 681-706.
- Karau, S., & Williams, K. D. (1997). The Effects of Group Cohesiveness on Social Loafing and Social Compensation. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 1 (4), 156-168.

- Karau, S. J., & Hart, J. W. (1998). Group cohesiveness and social loafing: Effects of a social interaction manipulation on individual motivation within groups. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 2 (3), 185.
- Kaya, E. B., & Pazarcık, Y. (2021). The Effect of Group Cohesiveness on Social Loafing and Job Satisfaction. *Troy Academy*, 6 (3), 924-944.
- Kaya, E. B. (2020). *The effect of group cohesion on social loafing and job satisfaction: A research on logistics sector in Çanakkale province*. Master Thesis, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University Graduate School of Education, Çanakkale.
- Kayıkçı, M. Y. (2019). *The mediating role of positive psychological capital in the effect of perceived leadership behavior on social loafing: A research on hotel enterprises*. Ph.D. Thesis, Sakarya University of Applied Sciences Graduate School of Institution, Sakarya.
- Kerr, N. L. (1983). Motivation losses in small groups: A social dilemma analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 45, 819-828.
- Kerr, N. L., & Brunn, S. E. (1983). Dispensability of member effort and group motivation losses: Free-rider effects. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 44, 78-94.
- Kesen, M. (2015). Does Psychological Empowerment Decrease Social Loafing Behaviors of Employees? *Yaşar Üniversitesi E-Dergisi*, 10 (38), 6531-6540.
- Kidwell, R. E., & Bennett, N. (1993). Employee propensity to withhold effort: A conceptual model to intersect three avenues of research. *Academy of Management Review*, 18: 429-456.
- Kim, U., Triandis, H. C., Kagitcibasi, C., Choi, S. C., & Yoon, G. (Eds.). (1994). *Individualism and collectivism: Theory, method, and applications*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kirkman, B. L., & Shapiro, D. L. (1997). The impact of cultural values on employee resistance to teams: Toward a model of globalized self-managing work team effectiveness. *Academy of Management Review*, 22 (3), 730-757.
- Kirmanoglu, T., & Erbay, E. Ö. (2020). The Moderating Effect of Personality Traits on the

Relationship between Psychological Contract Violation and Social Loafing. *İş'te Davranış Dergisi*, 5 (1), 2-16.

Klehe, U. C., & Andeson, N. (2007). The Moderating Influence of Personality and Culture on Social Loafing in Typical versus Maximum Performance Situations. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 15 (2), 250-262.

Köksal, K. (2020). The Effect of Perceived Social Loafing on Organizational Justice: The Moderating Role of Political Behavior. *MANAS Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 9 (3), 1750-1761.

Köksal, K., Gürsoy, A. (2019). The Mediating Role of Social Loafing Perception in The Relationship Between Role Ambiguity and Political Behavior: Structural Equation Modeling. *Ekonomik ve Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 15, 49-59.

Kravitz, D. A., & Martin, B. (1986). Ringelmann Rediscovered: The Original Article. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50 (5), 936-941.

Kurtoğlu, Z. (2021). *The effect of quality of work-life on social loafing and procrastination behavior: A research on nurses working at the Health Practice and Research Hospital of Kahramanmaraş Sütçü Imam University*. Master Thesis, Kahramanmaraş Sutcu Imam University Institute of Social Sciences, Kahramanmaraş.

Latané, B., Williams, K., & Harkins, S. (1979). Many hands make light the work: The causes and consequences of social loafing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 37 (6), 822-832.

Latane, B. (1981). The psychology of social impact. *American Psychologist*, 36, 343-356.

Latané, B. (1986). Responsibility and effort in organizations. In P. Goodman (Ed.), *Groups and organizations* (pp. 277- 303). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., Jaworski, R. A., and Bennet, N. (2004). Social Loafing: A Field Investigation. *Journal of Management*, 30 (2), 285-304.

Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review*, 98 (2), 224-253.

- McClelland, D. C. (1961). *The achieving society*. Princeton, New Jersey: Van Nostrand.
- McClelland, D. C. (1975). *Power: The inner experience*. New York: Irvington.
- McKee, R. D., & Squire, L. R. (1993). On the development of declarative memory. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 19 (2), 397–404.
- Mete, A. H. (2021). *The evaluation of the relationship between social loafing, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in healthcare organizations*. Master Thesis, Hacettepe University Institute of Social Sciences, Ankara.
- Metiner, E. (2019). *The effect of perceived social loafing and perceived organizational support on work engagement*. Master Thesis, Marmara University Institute of Social Sciences, İstanbul.
- Murray, H. A. (1938). *Explorations in personality*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nedeljković, M., & Pavluković, V. (2020). The Influence of GLOBE Culture Dimensions on Entrepreneurial Orientation in Tourism and Medical Service Sectors in Serbia. *Geographica Pannonica*, 24 (2), 157-167.
- Nicholls, C. E., Lane, H. W., & Brechu, M. B. (1999). Taking self-managed teams to Mexico. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 13 (3), 15-25.
- Okur, M. E., & Balta, C. (2020). The Impact of Perception of Discrimination on Evasion Behavior: A Study in Food Sector. *İş'te Davranış Dergisi*, 5 (2), 75-90.
- Olson, M. (1965). *The logic of collective action: Public goods and the theory of groups*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Orbell, J., & Dawes, R. (1981). *Social Dilemmas*. In G. Stephenson & J. H, Davis (Eds.), *Progress in applied social psychology*. New York: Wiley.
- Özbunar, Ş. (2020). *Research to determine the effect of teamwork on social loafing*. Master Thesis, Kütahya Dumlupınar University Graduate School of Education, Kütahya.
- Özek, H. (2015). *The relationship between social loafing and psychological climate in the organizations and relevant research*. Ph.D. Thesis, Istanbul University Institute of Social Sciences, Istanbul.

- Özgüven, E. (2017). *Effect of religiosity on attitudes towards women's working and social loafing behavior: A research on hotel employees*. Master Thesis, Batman University Institute of Social Sciences, Batman.
- Özkan, Ç., Yumuk, G. G., & Demiralay, T. (2020). The Relationships between Personality Traits, Service Orientations, and Social Loafing Behaviors: A Research on the Accommodation Establishments in Thrace Region. *Trakya Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi E-Dergi*, 9 (2), 165-184.
- Özkan, Ç. (2018). *The effect of personality traits of employees on service orientations and social loafing behaviors: A study on hotel businesses*. Master Thesis, Trakya University Institute of Social Sciences, Edirne.
- Pathak, S., & Muralidharan, E. (2016). Informal institutions and their comparative influences on social and commercial entrepreneurship: The role of in-group collectivism and interpersonal trust. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 54, 168-188.
- Pelto, P. (1968). The difference between tight and loose societies. *Transaction*, 5, 37-40.
- Petty, R. E., & Cacioppo, J. T. (1979). Issue involvement can increase or decrease persuasion by enhancing message-relevant cognitive responses. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 37, 1915- 1926.
- Pilllis, E. D., & Furumo, K. (2007). Counting the cost of virtual teams. *Communications of the ACM*, 50 (12), 93-95.
- Podsakoff, P. M., Todor, W. D., Grover, R. A., & Huber, V. L. (1984). Situational moderators of leader reward and punishment behaviors: Fact or fiction? *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 34 (2), 1-63.
- Price, K. H. (1987). Decision Responsibility, Task Responsibility, Identifiability, and Social Loafing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Process*, 40 (3), 330-345.
- Rietzschel, E. F., Nijstad, B. A., & Stroebe, W. (2006). Productivity is not enough: A Comparison of Interactive and Nominal Brainstorming Groups on Idea Generation and Selection. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 42, 244-251.

- Robbins, S. P., and Judge, T. A. (2012). *Essentials of Organizational Behavior*. New Jersey: Upper Saddle River.
- Rothwell, J. D. (2004). *In the Company of Others*. New York. McGraw-Hill.
- Rune, H., Filip, B., Bert, D. C., & Derek, M. P. (2013). Team Identification Reduces Social Loafing and Promotes Social Laboring in Cycling. *International Journal of Applied Sports Sciences*, Vol. 25, No. 1, 33-40.
- Sackett, P. R., Zedeck, S., and Fogli, L. (1988) Relations between Measures of Typical and Maximum Job Performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73, 482–486.
- Sackett, P. R. (2007). Revisiting the origins of the typical-maximum performance distinction. *Human Performance*, 20 (3), 179-185.
- Saygın, M., & Mavi Dođru, G. (2018). An Analysis about the Relationship between Social Loafing and Entrepreneurial Characteristics: The Case of Erdemli. *R&S - Research Studies Anatolia Journal*, 1 (2), 308-317.
- Schnake, M. E. (1991). Equity in the effort: The " sucker effect" in co-acting groups. *Journal of Management*, 17 (1), 41-55.
- Shepperd, J. A. (1993). Productivity loss in performance groups: A motivational analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 1 (13), 67-81.
- Shirakashi, S. (1985). Social loafing of Japanese students. *Hiroshima Forum for Psychology*, 10, 35-40.
- Simms, A., & Nichols, T. (2014). Social loafing: a review of the literature. *Journal of Management Policy and Practice*, 15 (1), 58.
- Sokolowski, K., & Heckhausen, H. (2008). *Social bonding: Affiliation motivation and intimacy motivation*. In: Heckhausen, J. & Heckhausen, H. (Eds.), *Motivation and Action*, 184–201. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Soylu, S. S. (2019). *The effect of perceived task visibility and leadership style on social loafing*. Master Thesis, Marmara University Institute of Social Sciences, İstanbul.

- S nnet io lu, S., Korkmaz, H., & Koyuncu, M. (2015). A Study on the Effect of Percieved Organizational Culture Type on Perception of Employess Social Loafing Behaviours. *Mustafa Kemal  niversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstit s  Dergisi*, 11 (28), 17-34.
- Spector, P. E. (2012). *Industrial and Organizational Psychology Research and Practice*. Singapore: Wiley.
- Stark, E. M., Shaw, J. D., Duffy, M. K. (2007). Preference for Group Work, Winning Orientation, and Social Loafing Behavior in Groups. *Group & Organization Management*, 6 (32). 699-723.
- Steers, R. M., & Braunstein, D. N. (1976). A behaviorally-based measure of manifest needs in work settings. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 9, 251- 256.
- Steiner, I. D. (1972). *Group process and productivity*. New York: Academic Press.
- Stroebe, W., & Diehl, M. (1994). Why Groups Are Less Effective than Their Members: On Productivity Losses in Idea-Generating Groups. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 5, 271-303.
-  arkaya, S. S. (2019). *Analysis of the relationship between teacher's organizational cynicism attitudes and social loafing behaviors: Pamukkale district example*. Master Thesis, Pamukkale University Institute of Educational Sciences, Pamukkale.
-  e en, H., & Kahraman,  . (2014). The Effect of Coworkers' Social Loafing on Individual's Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and his own Social Loafing. *İ  ve İnsan Dergisi*, 1 (1), 43-51.
-  im ek, M.  .,  zgener,  ., & İlhan, İ. (2017). The Effects of Authentic Leadership on Social Loafing for Women Entrepreneurs and Managers in Tourism Industry: The Moderating Role of Life Satisfaction. *Seyahat ve Otel İ letmecili i Dergisi*, 14 (3), 88-109.
- Taras, V., Tullar, W. L., Liu, Y., & Pierce, J. R. (2018). Straight from the horse's mouth: Justifications and prevention strategies provided by free riders on global virtual teams. *Journal of Management and Training for Industries*, 5 (3), 51-67.

- Tok, T. N. (2019). Relationship between Personality Features and Social Loafing Behaviors. *Journal of Teacher Education and Educators*, 8 (1), 55-77.
- Triandis, H. C. (1972). *The Analysis of Subjective Culture*. New York: Wiley.
- Triandis, H. C., Kwok, L., Marcelo, J. V., and Felicia, L. C. (1985). Allocentric and idiocentric tendencies: Convergent and discriminant validation. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 19, 395-415.
- Triandis, H. C. (1989). The self and social behavior in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review*, 96, 506-520.
- Triandis, H. C. (1995). *Individualism and collectivism*. Boulder: Westview.
- Smith, P. B., Dugan, S., & Trompenaars, F. (1996). National culture and the values of organizational employees: A dimensional analysis across 43 nations. *Journal of cross-cultural psychology*, 27 (2), 231-264.
- Türk, S. (2018). *Social loafing as a social disease and self-efficacy belief as its cure: The relationships between self-efficacy, social loafing and intention to leave*. Master Thesis, Kafkas University Institute of Social Sciences, Kars.
- Uğurlu, K. A., & Begenirbaş, M. (2021). The Effects of Organizational Tightness-Looseness on Social Loafing and Innovation: A Research on Academicians. *Selçuk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 45, 413-429.
- Uğurlu, K. A., & Aydoğan, E. (2020). The Mediated Effect of Organizational Justice and Communication Satisfaction in the Effect of Cultural Tightness-Looseness on Social Loafing. *Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 22 (1), 335-351.
- Ülke, H. E. (2006). *Investigating the role of personality and justice perceptions on social loafing*. Master Thesis, Ondokuz Mayıs University Institute of Social Sciences, Samsun.
- Wagner, J. A., and Michael, K. M. (1986). Individualism-collectivism: Concept and measure. *Group and Organization Studies*, 11, 280-304.

- Wasti, S. A. (1998). Cultural Barriers in the Transferability of Japanese and American Human Resources Practices to Developing Countries: The Turkish Case. *International Journal of Human Resources Management*, 9 (4), 608-631.
- Wasti, S. A., Tan, H. H., Brower, H. H., and Önder, Ç. (2007). Cross-Cultural Measurement of Supervisor Trustworthiness: An Assessment of Measurement Invariance across Three Cultures, *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 477-489.
- Williams, K., Harkins, S., and Latané, B. (1981). Identifiability as a Deterrent to Social Loafing: Two Cheering Experiment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 40 (2), 303-311.
- Williams, K. D., Nida, S. A., Baca, L. D., and Latane, B. (1989). Social loafing and swimming: Effects of identifiability on individual and relay performance of intercollegiate swimmers. *Basic and applied social psychology*, 10 (1), 73-81.
- Williams, K. D., & Karau, S. J. (1991). Social loafing and social compensation: The effects of expectations of co-worker performance. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 61 (4), 570.
- Yakın, B., & Sökmen, A. (2018). The Mediating Role of Compulsory Citizenship Behavior in the Effect of Social Loafing on Organizational Cynicism: A Survey in Social Networking Groups. *Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi*, 20 (2), 399-416.
- Yamagishi, T., Jin, N., & Miller, A. S. (1998). In-group Bias and Culture of Collectivism. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 1 (3), 315-328.
- Yavaş, A. (2020). The Effect of Five Factor Personality Characteristics and Perception of Organizational Justice on Social Loafing Behavior. *Management and Political Sciences Review*, 2 (1), 89-116.
- Yavaş, A. (2020). *The effect of five-factor personality characteristics and perception of organizational justice on social loafing behavior*. Master Thesis, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University Graduate School of Education, Çanakkale.

- Yıldırım, U. (2018). *An analysis of the relationship between organizational commitment, organizational citizenship, and social loafing of public employees employed in GHSİM in the Marmara region*. Master Thesis, Sakarya University Institute of Social Sciences, Sakarya.
- Yıldız, M. L., İşçi, E., & Taşçı, S. (2016). The Effects of Impression Management Tactics on Social Loafing: A Research on Healthcare Sector. *Aurum Journal of Social Sciences*, 1 (1), 103-120.
- Yıldızöz, T. (2021). *The mediating role of the organizational commitment in the relationship between teachers 'social loafing behaviors and job satisfaction*. Master Thesis, Siirt University Institute of Social Sciences, Siirt.
- Yurdakul, G., & Öneren, M. (2021). The Relationship between Social Loafing and Work Alienation: A Case Study. *Yönetim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 19 (39), 179-202.
- Yurdakul, G. (2019). *The relationship between social loafing and work alienation: A case study*. Master Thesis, Kırıkkale University Institute of Social Sciences, Kırıkkale.
- Zalesny, M. D., & Ford, J. K. (1990). Extending the Social Information Processing Perspective: New Links to Attitudes, Behaviors, and Perceptions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 47 (2), 205-246.

11. APPENDICES

APPENDIX-A

Name:

Surname:

Age:

Gender:

IN-GROUP COLLECTIVISM CULTURAL VALUES SCALE

Info About In-Group Collectivism: Cultural values in one's in-group refer to the extent to which individuals should express pride, loyalty, or cohesiveness in their groups or families. These values are obtained using a questionnaire that asks participants to report their beliefs about norms and values in their society.

This scale contains 4 statements that may describe you, your beliefs, and your values. For each statement, indicate your agreement or disagreement by filling in the corresponding space on the answer sheet. Use the following scale to indicate your agreement.

1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Somewhat Disagree 4= Neither Agree nor Disagree
5= Somewhat Agree 6= Agree 7= Strongly Agree

1. In society, children should take pride in the individual accomplishments of their parents. ____
2. In society, parents should take pride in the individual accomplishments of their children. ____
3. It should be important for your society's members to be seen positively by the other society's members. ____
4. The Members of this society should take a great deal of pride in being a member of the society. ____
5. In this organization, group members take pride in the individual accomplishments of their group_
6. In this organization, group managers take pride in the individual accomplishments of group members_

APPENDIX-A

Name:

Surname:

Age:

Gender:

LEVELS OF IN-GROUP COLLECTIVISM SCALE

Individual-Level:

1. "In a society, children should take pride in the individual accomplishments of their parents,"

Strongly agree

Strongly disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. "In a society, parents should take pride in the individual accomplishments of their children,"

Strongly agree

Strongly disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Organizational-Level:

3. "In this organization, group members should take pride in the individual accomplishments of their group"

Strongly agree

Strongly disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. "In this organization, group managers should take pride in the individual accomplishments of group members"

Strongly agree

Strongly disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Societal-Level:

5. "It should be important to members of your society that your society is viewed positively by persons in other societies,"

Strongly agree

Strongly disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. "Members of this society should take a great deal of pride in being a member of the society"

Strongly agree

Strongly disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX-A

Ad:

Soyad:

Yaş:

Cinsiyet:

GRUP İÇİ TOPLULUKÇULUK KÜLTÜREL DEĞER ÖLÇEĞİ

Bu ölçek sizin bazı konulardaki değerlerinizi tanımlayabilecek 6 ifade içermektedir. Her bir ifade için, ilgili ifadenin yanında yer alan boş bırakılan alana o ifadeye katılma ya da katılmama derecesini belirten rakamı (1'den başlayıp 7'ye kadar uzanan) yazınız.

1= Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum 2= Katılmıyorum 3= Biraz Katılmıyorum 4= Ne Katılıyorum
Ne Katılmıyorum (Ortadayım) 5= Biraz Katılıyorum 6= Katılıyorum 7= Kesinlikle
Katılıyorum

1. Bir toplumda çocuklar, anne ve babalarının bireysel başarılarından gurur duymalıdır. ____
2. Bir toplumda anne ve babalar, çocukların bireysel başarılarından gurur duymalıdır. ____
3. Topluluğunuzdaki üyelerin diğer toplulukların üyeleri tarafından olumlu görülmesi önemli olmalıdır. ____
4. Bu toplumun üyeleri, içinde yer aldıkları bu toplumun bir üyesi olmaktan gurur duymalıdır. ____
5. Bu iş yerinde grup üyeleri kendi gruplarının başarılarından gurur duymalıdır. ____
6. Bu iş yerinde grup liderleri, yönettikleri grubun üyelerinin kişisel başarılarından gurur duymalıdır_

APPENDIX-B

NEEDS ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Info About “Need for Affiliation (nAff)”: is the desire for a friendly and close interpersonal relationship. The strongest (nAff) people are social, and enjoy working with others. People who have a high Need for Affiliation love creating and maintaining social relationships, enjoy belonging to groups and want to feel loved and accepted.

Info About Need for Achievement (nAch): People who are high in (nAch) look for careers and hobbies that allow others to evaluate them because these high achievers also need to have Feedback on their performance along with the success of achieving their goals. Achievement motivation appears to be strongly related to success in work settings and the quality of what a person produces.

This scale contains 10 statements that may describe you and the types of things you may like to do. For each statement, indicate your agreement or disagreement by filling in the corresponding space on the answer sheet. Use the following scale to indicate your agreement.

1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree

1. I try to perform my best at work (nAch). ____
2. I am a hardworker (nAch). ____
3. It is important to me to do the best job possible (nAch). ____
4. I try very hard to improve on my past performance at work (nAch). ____
5. I push myself to be “all that I can be.” (nAch) ____
6. I spend a lot of time talking to other people (nAff). ____
7. I am a “people” person (nAff). ____

8. When I have a choice, I try to work in a group instead of by myself (nAff). ____

9. I prefer to do my own work and let others do theirs (nAff). (R) ____

10. I try my best to work alone on a work assignment (nAff). (R) ____



APPENDIX-C

İHTİYAÇ (BAŞARMA VE İLİŞKİ KURMA) DEĞERLENDİRME ANKETİ

Bu ölçek, sizi ve yapmaktan hoşlanabileceğiniz şeyleri tanımlayabilecek 10 ifade içermektedir. Her bir ifade için, ilgili ifadenin yanında yer alan boş bırakılan alana o ifadeye katılma ya da katılmama derecenizi belirten rakamı (1'den başlayıp 7'ye kadar uzanan) yazınız.

1= Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum 2= Katılmıyorum 3= Biraz Katılmıyorum 4= Ne Katılıyorum
Ne Katılmıyorum (Ortadayım) 5= Biraz Katılıyorum 6= Katılıyorum 7= Kesinlikle
Katılıyorum

1. İşimde elimden gelenin en iyisini yapmaya çalışırım. ____
2. Ben çok çalışkanım. ____
3. İşte olabildiğince en iyisini yapmak benim için önemlidir. ____
4. İşimdeki son performansımı geliştirmek için gerçekten çok çaba sarf ederim. ____
5. Elimden gelen her şeyi yapmaya kendimi zorlarım. ____
6. Diğer insanlarla konuşurken çok zaman harcıyorum. ____
7. Ben sosyal bir insanım. ____
8. Seçme şansım olsaydı, kişisel olarak çalışmak yerine grup içinde çalışmayı zorlardım. ____
9. Kendi işimi yapmayı, başkalarının da kendi işlerini yapmasına izin vermeyi tercih ederim. ____
10. İşimle ilgili bir görevde tek başıma çalışmak için elimden geleni yaparım. ____

APPENDIX-D

MANİPÜLAYONLARIN KONTROLÜ

1. Bu uygulama süresince performansınızın gözlemlendiğini, takip edildiğinizi, yaptıklarınızın sayıldığını/hesaplandığını ve performansınız nedeniyle size hesap sorulabileceğini hiç düşündünüz mü?

1- Kesinlikle Düşündüm 2- Düşündüm 3- Biraz Düşündüm 4- Ne Düşündüm Ne de Düşünmedim (Nötürüm) 5- Biraz Düşünmedim 6- Düşünmedim 7- Kesinlikle Düşünmedim

2. İşi yaparken yer darlığı yaşama, diğer çalışanlarla çarpışma, yaptığın ürünleri koyacak yer bulmada zorlanma ve benzeri nedenlerle duraksamalar, yavaşlamalar yaşadınız mı?

1- Kesinlikle Yaşadım 2- Yaşadım 3- Biraz Yaşadım, 4- Ne Yaşadım Ne Yaşamadım (Nötürüm)

5- Biraz Yaşamadım 6- Yaşamadım 7- Kesinlikle Yaşamadım

3. Bu uygulamada sizden istenen şeyin, çalışırken elinizden gelenin maksimumunu yapmak olduğunu, bundan başka bir şey olmadığını biliyor muydunuz? (Size uyan maddeyi yuvarlak içine alınız)

1- Evet 2- Hayır