



Sosyal Bilimler
Enstitüsü

T.C.

MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI
ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNG.) BİLİM DALI

**THE ROLE OF INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS IN THE
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE IMPOSTOR PHENOMENON AND QUIET
QUITTING**

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

ÖZGE TÜRK CAN

Danışman: Doç. Dr. YAPRAK ÖZDEMİR

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to examine the effect of the impostor phenomenon on quiet quitting through individual and organizational factors, thus filling a gap in the literature. The impostor phenomenon refers to those individuals questioning the competencies, attributing achievements to external factors such as luck rather than internal factors such as competence. Quiet quitting means that employees fulfilling duties only in the role description and not exhibiting extra-role behavior. No research examining the relationship between the two concepts was found in the literature. Accordingly, hypotheses were developed with burnout, perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange, which are associated with each of the concepts separately in the literature. A cross-sectional study was conducted with a sample of 255 white-collar employees. This research has three significant findings. First, the impostor phenomenon predicts burnout. Second, Burnout predicts quiet quitting. Third, the impostor phenomenon has significant relationship with quiet quitting. However, the mediating role of burnout, the moderating roles of perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange were not found to be significant. The study's theoretical contribution is the first-time integration of the impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting in a single framework. Through the holistic model concludes that the impostor phenomenon impacts organizational perceptions. Because it might lead to misinterpretation of support in the workplace, especially in collectivist cultures and organizations with high power distance. In this direction, suggestions to organizations are to focus on practices that include encouraging open communication, such as mentoring, effective feedback mechanisms, and psychological support services by recognizing the unique structure of the impostor phenomenon.

Keywords: *impostor phenomenon, quiet quitting, individual factors, organizational factors.*

ÖZ

Bu çalışma, sahtekarlık fenomeninin sessiz istifa üzerindeki etkisini bireysel ve örgütsel faktörler aracılığıyla incelemeyi amaçlayarak literatürdeki bir boşluğu doldurmaktadır. Sahtekarlık fenomeni bireylerin kendi yetkinliklerini sorgulaması, başarılarını yetenek gibi içsel faktörlere değil, şans gibi dışsal faktörlere atfetmeleridir. Sessiz istifa ise; çalışanların sadece iş tanımında yazanları yapması, ekstra rol davranışını sergilememeleridir. Literatürde iki kavram arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen araştırma bulunamamıştır. Bu doğrultuda, literatürde kavramların her biriyle ayrı ayrı ilişkilendirilen tükenmişlik, algılanan örgütsel destek ve lider-üye etkileşimi ile hipotezler geliştirilmiştir. Örneklem 255 beyaz yaka çalışanından oluşturmaktadır. Araştırma sonucunda 3 anlamlı sonuca ulaşılmıştır. İlkisi, sahtekarlık fenomeninin çalışanların tükenmişlik seviyelerini artırdığıdır. İkincisi, tükenmişliğin sessiz istifaya yordadığıdır. Üçüncüsü ise, sahtekarlık fenomeninin çalışanların sessiz istifa eğilimlerini artırdığıdır. Ancak, tükenmişliğin aracı rolü ile algılanan örgütsel destek ve lider-üye etkileşiminin düzenleyici rolleri anlamlı çıkmamıştır. Çalışmanın teorik katkısı, sahtekârlık fenomeni ile sessiz istifanın ilk kez aynı kuramsal çerçevede ele alınmasıdır. Bütünsel model aracılığıyla sahtekarlık fenomeninin örgütsel algıları etkilediği sonucuna varılmıştır. Çünkü sahtekarlık fenomeni özellikle kolektivist kültürlerde ve güç mesafesinin yüksek olduğu örgütlerde iş yerinde destegen yanlış yorumlanmasına yol açılmektedir. Bu doğrultuda örgütlere, sahtekârlık fenomeninin kendine özgü yapısının farkına vararak, mentorluk, etkili geri bildirim mekanizmaları, psikolojik destek hizmetleri gibi açık iletişimini teşvik eden uygulamaları odaklanmaları önerilmektedir.

Anahtar kelimeler: sahtekarlık fenomeni, sessiz istifa, bireysel faktörler, örgütsel faktörler.

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Dedicated to my mother, husband and little boy...

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1. INTRODUCTION

Throughout history, business life has been in a constant process of change and transformation under the influence of social, economic and technological events. In the early 1900s, employees were seen as a part of a machine in the production processes, almost as a “machine”; over time, individuals' values came to the fore, and the needs, expectations and psychological well-being began to gain more importance in business life (Demir & Öztürk, 2017). With these developments, human capital, which includes elements such as the knowledge, skills, and experience of employees, has also become increasingly important (Kaya & Keser, 2015). The effective and efficient management of human capital has become a strategic factor in order for organizations to increase their performance and maintain their competitive advantage.

In recent history, especially with the impact of the pandemic, significant changes have begun to be observed in the behaviors and attitudes of employees towards their jobs with the increasing impact of factors such as the search for meaning, flexibility, and work-life balance. One of these, the concept of “quiet quitting,” has become an important phenomenon that has attracted attention both from academicians and practitioners in recent years. While the term was conceptualized in 2009, it has gained considerable attention in the literature, particularly after the 2020s with the changed conditions following the pandemic and the entry of Generation Z into business life (Formica & Sfodera, 2022; Arar, Çetiner & Yurdakul, 2023; Bulut et al., 2024). Quiet quitting refers to employees avoiding making extra efforts by fulfilling only the jobs in the role definition without formally resigning. This can be considered an indicator of an invisible but felt break in the workplace.

Determining the individual and organizational factors that lead employees to quiet quitting provides an important roadmap to reducing its negative effects. In this context, the impostor phenomenon is considered to be an individual psychological element that affects the attitudes and behaviors of employees within the organization. Although its conceptualization dates back approximately 50 years, studies conducted in the organizational context have gained attention in the approximately last ten years (Demirbaş & Çınar Altınbaş, 2023). This concept is also expressed with different terms such as “impostor syndrome”, “fraud”, “perceived fraud” and “fraudulence” in the literature. The impostor phenomenon is defined as the individual's inability to internalize successes, a

constant feeling of inadequacy regarding competencies, and a chronic anxiety about being exposed as an impostor (Gullifor et al., 2023).

The aim of this study is to examine the effects of perceived organizational support, burnout, and leader-member exchange on the relationship between the impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting. Because some concepts that have been examined in relation to the impostor phenomenon are burnout, low organizational commitment, family-work conflict, workaholism, low job satisfaction, perceived organizational support, role ambiguity (Gullifor et al., 2023). Some antecedents of quiet quitting can be listed as; work-life imbalance, burnout, toxic workplace culture, personality traits, insufficient support (Arar, Çetiner & Yurdakul, 2023). Examining the mentioned factors can contribute to a better understanding of the relationship between the impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting, while also guiding organizations in creating a better place to work characterized by strong support, low levels of burnout, and high employee commitment to decrease the possible negative effects of the impostor phenomenon. At the same time, understanding the role of leader-member exchange can contribute to leaders developing strategies to establish more effective relationships with employees and prevent negative work attitudes such as quiet quitting. In this context, the findings will provide important insights into the psychological and organizational factors that should be taken into consideration in both recruitment and employee commitment processes in terms of human resources practices.

The lack of research in the literature on the relationship between the impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting makes this study original. Determining the individual and organizational factors that affect and explain these concepts and the relationship between them in white-collar employees has been seen as an important problem. In this context, the problem of the present study has been determined as "Through which individual and organizational factors does the impostor phenomenon affect the quiet quitting of white-collar employees?" In this context, the details of the study will be presented in the continuation of the study with the theoretical framework, method, findings and conclusion sections.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. QUIET QUITTING

2.1.1. Definition

Jack works as a marketing specialist for a company. Although he was motivated in the beginning, his motivation to his job declined over time due to a lack of appreciation and limited career growth opportunities. Now he only does the jobs in the description, making minimum effort and not participating in new projects. Although he did not officially quit his job, he mentally disconnected from his job due to lack of motivation. This example shows some aspects of quiet quitting. To rephrase, if an employee shows the minimum effort required at work and only does the work in the job description, does not take on extra responsibility and does not contribute to development, this situation can be defined as quiet quitting.

Although the term quiet quitting was conceptualized by Mark Boldger at the Texas Economic Symposium in 2009, it did not gain widespread attention until July 2022 with the viral TikTok video of 24-year-old Zaid Khan, a New York engineer (TikTok, 2022). In the video, Khan emphasized the importance of private life by rejecting the idea that job should define one's identity. In other words, he highlighted work-life balance and the notion that an individual's worth comes from simply being a person, not just from their productivity.

Quiet quitting is considered a continuation of work-resistance movements such as the Great Resignation and Tang Ping (Formica & Sfodera, 2022; Foster, 2022). The reason for its popularity can largely be attributed to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. Due to lockdowns, restrictions, and remote work weakened the limits between work and home, leading to increased burnout, heightened stress, and role conflicts. It eventually triggered the quiet quitting. While the pandemic did not affect every region equally, millions of employees worked remotely or were unemployed starting in the spring of 2020. According to business professor Anthony Klotz, the Great Resignation began in the spring of 2021, when employees were called to return to work, but many did not (Fuller & Kerr, 2022). Additionally, it is also suggested that the concept of quiet quitting traces its origins to the "Tang Ping" (lying flat) movement, which emerged in China in 2021 in response to excessive working hours, following the tragic death of a teenager. (Gelisim University, 2022; Whiting, 2022). Tang ping refers to

young people who are overwhelmed by the hustle work culture, also known as "996", and prefer a simpler and more balanced life instead of excessive performance. The 996 working hour system gets its name from that employees work from 9:00 AM to 9:00 PM, six days a week. Tang ping was seen as a reaction to the pressure to find a job and work long hours, and it created a wide impact on social media (Allen, 2021). Quiet quitting, regardless of its origin, means that employees are exhausted due to the disruption of their work-life balance and do not go beyond their job descriptions. Formica and Sfodera (2022), who are the most cited researchers on quiet quitting, described it as employees' minimum engagement in their required tasks while refusing to take on responsibilities beyond their official job description.

It is thought that Generation Z, which is seen as one of the pioneers of quiet quitting, played a major role in the spread of this movement. Generation Z, who stepped into working life after the pandemic, made quiet quitting more visible by sharing their ideas and experiences as content on social media. This generation, which has high environmental awareness and protects its rights, has questioned traditional rules and taken action, unlike Generation Y, and has implemented this concept more effectively (Youthall, 2022). However, similar behaviors have been present in the workplace long before Generation Z entered the workforce. Even though previous generations may not have explicitly named or popularized the concept, they exhibited attitudes that align with quiet quitting. Disengagement, withdrawal behavior, and job neglect are some of these attitudes. Disengagement refers to the emotional and cognitive distancing of the employee from work, while withdrawal behavior involves psychological or physical avoidance of work (Rosse & Hulin, 1985; Kahn, 1990). Job neglect (Bennett & Robinson, 2000) is the conscious reduction of the employee's effort. In this context, it is possible to say that quiet quitting is not a concept specific to Generation Z, but has existed in different forms in business world since the past. However, the influence of Generation Z in the digital world and their different expectations for work life have made this concept more visible. Therefore, instead of seeing quiet quitting as a mere difference between generations, it would be more accurate to evaluate it as a reflection of the changing business world and employee expectations.

The reflection of quiet quitting can be seen in the workplace, such as not attending meetings or attending late, less contribution to projects, disconnection with other employees, not attending company events, and being indifferent to discussions (Klotz & Bolin, 2022). However, all of these do not happen at once. In other words, the employee's tendency to quiet quitting involves a process. Quiet quitting occurs in three main stages: emotional, mental, and physiological. In the emotional phase, employees who feel undervalued experience confusion between staying and moving on. The mental phase involves

a psychological detachment from work, where employees continue to perform their duties but disengage from the hustle culture, making a conscious effort to avoid work-related stress. Finally, the physiological phase is the most noticeable, as employees openly express their dissatisfaction and no longer hesitate to explore alternative job opportunities (Gupte, 2022). At this stage, employees behave in ways such as not complying with work hours, completing tasks late, being sick very often, and constantly making excuses.

Additionally, Formica and Sfodera (2022) emphasized that needs, values, and purpose are key characteristics that shape an individual's work experience. The absence of these elements leads to dissatisfaction, ultimately resulting in quiet quitting. These characteristics can be closely linked to the three stages of quiet quitting. In the emotional phase, the lack of purpose causes employees to question their role within the organization. If they feel that their work lacks meaning or contribution to a greater goal, they struggle with internal conflict about whether to stay or leave. For instance, an employee who once felt passionate about their work may start feeling disconnected if their contributions are not acknowledged, leading to emotional distress. The mental phase is influenced by a misalignment between personal and organizational values. They continue performing their tasks but withdraw from extra responsibilities and avoid work-related stress. An example is an employee who values collaboration but works in a competitive, high-pressure environment that prioritizes individual success over teamwork. Finally, in the physiological stage, the failure to meet employees' needs such as fair compensation, recognition, and work-life balance results in visible disengagement. Employees may start arriving late, frequently call in sick, or complete tasks with minimum effort. For instance, an employee who works excessive overtime without additional compensation or appreciation may stop putting in extra effort and begin seeking other job opportunities. By understanding how needs, values, and purpose connect to these phases, organizations can address the root causes of quiet quitting and create a more engaging work environment. To better understand the concept of quiet quitting, it is important to explain the theoretical frameworks that provide a deeper insight into its underlying mechanisms. In the next section, relevant theories will be discussed to offer a comprehensive perspective on quiet quitting.

2.1.2. Related Theories

Quiet quitting refers to employees fulfilling only the minimum requirements of their job without taking on additional responsibilities or engaging beyond their formal duties. In the literature, this concept has been examined through various theories such as Conservation of Resources (COR), Social Exchange Theory (SET), Cohort and Self-Determination Theory (SDT). These theories provide a

foundation for understanding the factors that contribute to this concept and offer insights into its broader implications in the workplace.

Within the framework of cohort theory, quiet quitting is explained by the understanding that different generations will have different perspectives on business life. For example, while Baby Boomers and Generation X value loyalty and long-term career development in the workplace, Generations Y and Z value work-life balance and individual satisfaction more (Aytaç et al., 2023). In particular, Generation Z, which uses social media most effectively, has played an important role in the spread of quiet quitting and has seen this movement as a resistance and conscious choice. This information suggests that Generation Z and Y may be the generation most prone to quiet quitting.

COR suggests that individuals make an effort to protect and develop their personal such as knowledge, social such as relationships, and structural resources such as salary. (Hobfoll, 1989). COR theory suggests that employees are motivated to protect and increase their resources. But, when an individual experiences a loss of resources, this loss can increase stress levels and make the person vulnerable to further resource loss. Within the framework of this theory, quiet quitting can be considered as a reaction that occurs when employees feel that their resources are under threat. When employees feel that their resources are depleted due to factors such as intense workload, low salary, uncertain career paths, or insufficient support, they may turn to a minimum effort strategy to prevent resource loss. For example, an employee may tend to avoid taking more responsibilities due to lack of wage or support. Thus, limiting the commitment may be the chosen way in order to not lose personal resources like self-esteem. While this situation reduces employees' performance at work and their commitment to the organization, it also allows them to reallocate their resources in a way that protects their individual well-being.

SET emerged in the late 1950s and has become a widely used theory to explain social relationships. Shaped by the work of John Thibaut, George Homans, Peter Blau, and Harold Kelley, the theory examines relationships between individuals within the framework of the balance of rewards and costs. The theory is based on the idea that social behavior should be considered as a process of change (Davlembayeva & Alamanos, 2023). This process, based on giving and taking, can be thought of as an economic exchange. Within the framework of SET in the workplace, while employees offer their knowledge, skills and time to their employers, they expect rewards such as wages, fringe benefits, job security, career opportunities and psychological satisfaction in return. The balance of perceived rewards and costs in this exchange process shapes the employee's attitudes and behaviors towards work.

Similarly, while employers expect high performance and loyalty from their employees, they also seek a balance. The fundamental principles of this mutual relationship include confidence, dedication, and shared responsibility (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). From the employee's point of view, quiet quitting may occur as a result of the imbalance due to unmet expectations. Therefore, maintaining a trust-based social exchange relationship is critical to maintaining employee motivation and preventing quiet quitting. Because a lack of social exchange means that the employee's basic needs such as respect, belonging, and competence are not met.

SDT studies began before the 1970s and were formalized by Deci and Ryan in the 1980s. As a result of studies examining the motivators of human behavior as internal and external, it was concluded that in order for people to feel motivated, three basic psychological needs, namely autonomy, competence and relatedness, must be met. Its origin is based on social psychology, but it has been widely used over time to explain the motivations of individuals in various areas such as education, technology, work and organizations (Ryan & Deci, 2019). This theory makes valuable contributions to understanding the behaviors of individuals both in their work-related and personal lives. If these needs are supported, individuals develop intrinsic motivation and show higher job satisfaction, commitment and productivity. However, when these needs are not met, individuals begin to act with extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2012). Quiet quitting may occur exactly as a result of this process. In particular, employees whose sense of autonomy is restricted, whose competence is not appreciated and who cannot establish meaningful relationships in the workplace lose their intrinsic motivation for their jobs. They work only to obtain tangible rewards, rather than intangible ones. In this case, they may tend to quiet quitting by performing their duties with minimum effort, avoiding extra-role behaviors and only fulfilling the responsibilities included in the job description.

These theories help us understand how quiet quitting is shaped by individual, organizational, and intergenerational dynamics. In this context, it is critical for organizations to develop strategies that are consistent with these theories to prevent quiet quitting. However, it is not enough to consider quiet quitting only within the theoretical framework; it is also critical to understand which factors trigger this concept and what consequences it leads to. In this way, more effective strategies can be developed for both individuals and organizations to prevent quiet quitting. Therefore, in the next section, the antecedents and outcomes of quiet quitting will be examined in detail in light of studies in the literature.

2.1.3. Antecedents and Outcomes

Although quiet quitting first emerged in 2009, it has recently become the focus of research due to the impact of the pandemic and the entry of Generation Z into work life (Oğan & Çetiner, 2024). According to the analysis of quiet quitting studies, the first article published on quiet quitting was in 2022, and studies in this field gained significant momentum in 2023 and became the most productive year (Yavuz, 2024). The changing living conditions due to the pandemic in 2019 have led people to question certain things in both their personal and business lives. Within the framework of business life, employees have questioned not just wages, but also have focused on factors such as psychological well-being, being valued, and the meaningfulness of work. Generation Z, in particular, places more importance on work-life balance and believes that work should not only be an economic necessity but also a meaningful and fulfilling experience (Chillakuri, 2020). The lack of these factors led employees to diminished motivation and organizational belonging, and they ended up with quiet quitting. Although the pandemic is effective in the emergence of quiet quitting, many factors that reduce employee commitment and job satisfaction support this process. Management and communication problems such as incomplete and inadequate feedback, or inadequate reward systems can also lead employees to quiet quitting (Kobak, 2023). In other words, the pandemic and the differentiation of Generation Z's expectations of work life have increased employees' awareness by encouraging them to question their workplace conditions and overall job satisfaction.

A study conducted by Youthall Turkey with 1002 participants reached the main factors that cause quiet quitting include closed career paths, work-life imbalance, low salary, unclear job descriptions, long working hours and high-performance expectations (Youthall, 2022). Formica and Sfodera's (2022) study highlights factors such as employees not being valued, their performance not being appreciated, lack of learning and growth opportunities, professional dissatisfaction and incompatibility of individual goals with organizational goals. These findings are also consistent with the reasons stated in Kaplan's (2022) study, and additionally it is seen that lack of trust plays a decisive role in quiet quitting. Similarly, the results of Aon Turkey's research on the post-pandemic return to the office also indicated that factors that will increase the performance of participants include attracting and retaining talent and establishing a work-life balance (Önder, 2022).

Quiet quitting is more common among younger generations, particularly Gen Y and Gen Z, as they prioritize meaningful work and work-life balance (Rossi et al., 2024). Remote work has become an appealing option for them to achieve this balance, while social media platforms have played an important role in the visibility of quiet quitting (Masterson, 2022). Unlike previous generations, Gen Y

and Gen Z place greater importance on mental health and personal well-being over traditional job rewards. As a result, they seek careers that provide a sense of purpose and fulfillment, driving a generational shift in work expectations. By rejecting the hustle culture, they increasingly favor work models that promote flexibility and balance. When these expectations are not met, they are more likely to engage in quiet quitting.

In addition to these generational differences and pandemic, other factors that affect the tendency of individuals to quiet quitting also stand out in the studies. For example, in the document analysis conducted on 89 LinkedIn accounts, the main factors leading to quiet quitting were identified as the feeling of burnout and negativity in the work environment. One of the strongest triggers of quiet quitting is burnout. Employees who are under intense workload and stress tend to withdraw over time and tend to quiet quitting. Among the factors related to the work environment, unfair promotion processes, inadequate salary, unclear job descriptions, leadership problems, lack of belonging and work-private life imbalance stand out (Ercan, 2022; Karaduman, 2023). There have also been significant studies in the national literature on quiet quitting. Some of these studies have revealed that work-life imbalance and insufficient communication within the organization lead employees to quiet quitting (Kuşoğlu, 2022; Ercan, 2022; Çalışkan, 2023; Kandemir, 2023). Overall, these studies show us that quiet quitting is driven by a combination of factors such as lack of trust, limited growth opportunities, burnout, ineffective communication and work-life imbalance.

Studies conducted both nationally and internationally help us to understand more deeply the causes of this trend, its consequences and its effects in different contexts. In the international context, the results of two literature reviews conducted are parallel. Both studies emphasize that employees' lack of motivation and commitment problems at work can lead to quiet quitting. Pevec (2023) states that factors such as employees not being valued enough, lack of participation in decisions, lack of autonomy and decreased trust in the organization trigger quiet quitting, while Campton, Tham and Ting (2023) state that especially Asian Generation Z employees tend more to quiet quitting due to the importance they attach to equality, and justice. Additionally, a qualitative study in Sweden examined the relationship between remote working and quiet quitting through semi-structured interviews with 20 participants, including managers and subordinates, from 10 companies. The study found that employees' lack of adequate support and feedback from their managers and colleagues can reduce their motivation and increase the risk of quiet quitting (Biregeyi, Hadzic & Landin, 2023).

Shaped by multiple factors mentioned above, quiet quitting has become a widespread problem in the business world on a global scale, threatening employee engagement. This phenomenon, observed in different sectors and countries, creates a significant challenge for businesses worldwide by negatively affecting workforce productivity and organizational sustainability.

Data on quiet quitting highlights the prevalence of this concept. Approximately 62% of employees globally are disengaged from their jobs, meaning they are only making minimum contributions (McGlaun & Burleigh, 2024). This disengagement costs the global economy an estimated \$9 trillion per year. In the United States, half of the workforce is disengaged, leading to lower organizational productivity and performance. In Europe, only 14% reported being engaged, contributing to the high rates of quiet quitting. Additionally, in South Asia, only 33% of employees are actively engaged in their jobs (Todd, 2022). These data show that quiet quitting is widespread across different regions and has become a generalizable trend on a global scale.

Gallup's 2024 State of the Global Workplace Report, based on responses from more than 128,000 employees across 160 countries, also provides insights into work-life balance and overall employee well-being. While global employee engagement levels remained stable in 2023, overall well-being continued to decline. Only 23% of employees reported being engaged at work, while the employee well-being rate dropped to 34%. Well-being was even lower among employees under the age of 35. Additionally, stress and loneliness were significant issues, with 41% of employees reporting that they were stressed, while 20% reported feeling lonely. This is a huge cost to the global economy, while also negatively impacting companies' productivity and efficiency (Gallup, 2024). This data shows how crucial employee well-being is in the business world, and that its absence has negative consequences on both the individual and organizational levels.

From the employee perspective, quiet quitting can reduce professional exhaustion, support the establishment of clear limits between work and life, give individuals the feeling of autonomy (Lord, 2022). However, quiet quitting may hinder career advancement or salary increases, potentially leading to a sense of powerlessness over time. (Scott, 2022). For example, if an employee is constantly working overtime, and this negatively affects her private life, she may consciously decide to only do the work in her job description in order to prevent exhaustion. Initially, this may help reduce her stress level and achieve a work-life balance. However, over time, she may be less noticed by her manager and this may cause missing promotion chances. Additionally, putting in minimum effort at work does not create the opportunities to gain new competences or to improve existing skills. In other words, quiet quitting can

lead to a slowdown in career development for employees, while other employees continue to advance their careers. Over time, the lack of experience can make it difficult to change jobs and limit career opportunities (Güler, 2023). Therefore, although quiet quitting may seem like a solution for employees to prevent professional exhaustion, it definitely has negative consequences in the long term.

Quiet quitting can also negatively affect the overall functioning of the organization. Employees who quiet quitting keep their responsibilities to a minimum, which can lead to the workload of other employees. This can create an unbalanced division of labor within the team, leading to unproductive conflicts among employees. In fact, in a study conducted in the U.S.A., with 1005 participants from many sectors including health, IT, and finance, 62% of employees stated that they found the quiet quitting of their colleagues disturbing. In addition, 57% of employees stated that they had recently noticed that a colleague had quiet quitting, and as a result, they had to take on more responsibility (LLC, 2024). This increased workload and unfair work distribution can weaken cooperation between employees, leading to productivity loss for the employer and incompatibility within the team. Eventually, this situation decreases the competitive advantage of an organization in the ever-changing world of business (Öztürk, Arikan & Ocak, 2023).

To sum up, quiet quitting has become a phenomenon that has increasingly attracted attention in the global business world. Findings in the literature reveal that this phenomenon has multidimensional causes and consequences, and that it creates significant negative effects for both employees and employers. Understanding quiet quitting better and managing this process is a critical necessity for the sustainability of the business world and employee job satisfaction. In this context, the relationship between quiet quitting and the impostor phenomenon through burnout, and how perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange shape this relationship, will be examined in this study. It is believed that this study will discover new insights into the relationship with quiet quitting while also contributing to existing knowledge.

2.2. IMPOSTOR PHENOMENON

2.2.1. Definition

Gabriela is promoted to a higher level as a result of successful performance in her current position. However, she attributes this accomplishment to luck rather than her own abilities and hard work. She does not feel that she deserves this position and is constantly worried that her inadequacy will be revealed. This situation may lead to her working more than needed while performing her duties or

slowing down her decision-making processes in order to avoid mistakes. Or when a new graduate starts working at a prestigious company, he/she may feel like he/she was “selected by mistake.” He/she will fear of making mistakes and will avoid asking questions, which shall slow down the learning process. These behaviors and thought patterns often stem from a deep-rooted fear of not being good enough or being exposed as a “fraud” despite evidence of competence. As seen in the examples of Gabriela and the newly graduated employee, this phenomenon can manifest itself in different situations and negatively affect both the performance of individuals in business life and their psychological well-being. In professional life, receiving an e-mail, being called to the office by your manager without early notice, pushing yourself constantly to get approval, putting too much effort into accomplishing tasks, attributing successes to external factors and failures to internal factors are some of the signals of impostor phenomenon (Mathews, 2023).

Clance and Imes, through therapeutic sessions with 150 successful women, found out that women often attributed their success to external factors, did not see themselves as worthy of rewards such as recognition or promotion, and were constantly afraid that their failures would one day be revealed. They conceptualized these experiences as the “impostor phenomenon” (Clance & Imes, 1978). It was described by Clance and Imes (1978) as “the self-perception of intellectual phoniness and disbelief of a person’s capabilities.” Although it was initially thought that the impostor phenomenon was only seen in professional business women, it has become clear over time that this feeling does not discriminate between genders (Bussotti, 1990; Langford, 1990). After the conceptualization, research has shown that individuals from different professional groups, such as university students (Bussotti, 1990), academicians (Topping, 1983), medical students (Henning et al., 1998), and marketing managers (Fried-Buchalter, 1992), also experience the impostor phenomenon.

The impostor phenomenon has been studied by many academics since it was first defined. Some academics consider the impostor phenomenon as a dysfunctional personality type (Kamarzarrin et al., 2013; Rohrman et al., 2016). In contrast, others treat the condition as a psychological syndrome. For example, the definition of Harvey and Katz (1985) is that the impostor phenomenon is shaped by a deep, underlying sense of fraudulence when encountering tasks related to achievement in a pattern. They also added that this concept has three characteristics: the belief that one is cheating others, the worry of being revealed as a fraud, and being unable to attribute achievements to personal abilities such as intelligence. So, in the literature, various concepts with similar meanings are used instead of the impostor phenomenon. These are; impostor syndrome, fraud, perceived fraud and fraudulence. For example; the term “perceived fraud” was used by Kolligian and Sternberg (1991) because “impostor”

and "syndrome" connote mental illness. However, Clance and Imes (2015), who first examined this, emphasized that these feelings are not a syndrome, a complex, or a mental illness, but rather experiences that almost everyone encounters. Therefore, the term of "impostor phenomenon" will be used in this study.

The attitudes and behaviors exhibited by individuals experiencing the impostor phenomenon help us to understand the concept better. Determining attitudes and behaviors provide valuable insights to both organizations and academicians about how to combat this phenomenon. Some attitudes can be listed as follows: attributing accomplishments to luck, constantly comparing oneself with others, underestimating one's own abilities, fear of making mistakes, and extreme perfectionism.

Individuals with the impostor phenomenon compare their ideal success with their own goals. Their goals are always very high as they are known as perfectionists. Therefore, they can never reach their ideal goals in their self-evaluation. This is the explanation of why impostors do not take positive feedback into consideration and cannot internalize success. Constantly making unreasonably low evaluations of themselves leads to the discrepancy between real and ideal goals, which strengthens the individuals' sense of being impostors (Sakulku, 2011).

Clance and Imes (1978) noted that women who experience the impostor phenomenon may exhibit at least four different behaviors to overcome it, and all or some of these may be exhibited. These behaviors include: working more than necessary, conforming to the manager's ideas despite differing opinions, remaining completely silent, and using charm to gain the approval of superiors. Recent studies conclude that impostors exhibit two behaviors to avoid being seen as frauds. Impostors try to manage the anxiety either by over-preparation or by initially delaying and then over-preparing (Sadeer Sen & Küçükkaragöz, 2022). Both behaviors and attitudes mentioned above are examples that expand our understanding of how and why individuals experience the impostor phenomenon. Additionally, the six basic features of the impostor phenomenon also help us to understand all the process holistically.

Clance determined six features of the impostor phenomenon: (1) The Impostor Cycle, (2) The need to be special or to be the very best, (3) Superman/Superwoman aspects; (4) Fear of failure, (5) Denial of competence and Discounting praise, and (6) Fear and guilt about success. According to Clance, two of six features should be seen in an individual in order to consider someone as an impostor (Clance, 1985). These features will now be examined in greater detail.

Impostor Cycle: The cycle is one of the basic features of the impostor phenomenon, and it begins with the anxiety and stress felt when a task is assigned to an individual. In order to cope with this situation, individuals either over-prepare for the task or postpone (at first) the task. When the task is successfully completed as a result of over-preparation, the feeling that it is achieved is short-lived. Although they are appreciated, they attribute their success to external factors not to their abilities. When they initially postpone the task and then choose to work harder, they attribute the success achieved to luck in this scenario. In other words, they cannot internalize their success in either case. Impostors' fixed beliefs about success and their perception that success at a task is due to factors such as effort or luck are key elements that fuel the Impostor Cycle. When faced with a new task the cycle begins again.

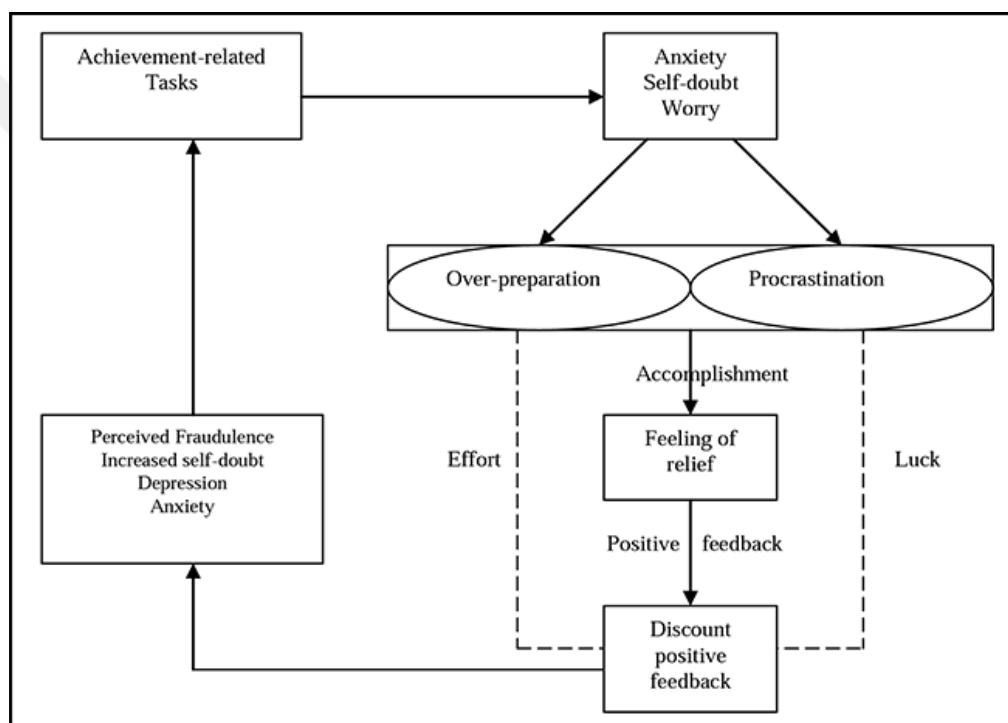


Figure 1

The Impostor Cycle (Sakulku & Alexander, 2011).

The need to be special, to be very best: Clance (1985) discovered that people who experience impostor phenomenon feel the need to "be special or the best." When impostors realize that there are many talented people in large populations such as universities or organizations, these feelings get stronger. Eventually, it makes them feel inadequate when they are not the best. Therefore, they tend to ignore their own success.

Superwoman/Superman aspects: Impostors have a tendency to perfectionism. As a result of this, they face negative feelings such as disappointment and overwhelm when they cannot reach their impossible goals set by themselves.

Fear of failure: Individuals with impostor phenomenon experience intense anxiety during tasks related to success, and this anxiety is based on “fear of failure” (Clance & O’Toole, 1988). Because the risk of failure triggers fear of shame and humiliation, impostors often resort to overwork in order to reduce this risk (Clance, 1985).

Denial of competence and discounting praise: Impostors tend to ignore positive feedback and attribute it to external factors because they struggle to believe in their capabilities and skills.

Fear and guilt about success: Clance (1985) argued that impostors might worry about rejection by others and feel guilty as being different. Additionally, they might also be scared of success as it increases the expectations and demands of other people.

To sum up, the anxiety-driven and perfectionist nature of the impostor phenomenon leads individuals to over-preparation or procrastination, powered by a sense of inadequacy and a tendency to ignore positive feedback. When, eventually, the success occurs, they tend to attribute it to external factors only, not hard work or competencies. The nature of the impostor phenomenon can be understood more clearly by exploring the related theories, which will be discussed in the next section.

2.2.2. Related Theories

There are several theories that can be taken into consideration to explain the impostor phenomenon. In research conducted in 2023, the articles about the concept between 1978-2023 revealed that attribution theory and conservation of resources theory (COR) are the most used theories to explain the impostor phenomenon. Additionally, self-determination theory was used at least twice in studies. However, it should be noted that more than half of 188 studies had no theoretical framework in the research (Gullifor et al., 2023).

Attribution theory helps us understand the impostor phenomenon, as it explains how individuals fail to internalize their success and instead attribute it to external factors such as luck. This theory was developed by Heider (1958) and examines how individuals interpret their own and others' behaviors and how they perceive the reasons for these behaviors. There is a cause-and-effect relationship while evaluating the results. This concept has been studied for many years and by many researchers. The term attribution has got two different meanings in social psychology: casual and dispositional. The first one

refers to the explanations for the reasons for behavior by answering "why" questions. The second one includes making conclusions about the characteristics of an individual from behavior (Korman & Malle, 2013). The impostor phenomenon is more like causal attribution. In addition, according to this theory, individuals explain events with internal and external attributions. Internal attributions refer to the individual's attribution of their behavior to their own characteristics or efforts. For example, a student's attribution of a high score on an exam to working hard or to their intelligence is an internal attribution. External attributions, on the other hand, are when a student attributes their success to external factors, such as the ease of exam questions. From the impostor phenomenon perspective, individuals make an external attribution while evaluating their successes, and an internal attribution while evaluating their failures.

COR is one of the most used theories to explain the framework of impostor phenomenon (Gullifor et al., 2023). COR theory was first studied by Hobfoll and has become one of the most examined over the last thirty years. COR's main idea is that individuals tend to gain, maintain, develop, and conserve their valuable things. In the case of failing, stress occurs in individuals. There are four ideas that emphasize the nature of stress in this theory: primacy of loss, resource investment, gain paradox, and desperation. Summary, individuals try to prevent resource loss or increase their existing resources. When they fail, burnout occurs as a result of a high level of stress. The gain paradox means that resource gains are more important in the case of a high level of resource loss. Finally, desperation refers to individuals who cannot prevent resource loss and gain new resources experiencing more stress. In this context, COR theory provides a powerful framework for understanding individuals' strategies for coping with stress (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

The relationship between the impostor phenomenon and COR can be understood through their shared focus on stress. COR theory posits that individuals' efforts to protect and increase their resources such as time and self-efficacy. When resource loss occurs, stress arises. Similarly, the impostor phenomenon involves not internalizing accomplishments, and therefore experiencing stress in the long term. For instance, employees who constantly doubt their abilities despite receiving positive feedback may overwork themselves to maintain their perceived competence, consuming their emotional and physical resources in the process. As overwork disrupts work-life balance, this depletion leads to a loss of resources, such as social support, which increases the feelings of loneliness. In short, the initial loss triggers new losses. This example shows the impostor phenomenon through the lens of COR theory.

From a self-determination theory perspective, the operation of the impostor phenomenon is closely related to the failure to meet the individual's basic psychological needs. Because according to

this theory, when individuals' basic psychological needs such as competence, autonomy and relatedness are met, their intrinsic motivation increases, and they become more committed to their work (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Namely, high levels of impostor phenomenon might lead to individuals experience difficulties with competence due to not internalization of their success. Additionally, they might lose their sense of autonomy, because they do not trust their own efforts. Their need for relatedness might also be damaged due to fear of criticism.

In summary, the impostor phenomenon is shaped by individuals' inability to internalize their success and their tendency to attribute it to external factors, can negatively affect both individuals and organizations. By recognizing the underlying causes and potential outcomes, we can better address the challenges posed by the impostor phenomenon and support individuals and organizations in overcoming it. Therefore, the antecedents and outcomes will be examined with the findings in the literature in the next section.

2.2.3. Antecedents and Outcomes

The impostor phenomenon has been studied for decades since it was first conceptualized by Clance and Imes in 1978. Studies on the impostor phenomenon have shown notable growth over the past 20 years. The number of studies has increased, especially since 2009, when interest in the subject began to rise. This trend continued till 2020, after which it accelerated further. More than half of all studies on the impostor phenomenon have been published within the last six years (Demirbaş & Çınar Altınbaş, 2023). In this section, the antecedents that lead to the impostor phenomenon will first be examined, followed by an analysis of its outcomes.

Impostor phenomenon has been linked to family dynamics and societal norms. The effect of childhood family dynamics and parentification can influence the impostor phenomenon (Castro, Jones & Mirsalimi, 2004). Social norms can also shape individuals' impostor phenomenon (Clance & Imes, 1978). Each root fosters a sense of inadequacy as individuals might feel under pressure to meet unrealistic expectations by affecting them in different ways. So, it can be said that the impostor phenomenon starts in childhood and is reinforced by social norms.

Clance and Imes sought answers to questions such as what could be the main belief that intelligent women consider themselves as impostors despite concrete evidence of their success. After interviewing about 150 women, they found out that the impostor phenomenon is often associated with two different family dynamics. There were two groups during the interview. Women in the first group

grow up with a sibling described as "intelligent". Despite their efforts to prove their success, they fail to receive approval from their families and feel inadequate. Women in the second group are convinced by their families that they are perfect, but as they grow up, they realize that they cannot meet these expectations. Unable to trust their families' exaggerated praise, these women do not see their efforts as sufficient and feel like impostors (Clance & Imes, 1978). In both cases, unmet expectations and wrong family messages lead to the impostor phenomenon. These dynamics create a disconnection between accomplishment and self-efficacy by increasing self-doubt. Accordingly, it is clear that experiences with the family in childhood may influence impostor phenomenon development.

Moreover, parentification experienced in childhood may also be an important factor in the formation of the impostor phenomenon. One study found a moderate relationship between parentification and the impostor phenomenon, and it was suggested that this situation may be one of the long-term effects of parentification experienced in childhood (Castro, Jones & Mirsalimi, 2004). For example, individuals meeting the needs of their family during childhood may not internalize their achievements during adulthood. Because they see their achievements as meeting the expectations of others. This makes the internalization process difficult and leads to the impostor phenomenon.

Clance and colleagues have also emphasized the influence of society and gender roles on the development of the impostor phenomenon. Different social values and stereotypes for women and men in society encourage individuals to adopt roles that are appropriate for their biological sex. However, individuals who have careers that contradict these roles may have difficulty explaining their successes and behaviors. For example, the perception that women make emotional decisions may lead to subconscious conflicting feelings if a woman works in a high-level decision-making position. This may cause the woman to fail to internalize her successes and question her own decision-making process, which may trigger feelings of impostor. Men can also be affected by this phenomenon. Topping and Kimmel's study found that men had higher imposter phenomenon scores than women (1985). However, no gender difference was found in Hutchins' study (2015). These different results show us the complexity of the impostor phenomenon in terms of gender. This phenomenon, which was first thought to be specific to women, has been observed in men in later studies. Differences in results may be due to methodological approaches, cultural factors, or changing social dynamics over time.

Studies on the impostor phenomenon help us understand how the factors mentioned above that contribute to the formation and development of this phenomenon manifest themselves in both the personal and professional lives of individuals. It also provides important guidance on how we can deal

with the negative outcomes of the impostor phenomenon. For example, consider an individual growing up in a family focusing on the school grades all the time and not accepting low grades. When this individual becomes an employee, he probably would not internalize his/her success as he/she was judged all the time when a child. Following, the feelings of being exposed as fraud lead to him/her working more than needed as never seen himself/herself good enough. These feelings are further compounded by a competitive work environment that emphasizes constant performance, deepening the impostor phenomenon and making it harder for the individual to feel secure in their achievements.

Studies can be divided into categories such as individual and organizational level. From the individualistic perspective; studies examining the relationships between the big five personality traits and the impostor phenomenon have consistently found a positive correlation with neuroticism and a negative correlation with conscientiousness and extraversion. The consistency of similar results across different cultures highlights the generalizability of the impostor phenomenon, as all three studies involved samples from distinct cultural backgrounds (Chae et al., 1995; Ross et al., 2001; Bernard et al. 2002; Ibrahim et al., 2020).

In another study examining the relationship between achievement dispositions and the impostor phenomenon. Significant and positive relations were obtained between fear of failure and self-handicapping and the impostor phenomenon (Ross et al., 2001). Other individualistic-focused variables studied with the impostor phenomenon are self-esteem (Ferrari et al., 1998; Kamarzarrin et al., 2013), and narcissism (Gibson-Beverly & Schwartz, 2008). Narcissism, with its focus on feeling special but being sensitive to criticism, and self-esteem, which is about how people value themselves, might both be connected to the impostor phenomenon by affecting how people see and accept their own successes and failures.

Another concept of individualistic perspective in the impostor phenomenon is perfectionism. Pannhausen et al. (2020) found that the perfectionism dimensions were all positively related to IP. Additionally, Yalçın and Çelik (2024) found a positive and strong relationship between the impostor phenomenon and perfectionism. Additionally, other studies have explored this relationship and obtained similar results across various fields, including education and healthcare (Henning et al., 1998; Rohrmann et al., 2016).

From the organizational perspective; a study conducted in 2023 consisting of a meta-analysis of 188 documents between 1978-2023 showed that approximately half (41.5%) were from the

business/management discipline, followed by education (24.5%), healthcare (17.5%), and psychology (14.4%). (Gullifor et al., 2023). The most studied variables in the relationship with the impostor phenomenon are commitment, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviors, creativity, engagement, and workaholism (Vergauwe et al. 2015; Neureiter & Traut-Mattausch, 2016; Mir& Kamal, 2018; Hudson & Gonzalez-Gomez, 2021). As can be predicted, workaholism and continuance commitment as a sub-dimension of organizational commitment has a positive relationship to the impostor phenomenon. The rest of the concepts mentioned above have an opposite relationship to the impostor phenomenon.

Moreover, the relationship between impostor phenomenon and perceived inclusion, leader-member exchange, organizational structure, role ambiguity, mentoring, and perceived organizational support were also examined (Mensinger 2007; McDowell et al., 2015; Graham & McClain, 2019). As expected, role ambiguity increases the feeling of impostor phenomenon. However, mentoring, perceived organizational support, and perceived inclusion that expresses the degree of acceptance and belonging to an organization decreases the feeling of impostor phenomenon.

To sum up, the impostor phenomenon is fundamentally shaped by family background and reinforced by social expectations. Messages received from the family and internalized beliefs directly affect how the individual sees himself/herself and how he/she interprets his/her successes. When combined with the dynamics of business life, these feelings can be further reinforced and produce significant results at the individual and organizational level. Therefore, understanding the impostor phenomenon and developing strategies to reduce its effects are of great importance both for the psychological well-being of individuals and for productivity in the workplace.

2.3. BURNOUT

2.3.1. Definiton

The factors in life such as long working hours, traffic, financial pressures and health problems constantly cause us to experience stress. As a result, we feel exhausted both physically and mentally in the long term. This situation was conceptualized in business life as burnout, and was classified as a disease by the World Health Organization in 2019 (WHO, 2019).

Burnout goes beyond its conceptualization and can be found in historical records. For example, the deep despair and exhaustion experienced by the prophet Elijah in the Old Testament indicates that this phenomenon was recognized in early periods. In Shakespeare's works, the verb "to burn out" was

also associated with symptoms of fatigue (Burisch, 2010). Schwartz and Will's study (1953) on psychiatric nurse Miss Jones revealed how burnout syndrome affected patient care due to low morale among employees. It is also stated that the concept is associated with the novel "A Burnt-Out Case" written by Greene in 1960. The novel tells the story of an architect, the main character, who quits his job and goes to the African jungle as a result of the difficulties and disappointments he experiences. Bradley (1969) defined the term burnout as a psychological phenomenon in probation officers working with adolescent offenders. These examples indicate that burnout existed before it was conceptualized and that it was felt differently in various cultural and professional contexts.

Burnout has been studied by many researchers due to its comprehensive structure (Freudenberger 1974; Cherniss, 1980; Maslach & Jackson 1981; Perlman and Hartman, 1980; Pines& Aranson, 1988; Kristensen, 2005). The first definition of burnout was made by Freudenberger (1974). According to Freudenberger, it is a state of exhaustion following excessive loss of power and energy, which usually occurs approximately one year after starting work in an organization. It consists of both physical and behavioral symptoms. Physical symptoms include fatigue, and various health issues like colds. Behavioral symptoms include such as having a hard time with controlling feelings, and being less productive.

Maslach (1976) examined the burnout among health and social workers and stated that constant interaction with people can lead to psychological and physical problems. Burnout was defined as emotional exhaustion characterized by a lack of positive feelings, understanding or respect towards service recipients. Later, Maslach and Jackson (1981) defined burnout as a syndrome and suggested that it consists of three dimensions:

1. Emotional Exhaustion: Individuals' inability to devote themselves to their work as a result of the loss of emotional resources. The example of it might be that employees have no longer energy as a result of excessive workload.

2. Depersonalization: Developing cynical and negative attitudes towards other people. It can be seen as not caring other people both colleagues and customer.

3. Feeling of Reduced Personal Accomplishment: Feelings of unhappiness as a result of negative evaluations of job performance. For example, if an employee says " The projects that I prepared do not

create the expected effect. I do not think I will be successful in my job anymore.", it shows us the feeling of reduced personal accomplishment.

Cherniss (1980) defined burnout as a process and explained it as negative changes that occur over time in individuals working in challenging and disappointing jobs. Burnout includes elements such as diminished work goals, loss of idealism, emotional detachment, work alienation, and negative attitudes. Cherniss divided burnout into three stages: stress, exhaustion, and defensive end. When job demands are higher than job resources, stress occurs. Unmanaged stress leads to individual tension. Finally, employees try to create defense mechanisms in order to cope with stress. However, the failure of defensive mechanisms makes employees physically and psychologically distance themselves from their jobs.

Perlman and Hartman (1980) also associated burnout with stress and defined it as negative attitudes and decreased work efficiency in occupations that work intensively face to face with people. Burnout has been divided into three dimensions: emotional and physical exhaustion, lowered work productivity, and over depersonalization. This process starts with the incompatibility of an employee's abilities with job demands, and carries on different perceptions of stress as a result of individual characteristics. Then, physical, emotional and behavioral reactions emerge. Finally, stress turns into burnout. Personality traits and work-social environment play an effective role in the perception of burnout. As a result, burnout occurs.

Pines and Aronson (1988) studied burnout from an existential perspective. The main reason for burnout stems from the existential needs of individuals to believe that their lives and the work they do are useful, important and make a difference. People who expect to derive a sense of existential significance from their work enter their chosen careers with high goals and expectations, idealistic and motivated. When they feel that they have failed and their work is insignificant, they start feeling helpless and hopeless and eventually burn out. They focused on three dimensions of burnout: physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion. Accordingly, physical burnout is characterized by symptoms, including feeling unwell and experiencing sleep disturbances. Emotional burnout involves negative states such as depression and feelings of hopelessness. Lastly, mental burnout encompasses feelings and perceptions, such as a sense of worthlessness, viewing one's efforts as failures, and experiencing disappointment in others.

Kristensen and colleagues (2005)' definition of burnout is based on fatigue and exhaustion, which aligns with the former definitions. However, fatigue and exhaustion are central, burnout is not just about these feelings like in other burnout definitions. Their definition includes attributing fatigue to specific domains, such as work or client-related tasks. They used three sub-dimensions in order to make the burnout process more comprehensive: personal, work-related, and client-related. The first one is a general measure of physical and psychological fatigue, used to assess exhaustion regardless of occupational status. It simply asks how tired or exhausted a person feels. The second one is an assessment specifically related to the person's work, based on their own attribution of symptoms to work-related causes. It focuses on how individuals connect their fatigue to their job. The third one refers to attributing fatigue to elements excluding work. It can be said that this conceptualization is more applicable in today's organization because all sub-dimensions look at fatigue and exhaustion from different perspectives. Ultimately, comparing each dimension with each other provides researchers with valuable insights into the source of fatigue and exhaustion. For instance, it can help distinguish whether an individual's tiredness stems from workplace demands or personal factors such as health challenges or family responsibilities.

Burnout has been the focus of many researchers since it was conceptualized. Although there is no common view in the literature on the definition and measurement of burnout, different researchers have developed models that focus on various aspects of burnout. The models have both common and different points. In detail, the Edelwich and Brodsky Burnout Model (1980) explains burnout as a four-stage process seen in employees in the service sector, while the Cherniss and Perlman-Hartman models focus on stress sources and social support. The Maslach Burnout Model (1976) focuses on three dimensions; emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and a feeling of decreased personal accomplishment. Even if Maslach's approach remains the most widely utilized in the literature, it has faced several criticisms regarding its effectiveness and applicability. One major concern is its limited scope that is suitable for assessing burnout only in service professions. Additionally, it has been criticized for focusing on only American culture, as it may not accurately reflect the experiences of individuals in diverse cultural contexts (Kristensen et al., 2005). The Pines and Aronson Burnout Model (1988) evaluated burnout as a condition that can be seen not only in the service sector but also in all professional groups. While these models emphasize that burnout is caused by common reasons such as stress, they vary in terms of applicability to different service areas.

Burnout is a significant issue that negatively impacts not only employees as individuals but also their personal lives, family dynamics, and society as a whole. Overcoming this problem can only be

possible by understanding the needs of employees. However, understanding the needs is not enough to prevent it, the needs should also be compatible with the requirements of organizations. Through this approach, effective solutions for both sides can be developed.

Being able to conduct a comprehensive analysis is possible by knowing the stages and process of burnout in detail. Burnout is a process that develops over time. This process is shaped by the accumulation of physical, emotional and mental fatigue experienced by employees and can manifest itself in different phases. Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) define burnout as a process consisting of four phases that do not occur suddenly. During this process, individuals initially start work with high expectations and motivation. However, in the end, they experience burnout symptoms due to unmet expectations. These four phases are:

1. Enthusiasm: The employees prioritize their job with high happiness and motivation by working intensively despite stress and negative conditions.
2. Stagnation: Disappointment occurs due to expectations not being met and job satisfaction decreases.
3. Frustration: Employees experience frustration when realizing that they are not able to alter their working conditions, leading to a loss of meaning and value in their job.
4. Apathy: A deep emotional detachment manifests itself with behaviors such as not coming to work or coming late. Work life becomes a source of unhappiness for the individual.

Providing an example to illustrate this process can likely make these phases clearer. A white-collar employee who is very enthusiastic and motivated when she first starts her job, she tries to prove herself by working for long hours. However, after a while, she realizes that her efforts are not appreciated enough and begins to feel disappointed. This causes her passion for her job to decrease, and she does not enjoy her job as much as before. Then, when she realizes that she cannot change the conditions at work, she begins to find her job meaningless and feels deeply disappointed. Finally, she becomes completely alienated from her job; she starts to come to work late, avoids meetings and performs her duties with minimal effort. Work life has become a source of stress and unhappiness for her. In the next section, the antecedents that led to the emergence of burnout and the consequences it caused will be examined in light of the findings in the literature. First, the factors that affect the concept and the

conditions under which it emerged will be explained, then the effects of this concept at different levels will be discussed.

In summary, burnout refers to the physical, emotional and mental exhaustion of individuals under long-term stress and workload. When considered in terms of its definition and phases, it is seen that burnout is shaped by individuals' experiences in work life. However, burnout is triggered by certain factors and leads to various results at the individual and organizational level. Therefore, in order to gain a more comprehensive perspective on burnout, the antecedents and outcomes of burnout will be examined in detail in the next section based on research findings in the literature.

2.3.2. Antecedents and Outcomes

Burnout has been studied by researchers for decades, and it is claimed that more than a thousand publications are made about the burnout syndrome every year (Fernandes Fontes, 2020). Burnout is influenced by various factors at both individual and organizational levels and leads to multiple outcomes at these levels. The antecedents and outcomes will be examined in greater detail in the following sections.

Burnout is a result of the interaction of an individual with the work environment. People spend a large part of their lives at work and the problems they encounter at work can negatively affect their general life. Even if burnout is related to the work environment, demographic and individualistic factors cannot be overlooked in the burnout process. Therefore, it is important to study the relationship between burnout and demographic/individualistic features. The findings of studies examining the relationship between burnout and gender are inconsistent. Some studies have found a relationship between gender and burnout levels (Antoniou et al., 2006; Sönmez et al., 2016), while others have found no such relationship (Wright & Bonett, 1997; Aksu & Baysal, 2005; Platsidou & Agaliotis, 2000; Şahin & Şahin, 2012; Okutan et al., 2013; Soner & Yılmaz, 2020). The inconsistency can be attributed to various factors such as occupational differences, as some professions may have gendered work environments or expectations that amplify burnout for one gender more than the other. Study methods and measurement tools can be the other factor. But in general, from the gender point of view, emotional exhaustion was found higher in women, while depersonalization in men (Maslach et al., 2001). Similarly, in Norway, gender differences in burnout were examined within the eight working groups, including lawyers, teachers, physicians, church employees. The results showed that women felt more exhausted than men. However, disengagement levels of both genders were almost the same (Innstrand et al., 2011).

The other demographic variable studied with burnout is age. Burnout syndromes are seen by young employees more than old employees (Aydin & Akgemci, 2020). Researchers stated that the importance of experience, and therefore, resilience in old employees, is the reason for this finding. However, in Finland, burnout was found to increase somewhat with age, a finding that differs from prior research focused on human service professions or non-representative samples (Ahola et al., 2006). Likewise, in Canada, a study conducted between 2009-2012 about how gender and age affect the level of burnout. The results show the burnout symptoms vary at different ages, so that women face burnout symptoms aged 20-35 and over 55. This situation can be explained based on work-family conflict. Women mastering work at the age between 20-35 coincides with family responsibilities. In the same manner, women over 55 take care of the elderly and need care of people in the family more than men (Marchand, Blanch & Beauregard, 2018). This shows us the importance of developing well-designed strategies tailored to all age groups, as the level of burnout varies across age ranges.

The findings about the relationship between burnout and education level in studies show that burnout increases as the education level increases. This can be explained by the fact that responsibilities that individuals face increase with increasing education level. In addition, increased unfulfilled expectations in individuals with higher education levels can lead to an increase in burnout levels (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Aydin & Akgemci, 2020). For example, one study showed that a decrease in the personal accomplishment dimension was more common in female educators with higher education levels (Jamaludin & You, 2019).

Marital status is also among the individual factors affecting burnout. Studies show that married employees without children are more exposed to emotional exhaustion than divorced or single employees (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). However, some studies have shown that the level of depersonalization is higher in single employees. This can be explained by the fact that single employees feel lonelier without an external source to support social relationships in work life. For example, while married employees may find a supportive environment at home, single employees may experience exhaustion due to the lack of a close relationship to share work stress.

A meta-analysis was conducted of studies examining the relationship between the big five personality traits and burnout between 1993 and 2021. The studies examined included approximately seven different occupations and over thirty thousand participants. In addition, more than half of the studies were conducted in Europe, the rest in Asia, America, Africa, and one in Australia. The results showed that individuals with high neuroticism and low scores in other personality traits (agreeableness,

conscientiousness, extraversion, openness to experience) are more likely to experience burnout (Angelini, 2023). For example, a white-collar employee may be sensitive to work stress and show signs of emotional exhaustion due to high neuroticism. While low conscientiousness makes it difficult for him/her to organize the tasks, low extroversion and agreeableness may cause him/her to not benefit enough from social support. These personality traits increase the risk of burnout, revealing the role of personal characteristics in this process. Apart from the big five personality traits, internal factors affecting burnout also include high self-expectations, perfectionism, a strong need for validation, and overworking due to viewing work as the main source of meaning (Kaschka, Korczak & Broich, 2011).

Although individual factors contribute to the formation of burnout to a certain extent, it is generally accepted that burnout essentially occurs and develops in the workplace. Maslach et al. (2001) stated that the organizational factors affecting burnout are workload, controls, rewards, belonging, the degree of justice in the organization, and the values of the organization. A study in Spain, organizational factors determined as lack of staff, inadequate support, budget cuts, insufficient leadership and management (Sillero & Zabalegui, 2017). Another study analyzing 26 German and English studies from 2004 to 2009 examined burnout factors in the health sector. External factors affected burnout were defined workplace issues such as high demands, low support, limited decision-making freedom, and managerial problems (Kaschka et al., 2011).

In a study by Avcı, Kaya, and Sürgüvenç (2022), 36 studies conducted in Turkey were analyzed to identify organizational factors contributing to employee burnout. One major factor is workload, which can lead to physical and emotional exhaustion. Insufficient social support and workplace resources also exacerbate stress, increasing burnout risk. Unclear role definitions contribute to uncertainty regarding employees' duties and responsibilities, further heightening the likelihood of burnout. A weak emotional connection to the organization can diminish motivation and intensify feelings of burnout. Additionally, negative workplace relationships and conflicts create a stressful environment, adversely impacting mental health and fostering burnout. Finally, inadequate support from management reduces employee commitment and can trigger burnout. These findings show us the generality of burnout causes, as all of the studies from different samples and times reached similar results.

Although a significant portion of burnout research has been conducted in Western countries, cross-cultural studies provide valuable insights into how burnout manifests in different cultural contexts. It helps organizations to develop logical strategies to combat burnout as the effects of workplace stressors may vary across countries. A meta-analysis of 120 studies covering five global regions, taking

into account Hofstede's cultural dimensions, examined burnout from the perspective of Job-Demand and Resources theory (JDR) and its relationship with engagement. The results show that masculinity amplifies the negative effects of job demands on burnout and engagement, whereas femininity responds more flexibly to these demands, resulting in fewer negative effects on burnout and engagement. Furthermore, factors such as power distance and collectivism weaken the effects of job resources on reducing burnout and increasing engagement (Rattrie, Kittler & Paul, 2019). Globally, these findings provide important clues about how cultural dimensions shape job stress processes.

Some studies focused on comparing burnout between regions; while some found no significant differences, others identified notable variations. A study conducted in Iran and Spain found that high job demands were strongly associated with burnout in both countries, but the way burnout was experienced varied by culture. While in Iran, burnout was associated with both emotional exhaustion and cynicism, but cynicism was more dominant in Spain. In addition, employees in Iran, especially women, have difficulty balancing work and family due to gender roles and limited organizational support (Tavassoli & Sunyer, 2025). Similarly, another study conducted in Canada and China found that Chinese employees have a higher ability to cope with stress, which is due to their collectivist culture. In Canada, the effects of workload and conflict on emotional exhaustion were found to be more pronounced (Jamal, 2005). On the other hand, a study examining burnout among nurses in Canada and Jordan found that factors such as job type, workload, and career expectancies were associated with burnout in both regions, resulting in turnover intention (Armstrong-Stassen et al., 1994).

To summarize, burnout is a critical issue that affects not only individuals but also organizations. At the individual level, excessive stress can lead to physiological problems such as sleep and eating disorders and can cause more serious health problems in the long term (Açikel, 2022). Due to constant anxiety, depression and loss of self-confidence, the person's work and private life can also be negatively affected (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). At the organizational level, burnout can lead to an increase in turnover intention, a decrease in work performance and productivity, resulting in loss of motivation, job dissatisfaction and reduced organizational commitment (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Kim, Ra & Kwon, 2017). Additionally, high levels of depersonalization might lead individuals to destroy effective communication both in their personal life and the work environment (Küçükoglu, 2013). Therefore, it is of great importance to develop programs that support employees' stress management (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). In this context, it is expected to obtain findings that will shed light on the development of strategies to reduce burnout in organizations by examining its mediating role in the relationship between the impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting.

2.4. PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

2.4.1. Definition

Organizational support refers to organizations that care about employees' overall well-being by appreciating their contribution. Perceived organizational support (POS) means that the employees' perception of this care. It was first studied by Eisenberger et al. (1986) and defined as the level of employees' perception of how organizations take care of and appreciate employees' contributions. POS is one of the well-researched concepts in the organizational behavior field. It has been studied and defined by many researchers since the day it entered the literature. Remarkable words in these definitions are; well-being, value given to the employee's contribution, support and continuity of this support, and the organization's commitment to employees (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988; Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Kurtessis et al., 2017).

POS comes from the organizational support theory (OST). OST suggests that the general perception of about the organization created by employees as a result of how their efforts value and their well-being are taken care of. OST has got three kinds of sources to explain POS: employee attributions, self-enhancement processes, and social exchange (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Employee attributions refers to the evaluation by employees of an organization's treatment of employees. Self-enhancement processes explains that POS also helps to improve positive emotions about the organization by fulfilling socio-emotional needs such as approval and esteem. Lastly, according to SET, individuals act voluntarily as they expect to get something in return (Blau, 1964). To rephrase, individuals act based on the principle of reciprocity in their relationships and respond positively or negatively to the support they receive (Gouldner, 1960). In terms of POS, there is a negotiation between employees and employers. Employees who perceive their employer is supportive and cares about their well-being are generally motivated to reciprocate with positive outcomes such as higher levels of performance and commitment.

Eisenberger and Rhoades suggested that three key components improve the employees' perceptions of the organization: fairness, supervisor support; rewards and job conditions. (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Firstly, fairness was considered as procedural justice, which refers to whether the methods used in the resources' distribution are fair or not. Procedural justice was first studied by Greenberg (1990). It includes formal rules and policies such as informing employees before the decision, providing accurate information, and employee participation in the process, additionally is related to interpersonal relationships, such as treating employees with respect and providing information on how

outcomes are determined. If there is constant repetition of fair decisions in an organization, it would affect the employees' perception positively.

Secondly, supervisor support is strongly associated with the POS. When employees receive positive support from their supervisor, they generally interpret it as an organization caring about their well-being, and this affects POS positively. Supervisors, as representatives of the organization, assess employees and play a crucial role in communicating organizational goals and reinforcing organizational values (Zhou & Liu, 2013). Their interactions greatly influence employees' perceptions of organizational support, shaping their commitment and overall engagement. Additionally, managers' evaluations of employees are often relayed to top executives, impacting their views and strengthening the connection between leader support and POS among employees (Zhou & Liu, 2013).

Finally, in terms of the organizational rewards and job conditions, human resource practices that recognize employee contributions should be positively related to POS. Studies examined various variables such as job security, recognition, salary, autonomy, stressors, and training. As expected, while training, job security, recognition, and fair salary are positively related to the POS, stressors are negatively related to POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

To sum up, POS refers to employees' perception of their organizations' support and the organization's commitment to employees. In addition to the components mentioned above, POS is undoubtedly shaped by many factors and leads to several outcomes. Therefore, the antecedents and outcomes will be examined with the findings from the literature in the next section to have a comprehensive perspective on POS.

2.4.2. Antecedents and Outcomes

POS, being studied by researchers for decades, is a perceived phenomenon by employees and shapes the attitudes and behaviors in the workplace. It is defined as the process of perceiving, organizing, and interpreting information coming from the individual's environment (Erdoğan, 1996). POS is shaped by various factors such as organizational justice. It also plays a crucial role in determining positive outcomes such as job satisfaction, which can significantly impact both individual and organizational productivity.

A study conducted in 2015 included a meta-analysis of 170 articles about POS with its antecedents and outcomes. These studies were conducted in different sectors, such as education, finance,

service, and government. The most studied variable with POS is organizational commitment, followed by job satisfaction, turnover intention, supervisor support, organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior. The least studied variable with POS is job security, followed by role conflict, role ambiguity and task variety (Ahmed & Nawaz, 2015). Another meta-analysis, which examined studies on POS spanning 20 years, reached similar conclusions (Riggle, Edmonson & Hansen, 2008).

POS is positively related to work motivation, conscientiousness in job duties, and innovativeness, even in the absence of tangible rewards (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). Furthermore, POS involves the organization recognizing employee involvement, demonstrating care for employee well-being, and implementing practices that positively impact employee experiences. This view shows that employees who perceive higher levels of organizational support are more likely to engage in behaviors such as extra-role performance that contribute to organizational success (Chen et al., 2009). As an example, if a company values its employees' ideas, offers training for their development, and provides flexible working hours that support work-life balance, employees will feel this support. As a result, an employee may volunteer to take on extra responsibility on a new project or help a colleague with a difficult task, even though it is not in their job description.

In a study researched how POS influences self-initiated expatriates' motivation. A self-initiated expatriate can be defined as voluntarily going abroad and starting working. In this study, POS was divided into three sub-dimensions: career, financial, and adjustment. The first one refers to the degree of organization's carefulness of career needs. The second one refers to the degree of fulfillment of financial needs, including rewards. The third one refers to how an organization takes care of employees' adaptation after moving to another country as a result of a job transfer. It concluded that all dimensions of POS have a positive and significant relation to the motivation (Chen & Shaffer, 2017). It highlights the universality of POS, as the study's samples encompass a global population across regions including North America, Asia, Europe, and Australia.

For years, research has been conducted on POS, and the findings consistently demonstrate similar outcomes. POS' outcomes can be divided into two categories: attitudinal and behavioral. The attitudinal outcomes are related to the employee's perceptions and emotional commitment to the organization, while behavioral outcomes express the reflection of these perceptions on concrete work behaviors. Under the high level of POS, attitudinal outcomes include high levels of well-being, engagement, job satisfaction, commitment, and identification. Some behavioral outcomes are low

turnover intention, high organizational citizenship behavior, high knowledge-sharing (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002; Muneer et al., 2014).

To sum up, high levels of POS play an important role in organizations' efficiency and effectiveness as it affects employees' attitudes and behaviors in a positive way. However, it should be noted that POS involves a process that requires time and effort for both employees and employers to create trust in this reciprocal relationship. During this process, changing working conditions or individual factors may change employees' perception of support over time. Therefore, understanding how POS relates to new concepts in today's business world is becoming increasingly crucial. In this context, this study explores the interaction of POS with the relatively new concept of quiet quitting, while also examining its connection to burnout and the impostor phenomenon to enrich the existing literature.

2.5. LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE

2.5.1. Definition

Leadership is as old as organizational behavior. However, most leadership research assumes that leaders treat all subordinates equally (Sürücü & Şeşen, 2019). Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory focuses on the quality of relations between leaders and followers. The main idea of LMX is that the leader does not treat all followers in the same way and adopts an individualized leadership style by communicating with each follower at different levels (Dansereau et al., 1975). This separates the LMX from other leadership styles. This individualized leadership approach directly impacts workplace experiences and outcomes by shaping the dynamics of interaction between leaders and followers. Over the years, the common terms in the definition of LMX by different researches are that job satisfaction, leadership effectiveness, performance and satisfaction were generally used over the years (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Erdogan & Bauer, 2010; Dulebohn et al., 2012). In this context, LMX theory provides an important framework for understanding the nature of leader-follower relationships and examining their effects on organizational outcomes.

LMX is a dynamic and situational process (Dansereau et al., 1975). Leaders and followers develop a relationship that develops over time, and this relationship may change with various reasons. But in general, the relationship between the leader and the followers is divided into two groups: in-group (high-quality relationship) and out-group (low-quality relationship). The first one refers to the fact that followers do not only have a formal relationship with their leaders, but also establish stronger and more

privileged bounds. On the other hand, the second one means that the followers have limited and formal communication with their leaders (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). They receive less feedback and support from their leaders, work only in accordance with their job descriptions and do not make any additional contributions to the organization (Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

LMX theory can be understood clearly with social exchange theory (SET) and expectancy theory, which focus on the benefit in their theoretical framework. Additionally, role theory and organizational justice are also important in the explanation of LMX (Scandura, 1999). SET suggests that relationships between individuals are based on mutual benefit (Blau, 1964). In this framework, positive behaviors to employees exhibited by leaders encourage employees to act in a similar manner that will contribute to the success of the leader in return for these behaviors (Sürütü, 2021). When the leader provides trust, support and justice, employees contribute to the success of the leader by showing higher commitment and performance.

Expectancy theory advocated that individuals make decisions to exhibit a certain behavior based on the relationship between the expected outcomes of this behavior and the value of the rewards to be obtained (Vroom, 1964). In other words, individuals perform or do not perform the behavior according to the sum of the values she obtains as a result of her behavior. From the LMX perspective, leaders tend to give more resources to the in-group followers (Bauer & Erdoğan, 2015). This situation allows high-quality relationship to followers to be motivated. On the other hand, followers who have a low-quality relationship with their leaders put in less effort because they think they are less likely to receive valuable rewards. Depending on the quality of the relationship they establish with their followers, leaders can directly affect their expectations and motivations. While in-group followers tend to act in accordance with their leaders' expectations, out-group followers may tend to act contrary to their leaders' expectations.

In the perspective of role theory, employees are faced with certain role expectations related to their positions. In relation to the LMX, the relationship between the leader and the follower is shaped within the framework of these role expectations (Scandura, 1999). While LMX theory focuses on the leader establishing different levels of relationships with different members, role theory explains the expectations underlying these relationships. The leader's clear expression of role expectations facilitates the follower's compliance with these expectations, thus increasing the quality of the interaction (Schriesheim, Castro & Cogliser, 1999). However, unclear role expectations may arise role conflict, which can negatively impact the LMX relationship (Biddle, 1986). In high-quality relationships, the

support and trust provided by the leader to the followers enables them to better understand the leader's role expectations and to act in accordance with these expectations. This increases mutual trust and cooperation between the leader and the followers, and reducing role conflicts (Graen & Scandura, 1987).

From the organizational justice point of view, the different levels of relationships can be perceived as fair or unfair by followers. Out-group followers might tend to complain due to more support, resources, and opportunities being offered to in-group followers (Graen et al., 1982). On the other hand, in-group followers may feel that they deserve these privileges as a natural result of their strong relationship with the leader and may perceive the situation as fair. All these theoretical frameworks have contributed to the understanding of the current structure of LMX and the in-group/out-group distinction, thus solidifying its place in the literature.

LMX theory was first developed by Dansereau et al. in 1975 and these studies were named "Vertical Dyad Linkage". They stated that the attitudes and behaviors of the members towards work were not standard, and therefore it would not be beneficial for the leaders to apply the same leadership style to all the members. Over time, this theory was renamed LMX. Initially, LMX theory was considered as a one-dimensional relationship based on work-related interaction (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Over time, studies on role theory and SET concluded that the one-dimensional structure of LMX was not sufficient to explain the concept (Kahn et al., 1964). This situation revealed the necessity of a multidimensional model in order to understand the nature of the relationship between the leader and the follower in a more comprehensive way. Over time, researchers have used concepts such as trust, contribution, support, loyalty, feedback, and openness when classifying LMX (Schriesheim et al., 1999). The four-dimensional classification, which has been widely accepted and used in research for a long time, was developed by Liden and Maslyn in 1998. These dimensions; contribution, loyalty, affect, and professional respect (Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

The sub-dimensions of LMX were determined based on the developmental process of this relationship. This process begins with the first interaction between the leader and the member and ends with the quality of the interaction. In the first stage, the leader and the member begin to get to know each other; at this point, the first impressions between the parties are important. Then, the leader assigns certain tasks and responsibilities to the member and observes his/her competencies and work style. The attitudes and behaviors that the member shows during this process shape the leader's approach towards him/her. The leader may adopt a supportive, developing or distant attitude depending on the member's performance and attitude. In the last stage, the quality of the interaction between the leader and the

member becomes clear; a strong relationship based on trust or a limited and superficial interaction may emerge. This process is one of the basic dynamics that determine the quality of the leader-member interaction (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). This process is one of the basic dynamics that determine the quality of the LMX by affecting dimensions. At this point, the four dimensions of LMX will be discussed in more detail:

Contribution: It refers to the level of mutual cooperation and support between the leader and the follower.

Loyalty: It includes the trust and commitment that the leader and the follower have for each other.

Affect: It shows the mutual influence that the leader and the follower have on each other.

Professional respect: It refers to the level at which the leader and the member appreciate each other in terms of knowledge, experience and competence (Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

In general, while contribution is at the forefront in work-based LMX relationships, affect may be decisive in non-work-based relationships. Because contribution involves followers doing the job description or beyond, and for leaders gives resources and opportunities to followers to do the job. On the other hand, affect means that feelings are mutually nurtured (Cevrioglu, 2007). In addition, high loyalty is effective in taking on tasks that require autonomy and involve risk (Sürütü, 2021). Namely, while high loyalty between leaders and followers encourages employees to accept challenging and risky tasks, it also motivates leaders to assign such tasks to them. Additionally, professional respect between the leader and the follower are shaped by the parties' appreciation of each other's knowledge, experience and competence, which can increase the quality of the interaction. All these sub-dimensions are in constant interaction and their degrees may change over time depending on various factors. Therefore, the studies on LMX will be presented in the next section to illustrate the factors influencing and being influenced by this process.

2.5.2. Antecedents and Outcomes

Although LMX has generally been studied at the level of interpersonal relationships, in recent years it has been suggested that it can be addressed at different levels, such as teams, groups and organizations (Rockstuhl et al., 2012). In this context, some of the antecedents and outcomes of LMX will be examined at both the individual and organizational levels, based on studies from the literature.

From the individual level, a study examined how the big five personality traits affect the LMX perceptions of both leaders and followers. Results show that employees' conscientiousness, extraversion, openness and neuroticism, managers' conscientiousness and agreeableness were found to be among the factors affecting employees' LMX perceptions. As expected, high conscientiousness, extraversion and agreeableness might help to develop strong relationships, while neuroticism leads to weak relationships (Jeremy et al., 2007). In addition, individuals with a high internal locus of control, who believe that their experiences and successes are shaped by their own efforts, abilities, and decisions, are more likely to develop strong leader-member relationships (Robert & Vandenberghe, 2020). These personality traits are among the important antecedents of the LMX by determining the formation process of LMX and relationship quality.

Another widely studied individual variable in the LMX relationship is performance, which is considered an outcome of it. Studies show that there is a significant and positive relationship between these two variables (Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984; Liden et al., 1997; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2005; Breevaart et al., 2015; Turgut, Tokmak & Ateş., 2015; Martin et al., 2016). The meta-analysis conducted by Rockstuhl et al. (2012) also revealed that the effect of LMX on performance is valid in both Eastern and Western cultures. According to the LMX theory, employees who develop good relationships with their leaders feel more supported and can request more challenging tasks, which contributes to their increased performance (Janssen & Yperen, 2004; Schyns et al., 2006).

High-quality LMX provides employees with access to mentoring and development resources, increasing their career satisfaction and improving their chances of promotion (Liu, Loi & Lam, 2011). It undoubtedly leads to the high job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In addition, the strong support they receive from their leaders helps employees have a healthier work experience by reducing their job stress and burnout levels (Harris, Wheeler & Kaçmar, 2009; Kaşlı & Seymen, 2010). Low level of stress and burnout helps employees maintain work-life balance and contributes to maintaining the balance between their work and private lives (Major et al., 2008).

A leader's emotional intelligence (EQ) also plays an important role in the LMX process. Emotional intelligence enables the leader to understand the emotional needs of his/her employees and establish an empathic bond with them, which allows the establishment of strong LMX relationships. Studies by Goleman (1998) show that emotional intelligence helps leaders communicate more effectively and develop healthier relationships with their employees. Thus, leaders with high emotional intelligence can build strong and sustainable LMX relationships by understanding the emotional needs

of their employees and providing them with appropriate support. Similarly, based on the dyadic nature of LMX, the emotional intelligence of followers might also increase the quality of the empathic bond they establish with the leader and can contribute to the formation of a strong LMX relationship.

From an organizational perspective, high-quality LMX increases employees' organizational citizenship behaviors and supports a culture of solidarity, cooperation, and volunteer effort in the workplace (Breevaart & Bakker, 2018). Employees who establish strong relationships with their leaders, take ownership of their work, and it increases their organizations' productivity. Because, this increases the overall efficiency of the organization and reduces talent loss by reducing employees' turnover (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Krishnan, 2005). High-quality LMX also increases team effectiveness and enables effective problem-solving (Ergün & Aslantürk, 2010). This may be because strong relationships with the leader reduce role conflict (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In fact, studies have found a negative and significant relationship between high-quality LMX and role conflict (Nelson, Basu & Purdie, 1998; Lawrence & Kacmar, 2012). In addition, high level of LMX relationships create an environment of trust and support within the organization and encourage innovation and continuous improvement (Carmeli, Gelbard & Gefen., 2010). Because, trust is considered a fundamental element in the leader-member relationship, and the trust that employees have in their leaders shapes the quality of the interaction (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008). These results show the positive outcomes of high quality LMX on organizational success and the overall work experience of employees.

From a broader perspective, a meta-analysis including twenty-three countries, examined how LMX influences organizational behavior in individualistic and collectivistic cultures. Specifically, the relationships of LMX with organizational citizenship behavior, perceptions of justice, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and leader trust are stronger in individualistic cultures (Rockstuhl et al., 2012). These results show that, the responses of members in collectivistic cultures are shaped more by collective interests. This study can help organizations develop strategies based on their culture and effectively manage cultural diversity within their organizations.

Although high-quality LMX is generally believed to benefit both leaders and followers, it may also have negative aspects. Because it involves interpersonal relationships that might create subject to tension (Wu, 2018). In other words, high-quality LMX might lead to additional pressure by increasing mutual expectancies between leaders and followers. Additionally, followers might experience more pressure and less autonomy due to the imbalance in power in relationships with leaders (Keltner, Gruenfeld & Anderson, 2003). This pressure can lead especially to feelings of stress and burnout within

the group. The respect and obligations brought about by high-quality LMX can exceed the performance expectations of the parties. Followers with high-quality LMX relationships may experience more difficulties than other followers with moderate-quality relationships. Namely, a study conducted by Harris & Kacmar (2006) indicated that leaders fail to recognize the stress experienced by some of their followers and that this situation can be a source of stress (Harris & Kacmar, 2006). In addition, LMX relationships may not be effective in increasing the performance of employees in highly regulated and non-competitive work environments. Lastly, low-quality LMX relationships can create injustice in the leader's resource distribution and damage trust between sides. This situation can negatively affect the sense of justice within the organization, reduce the performance of members and lead to conflicts within the organization. As a result, while focusing on the positive effects provided by high-quality LMX, the negative effects it may create should not be ignored.

To sum up, LMX has an important position in understanding organizational behavior. The antecedents and outcomes given above reveal the importance of high-quality LMX on both individual and organizational productivity, while also indicating that it may have potential negative effects. Therefore, it is crucial to explore the relationship between LMX and new concepts to better integrate them into both practical applications and academic research. This study will examine the relationship between LMX, quiet quitting, and burnout, contributing new insights to the understanding of quiet quitting and offering valuable additions to the existing literature on burnout.

3. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In this section, the research model will be presented, followed by a detailed explanation of the relationships between variables based on literature. Subsequently, the hypotheses to be tested will be outlined.

3.1. RESEARCH MODEL

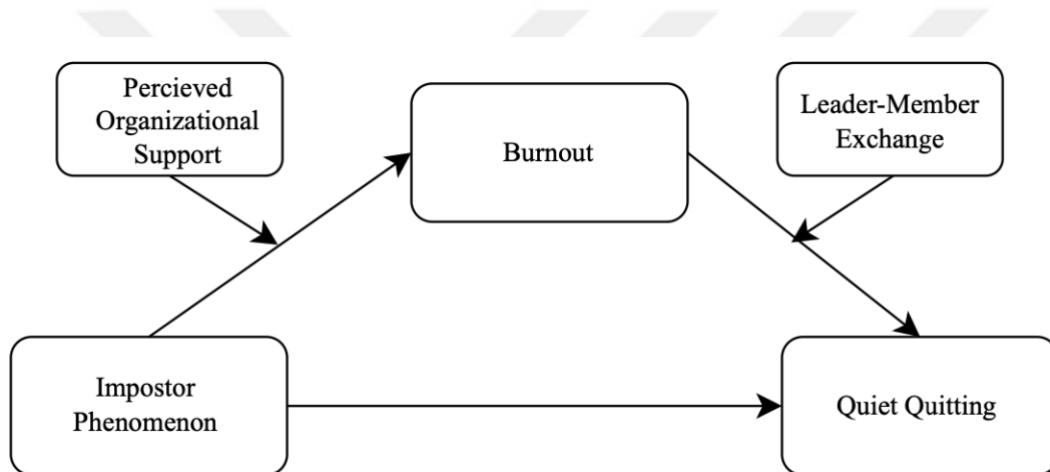


Figure 2
Research Model

3.2. RELATIONSHIPS

3.2.1. Impostor Phenomenon and Burnout

The impostor phenomenon means that the attribution of achievements to external factors such as luck rather than hard work. It comes from self-doubt and fear of failure. These feelings might cause employees to face burnout in the long term by experiencing stress both emotionally and psychologically on them (Neureiter & Traut-Mattausch, 2016). As mentioned earlier, burnout arises as a result of stressors at the workplace, such as workload, insufficient support, and autonomy (Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

Employees with the impostor phenomenon work more than expected in order to compensate for their incompetence, and that increases the risk of exhaustion (Vergauwe et al., 2015). The constant internal pressure to meet unrealistic standards can lead to chronic stress, which increases burnout symptoms. Failing to internalize and downplay achievements might make employees reluctant to ask for help, which might increase depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishments. Indeed, according to Maslach's Burnout Theory, diminished personal accomplishment is closely related to the damage to individuals' competence beliefs in work life (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). Additionally, Bandura's Self-Efficacy Theory might also play a role in this relationship, as individuals' feeling inadequate weakens their self-efficacy perceptions and limits their ability to cope with workload and stressors. Consequently, individuals experiencing the impostor phenomenon are more likely to suffer from burnout due to their inability to acknowledge their competencies and effectively manage work-related stressors (Grau, Salanova & Peiró, 2000).

Indeed, findings in the literature also support that the impostor phenomenon is positively associated with stress and burnout (Villwock, 2016; Alrayyes et al., 2020; Camara et al., 2022; Batur et al., 2023; Jefferson et al., 2024). Therefore, the following hypothesis will be tested in this study:

H1: There is a positive relationship between the impostor phenomenon and burnout.

3.2.2. Burnout and Quiet Quitting

Burnout is a condition that occurs as a result of overwork, characterized by feelings of exhaustion, cynicism, detachment from work, and underperformance (Gözlü, 2023). In the long term, it negatively affects employees physically, mentally, and emotionally. Burnout usually leads to distancing from work and unproductive behaviors. Individuals experiencing burnout often use problem-focused or emotion-focused strategies to cope with stress. The former aim to directly address the source of stress, while the latter focus on distancing themselves from stress rather than managing it (Bakker & de Vries, 2021). For example, while talking to manager about the workload is problem-focused strategy, leaving work earlier than scheduled or pretending to be working is emotion-focused strategy.

Quiet quitting refers to the minimum effort at work for various reasons. Burnout might be one of the main reasons for quiet quitting. Therefore, quiet quitting can be seen as a strategy to cope with burnout. However, whether quiet quitting is a problem-focused or emotion-focused strategy depends on how the employee makes the decision. If the employee consciously chooses quiet quitting to overcome burnout and maintain a work-life balance, this can be considered a problem-focused strategy. On the

other hand, if the employee feels compelled and adopts this stance out of desperation and without conscious evaluation, it can be seen as an emotion-focused strategy (Bakker & de Vries, 2021). But in general, quiet quitting can be considered a more emotion-focused strategy, because instead of directly dealing with stressors, employees try to avoid burnout by reducing their commitment to their work.

The relationship between burnout and quiet quitting also can be explained through the framework of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model. Namely, high job demands (e.g., high workload and time pressure) and insufficient job resources (e.g., low social support or limited autonomy) can lead to employee burnout, which in turn might trigger quiet quitting (Bakker, Xanthopoulou & Demerouti, 2023). There are many studies in the literature examining the relationship between quiet quitting and burnout. These studies found out that burnout is positively related to quiet quitting (Anand et al., 2023; Galanis et al., 2023; Lu et al., 2023; Xueyun et al., 2023). The results of the studies are generalizable because they were conducted in different regions with different samples. For example, according to a study conducted in the United States with 1,000 participants, 80% of quiet quitters reported experiencing burnout (Resume Builder, 2022). Similarly, the results of the study of 405 bankers in Vietnam also indicate that the tendency to quiet quitting increases as burnout increases (Trang & Trang, 2024). All these results show that burnout is an important factor that leads employees to quiet quitting in many cultures and sectors. In this context, the following hypothesis will be tested in this thesis:

H2: There is a positive relationship between burnout and quiet quitting.

3.2.3. Impostor Phenomenon and Quiet Quitting

The impostor phenomenon is the individual's inability to internalize their own successes and their constant efforts to cope with feelings of inadequacy. Quiet quitting, on the other hand, refers to employees only fulfilling the minimum responsibilities specified in their job descriptions, and avoiding extra-role behaviors. Although there is no existing study in the literature directly examining the relationship between these two concepts, a theoretical link can be established through the frameworks of Conservation of Resources Theory (COR) and Self-Determination Theory (SDT). According to COR, when individuals lose their resources or are threatened with losing them, they may tend to withdraw in order to protect themselves (Hobfoll, 1989). In this context, individuals may tend to perform only necessary tasks, thinking that their resources are depleted due to the impostor phenomenon. Similarly, SDT suggests that when individuals' needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness are not met, their intrinsic motivation weakens (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The impostor phenomenon can prevent the

satisfaction of these needs and reduce the individual's motivation due to its nature. For example, those with perfectionist tendencies or a strong fear of evaluation may avoid collaboration or feedback, which limits the sense of connection and belonging in the workplace. Over time, such patterns may harm internal motivation and may lead individuals to psychologically withdraw from their jobs, showing minimal effort, which is a behavior aligned with quiet quitting. In terms of the framework of Cognitive Dissonance theory, individuals experiencing the impostor phenomenon face a sense of inconsistency when they do not internally believe in this success, even if they are externally appreciated. This cognitive dissonance might lead to psychological stress over time, and with decreasing motivation, a tendency to quiet quitting can develop (Festinger, 1957). In this context, the following hypothesis will be tested in this study:

H3: There is a positive relationship between the impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting.

3.2.4. The Mediating Role of Burnout in the Relationship Between the Impostor Phenomenon and Quiet Quitting

Burnout is a syndrome that occurs as a result of prolonged exhaustion for various reasons at the workplace. In this hypothesis, both Conservation of Resources Theory (COR) and Self-Determination Theory (SDT) are utilized to explain the potential mediating role of burnout within the proposed model, as in the third hypothesis. However, while the third hypothesis draws on these theories to explain reductions in intrinsic motivation, the fourth hypothesis emphasizes stress-related processes through the lens of COR and SDT.

As mentioned before, COR refers that individuals tend to conserve resources they value (Hobfoll, 2001). According to this theory, depletion of resources due to demands at work creates stress in individuals, and when adequate replacement is not provided, the risk of burnout increases. In addition, individuals with limited resources may have difficulty coping with challenges and high work demands and may enter a cycle of loss (Bakker, Xanthopoulou & Demerouti, 2022). In other words, one resource loss, such as financial strain, may lead to another loss, like decreased satisfaction, reduced job performance, or emotional exhaustion, further exacerbating the burnout process (Hobfoll et al., 2018). On the other hand, SDT advocates that meeting individuals' basic psychological needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) increases their internal motivation and well-being. However, when these needs are not met, psychological distress may occur (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In this context, burnout can be considered a condition that develops as a result of an individual's basic needs not being sufficiently met. While lack of autonomy can cause individuals to lose their sense of control due to not being able

to participate in decision-making processes, failure to meet the need for competence undermines the individual's confidence in their own skills and causes them to exert excessive effort. Additionally, failure to meet the need for relatedness can lead employees to feel isolated and lonely as a result of not receiving sufficient social support at work, which can increase emotional exhaustion. In fact, the studies examining the relationship between self-determination and burnout reached out the negative and significant relationship between them (Curran et al., 2011; Lonsdale & Hodge, 2011).

In the literature, it is known that the impostor phenomenon leads individuals to burnout (Villwock, 2016; Jefferson et al., 2024). Because, according to COR theory, individuals experiencing the impostor phenomenon exert excessive effort because they constantly question their competence, which leads to loss of resources, stress, and burnout, reinforcing the feeling of impostor. According to SDT, the impostor phenomenon reduces employees' positive feelings by weakening the needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985). This may increase the tendency of employees to continue their work with minimum effort and avoid extra-role behaviors. In this context, it is thought that burnout may be one of the main mechanisms that lead individuals experiencing the impostor phenomenon to quiet quitting. In this direction, the following hypothesis will be tested in this study:

H4: Burnout has a mediating role in the relationship between the impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting.

3.2.5. The Impostor Phenomenon, Burnout, and the Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Support

In the section of 2.1., the effect of the impostor phenomenon on burnout was discussed in detail. In short, the impostor phenomenon is the situation where employees fail to internalize their successes and constantly attribute them to external factors. This can lead to overwork in an effort to prove themselves, but in the long time, this can lead to burnout. However, it can be thought that this relationship does not occur at the same level in every individual and that some factors can moderate this process. In particular, the perceived organizational support (POS) can be seen as an important factor that can change the effect of the impostor phenomenon on burnout.

POS, which refers to the employees' perception of their work and well-being, helps them to improve employees' stress-coping skills. The relationship between the impostor phenomenon and POS can be explained more clearly by Conservation of Resources theory (COR). According to COR, support

is important as it strengthens an individual's resource reserve (Hobfoll, 2001). In other words, support helps employees to cope with stress by increasing or protecting resources. POS can help employees who are experiencing the impostor phenomenon balance their personal resource loss by meeting their socioemotional needs for approval, respect, and affiliation (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Supported employees can better cope with stress by using these resources as a reserve. In the literature, the findings from a study conducted in the southeastern United States, with an approximate sample size of 500 participants, revealed a negative relationship between POS and the impostor phenomenon (McDowell, Grubb & Geho, 2015). Similarly, the results of a study conducted in New Zealand also indicate that the negative effects of the impostor phenomenon on both psychological and job performance in employees can be buffered through perceived organizational support (Haar & Jong, 2024).

Burnout is a state of emotional, physical, and mental exhaustion due to job stress. Eisenberger et al. (2002) mentioned that high POS makes employees feel better at their job, and experience fewer symptoms such as exhaustion, concern, and physical health issues. Both concepts have been researched for years, and the relationship between them is clear. For example, high levels of POS help decrease stress as organizations take care of their employees' overall well-being (Jawahar, Stone & Kisamore, 2007). Such organizations are also likely to minimize negative work conditions that lead to high stress. They are generally aware of what their employees need in order to create a better place to work. One article defining burnout and proposing strategies to prevent it highlights the importance of a supportive environment. It was mentioned that when employees feel supported, especially by their manager, they are less likely to experience the symptoms of burnout. Additionally, the article focuses on the well-being that should be a part of the organizational culture. Fostering a supportive environment in any organization undoubtedly reduces the risk of burnout among employees (Gallup, 2019). Studies in the literature show that employees with high POS levels experience fewer burnout symptoms (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Bobbio, Bellan & Manganelli, 2012; Yaghoubi et al., 2014; Brown & Roloff, 2015; Zeng et al., 2020; Gün, Balsak & Ayhan, 2024).

In light of these explanations, the impostor phenomenon can lead to burnout, due to individuals not being able to internalize their accomplishments and generally attributing them to external factors. In this point, the supposition is that POS can buffer the negative effects of burnout by increasing employees' perception that the organization values and supports their well-being. In this context, the following hypothesis will be tested:

H5: *Perceived organizational support has a moderating role in the relationship between the impostor phenomenon and burnout.*

3.2.6. The Burnout, Quiet Quitting, and the Moderating Role of Leader-Member Exchange

As mentioned in section 2.2., burnout can reduce employees' commitment to their jobs, and lead to distance from work and, finally, may end up with quiet quitting. However, this relationship can be influenced by various factors, and Leader-member exchange (LMX) can play an important role in this dynamic. LMX theory suggests that the quality of the relationships that leaders establish with their employees determines employees' work attitudes and behaviors. According to LMX theory, leader-member relationships are divided into two groups: high quality (in-group) and low quality (out-group). High-quality leader-member relationships are based on trust, support, and mutual respect. It affects organization in positive ways, and leads to high performance, commitment, and low withdrawal behaviors (Henderson et al., 2009). On the other hand, low-quality relationships can cause employees to mentally distance themselves from work (Sürütçü, 2021).

Studies on the relationship between LMX and burnout have been investigated for a long time. The results show that a high level of LMX is an important factor that reduces the level of burnout (Graham & Witteloostuijn, 2010; Yıldız, 2011; Uğurluoğlu et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2014). Because a high level of LMX can enable the subordinate to establish positive communication with the manager, which might allow the subordinate to receive more support, specialize in tasks and control work-related stress. On the contrary, a low level of LMX is an undesirable relationship that causes tension and stress. In cases where the relationship with the manager causes tension, employees become vulnerable to burnout.

From the perspective of the relationship between LMX and quiet quitting, leaders' failure to establish strong relationships with their employees, ignoring their sources of motivation, and not contributing to their development can lead to low-quality LMX relationships. Additionally, when leaders expect the best from their subordinates but fail to prioritize their well-being, they treat them as machines rather than individuals (Lowisz, 2022). This can cause employees to question their value to the organization and become less emotionally invested in their work. All of these, in turn, can lead to quiet quitting. Therefore, it can be concluded that increasing the quality of leaders' interactions with their employees can be considered a critical factor in preventing quiet quitting.

However, in the literature, findings about the relationship between LMX and quiet quitting are inconsistent. A study conducted in Turkey with 294 people showed that increasing leader-member exchange can reduce the tendency to quiet quitting by 7% (Baran, Karavelioğlu & Karavelioğlu, 2024). However, another study conducted in Turkey with 1835 participants, found a positive and significant relationship between these two variables. The study's examination of the relationship between the two variables in a hierarchical culture may have been effective in reaching this conclusion (Örükü & Hasırcı, 2024). In other words, since leader-member interactions in hierarchical cultures are generally more formal and superficial, employees may not find this interaction sufficiently supportive and motivating. This shows us that there are many factors affecting the relationship between LMX and quiet quitting in the organizational context, such as culture.

Although the number of studies directly examining the relationship between leader-member exchange and quiet quitting is limited, it is possible to make inferences on this subject based on the findings of studies addressing the relationship between quiet quitting and leadership behaviors. For example, it was observed that the human-oriented leadership style had a negative and significant effect on quiet quitting in a study. In contrast, it was found that the task-oriented leadership style did not have a significant effect on quiet quitting (Saygılı & Avcı, 2023). This suggests that leaders who focus only on the fulfillment of tasks may not be able to establish a strong interaction with their employees and therefore may not play a role in preventing quiet quitting. Moreover, in a thesis study, it was found that there is a positive and medium strength relationship between toxic managerial behaviors and quiet quitting (Aksoy, 2024). This finding shows that negative leadership behaviors reduce employees' motivation and increase their tendency to quiet quitting. From LMX perspective, it can be concluded that low-quality interactions reduce employees' job satisfaction and commitment, thus increasing the risk of quiet quitting. In the light of information given above, the following hypothesis will be tested:

H6: Leader-member exchange has a moderating role in the relationship between the burnout and quiet quitting.

3.2.7. The Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Support in the Relationship Between the Impostor Phenomenon, Burnout, and Quiet Quitting

As detailed in previous sections, individuals with impostor phenomenon are likely to experience burnout. This may lead them to quiet quitting. At this point, perceived organizational support can play a moderating role in this indirect relationship. High perceived organizational support may help employees maintain their commitment to their jobs by weakening the relationship between the impostor

phenomenon and burnout. Additionally, perceived organizational support may also prevent quiet quitting by increasing employees' motivation. Indeed, limited studies show that high perceived support reduces quiet quitting (Gün et al., 2024).

The relationship between POS and turnover intention also allows us to draw insights into the connection between POS and quiet quitting. Since quiet quitting has been found to contribute to turnover intention (Galanis et al., 2024; Uygungil-Erdoğan et al., 2025), and a low level of POS similarly increases turnover intention (Dawley, Houghton & Bucklew, 2010) Takaya & Ramli, 2020), it is possible to assume that lack of support may play a role in fostering quiet quitting.

Moreover, the relationship between the two concepts can also be established through employee well-being. Namely, organizations that prioritize the employees' well-being provide environments that support their work and personal lives (Ratnatunga, 2023; Formica & Sfodera, 2022). These environments minimize the factors, such as low motivation, burnout, negative feelings towards managers, decreased trust, disengagement and lack of commitment to career development, that lead to quiet quitting in the workplace (Ellera et al., 2023; Mahand & Caldwell, 2023). Organizations that emphasize employee well-being and foster a supportive workplace culture can minimize quiet quitting while cultivating a more engaged and productive workforce. Therefore, the following hypothesis will be tested in this study:

H7: The indirect effect of the impostor phenomenon on quiet quitting through burnout will differ depending on perceived organizational support.

4. METHOD

Scales, pilot study, sampling, data analysis and procedure will be given in terms of the methodology of the study, respectively.

4.1. SCALES

The questionnaire consists of scales measuring the impostor phenomenon, burnout, perceived organizational support, quiet quitting, leader-member exchange, and demographics, respectively. Answer scales except the demographic section range between 1 (Strongly Disagree) and 6 (Strongly Agree). Both Turkish and English versions of all measurement scales are demonstrated in Appendix A and Appendix B.

Impostor Phenomenon: The Clance Impostor Phenomenon Scale, which was developed by Clance and Imes (1978), is used to measure the level of the impostor phenomenon experienced by employees in this study. It consists of twenty items and three sub-dimensions: discount, fake, and luck. The scale adapted to Turkish by Şahin and Uslu Gülsen (2022) was evaluated after confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). As a result of the analysis, it was determined that the factors in the three-factor model were highly correlated with each other, and therefore it was decided to use the first-order single-factor model. The score range that can be obtained from the scale varies between 20 and 120. The total point of 40 or less indicates few, 41 to 60 indicates moderate, 61 to 80 indicates frequently, and higher than 80 indicates excessive impostor experiences (Clance & Imes, 1978). Sample items from the scale; "I can give the impression that I'm more competent than I really am.", "It's hard for me to accept compliments or praise about my intelligence or accomplishments."

Burnout: The Burnout Scale used in the study was developed by Malach-Pines (2005) and adapted to Turkish by Tümkaya, Çam and Çavuşoğlu (2009). The scale consists of ten items and three sub-dimensions: emotional exhaustion, physical exhaustion and mental exhaustion. The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results confirmed the three-factor structure of the scale in accordance with the original model. Higher scores indicating higher levels of burnout. In the original form of the scale the following question was asked before moving on to the items: "When you think about your work overalls,

how often do you feel the following?" (Malach-Pines, 2005). Sample items from the scale; "Difficulties sleeping", "Disappointed with people", and "Tired."

Perceived Organizational Support: The Perceived Organizational Support Scale, an eight-item short form developed by Eisenberger et al. (1997). The scale is one-dimensional and has high reliability. In studies conducted in Turkey, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was found to be between 0.83-0.90 (Yokuş, 2006; Erdaş, 2010). Sample items from the scale; "The organization values my contribution to its well-being.", " The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work."

Quiet Quitting: The Quiet Quitting Scale used in the research was developed by Galanis et al. (2023). It consists of nine items with three reverse items (item 6-7-8) and three sub-dimensions: detachment, lack of initiative, and lack of motivation. Turkish adaptation was made by Konak (2024). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results supported the three-factor model of the scale as in its original form. The Cronbach's alpha of the was found significant and reliable. Additionally, the scale's consistency was assessed through test-retest analysis, revealing high correlations between survey applications administered at two-week intervals, confirming the scale's consistency over time. Sample items from the scale; " I do the basic or minimum amount of work without going above and beyond.", "I take as many breaks as I can."

Leader-Member Exchange: The Leader-Member Exchange Scale was developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998). It consists of a total of twelve items and four sub-dimensions: affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect. As a result of the Turkish adaptation, it was concluded that the four-dimensional model was statistically significant. Cronbach alpha values indicating the internal consistency of the scale were found significant and reliable (Baş et al., 2010). Answer scales range between 1 (Strongly Disagree) and 6 (Strongly Agree). Sample items from the scale; "I like my supervisor very much as a person.", " I admire my supervisor's professional skills", and " My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others."

Demographic Section: This section includes demographic and work-related information such as age, gender, marital status, education level, total work tenure, tenure at the current company, job positions (intern, assistant specialist, specialist, department manager, senior executive, and other) and sector (finance, education, aviation, health, etc.)

4.2. PILOT STUDIES

The pilot study was done among 32 white-collar employees. The sample consists of employees working in finance, aviation, education, tourism, technology, health, food sector, and other areas. Participants are composed of employees aged between 25 and 50 (%60 female, %40 male). Cronbach alpha values for the Impostor Phenomenon Scale, Burnout Scale, Perceived Organizational Scale, and Leader-Member Exchange Scale are above .70. As a result of the reliability analysis of the Quiet Quitting Scale, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .68. Although this value is considered relatively low considering that the reliability limit accepted in the literature is generally .70, the limited number of participants may affect this result. In addition, since the alpha value is quite close to .70 and the scale is considered appropriate for the context of the study, it was continued to be used in the analyses in its current form.

The correlations between the variables are generally low or moderate. However, this may be due to the small sample size. The findings on the relationship between the Impostor Phenomenon and Burnout, the Impostor Phenomenon and Quiet Quitting, Burnout and Quiet Quitting suggest that burnout and the impostor phenomenon may have an effect on employees' tendency to quiet quitting. It is decided to continue on the main study. The summary of findings is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Correlation Results for Pilot Study

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5
1.Impostor Phenomenon	3.27	.10	1				
2. Burnout	3.34	.15	.56**	1			
3.POS	3.54	.21	-.14	-.16	1		
4.Quiet Quitting	2.63	.10	.48**	.57**	-.25	1	
5.LMX	4.18	.17	-.68	-.15	.53**	-.28	1

***p* <.01

4.3. PROCEDURE

The online questionnaire tools were used to conduct gathering data. Both the convenience and snowball sampling were used during this process. The questionnaire link was first distributed within the author's network, and they were asked to share it in their groups. Thus, it was possible to both collect in-depth information within the targeted group and to provide a broader perspective by increasing the number of samples. In the end, 255 white-collar employees working in the private and public sectors were reached. The data collection started in January 2025 and finalized in March 2025.

4.4. SAMPLE

The sample group consists of 255 men and women employees in the private and public sectors. The average age of participants in the study is 36.9 (SD = 8.214). The most common age range among participants is 36-45 years, comprising 48.6% of the total sample. The majority of the sample group has a Bachelor's degree level (62.4%), and the minority of the group had a high school and PhD education level (6.3 %, 4.3%). The total tenure of participants shows homogeneity, while their tenure at the current company is most commonly 0-5 years, accounting for 51.4% of the sample. Most of the sample group were specialists (32.5%) and the following department managers (17.3%). The sample group diversifies in terms of business segments such as education, aviation, health, technology, etc. Detailed demographic information is presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Some Sociodemographic Characteristics of Participants

Sociodemographic characteristics	N	%
	255	100
Gender		
Female	150	58.8%
Male	105	41.2%
Marital status		
Married	156	61.2%
Single	96	38.8%
Age		
25 and lower	16	6.3%

26-35	89	34.9%
36-45	124	48.6%
46 and higher	26	10.2%

Education

High school	16	6.3%
Associate degree	20	7.8%
Bachelor's degree	159	62.4%
Master's degree	49	19.2%
Doctorate (Ph.D.)	11	4.3%

Total Tenure

0-5 years	48	18.8%
6-10 years	60	23.5%
11-15 years	62	24.3%
15 years and above	85	33.3%

Tenure at Current Company

0-5 years	131	51.4%
6-10 years	63	24.7%
11-15 years	37	14.5%
15 years and above	24	9.4%

Position

Intern	2	0.8%
Assistant specialist	15	5.9%
Specialist	83	32.5%
Department manager	44	17.3%
Senior executive	26	10.2%
Other	83	33.3%

Sector

Education	47	18.4%
Aviation	31	12.2%

Finance	18	7.1%
Health	17	6.7%
Food Industry	14	5.5%
Technology	10	3.9%
Tourism	3	1.2%
Other	115	45.1%

4.5. DATA ANALYSIS

IBM SPSS 30, IBM PROCESS macro, and AMOS software were used to test the research model. To assess the factor structures of the scales, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted using AMOS. In order to test the hypotheses, correlation analysis and regression analysis were performed. Additionally, an independent sample t-test and Kruskal-Wallis test were conducted to examine the effect of demographic variables. Hypothesized relationships were tested using linear regression analysis. Finally, PROCESS Macro was employed to perform the structural analysis required by the research model. This method is a suitable tool for testing both direct and indirect effects between variables and allowed for a more detailed examination of the moderating and mediating effects within the model (Hayes, 2012).

5. RESULTS

5.1. FACTOR AND RELIABILITY ANALYSES

For the all questionnaires, Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted. The results are compared according to the ideal fit indices shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Model Fit Indices for Assessing the Fit of The Model

Model Fit Indices	Good Fit	Reference
X2/ df	X2/ df \leq 3	Carmines and McLver, 1981
GFI	GFI $>$.90	Byrne, 1994
CFI	CFI $>$.90	Hu & Bentler, 1999
AGFI	AGFI $>$.85	Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007
NFI	NFI $>$.95	Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007
RMSEA	.05 $<$ RMSEA \leq .08	Browne & Cudeck, 1993
SRMR	SRMR $<$.08	Hu & Bentler, 1998

CFI = Comparative Fit Index, GFI =Goodness of Fit, TLI =Tucker Lewis Fit Index, NFI = Normed Fit Index, AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit, RMSEA =Root means square error of approximation, SRMR= Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (Kalafatoglu, 2017).

5.1.1. Factor and Reliability Analyses for Quiet Quitting

Quiet Quitting scale has three dimensions; detachment, lack of motivation, and lack of initiative (Galanis et al., 2023). The Confirmatory Factor Analysis was applied to validate the three-factor model. Detachment factor consists of four items, lack of motivation factor consists of three items and lack of initiative factor involves three items. After making the necessary modifications and removing certain items (item 6-9), the goodness-of-fit indices indicated that the proposed factor structure is statistically sound, supporting the validity of the scale. Additionally, the reliability analysis of the Quiet Quitting scale revealed a Cronbach's alpha of .74 for the overall scale, indicating acceptable internal consistency. The Cronbach's alpha for the subdimensions was .72 for Lack of Motivation, .76 for Detachment, and .63 for Lack of Initiative, respectively. Factor loadings and reliability analysis can be seen in Table 4. While the overall scale and most subdimensions showed good reliability, the lower alpha for Lack of

Initiative suggests the need for further investigation into its internal consistency. However, the remaining dimensions show adequate reliability, supporting the scale's overall utility for measuring quiet quitting behaviors. Consequently, further analyses will proceed using this validated structure. The results can be seen in Table 5.

Table 4

Factor and Reliability Analyses for Quiet Quitting Scale

Variables	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Detachment		
1. I do the basic or minimum amount of work without going above and beyond.	.62	
2. I take as many breaks as I can.	.48	.76
3. How often do you pretend to be working in order to avoid another task?	.90	
Lack of Initiative		
4. I don't express opinions and ideas about my work because I am afraid that the manager assigns me more tasks.	.83	.63
5. I don't express opinions and ideas about my work because I think that working conditions are not going to change.	.59	
Lack of Motivation		
7. I find motives in my job.	.80	.72
8. I feel inspired when I work.	.71	

Table 5

The CFA results of Quiet Quitting Scale

Model	X ²	df	X ² /df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	SRMR	RMSEA
Three-factor model	26,4	10	2,64	.97	.92	.96	.94	.04	.08

Note. N = 255 GFI = Goodness-of-Fit Index; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; NFI = Normed Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

5.1.2. Factor and Reliability Analyses for Impostor Phenomenon

The Impostor Phenomenon Scale developed by Clance and Imes (1978) was adapted into Turkish by Şahin and Uslu Gülsen (2022). In the literature, both the three-factor (fake, discount, and luck) and one-factor models have been used and supported in various studies (Chrisman et al., 1995; Brauer & Wolf, 2016; Simon & Choi, 2018). This research aims to test which of these models is more suitable based on the goodness of fit indicators and factor correlations. Therefore, Confirmatory Factor Analysis were conducted.

Four items (IP1, IP2, IP5, IP19) for both the first-order three-factor model and the one-factor model were deducted due to low factor loadings. Error correlations were also made after examining modification indices. For the first-order three-factor model, factors are highly correlated with each other (between Fake and Luck was .94, Fake and Discount was .84, and Luck and Discount were .82). Upon examining the goodness of fit indicators and the correlations between the factors in the first-order three-factor model, it is evident that the one-factor model provides a better fit than the three-factor model. Additionally, the overall reliability of the scale was found to be .88, indicating excellent internal consistency. Therefore, further analysis will proceed with the one-factor model. The CFA fit indices are presented in Table 7, while factor loadings and reliability results can be found in Table 6.

Table 6*Factor and Reliability Analyses for Impostor Phenomenon Scale*

Variables	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
3. I avoid evaluations if possible and have a dread of others evaluating me.	.51	
4. When people praise me for something I've accomplished, I'm afraid I won't be able to live up to their expectations of me in the future.	.61	
6. I'm afraid people important to me may find out that I'm not as capable as they think I am.	.57	
7. I tend to remember the incidents in which I have not done my best more than those times I have done my best.	.49	
8. I rarely do a project or task as well as I'd like to do it.	.49	
9. Sometimes I feel or believe that my success in my life or in my job has been the result of some kind of error.	.48	
10. It is hard for me to accept compliments or praise about my intelligence or accomplishments.	.51	.88
11. At times, I feel my success has been due to some kind of luck.	.54	
12. I'm disappointed at times in my present accomplishments and think I should have accomplished much more.	.44	
13. Sometimes I'm afraid others will discover how much knowledge or ability I really lack.	.73	
14. I'm often afraid that I may fail at a new assignment or undertaking even though I generally do well what I attempt.	.68	
15. When I've succeeded at something and received recognition for my accomplishments, I have doubts that I can keep repeating that success.	.77	
16. If I receive a great deal of praise and recognition for something I've accomplished, I tend to discount the importance of what I've done.	.61	

17. I often compare my ability to those around me and think they may be more intelligent than I am.	.69
18. I often worry about not succeeding with a project or examination, even though others around me have considerable confidence that I will do well.	.69
20. I feel bad and discouraged if I'm not "the best" or at least "very special" in situations that involve achievement.	.67

Table 7

The CFA results of Impostor Phenomenon Scale

Model	X ²	df	X ² /df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	SRMR	RMSEA
Three-factor model	226,1	101	2,23	.89	.86	.90	.84	.05	.07
One-factor model	221,3	103	2,14	.90	.87	.91	.84	.05	.06

Note. N = 255 GFI = Goodness-of-Fit Index; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; NFI = Normed Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

5.1.3. Factor and Reliability Analyses for Burnout

The original scale was developed with a three-factor structure: emotional exhaustion, physical exhaustion, and mental exhaustion (Malach-Pines, 2005). However, subsequent studies by both the original developers and researchers who adapted the scale have suggested that it may also exhibit a unidimensional structure (Malach-Pines, 2005; Tümkaya et al., 2009). Considering these findings in the literature, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted for both the three-factor and one-factor models to determine the most appropriate structure for this study.

The results indicated that achieving acceptable fit indices was more challenging for the three-factor structure compared to the unidimensional model. Because, in the three-factor structure, the item with a low factor loading could not be removed, as its associated factor consisted of only two items. This limitation restricted further model improvement, making it difficult to achieve a satisfactory fit for

the three-factor model. Therefore, in the one-factor model, item 9 with a low factor loading was removed, and with additional error covariance adjustments, the model reached optimal fit values. Additionally, the overall reliability of the scale was found to be .92, indicating excellent internal consistency. These findings suggest that the scale effectively captures the intended constructs, making it a reliable measurement tool for this study. Consequently, further analyses will proceed using this validated structure. Factor loadings and reliability results are presented in Table 8, while the CFA fit indices can be found in Table 9.

Table 8
Factor and Reliability Analyses for Burnout Scale

	Variables	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
1. Tired		.62	
2. Disappointed with people		.59	
3. Hopeless		.83	
4. Trapped		.89	
5. Helpless		.92	.92
6. Depressed		.87	
7. Physically weak/Sickly		.61	
8. Worthless/ Like a failure		.71	
10. "I've had it"		.84	

Table 9
The CFA results of Burnout Scale

Model	X ²	df	X ² /df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	SRMR	RMSEA
Three-factor model	106,3	32	3,32	.92	.87	.95	.93	.03	.09
One-factor model	70,8	25	2,83	.94	.90	.97	.95	.03	.08

Note. $N = 255$ GFI = Goodness-of-Fit Index; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; NFI = Normed Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

5.1.4. Factor and Reliability Analyses for Perceived Organizational Support

Previous studies have shown that the perceived organizational support survey is a unidimensional measure (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Türe & Yıldırım, 2018). Therefore, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis was applied to validate the one-factor model. The factor loadings were generally above .80, indicating that the items strongly represent the scale. To enhance model fit, modification indices were examined, and error covariances were added where necessary. The CFA results generally showed an excellent model fit. The RMSEA value was found to be slightly above the reference limit of .08 (.09); however, as emphasized by Hu and Bentler (1999), model fit should not be evaluated based on a single index alone. In this context, the fact that other goodness-of-fit indices such as CFI, TLI and SRMR were within the recommended limits supports the general validity of the model. Additionally, the overall reliability of the scale was found to be .95, indicating excellent internal consistency. These findings suggest that the scale effectively captures the intended constructs, making it a reliable measurement tool for this study. Consequently, further analyses will proceed using this validated structure. Factor loadings and reliability results are presented in Table 10, while the CFA fit indices can be found in Table 11.

Table 10*Factor and Reliability Analyses for Perceived Organizational Support Scale*

Variables	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being.	.82	
2. The organization appreciates extra effort from me.	.83	
3. The organization would not ignore any complaint from me.	.82	
4. The organization really cares about my well-being.	.88	.95
5. When I did the best job possible, the organization notices.	.86	
6. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.	.88	
7. The organization shows a closer concern for me.	.89	
8. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	.86	

Table 11*The CFA results of Perceived Organizational Support Scale*

Model	X ²	df	X ² /df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	SRMR	RMSEA
One-factor model	60,8	18	3,37	.94	.89	.97	.97	.03	.09

Note. N = 255 GFI = Goodness-of-Fit Index; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; NFI = Normed Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

5.1.5. Factor and Reliability Analyses for Leader-Member Exchange

Previous studies manifested that leader-member exchange survey has four dimensions; affect, contribution, professional respect, and loyalty (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Therefore, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis was applied to validate the four-factor model. The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results for the scale demonstrated an excellent model fit. The goodness-of-fit indices indicated that the proposed factor structure is statistically sound, supporting the validity of the scale. Additionally, the

reliability analysis revealed that all subdimensions of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) demonstrated high internal consistency. Specifically, the Cronbach's alpha values were .87 for Affect, .89 for Loyalty, .91 for Professional Respect, and .85 for Contribution. The overall reliability of the scale was found to be .93, indicating excellent internal consistency. Factor loadings and reliability analysis can be seen in table 12. These findings suggest that the scale effectively captures the intended constructs, making it a reliable measurement tool for this study. Consequently, further analyses will proceed using this validated structure. The results can be seen in Table 13.



Table 12*Factor and Reliability Analyses for Leader-Member Exchange*

Variables	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Professional Respect		
1. I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.	.94	
2. I admire my supervisor's professional skills.	.92	.91
3 I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/ her job.	.81	
Loyalty		
4. My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.	.90	
5. My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.	.95	.89
6. My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.	.75	
Affect		
7. My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.	.80	
8. I like my supervisor very much as a person.	.84	.87
9. My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.	.89	
Contribution		
10. I don't mind working hard for my manager.	.84	
11. I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.	.76	.85
12. I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to further the interests of my work group.	.83	

Table 13*The CFA results of Leader-Member Exchange Scale*

Model	X ²	df	X ² /df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	SRMR	RMSEA
Four-factor model	136,9	48	2,85	.91	.86	.91	.94	.04	.08

Note. N = 255 GFI = Goodness-of-Fit Index; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; NFI = Normed Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

5.2. CORRELATION ANALYSES

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted on all variables and their subdimensions in the study to examine the relationships between the concepts within the research model. The correlation coefficient can be interpreted as follows: very weak between 0 and 0.3, weak between 0.3 and 0.5, moderate between 0.5 and 0.7, strong between 0.7 and 0.9, and very strong between 0.9 and 1 (Sürütü et al. 2023). Descriptive statistics and correlation coefficients for all variables are displayed in Table 14.

Results show that dimensions of variables are significantly related to each other. For quiet quitting, each dimension is significantly and positively related to each other. For leader-member exchange, the correlations between its dimensions indicate a significant, positive, and very strong relationship. In this study, significant correlations are found between the variables as well with the exception of the relationships between leader-member exchange and its dimensions and the impostor phenomenon, as well as between detachment and loyalty, and between burnout and loyalty. These seven relationships showed no significant associations.

The significant relationships between the variables are as follows: The impostor phenomenon is positively associated with burnout ($r = .48, p < .01$) and quiet quitting ($r = .36, p < .01$), while its relationship with perceived organizational support ($r = -.12, p < .01$), though weak, is negative. Burnout shows a positive relationship with quiet quitting ($r = .29, p < .01$) and a negative relationship with both perceived organizational support ($r = -.29, p < .01$) and leader-member exchange ($r = -.15, p < .01$). Additionally, negative and significant relationships are observed between quiet quitting and both perceived organizational support ($r = -.34, p < .01$) and leader-member exchange ($r = -.31, p < .01$). Among the variables, the most powerful correlation is between leader-member exchange and perceived

organizational support ($r = .60$, $p <.01$), and the least powerful correlations are between perceived organizational support and impostor phenomenon ($r = -.12$, $p <.01$), contribution and burnout ($r = -.12$, $p <.05$).

5.3. CONSTRUCT VALIDITY OF THE SCALES

AVE (Average Variance Extracted) and CR (Composite Reliability) values were examined in order to evaluate the construct validity of the scales used in the study. According to the analysis results, CR values for all constructs were above the acceptable limit of .70, and this showed that the scales had high internal consistency. The AVE value for the Impostor Phenomenon construct was calculated as .49, which is technically just below the limit of .50. However, the fact that the CR value for this construct was at a very high level of .89 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) shows that the convergent validity of the construct was sufficient, although the AVE was very close to the limit. Similarly, the AVE value for the “detachment” sub-dimension of quiet quitting scale was .49. Although the CR value for this sub-dimension was .67, which was close to the limit, the overall consistency was at an acceptable level. For both constructs, although the AVE is just below the .50 limit, it is considered appropriate to use these constructs in the analyses in terms of validity, especially due to the high CR value in the Impostor Phenomenon variable (Hair et al., 2010; Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 14*Correlation coefficients among variables*

Variables	CR	AVE	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.Impostor Phenomenon	.89	.49	2.75	.83	1											
2.Burnout	.92	.59	3.14	1.13	.481**	1										
3.POS	.95	.73	3.60	1.26	-.126*	-.294**	1									
4.Quiet Quitting	-	-	2.36	.80	.365**	.293**	-.344**	1								
5.Lack of Motivation	.76	.52	2.79	1.22	.213**	.293**	-.421**	.672**	1							
6.Detachment	.67	.49	2.14	.83	.397**	.278**	-.223**	.864**	.642**	1						
7.Lack of Initiative	.72	.57	2.80	1.71	.294**	.343**	-.470**	.798**	.748**	.592**	1					
8.LMX	-	-	4.21	1.03	-.113	-.156*	.601**	-.315**	-.277**	-.218**	-.346**	1				
9.Proffessional Respect	.91	.79	4.45	1.21	-.115	-.137*	.521**	-.286**	-.272**	-.215**	-.298**	.793**	1			
10.Loyalty	.92	.76	4.03	1.20	-.070	-.096	.522**	-.176**	-.173**	-.097	-.244**	.831**	.521**	1		
11.Affect	.85	.66	4.25	1.24	-.095	-.164**	.488**	-.278**	-.225**	-.182**	-.304**	.892**	.616**	.674**	1	
12.Contribution	.85	.65	4.11	1.23	-.101	-.126*	.490**	-.317**	-.263**	-.237**	-.317**	.846**	.532**	.605**	.704**	1

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; CR> 70; AVE >50

5.4. HYPOTHESES TESTING

In this study, Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 were tested using standard regression analyses, while Hypotheses 4, 5, 6, and 7 were tested using the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2022). Mediation, moderation, and moderated mediation models were analyzed based on the bootstrapping method with 5,000 resamples. Bootstrapping method gives more reliable results than the traditional method of Baron and Kenny (1986) and the Sobel test (Gürbüz, 2019; Preacher, Rucker & Hayes, 2007; Zhao, Lynch & Chen, 2010). In the effect analyses conducted with this method, in order for the research hypothesis to be supported, the values in the 95% confidence interval (CI) obtained as a result of the analysis should not include the value of zero (0) (MacKinnon, Lockwood & Williams, 2004). Different PROCESS models (Model 1, Model 4, Model 7) were employed depending on the structure of each hypothesis.

5.4.1. Regression Analyses

5.4.1.1. Regression Test for Impostor Phenomenon and Burnout

In this section, regression analysis was used to analyze the effect of the impostor phenomenon on burnout and whether this effect was significant. The results are shown in Table 15. The results revealed that the model is statistically significant and the impostor phenomenon explains burnout at a level of 26.9% ($R^2 = 0.269$; $F = 94.596$; $p < .0001$). It can be concluded from the table that the impostor phenomenon has a positive and significant effect on burnout ($\beta = .522$, $t = 9.726$, $p < .001$). In the light of findings, "Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between the impostor phenomenon and burnout." hypothesis is accepted.

Table 15*Regression Analysis Findings Showing the Effect of Impostor Phenomenon on Burnout*

	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients (β)	t-value	p	F	Adjusted R ²
	B	Std. Error					
Constant	1.165	.216		5.388	<.001		
Impostor Phenomenon	.730	.075	.522	9.726	<.001	94.596*	.269

Dependent Variable: Burnout

N = 255, *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001. (Sönmez,2023).

5.4.1.2.Regression Test for Burnout and Quiet Quitting

In this section, regression analysis was used to analyze the effect of the burnout on quiet quitting and whether this effect was significant. The results are shown in Table 16. The results revealed that the model is statistically significant and the burnout explains quiet quitting at a level of 8.5% ($R^2 = .085$; $F = 24.722$; $p < .001$). It can be concluded from the table that burnout has a positive and significant effect on quiet quitting ($\beta = .298$, $t = 4.972$, $p < .001$). In the light of findings, "Hypothesis 2: There is positive relationship between burnout and quiet quitting." hypothesis is accepted.

Table 16*Regression Analysis Findings Showing the Effect of Burnout on Quiet Quitting*

	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients (β)	t-value	p	F	Adjusted R ²
	B	Std. Error					
Constant	1.712	.140		12.223	<.001	24.722*	.085
Impostor Phenomenon	.206	.041	.298	4.972	<.001		

Dependent Variable: Quiet Quitting

N = 255, *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

5.4.1.3. Regression Test for Impostor Phenomenon and Quiet Quitting

In this section, regression analysis was used to analyze the effect of the impostor phenomenon on quiet quitting and whether this effect was significant. The results are shown in Table 17. The results revealed that the model is statistically significant and the impostor phenomenon explains quiet quitting at a level of 15% ($R^2 = .150$; $F = 45.696$; $p < .001$). It can be concluded from the table that impostor phenomenon has a positive and significant effect on quiet quitting ($\beta = .391$, $t = 6.760$, $p < .001$). In the light of findings, "Hypothesis 3: There is positive relationship between impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting." hypothesis is accepted.

Table 17

Regression Analysis Findings Showing the Effect of Impostor Phenomenon on Quiet Quitting

	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients (β)	t-value	p	F	Adjusted R ²
	B	Std. Error					
Constant	1.325	.161		8.237	<.001	45.696*	.150
Impostor Phenomenon	.377	.056	.391	6.760	<.001		

Dependent Variable: Quiet Quitting

$N = 255$, * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

5.4.2. Mediation Analysis

The mediation hypothesis was tested using the SPSS PROCESS macro version 4.2, with Model 4 applied in the analysis (Hayes, 2022). Analysis was conducted to examine the mediating effect of burnout on the relationship between the impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting. Results shows that burnout does not mediate the relationship between impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting. In other words, hypothesis 4 is not supported ($b = .0652$, 95%CI [-.0052, .1414]). Because, the lower (LLCI) and upper bound (ULCI) confidence intervals includes 0 (zero) indicates that the indirect effect is

insignificant. The summary of analysis is presented in Table 18. The relationships between variables are presented in Figure 1.

Table 18

Mediating Effect of Burnout in the Relationship between the Impostor Phenomenon and Quiet Quitting

Model-4	B	S. E.	t	CI %95		R ²	F
Results for hypothesis 4							
Direct effect (IP→QQ)	.3122	.0651	4.795	.1840	.4405	.165	(2;252) =24.93 5
Indirect effect (IP→BURN → QQ)	Effect .0652	BootSE .0381	-	Boot LLCI -.0052	Boot ULCI .1414	.153	(1;253) =45.696
Total effect (IP →QQ)	.3775	.0558	6.759	.2675	.4874		

Note(s): N=255, S.E. = Standard Error; C.I. = Confidence Interval, Boot = bootstrapping Unstandardized beta coefficients were reported.

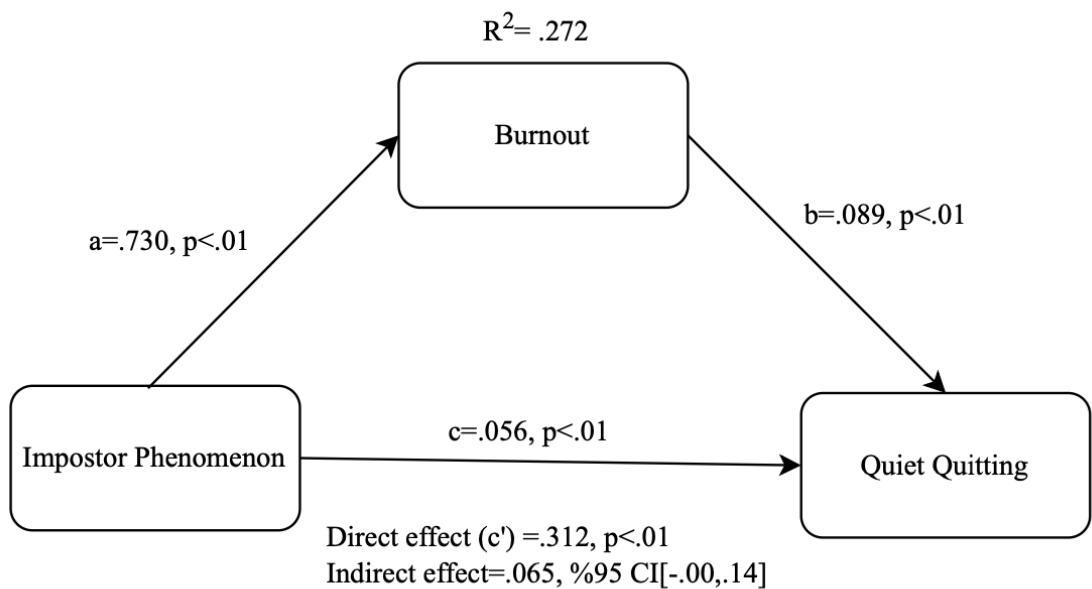


Figure 3

Relationships between Impostor Phenomenon, Burnout, and Quiet Quitting

5.4.3. Moderation Analysis

In this section, hypotheses 5 and 6 will be tested using PROCESS macro with model 1, while hypothesis 7 will be tested using Model 7. The summary of analysis is presented in Table 19.

Analysis was conducted to examine the moderating role of perceived organizational support (POS) on the relationship between the impostor phenomenon and burnout, in terms of hypothesis 5. The overall significance of the model was found to be statistically significant ($F (3, 251) = 40.46, p < .001$). Additionally, the model explains approximately 32.6% ($R^2 = .3259$) of the variance. The results show that the level of POS was found to have a significant and negative effect on burnout ($b = -.2168, 95\%CI [-.3127, -.1209], t = -4.451, p < .001$). On the other hand, the interaction term (IP x POS) was not found to be significant ($b = -.0543, 95\% CI [-.1617, .0531], t = -.9957, p = .3204$). In line with these results, POS does not significantly moderate the relationship between the impostor phenomenon and burnout. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was not supported. The relationships between variables are presented in Figure 4.

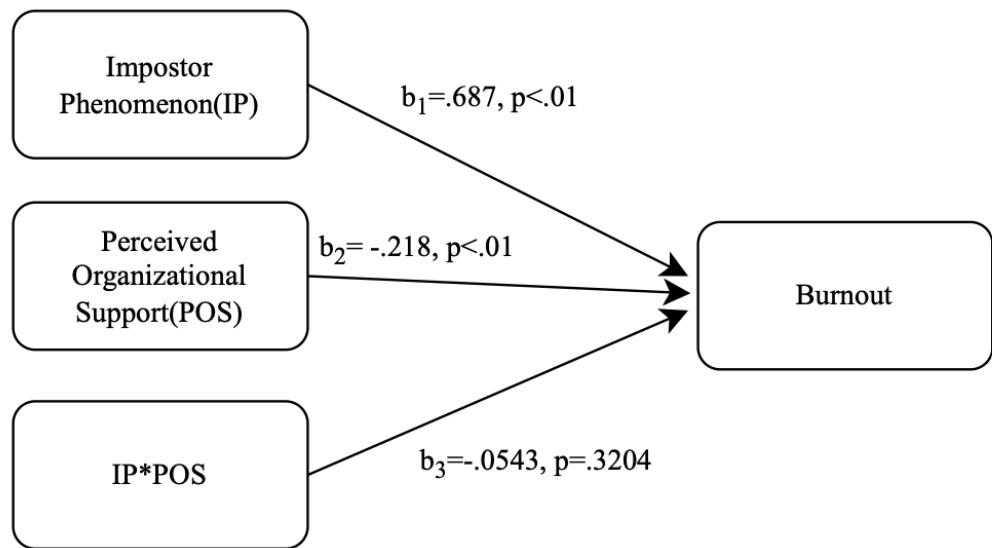


Figure 4

The Moderating Effect of Perceived Organizational Support between the Impostor Phenomenon and Burnout

Analysis was conducted to examine the moderating role of leader-member exchange (LMX) on the relationship between burnout and quiet quitting, in terms of hypothesis 6. The overall significance of the model was found to be statistically significant ($F (3, 251) = 16.433, p < .001$). Additionally, the model explains approximately 16.4% ($R^2 = .1642$) of the variance. Results show that LMX does not moderate the relationship between burnout and quiet quitting. In other words, hypothesis 6 is not supported ($b = -.0378, 95\%CI [-.1168,.0412]$). Because, the lower (LLCI) and upper bound (ULCI) confidence intervals include 0 (zero) indicates that the indirect effect is insignificant. The relationships between variables are presented in Figure 5.

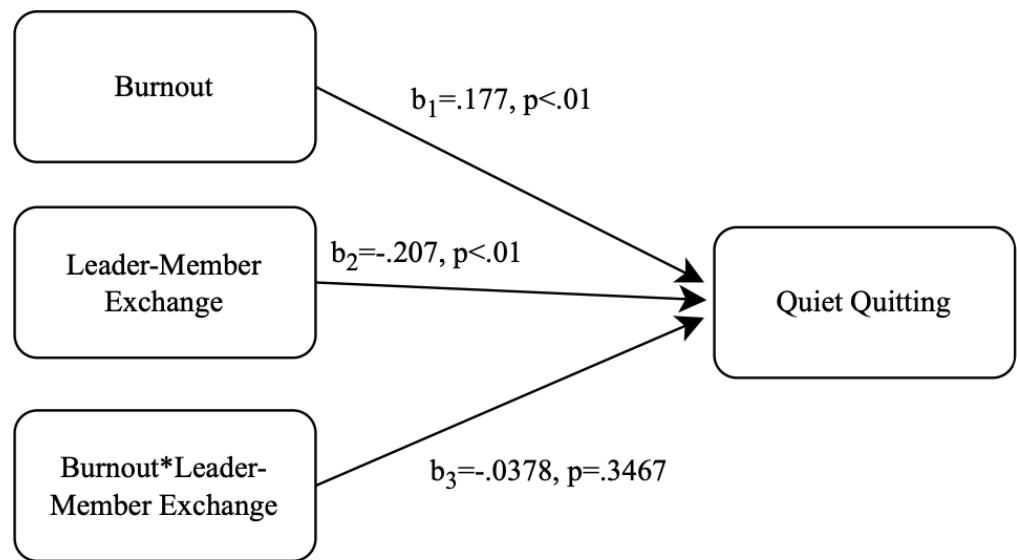


Figure 5

The Moderating Effect of Leader-Member Exchange between Burnout and Quiet Quitting

Table 19*Moderation Analyses of Perceived Organizational Support and Leader-Member Exchange*

Model-1	B	S.E.	t	CI %95		R²	F
				LLCI	ULCI		
Results for hypothesis 5							
<i>POS</i> → <i>BURN</i>	-.2168	.0487	-4.451	-.3127	-.1209		
						.325	(3;251) = 40.456
<i>Interaction effect</i> (<i>IP</i> * <i>POS</i> → <i>BURN</i>)	-.0533	.0545	-.9957	-.1617	.0531		
Results for hypothesis 6							
<i>LMX</i> → <i>QQ</i>	-.2076	.0458	-4.529	-.2979	-.1173		
<i>Interaction effect</i> (<i>BURN</i> * <i>LMX</i> → <i>Q</i> <i>Q</i>)	-.0378	.0401	-.9427	-.1168	.0412	.164	(3;251) = 16.433

Note(s): N=255, S.E. = Standard Error; C.I. = Confidence Interval, Unstandardized beta coefficients were reported.

Within the scope of Hypothesis 7, it was tested whether POS plays a moderating role in the relationship between impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting through the mediating role of burnout. The overall significance of the model was found to be statistically significant ($F(2, 252) = 24.93, p < .001$). Additionally, the model explains approximately 16.5 % ($R^2 = .1652$) of the variance. Moreover, the conditional indirect effects revealed that the indirect effect of impostor phenomenon on quiet quitting through burnout were not significant at all three levels, as the 95% confidence intervals included zero. The results also show the index of moderated mediation is also insignificant since it contains 0 (zero) between the upper and lower confidence interval (95% CI [-.0208, .0060]). In line with these results, it is seen that POS does not significantly moderate the relationship between the impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting through burnout. Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was not supported. The summary of findings is presented in Table 20. The relationships between variables are presented in Figure 6.

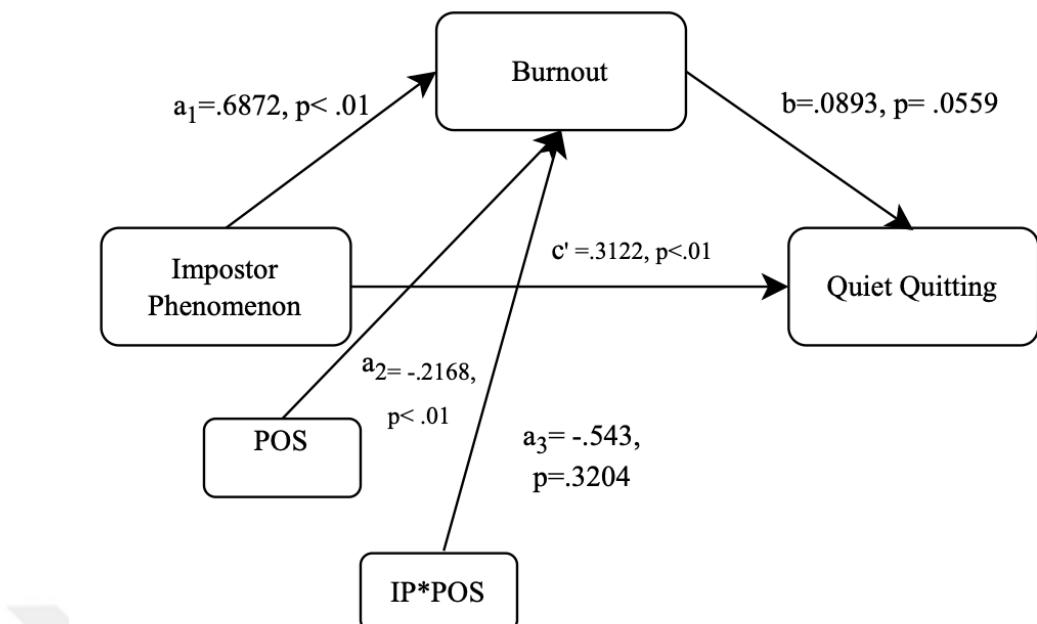


Figure 6

The Moderated Mediation Analysis

Table 20*Moderated Mediation Analysis of Perceived Organizational Support*

Model-7	Effect	BootSE	Boot	Boot	R ²	F
			LLCI	ULCI		
Results for hypothesis 7						
Conditional indirect effect of POS						
Low (-1.2685)	.0675	.0403	-.0053	.1521		
Moderate (.0000)	.0614	.0362	-.0051	.1376		
High (1.2685)	.0552	.0336	-.0043	.1254	.1652	(2;252) =24.9353
	Index	BootSE	Boot	Boot		
			LLCI	ULCI		
Index of moderated mediation	-.0049	.0066	-.0208	.0060		

*Note(s): N=255, S.E. = Standard Error, C.I. = Confidence Interval, Boot = bootstrapping
Unstandardized beta coefficients were reported.*

5.4.4. Supplementary Analysis: Moderated Mediation Test with Model 21

In order to address all variables in the research model in a more holistic manner, an additional analysis was performed by Process macro with Model 21. According to the findings obtained regarding the general significance of the model, the regression model on the dependent variable quiet quitting was found to be significant ($F(4, 250) = 18.87, p < .001$). This model explains approximately 23.2% ($R^2 = .2319$) of the total variance. This result shows that the research model has a significant and statistically strong structure when evaluated holistically. The findings show that the direct and indirect effects in the model are largely consistent with previous hypothesis tests. However, Hypothesis 2 was not statistically significant in the integrated model ($b = .0695, p = .1255, 95\% CI [-.0195, .1586]$). Detailed results, including all conditional indirect effects and confidence intervals, are presented in Table 21.

Table 21*Analyses of Hypotheses with Model-21*

Model-21	B	S. E.	t	CI %95		R ²	F
				LLCI	ULCI		
Results for hypothesis 1 and 5							
<i>IP</i> → <i>BURN</i>	.6872	.0748	9.187	.5399	.8345		
<i>POS</i> → <i>BURN</i>	-.2168	.0487	-4.451	-.3127	-.1209	.3259	(3;251) = 40.456
<i>Interaction</i> (<i>IP</i> * <i>POS</i> → <i>BURN</i>)	-.0543	.0545	-.995	-.1617	.0531		
Results for hypothesis 2,3 and 6							
<i>IP</i> → <i>QQ</i>	.2950	.0628	4.695	.1713	.4187		
<i>BURN</i> → <i>QQ</i>	.0695	.0628	1.537	-.0195	.1586		
<i>LMX</i> → <i>QQ</i>	-.1949	.0441	-4.416	-.2817	-.1080		.2319 (4;250) = 18.870
<i>Interaction effect</i> (<i>BURN</i> * <i>LMX</i> → <i>QQ</i>)	-.0378	.0385	-1.005	-.1146	.0371		
Results for hypothesis 4							
	POS	LMX	Effect	BootSE	Boot	Boot	
					LLCI	ULCI	
Conditional indirect effect (<i>IP</i> → <i>BURN</i> → <i>QQ</i>)	-.127	0.00	.0526	.0388	-.0205	.1337	
	0.00	0.00	.0478	.0345	-.0182	.1183	
	1.27	0.00	.0430	.0315	-.0162	.1093	
Results for hypothesis 7							
	Index	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI			
Index of moderated mediation	.0021	.0043	-.0048	.0131			

Note(s): N=255, S.E. = Standard Error, C.I. = Confidence Interval, Boot = bootstrapping, Unstandardized beta coefficients were reported.

5.5. ANALYSES OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

5.5.1. Independent Sample T-test for Gender

To understand whether gender had any effect on the variables, independent samples t-test was performed. Results showed no significant gender differences were observed in variables except quiet quitting and leader-member exchange. For quiet quitting the mean score for women ($M = 2.24$) was lower than that of men ($M = 2.53$), suggesting that male employees exhibit higher levels of quiet quitting from work compared to their female counterparts. For leader-member exchange, women ($M = 4.33$) reported a higher quality relationship with their leaders compared to men ($M = 4.03$). This result suggests that female employees may establish stronger interpersonal relationships with their leaders or receive greater support in leader-member exchange. Results can be seen in Table 22.

Table 22

Independent Sample T-tests for Gender

Variables	Groups	N	M	SD	T-test		
					T	SD	p
Quiet Quitting	Female	150	2.24	.74	-	2.803	.004
	Male	105	2.53	.85			
Leader-Member Exchange	Female	150	4.33	.95	2.314	253	.025
	Male	105	4.03	1.11			

* $p < .05$.

5.5.2. Independent Sample T-test for Marital Status

To understand whether marital status had any effect on the variables, independent samples t-test was performed. Results showed significant marital status differences were observed in variables burnout, quiet quitting and leader-member exchange. For burnout, the mean score for married employees ($M = 3.05$) was lower than of single employees. For quiet quitting the mean score for married employees ($M = 2.26$) was lower than that of single employees ($M = 2.52$). Additionally, for leader-member exchange, single employees ($M = 4.01$) reported low-quality relationship with their leaders compared to married employees ($M = 4.34$). These findings show that marital status may influence

employees' experiences of burnout and their tendency to quiet quitting. Moreover, the results indicate that single employees perceive weaker leader-member exchange, which might lead to their higher levels of burnout and quiet quitting. Results can be seen in Table 23.

Table 23

Independent Sample T-tests for Marital Status

Variables	Groups	N	M	SD	T-test	
					T	p
Burnout	Married	156	3,05	1,15	-	.028
	Single	99	3.38	1.15	2.21*	
Quiet Quitting	Married	156	2.26	.83	-	.014
	Single	99	2.52	.95	2.48*	
Leader- Member Exchange	Married	156	4.34	.95	2.51*	.013
	Single	99	4.01	1.12		

* $p < .05$.

5.5.3. The Kruskal-Wallis Test for Other Demographic Variables

Since participants were not homogeneously distributed across most demographic variables—except for gender and marital status—the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test was conducted to examine differences across groups for all variables. The results revealed no significant differences in the scores of sectors, position, total tenure, tenure at the current organization, and education level. However, a significant difference was found among age groups. The detailed results are presented in Table 24.

Kruskal-Wallis H test showed that there was a statistically significant differences in the impostor phenomenon score according to the age groups. The impostor phenomenon differed significantly ($X^2 = 10.415$, $p = .008$), with a mean rank score of 72,26 for aged 26-35, 43,30 for aged 56 and higher. This shows that participants aged 26-35 experienced higher impostor phenomenon compared to participants aged 46 and higher. Likewise, participants aged 25 and below experienced higher impostor phenomenon compared to participants aged 46 and higher, the mean rank scores are 27,78 and 17,63, respectively.

In terms of burnout, there was also a statistically significant differences in the score according to the age groups. Burnout differed significantly ($\chi^2 = 11,714$, $p=.008$). Post-hoc comparisons indicated that participants aged 26–35 ($X = 119.01$) and 36–45 ($X = 98.38$) reported significantly higher levels of burnout compared to those aged 46 and above ($X = 42.33$). Additionally, participants aged 25 and below ($X = 26.50$) experienced higher burnout levels than participants in the 46 and above group (Mean Rank = 18.42). These findings suggest that younger participants, particularly those in the 26–35 and 36–45 age groups, are more prone to burnout than older employees.

Table 24

The Kruskal-Wallis Tests Results

Variable	Age group	N	Mean Rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	Sig.
Impostor Phenomenon				10,415	3	.015
	0-25	16	27,78			.009
	46-higher	26	17,63			.009
	26-35	89	72,26			.011
	46-higher	26	43,40			.011
Burnout				11,714	3	.008
	0-25	16	26,50			
	46-higher	26	18,42			.038
	26-35	89	119,01			
	36-45	114	98,38			.016
	26-35	89	62,58			
	46-higher	26	42,33			.006

* $p < .05$

6. DISCUSSION

The present study aimed to examine the individual and organizational factors in the relationship between the impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting. The examined factors in this relationship are burnout, POS, and LMX. For this purpose, a quantitative study was conducted with white-collar employees. In the first section, an evaluation of the scales' reliability and underlying factor structures is provided. In the second section, relationships between the variables with the findings from the literature will be examined. In the third section, theoretical and practical contributions of the study will be given. In the fourth section, the limitations of this study and recommendations for future research will be presented.

6.1. EVALUATION OF CONSTRUCTS

The original Clance Impostor Phenomenon Scale (CIPS), developed by Clance and Imes (1978), was designed to reflect a three-dimensional structure. When the factor analyses applied to the variables are examined, it is seen that the expressions related to the impostor phenomenon are not divided into three dimensions as predicted in the literature. During the factor analysis of the scale, four expressions were removed from the analysis because they had low factor loadings. In addition, as a result of the analysis, it was determined that the scale has one-factor structure. The results demonstrated that the unidimensional model provided a better fit to the data. Furthermore, the one-factor structure showed acceptable reliability.

The Burnout Scale used in the study was developed by Malach-Pines (2005) and was adapted into Turkish by Tümkaya, Çam and Çavuşoğlu (2009). As a result of the confirmatory factor analysis, it was determined that the single-factor structure was more suitable for the study sample than the three-factor structure in the original form of the scale. In addition, one item was removed due to its low factor loading during the analyzes and the scale was evaluated with a total of nine items. The findings show that the single-factor structure provides a valid and reliable measurement tool.

The Quiet Quitting Scale used in the study consists of three factors: detachment, lack of motivation, and lack of initiative (Galanis et al., 2023). The Turkish adaptation of the scale was carried out by Konak (2024). After the confirmatory factor analysis two items were removed due to the low-

factor loading. It was concluded that the three-factor structure of the scale was functional in measuring quiet quitting.

As a result of the factor analyzes conducted for the Perceived Organizational Support (POS) and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) scales used in the study, it was not considered necessary to remove any items. Both scales were evaluated in accordance with their original structures, and the factor structure they were developed into was adhered to in line with the confirmatory factor analysis results. The POS scale was developed by Eisenberger and his colleagues and has a single-factor structure; its Turkish adaptation was carried out by Erdaş (2010). The LMX scale, on the other hand, is based on a structure developed by Maslyn (1998) and consists of four sub-factors: affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect. The Turkish adaptation of this scale was carried out by Baş et al. (2010). In the analyzes, it was determined that the original factor structures of both scales were suitable for the data, and it was revealed that they could be used validly in the current study. These findings show that both scales maintain their structural consistency on different samples.

6.2. EVALUATION OF RESULTS

6.2.1. Evaluation of Hypotheses Results

Regarding the research model, first, the effect of the impostor phenomenon on burnout was assessed. A positive relationship was found between the impostor phenomenon and burnout. This shows us that feelings, such as individuals not being able to internalize their own achievements, attributing them to luck or living with the thought that they will be "caught one day" by others, lead to burnout over time. The impostor phenomenon, which begins with family dynamics and is shaped by social norms, defined by Clance and Imes (1978), generally progresses in a six-stage cycle. This circle may explain the path from the impostor phenomenon to burnout. When individuals encounter a new task, they first experience intense anxiety and feelings of inadequacy, and then they try to overcome this situation by resorting to strategies such as overwork or procrastination. Even if individuals attribute their achievements to their intense work in the beginning, they attribute them to external factors such as luck in a short time again. This can be explained by overly critical or success-oriented family structures that make it difficult for the individual to develop self-confidence. As this cycle repeats itself, the individual's psychological resources are depleted and eventually, burnout appears. Indeed, this result is also consistent with the existing literature (Clance & Imes, 1978; Kumar & Jagacinski, 2006; Hutchins & Rainbolt, 2017). In this context, the first hypothesis of the study was supported, and a contribution was made to the current empirical findings confirming the negative effects of the impostor phenomenon on individual well-being. In addition, these findings point to the necessity of creating an environment

that supports employees' psychological well-being and questioning overly competitive cultures that might cause the impostor phenomenon.

In terms of the second hypothesis, the relationship between burnout and quiet quitting was examined. A positive relationship was found between burnout and quiet quitting. This finding shows that individuals experiencing burnout become less committed to their jobs over time, avoid going beyond their duties, and adopt an attitude aimed at meeting only minimum expectations. This result is consistent with the findings from the literature (Galanis et al., 2023; Gün et al., 2024; Trang & Trang, 2024). Additionally, in a descriptive analysis, 89 different user accounts that shared on the LinkedIn platform were examined. Four main themes were identified among the factors that caused quiet quitting, and one of these themes was burnout (Karaduman, 2023). However, the findings obtained in the present study also show that the effect of burnout on quiet quitting is limited as it explains only a small part of quiet quitting. This situation suggests that quiet quitting is a multidimensional phenomenon and is affected not only by burnout but also by other factors such as organizational culture, leadership style, and psychological contract perception (Kobak, 2023). Indeed, there are also studies supporting this relationship in the literature indirectly with different organizational behavior concepts. For example, Maslach and Leiter (2016) stated that burnout weakens employee commitment and leads to a decrease in organizational citizenship behaviors. Similarly, studies such as Schaufeli and Taris (2014) and Bakker and Costa (2014) emphasize that burnout causes psychological detachment from work. Additionally, other themes that stand out in the descriptive analysis mentioned above include the work environment, the search for meaning after Covid-19, and the work attitudes and expectations of Generation Z regarding work life. From this perspective, the obtained result is both consistent with the literature and reveals that new variables should be included in future studies.

The third hypothesis in the present study was the relationship between the impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting. A positive relationship was found between the impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting. Although there is no research examining the relationship between the two variables, the finding can be explained in detail with the given theories in the conceptual framework of the research. When evaluated within the framework of the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory, it can be predicted that the increase in the level of impostor phenomenon will shape the perception and behaviors towards quiet quitting. Because individuals experiencing the impostor phenomenon constantly question their own competence and try to prove to both themselves and their environment that they are successful. This effort sometimes leads to excessive work, and sometimes to behaviors based on procrastination. In both cases, the individual begins to decrease their physical and/or emotional resources. As this process of

resource loss extends, the commitment of employees to the organization weakens, the tendency to mentally distance themselves from work increases, and ultimately the individual refuses to go beyond the job description and prefers to work with only minimal effort. Indeed, there are findings in the literature that the impostor phenomenon leads to a decrease in employees' organizational citizenship behaviors and especially a decrease in their affective commitment (Grub & McDowell, 2012; Vergauwe, 2014; Gullifor et al., 2023). From the perspective of Self-Determination Theory (SDT), failure to meet basic psychological needs (competence, relatedness, and autonomy) for a long time can lead to a loss of intrinsic motivation and, over time, to psychological distancing from work, thus leading to quiet quitting. Indeed, significant relationships have been found between the impostor phenomenon and low intrinsic motivation. The fact that these individuals cannot internalize success and feel inadequate negatively affects their motivational processes; this can lead to a decrease in organizational commitment and job performance in the long term (Kumar & Jagacinski, 2006; Neureiter & Traut-Mattausch, 2016). These studies reveal that the impostor phenomenon leads not only to negative feelings at the individual level, but also to a decrease in voluntary contributions at the organizational level. In this context, the findings in the literature are consistent with the findings of the current study and support a holistic understanding of the negative reflections of the impostor phenomenon in the workplace.

The mediation model tested within the scope of the research aimed to examine the mediating role of burnout in the relationship between the impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting. Even if the significant direct bilateral relationships between all three variables, the mediating effect of burnout was not statistically significant. It is understood that burnout does not serve as an explanatory bridge between these two variables. Individuals with the impostor phenomenon, despite experiencing burnout, may hold on to their responsibilities and constantly act with the motivation to "prove themselves" instead of resorting to withdrawal behaviors (Clance & Imes, 1978). At this point, the relationship between the phenomenon of impostor and perfectionism may be explanatory. Namely, individuals who constantly question their adequacy due to the impostor may engage in extra effort, and when this tendency is coupled with adaptive perfectionism, it may further reinforce their drive to achieve high standards—ultimately helping them sustain high performance and reducing the likelihood of withdrawal behaviors such as quiet quitting. Indeed, in the literature, adaptive perfectionism is associated with high expectations of success and more tolerance for mistakes, as well as positive performance outcomes (Frost et al., 1990; Chang, 2006; Stoeber & Otto, 2006). Such individuals may remain strictly committed to their responsibilities even if they experience burnout. Therefore, even if a significant psychological outcome such as burnout is experienced as a result of the impostor phenomenon, the influence of individual differences and internal motivational dynamics may lead to the emergence of different

behavioral outcomes. These findings suggest that future research should address mediating processes not only within theoretical frameworks but also in the context of individual differences and personality traits.

None of the three moderator hypotheses (5,6, and 7) tested in the study were found to be statistically significant. The first of these hypotheses predicted that perceived organizational support (POS) would play a moderating role in the relationship between impostor phenomenon and burnout. The second hypothesis examined whether leader-member exchange (LMX) moderated the relationship between burnout and quiet quitting. The third hypothesis aimed to test the moderating effect of POS on the indirect effect of impostor phenomenon on quiet quitting through burnout. However, the fact that none of these three hypotheses found significant support suggests that these relationships are shaped by more complex processes. This situation can be explained by evaluating the impostor phenomenon, POS, LMX and quiet quitting from a separate perspective each.

The impostor phenomenon is a concept that has its roots in early life family experiences and social norms. Consistent with previous literature, the present study supports the existence of a significant link between the impostor phenomenon and POS (Vergauwe et al., 2015; Crawford et al., 2016). However, the moderator effects of POS tested in this study show that POS does not have a function in both direct and indirect effects. This situation can be explained by how this support is perceived and internalized by individuals in terms of the nature of impostor phenomenon. Because these individuals may not perceive this support as real and reliable even if they are in high-support environments. Additionally, individuals experiencing the impostor phenomenon may interpret the support offered, especially in competitive work environments, as condescending, emphasizing their inadequacies, or as an insincere intervention due to the nature of the concept. Indeed, in the literature, the impostor phenomenon is associated with structures such as low self-esteem, high neuroticism, inability to internalize success, and negative self-perception. (Bernard, Dollinger & Ramaniah, 2002; Gullifor et al., 2023; Sawant et al., 2023). All of these feelings might prevent individuals from perceiving the support coming from the environment as sufficient, or deserved. Additionally, because POS reflects perceptions of general organizational support, it may not fully address the individualized forms of support (e.g., mentoring or coaching) that might be needed by individuals experiencing impostor phenomenon. In this context, positive resources such as organizational support may be insufficient to buffer the negative effects of the impostor phenomenon.

Leader-member exchange (LMX) is an important concept that defines the quality of employees' relationships with their managers. It has been shown in the literature that high LMX is associated with many positive organizational outcomes, and is particularly effective in reducing burnout levels (Kaşlı & Aytemiz Seymen, 2010; Uğuroğlu, Şantaş & Demirgil, 2013; Mouro et al., 2020). Indeed, in this study, significant relationships were found between quiet quitting both LMX and burnout. However, the moderating effect of LMX on the relationship between burnout and quiet quitting was not found to be statistically significant. There might be several reasons behind it. First, as explained above in perceived organizational support, individuals with the impostor phenomenon may not perceive leaders' efforts to improve the relationship as convincing enough due to the nature of the phenomenon, which may lead to the moderating effect of LMX not being statistically significant. Second, in terms of Job-Demand Resources Theory, burnout as a demand might be stronger than LMX, which can be considered as a resource. Third, in collectivist and high-power-distance cultures such as Turkey, the leader-member relationship may be shaped within a more hierarchical and task-oriented structure (Hofstede, 1980). Additionally, organizational culture and structure also play an important role in the level and the quality of LMX (Henderson et al., 2009). These may both cause individuals to evaluate their relationship with their managers as a task-based necessity rather than a source of emotional support. Indeed, in the literature, LMX studies conducted in collectivist cultures with high power distance have shown that variables such as job satisfaction, turnover intention, organizational citizenship behavior and trust in the leader have a weaker relationship with LMX compared to individualist cultures with low power distance (Rockstuhl et al., 2012). Likewise, in this study, some sectors such as education and aviation are known for their hierarchical structure, where seniority and hierarchy are at the forefront. This situation may lead to the relationship established with managers remaining more status-based and formal.

Quiet quitting is a concept that is affected by many factors. In the literature, it was stated that factors in addition to examined factors in the present study such as meaningful work, work schedules, lack of career development, loss of confidence, communication barriers, job expectations of Generation Z, work environment and COVID-19 may trigger this behavior (Karaduman, 2023; Pevec, 2023). This might be an explanation of the insignificant results of mediating and moderating effects in this study. Therefore, future research should examine quiet quitting more comprehensively with larger samples, considering more variables in addition to the existing variables.

6.2.2. Evaluation of Demographic Results

In the analyzes conducted on demographic variables within the scope of the research, no significant difference was observed between most groups. In particular, the findings obtained according

to the sector, total tenure, tenure at the current organization and education level revealed a homogeneous distribution in terms of variables. This situation shows that the variables in question do not have a determining effect on the variables in the research model.

The significant differences were observed between the marital status, burnout, and quiet quitting. According to the findings, burnout and quiet quitting in terms of marital status are higher in single employees. These findings are consistent with the literature and suggest that marriage may reduce burnout by increasing psychological resilience thanks to the social support it provides to individuals (Duran Bozkurt, 2014; Meng & Yang, 2024). Additionally, leader-member exchange is stronger in married employees. This result may suggest that married employees attach more importance to their social relationships at work or tend to develop longer-term and more constructive relationships. At the same time, the fact that married employees seek more stability in their work life may also increase the quality of the relationship established with the leader.

When the gender variable is examined, it was observed that men are more prone to quiet quitting; on the other hand, female employees develop higher-quality relationships with their leaders. This situation suggests that female employees exert more effort in a relational context or that emotional intelligence and empathy levels in the work environment may be decisive. This finding is consistent with the literature that women have more developed social and emotional skills than men and therefore establish high-level LMX relationships with their leaders (Korn Ferry, 2016; Wang, Kim, & Milne, 2016). When the findings regarding gender obtained in the study are evaluated together, high LMX might reduce quiet quitting by making the employee feel more secure and valued in the work environment. Therefore, the fact that female employees have a higher level of LMX can be considered as a possible factor explaining their refraining from quiet quitting.

In the sample, individuals aged above 46 reported the lowest levels of both the impostor phenomenon and burnout. In contrast, those aged under 25 and between 26–35 showed higher levels of the impostor phenomenon. The higher levels of impostor phenomenon observed in employees under the age of 36 may be explained by their tendency to have difficulty internalizing their achievements and frequently questioning their performance. As individuals grow older, they are more likely to take ownership of their achievements, which may contribute to a decrease in the impostor phenomenon over time. Additionally, the highest levels of burnout were observed among individuals aged between 26–35. This finding is supported by literature (Marchand, Blanch & Beauregard, 2018; Aydin & Akgemci, 2020). The high levels of burnout observed among employees aged 26-35 may be explained by the fact

that this age group typically represents one of the most demanding and expecting periods in a career, often marked by heavy workloads and the challenge of balancing personal and professional responsibilities.

These findings show that the workforce has different experiences according to their different demographic characteristics and that individual factors, especially age, gender and marital status, can be determinants of organizational processes and psychological experiences. From this perspective, it is important for organizations to take demographic differences into account when developing employee support mechanisms in order to produce more effective and targeted solutions.

In this section, the findings obtained as a result of the research are discussed and interpreted in detail. In the next section, the theoretical and practical contributions will be given.

6.3. THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

From the theoretical contribution point of view, this study fills the gap in the literature by examining the relationship between the impostor phenomenon and quiet quitting for the first time. The impostor phenomenon has mostly been studied in Western countries, and the effects in different cultures have not been sufficiently examined (Gullifor et al., 2023). Although quiet quitting has been examined, particularly in countries such as Greece, the United States, and Turkey, it still remains a relatively new concept in the literature (Oğan & Çetiner, 2024). In this respect, this study makes an original and important contribution to the literature by addressing both concepts together and examining them in a non-Western context. In addition, the use of theoretical frameworks such as Conservation of Resources Theory (COR) and Self-Determination Theory (SDT) to explain this relationship in the study contributes to a comprehensive understanding of the theoretical foundations of the relevant concepts. As stated previously, most of the research, especially on the impostor phenomenon, was conducted without any theoretical framework and by focusing on the individual factors more than organizational factors (Gullifor et al., 2023). This situation limits the in-depth understanding of the individual and organizational factors underlying the concept and reveals the need for theoretically-based research. Lastly, the study further contributes to and enriches the existing literature by providing empirical support for the supported relationships between the impostor phenomenon and burnout, burnout and leader-member exchange (LMX), as well as the impostor phenomenon and perceived organizational support (POS). These findings not only align with previous research but also offer a more integrated understanding of how these variables interact in organizational settings.

From the practical contribution point of view, quiet quitting has a direct impact on employees' productivity, efficiency and performance. Therefore, it is critical for employers to develop strategies in order to prevent quiet quitting. Elements such as work-life balance, trust-based leadership and a participatory management approach can contribute to preventing quiet quitting. However, employees may exhibit withdrawal behaviors due to individual factors in addition to organizational factors. In particular, individual factors such as the impostor phenomenon, which causes individuals to question their own competence, may cause employees tend to quiet quitting. In this context, it is important for human resources departments to establish systems that can monitor employees' psychological well-being, develop mechanisms such as mentoring and coaching, and create feedback systems that recognize success and make the individual's contribution visible. These systems should be based not only on clear and open communication, but also on a psychologically safe organizational culture where employees can freely express their thoughts and feelings and provide feedback without fear of judgment, or loss of job. In other words, organizations should create workplaces that are sensitive not only to external motivational tools but also to individual psychological needs and are guiding for human resources practices.

In this section, the theoretical and practical contributions were discussed. In the next section, the limitations of the research are stated and suggestions that can contribute to similar studies that could be carried out in the future are included.

6.4. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has some limitations. First, convenience sampling was used. This creates a limitation in that the sample does not fully represent the study population and limits the generalizability of the results. In addition, the study is based on a cross-sectional design so we cannot conclude cause-effect relationships among the variables. In addition, the number of some sample groups was less than 30, which limits the generalizability of the results to a wider population.

In future studies, conducting research with larger and more diverse samples will increase the generalizability of the findings. In addition, longitudinal studies can be conducted to examine the causal relationships between variables more reliably. Such studies will allow for a more detailed analysis of the effects of different demographic groups and industry segments. Additionally, it should be kept in mind that the fear of "being exposed", which is one of the features of the impostor phenomenon,

constitutes an inner conflict. This conflict and constant perception of threat might not be eliminated only by external support such as organizational support. Therefore, in future studies, it would be useful to consider this experience together with deeper individual psychological processes in a more comprehensive manner. Lastly, it is noteworthy that the mediating role of burnout was not found to be significant in this study. This finding suggests that individuals experiencing the impostor phenomenon may be influenced by other mechanisms in their tendency toward quiet quitting. Therefore, it would be useful to test alternative mediating organizational or individual mechanisms in future research.



7. REFERENCES

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APPENDIX A. SCALES OF THE STUDY (TURKISH)

Değerli katılımcı,

Bu araştırma Marmara Üniversitesi Örgütsel Davranış Yüksek Lisans programı kapsamında, yüksek lisans tez öğrencisi Özge Türk Can tarafından Doç. Dr. Yaprak Özdemir danışmanlığında yapılmaktadır. Bu araştırmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Dilediğiniz zaman katılımınızı sonlandırabilirsiniz. Tüm yanıtlar sadece bu araştırma için bilimsel amaçla kullanılacaktır. Araştırma yaklaşık olarak 10-15 dakika sürecektir ve kimlik bilgileri içermemektedir. Araştırmanın amacına ulaşabilmesi için lütfen bütün soruları eksiksiz ve size en uygun gelen seçeneği işaretleyerek doldurunuz. Araştırma hakkında sorularınız olması durumunda araştırmacıya aşağıdaki iletişim bilgileri üzerinden ulaşabilirsiniz. Verdiğiniz katkı ve yardımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Özge Türk Can
Marmara Üniversitesi, İşletme Fakültesi, Örgütsel Davranış Anabilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

BÖLÜM 1		Kesinlikle katılmıyorum.	Katılmıyorum.	Pek katılmıyorum.	Biraz katılıyorum.	Katlıyorum.	Çok katılıyorum.
1	Başlamadan önce iyi yapamayacağımdan korktuğum bir testte veya görevde çoğu zaman başarılı olurum.						
2	Gerçekte olduğumdan daha yetkin izlenimini verebilirim.						
3	Mümkünse değerlendirmelerden kaçınırmı ve başkalarının beni değerlendirmesinden korkarım.						

4	Başardığım bir şey için insanlar beni takdir ettiğinde, gelecekte onların benimle ilgili beklentilerini karşılayamayacağımdan korkarım.					
5	Bazen şu anki konumumu veya mevcut başarımı doğru zamanda doğru yerde olduğum ya da doğru insanları tanıdığım için elde ettiğimi düşünürüm.					
6	Benim için önemli olan insanların, sandıkları kadar yetenekli olmadığını öğrenmelerinden korkarım.					
7	Elimden gelenin en iyisini yaptığım zamanlardan daha çok elimden gelenin en iyisini yapmadığım olayları hatırlama eğilimindeyim					
8	Bir projeyi veya görevi, yapmak istediğim şekilde nadiren yapıyorum.					
9	Bazen hayatmdaki veya işimdeki başarımın bir tür hata sonucu olarak gerçekleştiğini hissediyorum ya da buna inanıyorum.					
10	Zekâm ya da başarılarım hakkındaki iltifat ya da övgüleri kabul etmek benim için zordur.					
11	Zaman zaman başarımın bir tür şans eseri olduğunu hissediyorum.					
12	Mevcut başarılarım hakkında zaman zaman hayal kırıklığı hissederim ve daha fazlasını başarmış olmam gerektiğini düşünürüm.					
13	Bazen başkalarının gerçekte benim ne kadar bilgisiz ya da beceriksiz olduğumu keşfedeceğinden korkuyorum.					
14	Başladığım bir işi genel olarak iyi yapsam da, yeni bir görevlendirmede ya da sorumlulukta başarısız olmaktan çoğunlukla korkarım.					
15	Bir şeyi başardığımda ve başarılarım için takdir edildiğimde, bu başarıyı tekrarlayabileceğime dair şüphelerim olur.					
16	Başardığım bir şey için çok fazla övgü ve takdir görürsem, yaptığım şeyin önemini küçümseme eğiliminde olurum.					
17	Yeteneklerimi sık sık çevremdekilerle kıyaslar ve onların benden daha zeki olabileceklerini düşünürüm.					
18						

	Bir projede ya da sınavda, her ne kadar çevremdeki insanlar benim başarılı olacağım konusunda bana ciddi bir güven duysa da, ben genellikle başarılı olamayacağımdan endişelenirim.						
19	Bir terfi alacak ya da bir tür takdir elde edeceksem, bu gerçekleşene kadar başkalarına söylemekten çekinirim.						
20	Başarı gerektiren durumlarda "en iyi" ya da en azından "çok özel" değilsem kendimi kötü hissederim ve cesaretim kırılır.						

	BÖLÜM 2	(1) Kesinlikle katılmıyorum.	(2) Katılmıyorum.	(3) Pek katılmıyorum.	(4) Biraz katlıyorum.	(5) Katlıyorum.	(6) Çok katlıyorum.
1	Yorgunluk hissediyorum.						
2	İnsanlar tarafından hayal kırıklığına uğratılmış hissediyorum.						
3	Umutsuzluk duyuyorum.						
4	Kapana kısılmış gibi hissediyorum.						
5	Çaresiz hissediyorum.						
6	Depresif (üzüntülü/kederli) hissediyorum.						
7	Fiziksel olarak hastalıklı hissediyorum.						
8	Değersiz ve başarısız biri gibi hissediyorum.						
9	Uyumada zorluk çekiyorum.						
10	Bıkkınlık hissediyorum.						

BÖLÜM 3		(1) Kesinlikle katılmıyorum.	(2) Katılmıyorum.	(3) Pek katılmıyorum.	(4) Biraz katılıyorum.	(5) Katılıyorum.	(6) Çok katılıyorum.
	Bu bölümde, çalışığınız kurumla ilgili deneyimlerinizi değerlendirmeye yönelik çeşitli ifadeler yer almaktadır. Her bir maddeyi dikkatlice okuyarak, "Kesinlikle katılmıyorum" (1), "Katılmıyorum" (2), "Pek katılmıyorum" (3), "Biraz katılıyorum" (4), "Katılıyorum" (5) ve "Kesinlikle katılıyorum" (6) seçenekleri arasında size en uygun olanı işaretleyiniz.						
1	Çalıştığım kurum refahı için yaptığım katkıya değer verir.						
2	Çalıştığım kurum gösterdiğim fazla çabayı takdir eder.						
3	Çalıştığım kurum şikayetlerimi dinler.						
4	Çalıştığım kurum gerçekten iyiliğimi düşünür.						
5	İşimi mümkün olan en iyi şekilde yaptığımda çalıştığım kurum bunu fark eder.						
6	Çalıştığım kurum genel olarak isteki memnuniyetimi önemser.						
7	Çalıştığım kurum benimle yakından ilgilenmektedir.						
8	Çalıştığım kurum isteki başarılarımıla gurur duyar.						

BÖLÜM 4		(1) Kesinlikle katılmıyorum.	(2) Katılmıyorum.	(3) Pek katılmıyorum.	(4) Biraz katılıyorum.	(5) Katılıyorum.	(6) Çok katılıyorum.
	Bu bölümde, iş yerindeki tutum ve davranışlarınız ile ilgili çeşitli ifadeler yer almaktadır. Her bir maddeyi dikkatlice okuyarak, "Kesinlikle katılmıyorum" (1), "Katılmıyorum" (2), "Pek katılmıyorum" (3), "Biraz katılıyorum" (4), "Katılıyorum" (5) ve "Kesinlikle katılıyorum" (6) seçenekleri arasında size en uygun olanı işaretleyiniz.						
1	Temel veya minimum düzeyde iş yaparım, fazladan çaba sarf etmem.						
2	Olabildiğince çok mola veririm.						

3	Başka bir görevden kaçınmak için çalışıyorum gibi yaparım.					
4	İşim hakkında görüş ve fikirlerimi ifade etmem, çünkü yöneticimin bana daha fazla görev vermesinden korkarım.					
5	İşim hakkında görüş ve fikirlerimi ifade etmem, çünkü çalışma koşullarının değişimeyeceğini düşünürüm.					
6	İşimde sıkılıkla inisiyatif alırım. *					
7	İşimde motivasyon kaynakları bulurum. *					
8	İşimi yapmak bana şevk ve heyecan verir. *					
9	Eğer bir iş arkadaşım benim işimin bir kısmını/ birazını yapabiliyorsa, o zaman ona yaptırırıım.					

	BÖLÜM 5	(1) Kesinlikle katılmıyorum.	(2) Katılmıyorum.	(3) Pek katılmıyorum.	(4) Biraz katılıyorum.	(5) Katılıyorum.	(6) Çok katılıyorum.
1	Bu bölümde, yöneticinizle ilgili düşüncelerinize yönelik çeşitli ifadeler yer almaktadır. Her bir maddeyi dikkatlice okuyarak, "Kesinlikle katılmıyorum" (1), "Katılmıyorum" (2), "Pek katılmıyorum" (3), "Biraz katılıyorum" (4), "Katılıyorum" (5) ve "Kesinlikle katılıyorum" (6) seçenekleri arasında size en uygun olanı işaretleyiniz.						
2	Yöneticimin iş hakkındaki bilgisine ve yeteneğine saygı duyarım.						
3	Yöneticimin profesyonel yeteneklerine saygı duyarım.						
4	Yöneticimin iş konusundaki bilgisini etkileyici bulmaktayım.						
5	Yöneticim, iş yerinde istemeden bir hata yaptığımda diğerlerine karşı beni savunur.						
6	Eğer başkaları tarafından sert bir "eleştiriye" uğrarsam yöneticim beni savunur.						
7	Yöneticim, konuyu tam olarak bilmese bile üstlerine karşı benim davranışlarımı savunur.						
8	Yöneticim herkesin arkadaş olmak isteyeceği biridir.						
9	Yöneticimi insan olarak çok severim.						
	Yöneticimle birlikte çalışmak zevklidir.						

10	Yöneticim için sıkı çalışmaktan rahatsızlık duymam.					
11	Yöneticim için görev tanımlarımında belirtilenlerin dışındaki işleri de yaparım.					
12	Yöneticimin iş konusundaki hedeflerini karşılamak için normalde gerekenden daha fazla çaba sarf etmeye hazırlım.					

BÖLÜM 6

Bu bölümde yaş, cinsiyet, eğitim durumu gibi bazı demografik bilgileri içeren sorular yer almaktadır.

Yaş: _____

Cinsiyet: Kadın / Erkek

Medeni durum: Bekar / Evli

Eğitim durumunuz: Lise / Ön lisans / Lisans / Yüksek Lisans / Doktora

Toplam çalışma süreniz: 0-5 yıl / 6-10 yıl / 11-15 yıl / 15 yıl ve üstü

Bulunduğunuz şirkette çalışma süreniz: 0-5 yıl / 6-10 yıl / 11-15 yıl / 15 yıl ve üstü

Pozisyonunuz: Stajyer / Uzman Yardımcısı / Uzman / Birim müdürü / Üst Düzey Yönetici / Diğer

Çalıştığınız sektör: Bankacılık-Finans / Eğitim / Sağlık / Turizm / Teknoloji / Gıda / Havacılık / Diğer

APPENDIX B. SCALES OF THE STUDY (ENGLISH)

Dear participant,

This research is being conducted by Özge Türk Can, a master's thesis student under the supervision of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yaprak Özdemir, within the scope of the Marmara University Organizational Behavior Master's program. Participation in this research is completely voluntary. You can terminate your participation at any time. All responses will be used only for scientific purposes for this research. The research will take approximately 10-15 minutes and does not contain any personally identifiable information. In order for the research to achieve its purpose, please fill in all questions completely and by selecting the option that suits you best. If you have questions about the research, you can reach the researcher via the contact information below. Thank you for your contribution and assistance.

Özge Türk Can

Marmara University, Faculty of Business Administration, Department of
Organizational Behavior, Master's Degree Student

	SECTION 1	(1) Totally disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Partly disagree	(4) Partly agree	(5) Agree	(6) Totally agree
	This section includes various statements that evaluate your perceptions of yourself. Read each item carefully and mark the option that best suits you among the following: "Totally disagree" (1), "Disagree" (2), "Partly disagree" (3), "Partly agree" (4), "Agree" (5) and "Totally agree" (6).						
1	I have often succeeded on a test or task even though I was afraid that I would not do well before I undertook the task.						
2							

	I can give the impression that I'm more competent than I really am.					
3	I avoid evaluations if possible and have a dread of others evaluating me.					
4	When people praise me for something I've accomplished, I'm afraid I won't be able to live up to their expectations of me in the future.					
5	I sometimes think I obtained my present position or gained my present success because I happened to be in the right place at the right time or knew the right people.					
6	I'm afraid people important to me may find out that I'm not as capable as they think I am.					
7	I tend to remember the incidents in which I have not done my best more than those times I have done my best.					
8	I rarely do a project or task as well as I'd like to do it.					
9	Sometimes I feel or believe that my success in my life or in my job has been the result of some kind of error.					
10	It is hard for me to accept compliments or praise about my intelligence or accomplishments.					
11	At times, I feel my success has been due to some kind of luck.					
12	I'm disappointed at times in my present accomplishments and think I should have accomplished much more.					
13	Sometimes I'm afraid others will discover how much knowledge or ability I really lack.					
14	I'm often afraid that I may fail at a new assignment or undertaking even though I generally do well what I attempt.					
15	When I've succeeded at something and received recognition for my accomplishments, I have doubts that I can keep repeating that success.					
16	If I receive a great deal of praise and recognition for something I've accomplished, I tend to discount the importance of what I've done.					
17	I often compare my ability to those around me and think they may be more intelligent than I am.					

18	I often worry about not succeeding with a project or examination, even though others around me have considerable confidence that I will do well.						
19	If I'm going to receive a promotion or gain recognition of some kind, I hesitate to tell others until it is an accomplished fact.						
20	I feel bad and discouraged if I'm not "the best" or at least "very special" in situations that involve achievement.						

	SECTION 2						
	This section contains various statements about your feelings during the day. Read each item carefully and mark the option that best suits you among the following: "Totally disagree" (1), "Disagree" (2), "Partly disagree" (3), "Partly agree" (4), "Agree" (5) and "Totally agree" (6).						
1	Tired						
2	Disappointed with people						
3	Hopeless						
4	Trapped						
5	Helpless						
6	Depressed						
7	Physically weak/ Sickly						
8	Worthless/ Like a failure						
9	Difficulties sleeping						
10	"I've had it"						

	SECTION 3	(1) Totally disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Partly disagree	(4) Partly agree	(5) Agree	(6) Totally agree
	This section contains various statements aimed at evaluating your experiences with the organization you work for. Read each item carefully and mark the option that best suits you among the following: “Totally disagree” (1), “Disagree” (2), “Partly disagree” (3), “Partly agree” (4), “Agree” (5) and “Totally agree” (6).						
1	The organization values my contribution to its well-being.						
2	The organization appreciates extra effort from me.						
3	The organization would not ignore any complaint from me.						
4	The organization really cares about my well-being.						
5	When I did the best job possible, the organization notices.						
6	The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.						
7	The organization shows a closer concern for me.						
8	The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.						

	SECTION 4	(1) Totally disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Partly disagree	(4) Partly agree	(5) Agree	(6) Totally agree
	This section includes various statements about your attitudes and behaviors at work. Read each item carefully and mark the option that best suits you among the following: “Totally disagree” (1), “Disagree” (2), “Partly disagree” (3), “Partly agree” (4), “Agree” (5) and “Totally agree” (6).						
1	I do the basic or minimum amount of work without going above and beyond.						
2	I take as many breaks as I can.						

3	How often do you pretend to be working in order to avoid another task?						
4	I don't express opinions and ideas about my work because I am afraid that manager assigns me more tasks.						
5	I don't express opinions and ideas about my work because I think that working conditions are not going to change.						
6	How often do you take initiative at your work?						
7	I find motives in my job.						
8	I feel inspired when I work.						
9	If a colleague can do come of my work, then I let him/her do it.						

SECTION 5		(1) Totally disagree	(2) Disagree	(3) Partly disagree	(4) Partly agree	(5) Agree	(6) Totally agree
1	I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.						
2	I admire my supervisor's professional skills.						
3	I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/ her job.						
4	My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.						
5	My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.						
6	My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.						

7	My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.						
8	I like my supervisor very much as a person.						
9	My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.						
10	I don't mind working hard for my manager.						
11	I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.						
12	I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to further the interests of my work group.						

SECTION 6

This section includes questions that include some demographic information such as age, gender, and educational status.

Age: _____

Gender: Female / Male

Marital status: Single / Married

Education status: High school / Associate degree / Bachelor's degree / Master's degree / Doctorate (Ph.D.)

Total tenure: 0-5 years / 6-10 years / 11-15 years / 15 years and above

Tenure at current company: 0-5 years / 6-10 years / 11-15 years / 15 years and above

Position: Intern / Assistant specialist / Specialist / Department manager / Senior executive / Other

Sector: Finance / Education / Health / Tourism / Technology / Food Industry / Aviation / Other

