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İŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI
ÖRGÜTSEL DAVRANIŞ (İNG.) BİLİM DALI

**THE IMPACTS OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL VIRTUOUSNESS
AND SOCIALLY RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP ON EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING:
THE MEDIATING ROLE OF PERCEIVED SOCIAL CAPITAL**

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Danışman: DOÇ. DR. SEÇİL BÜLBÜL

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ABSTRACT

THE IMPACTS OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL VIRTUOUSNESS AND SOCIALLY RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP ON EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF PERCEIVED SOCIAL CAPITAL

In today's organizations, employees' well-being has become an important subject of research since the concept of employee well-being is essential in terms of economic, social, and psychological factors for an organization and individuals. Considering the subject's importance, this study aims to examine the relationship of employee well-being with perceived organizational virtuousness and socially responsible leadership and to test the mediating role of perceived social capital on these relationships. An online survey was used to collect the data from rationalizing the proposed model, and 311 employees were reached from various sectors in Istanbul. First, descriptive statistics and factor and reliability analyzes were performed, and then correlation and regression analyses were run to test the model. According to the results, perceived organizational virtuousness and socially responsible leadership were positively associated with employee well-being. It has also been revealed that social capital has significant partial mediating roles in both relations. To increase the well-being of employees, it is recommended that virtuous behaviors be expanded and shared more in organizations and that leaders create a favorable stakeholder culture environment for their employees. In addition, the establishment of social relations within the organization and the management of communication networks are also very crucial for organizations. Finally, since the scales used in the study were newly developed, it is recommended that the scales be used more with different concepts in future studies.

Keywords: Organizational virtuousness, Socially responsible leadership, Employee well-being, Social capital.

ÖZET

ALGILANAN ÖRGÜTSEL ERDEMLİLİK VE SOSYAL SORUMLULUK TEMELLİ LİDERLİĞİN ÇALIŞAN İYİ OLUŞU ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİLERİ: SOSYAL SERMAYE ALGISININ ARACI DEĞİŞKEN ROLÜ

Günümüz örgütlerinde, çalışan iyi oluşu kavramının, bir örgüt ve/veya bireyler için ekonomik, sosyal ve psikolojik faktörler açısından önem taşıması günümüzde önemli bir araştırma konusu haline gelmiştir. Buradan hareketle, bu çalışmanın amacı, çalışan iyi oluşu kavramının algılanan örgütsel erdemlilik ve sosyal sorumlu liderlik ile ilişkisini incelemek ve ayrıca her iki ilişkide sosyal sermaye algısının aracı rolünü incelemektir. Önerilen araştırma modelindeki değişkenler arasındaki ilişkileri analiz etmek üzere İstanbul'daki çeşitli sektörlerden 311 çalışandan çevrimiçi anket yoluyla örnekleme ulaşılmıştır. Modeli test etmek için tanımlayıcı istatistikler, faktör ve güvenilirlik analizleri, korelasyon analizi ve regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Araştırma sonuçlarına göre, algılanan örgütsel erdemlilik ve çalışan iyi oluşu arasında, ayrıca sosyal sorumlu liderlik ve çalışan iyi oluşu arasında da pozitif ilişkiler bulunmuştur. Diğer bir yandan, sosyal sermayenin her iki ilişkide de kısmi aracılık rolü olduğu ortaya konmuştur. Çalışanların iyi oluşlarını arttırmak için örgütlerde erdemli davranışların artırılması ve daha çok paylaşılması ve liderlerin çalışanları için elverişli paydaş kültürü ortamını oluşturması önerilir. Ayrıca kurum içinde sosyal ilişkilerin kurulması ve iletişim ağlarının iyi bir şekilde yönetilmesi de örgütler açısından oldukça önemlidir. Son olarak çalışma içinde kullanılan ölçeklerin yeni geliştirilmiş olması sebebiyle gelecekteki çalışmalarda farklı kavramlarla daha çok kullanılması önerilmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Örgütsel erdemlilik, Sosyal sorumluluk temelli liderlik, Çalışan iyi oluşu, Sosyal sermaye.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Increasing studies have been conducted investigating humans as an essential capital in recent years, and thus, organizations have desired to acquire and retain qualified employees. Previous studies have indicated that employees are internal customers who reach external customers, defined as clients. Accordingly, it is better to make it simple as *Happy employees make happy customers*. In recent years, especially with the effect of the pandemic, dramatic changes have occurred both in the structure of societies and in the organizational structures and their ways of doing business, which is seen as a subculture of the community. Some changes affecting the working environment are globalization, technological changes, increasing workload, competition, diversification among the employees, and the interlacing of work and family life. Such changes affect the well-being and performance of employees who spend most of their daily life in the workplace. Nowadays, the overlapping of work and family life due to remote working has highlighted the need to focus on employee well-being and mental health for human resources leaders. The Future Workplace 2021 HR Sentiment survey revealed that 68% of senior Human Resources leaders consider employee well-being and mental health a top priority (Meister, 2021).

Considering the well-being practices in the workplace from the perspective of Turkey, organizations have now begun to include and increase these practices. According to the results of Mercer Marsh Benefits (MMB) Turkey Health and Wellbeing Research Report (2021), well-being is an indispensable agenda for companies, and companies are planning to focus more on work-life balance, physical and mental health programs in line with the changing expectations with the effect of the pandemic. The Wellable 2020 Global Wellbeing Trend Survey listed the emerging well-being trends as follows: mental health (88%), telemedicine (87%), stress management/resilience (81%), mindfulness and meditation (69%), and health passport (63%).

Although companies have been focusing on well-being, especially with the effect of globalization and the pandemic, the basis of well-being as a concept extends from the definitions of happiness in philosophy to the subjective and psychological well-being mentioned in later research. The psychological or subjective well-being of employees has been studied in the literature increasingly, yet, the scarcity of studies focusing on *employee well-being* in an organizational context is remarkable. In addition, previously studied by Rice et al. (1980) and Rode (2004) also suggested that a different way should be followed to measure well-being in the workplace and stated that the general well-being construct would be insufficient to

measure the well-being of the employees. In today's societies, work and family life are a part of individuals' lives. Therefore, a more inclusive perspective of psychological and subjective well-being should be used to measure well-being at work. In other words, although many studies examine well-being in different contexts in the international literature, it can be said that there are not many studies covering the well-being concept, especially from the employees' perspective in an organizational context.

On the other hand, scholars suggest conducting studies to understand employees' well-being at work. Among the possible antecedents, perceived organizational virtuousness and socially responsible leadership (SRL) are considered crucial within this research. Virtuous behaviors experienced within the organization and by the leaders increase the flexibility and resilience of the employees. In addition, virtues perceived within the organization help individuals in difficult times and feel healthier physically and mentally thanks to virtuous behaviors. Moreover, organizational virtuousness has two-sided characteristics. The first is to create a strengthening effect on individuals by increasing their positive emotions, regulating their social relations, and establishing positive social relations without expecting anything in return. Another is buffering effect that protects from negative emotions and traumas (Cameron et al., 2004). Considering the leadership perspective, the other antecedent of the study, leadership includes ethical climate, corporate responsibility, and stakeholder relations within the organization. Employees, who seem as the primary stakeholder group, are a group that experiences the consequences of ethical violations and wrong economic decisions (the first decade of the 21st century). Consequently, retaining qualified talent and ensuring their welfare is at the heart of this leadership. When the relationship between leadership and well-being is examined, it is seen that responsible leaders take into account employees' well-being while doing their daily routine work. One of the components of socially responsible leadership, named managerial support, is focused on the well-being of employees (Doh et al., 2011).

Organizations are a subculture of the social culture we live in; in other words, they reflect social culture. Thus, it is predicted that the high socially responsible leadership perceptions of the individuals working in these organizations will contribute positively to social change and awareness. Considering the low number of SRL studies essential, the current study will contribute to the field. In addition, organizational virtuousness is a branch of positive organizational behavior, which Heugens et al. (2007) described as a new definition of organizational well-being. It is supposed that organizational virtuousness will positively affect the well-being of the employees since the virtues possessed make people feel good. Studies

have demonstrated that organizational virtuousness and socially responsible leadership have been seen under the positive organizational behavior notion. It calls attention to examining these two concepts with a broad horizon as independent variables to bridge theoretical gaps. As a result, the relations of organizational virtuousness and socially responsible leadership with employees' well-being will contribute to the gap since those two concepts are relatively new in the organizational context.

In addition to organizational virtuousness and socially responsible leadership, perceived social capital is another critical concept with several norms, social networks, and trust. The importance of social capital is not noticed in many studies based on concepts such as interpersonal relations, inter-institutional relations, social trust, social relations, and norms that directly affect these relations. Accordingly, it is vital to reveal how to benefit from the positive outputs of social capital in an organizational context with different variables. A study conducted with patients' families followed up for psychiatric reasons between 1999-2000 in Turkey revealed the relationship between social relationships and support for health and psychosocial well-being (Marmara Social Capital Scale). It mentions that the influence of social capital on human physical and mental health has also been critical. In organizations, creating trust between manager and organization and sustaining fair relationships increase employees' social capital, fostering positive individual and organizational outcomes. Besides, the literature has underlined the link between organizational virtuousness and social capital and socially responsible leadership and social capital. Not much study has revealed the mediating effect of social capital fit in the relationship between organizational virtuousness and employee well-being and socially responsible leadership and employee well-being.

Since socially responsible leadership is a subject that has just started to be studied in the Turkish context, the current research will contribute to the field of leadership with a different perspective. At the same time, the concept of employee well-being will also make a matching contribution if it directly measures the well-being of the employees under the organizational context. However, since the employee well-being scale is newly developed, its Turkish translation will be a reference for the validity and reliability of the scale for future studies. Therefore, the study's main aim is to reveal how organizational virtuousness and socially responsible leadership contribute to employee well-being through the level of social capital they have.

Concerning the preliminary literature review on the study concepts, the generated research questions are listed below:

Q1: What is the relationship of perceived organizational virtuousness with employee well-being?

Q2: What is the relationship of perceived socially responsible leadership with employee well-being?

Q3: If there is a relationship between organizational virtuousness and employee well-being, how does perceived social capital influence this relationship?

Q4: If there is a relationship between socially responsible leadership and employee well-being, how does perceived social capital influence this relationship?

A preliminary literature survey has been done to find the answer to these research questions, and a conceptual framework has been developed upon previous conceptual and empirical findings. Following the proposed conceptual framework, a research survey was applied to test the suggested hypothetical relations.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. The Concept of Employee Well-Being

2.1.1. Theoretical Foundations of Employee Well-Being

Well-being is a concept humanity has been pursuing and trying to understand for hundreds of years. The human is at the heart of the concept. As a result, since the concept of well-being has many definitions, it is challenging to fit it into a single mold (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Many explanations and descriptions of the concept are found in the literature rather than its definition. For example, according to Sonnentag (2015, p.261), well-being is defined as “a person’s hedonic experience of feeling good and the eudaimonic experience of fulfillment and purpose.”

Similarly, other broad definitions include optimal psychological functioning, experience, and people’s evaluations of their lives (Ryan & Deci, 2001, p.142). In the perspective of Ryff (1989a), well-being means revealing one’s existing potential and coping with the difficulties of existence. Furthermore, Waterman’s (1984, p.16) definition underlines the feelings that arise while exhibiting the behaviors required by the individual’s own potential based on eudaimonia, which is often translated as happiness. Bradburn (1969) has wondered how individuals cope with the problems they experience daily and has argued that if their positive situations are more than negative ones, their well-being would be higher; that is, they would be relatively happier. Diener et al. (1985, p.71), as distinct from the psychological well-being perspective, explain the concept of subjective well-being with the emotional aspects (positive and negative affect) and the cognitive-judgemental aspect (life satisfaction).

Well-being and happiness have been concepts used interchangeably. While the term was mainly expressed as happiness (Waterman, 1993; Diener, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Seligman, 2002), it was later named well-being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Diener, 2000; Diener & Ryan, 2009; Seligman, 2011) in research on that field. Considering the concept of happiness, it is seen that the term happiness has been the subject of many areas since ancient times. Since human beings are naturally based on hedonism and happiness (Tracey, 1993), they have tried to define happiness and reach it for centuries. The biggest aim of Plato’s philosophical endeavors was to achieve a higher moral level and happiness for individuals and society. Plato’s student Aristotle, on the other hand, argued that individuals must realize virtues to reach eudaimonia known as

happiness. The critical point here is that the means is one's pursuit of happiness, not the virtues (Aristotles, 2020, p.17).

The concept of happiness, which has existed for years, has once again been included in scientific studies from a humanistic perspective, which is accepted as one of the fields of positive psychology (Baumgardner & Crothers, 2010). Moreover, researchers such as Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi, Martin Seligman, Ed Diener, and Carol Ryff studied happiness and well-being under positive psychology. The positive psychology movement has occurred as a reaction to psychology preoccupied with pathological and negative aspects of human functioning and behavior (Luthans, 2002a). A group of research-oriented positive psychologists led by the psychologist Martin Seligman stated that positive psychology does not focus on what is wrong in humans. Focus on what is right and how it can be improved (Luthans et al., 2006; Diener, 2000; Peterson, 2000). In other words, although mainstream psychology schools focus on an individual's deficient, flawed, and sick aspects, positive psychology works on positive aspects such as altruism, gratitude, forgiveness, and so on.

On the other hand, Davis (2010) stated that positive psychology, which is open to improvement and contributes positively to organizational performance, is an underpinning element in the business world and contributes to human capital development. Researchers emphasize that positive organizational behavior should be internalized in an environment of economic uncertainty, globalization, constantly evolving technology, and competition (Luthans, 2002b). The concepts such as self-efficacy, psychological resilience, hope, optimism, well-being, emotional intelligence, gratitude, forgiveness, and spirituality are included within the scope of positive organizational behavior (Kutanis & Yıldız, 2014). Consequently, positive organizational behavior follows positive psychology that focuses on individuals' strengths and psychological capacities. In this context, positive psychology studies are scientific initiatives involving virtues, personality traits, and abilities to increase well-being (Carr, 2016).

As a result of research and studies, the concept of well-being has been divided into two sub-headings: "subjective well-being" and "psychological well-being." This distinction overlaps with the "hedonic" and "eudaimonic" approaches accepted in the positive psychology literature (Sonnentag, 2015; Kuzucu, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2001). While happiness, positive effects, low negative effects, and life satisfaction are seen in hedonic understanding, factors such as individual development and positive psychological functions are evaluated in eudaimonic knowledge (Dodge et al., 2012). Based on these two views, the hedonic view is associated with subjective well-being, including life satisfaction, higher positive affect than

negative ones (Diener, 2000; Diener, 1984), and eudaimonic approaches consider personal growth, self-realization, and the pursuit of meaning in life (Ryff, 1989a; Waterman 1993). The hedonistic point of view states that well-being consists of enjoying as much as possible and avoiding pain and discomfort (Carr, 2016). While the hedonic perspective results from instant good feelings, eudaimonia arises from fulfilling human needs and meeting these needs leads to human growth and maturity (Çiftçi, 2020). Moreover, in parallel with the literature, Waterman (1984) defined eudaimonia as “the feelings that accompany and be consistent with one’s true potential.” According to Ryan and Deci (2001), well-being can be perceived as a multidimensional phenomenon that includes both eudaimonic and hedonic concepts since it may be insufficient to explain it as a concept alone. Organizational studies are also based on both hedonic and eudaimonic approaches to well-being.

There are several constructs for explaining well-being: (i) context-free, which measures well-being in general, (ii) domain-specific focusing on a specific life area, i.e., family, work, or leisure life, (iii) a multi-dimensional approach is non-affective, and (iv) focusing on the affective state (Taris & Schaufeli, 2015). These conceptualizations have been considered Employee Well-Being (Zheng et al., 2015), Flourishing (Huppert & So, 2013), New Theory of Well-being (Seligman, 2011), Subjective Well-Being (Diener, 2000), and Psychological Well-Being (Ryff, 1989a). The following chapter presents employee well-being as a domain-specific construct within this study.

2.1.2. The Definition of Employee Well-Being

Many concepts related to well-being include pleasure, satisfaction, social well-being, subjective well-being, psychological well-being, and quality of life (Bayram et al., 2004). Since well-being has many definitions and theoretical roots, as mentioned in the previous part, it expresses an individual’s health status and includes their life satisfaction and work satisfaction (Schulte & Vainio, 2010). Therefore, any improvement in employee well-being contributes to individual and organizational consequences (Wilks & Neto, 2013). In this sense, organizations should attach importance to the well-being of individuals in the workplace to maintain their existence, protect, and continue their development in changing environmental conditions (Spreitzer & Porath, 2012), and so studying employee well-being has become a crucial issue in similar fields with the field of organizational behavior.

On the other hand, working life occupies an important place in individuals’ lives. It is significant for a person not only to earn an income but also to be happy with the job, to be

satisfied with the job, and to use their knowledge and skills (Zheng et al., 2015). Moreover, in connection with the importance of business life in people's lives, Freud stated that people having mental health conditions have two crucial characteristics working and loving (Kılıçcı, 2006). As a result, practitioners emphasize employees' well-being at work because working is a necessary period of their lives. In today's society, family and business have become a part of people's lives. As stated in many previous studies (e.g., Rice et al., 1980; Rode, 2004), well-being explained by the general framework is not considered sufficient to measure well-being in business life. Workplace conditions differ significantly from everyday life situations; thus, the concept defined as employee well-being needs to be thoroughly studied and should be distinguished from general well-being (Zheng et al., 2015).

From the widespread definition of employee well-being, the term includes individuals' actualization experiences both at and outside of work and their psychological, physical, and health conditions (Danna & Griffin, 1999). Similarly, other definitions underline employees' mental condition and life quality at work (Siegrit et al., 2006) and state emotional stability, work actualization, and overall well-being (Vanhala & Tuomi, 2006). In other words, according to Siegrit et al. (2006), employee well-being should consider employees' work and health conditions, life satisfaction, and family relations. Additionally, Harter et al. (2002) and Currie (2001) have explained the well-being of employees with both positive and negative organizational factors by taking a multidimensional perspective. In general, employee well-being is defined as a total individual's experience and functioning in the workplace (Warr, 1987). In Keyes (2005)'s mental health model, social, psychological, and subjective well-being are the items used to measure mental health. Consequently, the differences and the broad scope of the concept in the field of employee well-being have enabled researchers to develop various models.

According to mental health and well-being literature, Page and Vella-Brodrick (2009) have counted subjective well-being, psychological well-being, work-related affect, and job satisfaction in their employee well-being model. In this model shown in Figure 1, Daniels's (2000) model enlightens employees' subjective well-being (SWB) involving life satisfaction and dispositional affect. Both job satisfaction and work-related affect might generate employees' workplace well-being (WWB). Finally, the third component of Page and Vella-Brodrick's (2009) model is psychological well-being (PWB) which consists of six dimensions adapted from Ryff (1989a)'s conceptualization such as self-acceptance, positive relations with others, environmental mastery, autonomy, personal growth, and purpose in life.

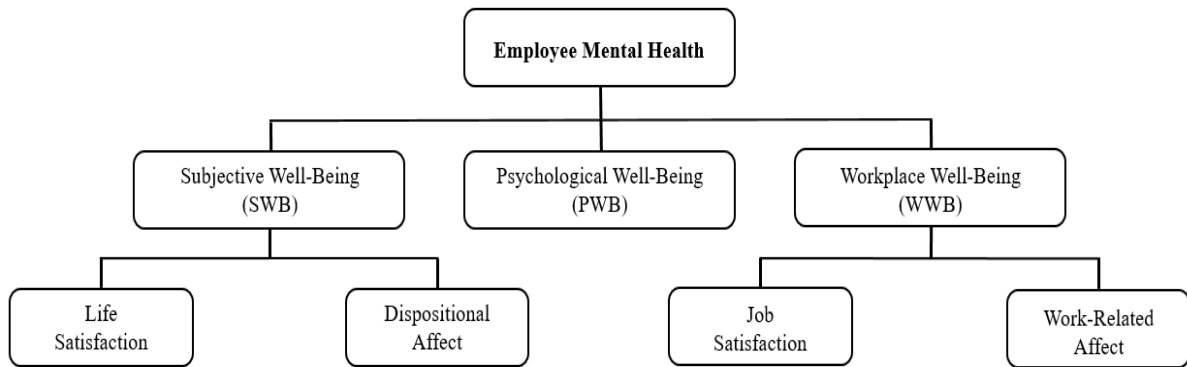


Figure 1. Page and Vella-Brodrick’s Employee Mental Health Model

Source: Page, K. M., & Vella-Brodrick, D. A. (2009). The ‘what’, ‘why’ and ‘how’ of employee well-being: A new model. *Social Indicators Research*, 90(3), p.451.

Based on the model of employee mental health (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009), the model has not been affirmed, and no instrument has been developed. Zheng and friends (2015) developed that model under a multiple measure approach combined with the positive and negative affect and cognitive judgment over employee’s job satisfaction. This study will examine employee well-being through the model developed by Page and Vella-Brodrick (2009) and tested by Zheng et al. (2015). As a result, employee well-being will be examined extensively by three core components: life well-being (or subjective well-being), workplace well-being, and psychological well-being.

2.1.3. Dimensions of Employee Well-Being

Business life as a living space is considered a crucial sub-dimension that impacts individuals’ well-being (Schulte & Vainio, 2010). According to Zheng et al. (2015), since working life contains various dynamics together, employee well-being is needed to examine through different dimensions rather than the concept of well-being used in a broader sense. Therefore, they determined employee well-being with three core aspects: life/subjective well-being (general quality of life), psychological well-being (realization of one’s true potential), and workplace well-being (job satisfaction and work-related affect).

Subjective well-being, also known as life well-being, to Zheng and friends (2015), is the first aspect of employee well-being. It is generally defined as how individuals evaluate and perceive their own lives and their level of satisfaction with their own lives (Waterman, 1993).

As seen in the definition, the concept is very comprehensive that includes all kinds of evaluations of a person's life (Diener et al., 2017), and it also involves affections that measure pleasant or unpleasant emotional states and cognitive evaluations of individuals' lives that measures satisfaction with life (Diener, 2000). In the light of entirely internal evaluations, this concept is explained with a hedonic sense, as it questions the expectations from life, goals, experiences, beliefs, and values of the individual. Therefore, subjective well-being has three characteristics (Diener, 1984): (i) it is a subjective evaluation depending on one's experience, (ii) it includes both positive and negative affect, and finally, (iii) it is the product of an evaluation for all areas of life. One of the areas of life is the working place. Thus the concept of employees' subjective well-being seeks answers to how employees feel and think about their job and job conditions and how these variables influence their lives in general (Ilies, Aw, & Pluut 2015). Subjective well-being in a workplace is defined as employees' satisfaction with their job and dispositional affect experiencing both positive and negative emotions at work (Zheng et al., 2015; Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009).

The second central aspect of employee well-being is psychological well-being. Ryff (1995) and Ryan and Deci (2001) define psychological well-being as positive psychological functioning in its simplest form as living one's life satisfactorily and realizing one's potential. In other words, it is possible to reveal psychological well-being through the individual's self-actualization, relationship with other people, and what they get from life and contributes to themselves (Kuzucu, 2006). Different perspectives in the literature, such as Maslow (1968)'s self-actualization and Rogers (1961)'s fully functioning person, comprise a basis for these definitions. Psychological well-being, described as an individual's overall effectiveness, is explained from the perspective of eudaimonia (Waterman, 1984). As a result of Ryff (1989a, 1989b)'s studies on these grounds, she argued that psychological well-being should be examined more generally and comprehensively. Thus she developed a six-dimensional model to explain the concept, as seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Conceptualization of the Six Dimensions of Psychological Well-Being

Dimensions	Descriptions
Self-acceptance	Positive attitude towards the self, multiple aspects of self, good and bad qualities, feeling positive about past life.
Positive relations with others	Warm, satisfying, trusting relationships with others, the welfare of others, strong empathy, affection, and intimacy, understanding give and take of human relationships.
Autonomy	Self-determining and independent, resisting social pressures to think and act in certain ways, regulating behavior from within, evaluating self by personal standards.
Environmental mastery	A sense of mastery and competence in managing the environment, controlling complex array of external activities, effective use of surrounding opportunities, choosing or creating contexts suitable to personal needs and values.
Purpose in life	Having goals in life and a sense of directedness, feeling there is meaning to present and past life, beliefs that give life purpose, having aims and objectives for living.
Personal growth	A feeling of continued development, the self as growing and expanding, open to new experiences, sense of realizing his/her potential, improvement in self and behavior over time, changing in ways that reflect more self-knowledge and effectiveness.

Source: Ryff, C. D. (1989a). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(6), p. 1071-1072.

Workplace well-being is the third main aspect of employee well-being. In the model of employee mental health (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009), workplace well-being is considered within the scope of job satisfaction and work-related affect. It is possible to mention that job satisfaction, defined by Locke (1976) as a “pleasure or positive affective state arising from the evaluation of one’s work or work experiences,” represents well-being in an organizational context with a hedonic perspective. In this sense, Rothmann (2008) focused on studies related to subjective well-being, and job satisfaction was evaluated as job-oriented well-being. On the other hand, the work-related affect is related to employees’ evaluations of their working life experiences and includes cognitive and emotional elements. If an employee has high job satisfaction and experiences positive emotions such as happiness and fun more often than negative ones, they have high levels of well-being (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011). In other words, workplace well-being is not only about job satisfaction but also about the positive emotions individuals experience at work (Zheng et al., 2015). Most studies (Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003; Spector, 1997) argue that employee satisfaction and employee well-being should be on

the priority list of employers as an essential issues. It is because employees with a high level of well-being contribute to organizational outcomes more and are more productive.

2.1.4. Antecedents and Consequences of Employee Well-Being

2.1.4.1. Antecedents of Employee Well-Being

There is a link between employee well-being and the organization's health; thus, employee well-being occupies a vital place in organizations for continuity and development of organizations. (Spreitzer & Porath, 2012). Accordingly, employee well-being underlines the physical and mental health of people in the organization. Organizations should provide a stress-free and physically safe environment for employees to achieve their full potential (Tehrani et al., 2007; Currie, 2001). Job stressors are physiological and psychological strains in any work environment. Therefore, factors such as workloads, responsibilities, and job difficulties causing high levels of work stress lead to increased stress symptoms (Sonntag, 2015). A stressful environment that may arise in the workplace will negatively affect the employees' performance, productivity, attendance, job commitment, and job satisfaction. Thus it will indirectly reduce the individuals' level of well-being. A person who is unhappy at work will reflect these negativities in other areas of their life; consequently, it will cause work-family conflict (Dursun & İřtar, 2014). In other words, spending more time on work causes not allocating the necessary time and attention to family life, resulting in a "feeling of loss" (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Thus, it is perceived as the deterioration of the individual's well-being due to work-family conflict (Tayfur & Arslan, 2013).

Other important variables named the interpersonal environment influence employee well-being at work, such as leadership process, interpersonal relations, and social support. Under this point of view, positive leadership styles (Nielsen et al., 2008), higher social support (Halbesleben & Buckley 2006; Ter Doest & De Jonge 2006), and superior-subordinate relationships (Akduman, 2015) are synchronized with well-being. Furthermore, significant associations between leadership approaches and employee well-being were found (Rahimnia & Sharifirad, 2015; Kelloway et al., 2013). On the other hand, considering the COVID-19 pandemic, it has been seen that employees need organizational and social support, especially in the healthcare sector (Ripp, Peccoraro, & Charney, 2020; Hamouche, 2020).

Implementing human resources functions and policies reasonably also affects employee well-being in the workplace (Akduman, 2015). Nowadays, studies on the subject have

increased, various human resources projects related to well-being at work have been developed, and even new departments have begun to be established in organizations (Aygül, 2013). As further stated by Chuang and Liao (2010), establishing proper promotion channels and better payment policies for all employees can enhance employees' well-being thanks to an emphasis on fairness in the work environment. Moreover, recent studies have revealed the link between organizational justice and employees' health and well-being. These results are shown that high organizational justice increases positive health indicators like well-being (Ndjaboue, Brisson, & Vezina, 2012; Robbins, Ford, & Tetrick, 2012).

Autonomy and other job resources positively affect work engagement and positive results in well-being (Kinnunen & Feldt, 2013; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009; De Lange, De Witte, & Notelaers, 2008). Under the psychological well-being approach, Ryff (1989a) presents that autonomy is one of the components of well-being. Autonomy is the premise of creativity as it helps individuals think and act differently (Liu, Chen, & Yao, 2010). In the research, it has been concluded that high task autonomy (Zhou, 1998) and autonomy (Liu, Chen, & Yao, 2010) bring out creative thinking. Accordingly, providing the conditions such as thinking that employees contribute to the organization, believing in what they can do, and trusting themselves and their work, colleagues and managers are a prerequisite for employee happiness or well-being (Pryce-Jones, 2010).

Today, it is emphasized that employee happiness is paramount in terms of employees and organizational aspects. It has been stated that employee happiness and, in a sense, well-being at work will increase organizational success (Gavin & Mason, 2004). Rego, Ribeiro, and Cunha (2010) also stated that increasing employee happiness would improve both the individual psychological health of the employees and the overall psychological health of the organization.

2.1.4.2. Consequences of Employee Well-Being

Studies related to employee well-being have focused on the performance and productivity of employees and have suggested curial presumption to employers about the subject. Maintaining employee well-being has a positive effect on employees' performance. It brings higher productivity, higher profitability, and higher positivity due to employees' positive emotions and positive workplace perceptions of the work environment. Moreover, much research ascertains that employees, who have a greater level of psychological well-being and overcome negative affects, get higher performance scores from their leaders (Taris & Schaufeli,

2015; Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002). In conclusion, psychological well-being is positively associated with job performance (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000).

Employee well-being is also of interest for another reason; employee engagement or retention, which means higher organizational commitment and lower turnover (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002). It is suggested that the relationship between employees' well-being and engagement is important for higher organizational sustainability under challenging situations (Haque, 2021; Gerdeman, 2020). On the other hand, Wright and Bonett (1992) found that employees do not likely stay at their job as long as they experience low job satisfaction and well-being at work. Likewise, those with low satisfaction and well-being at work can change not only their current jobs but also their professions.

Ryff (1989a) explained the concept of well-being with six dimensions, and one of the dimensions is autonomy. Autonomy is an essential antecedent of creativity (Liu, Chen, & Yao, 2010); thus, well-being can be helpful for employees' creativeness at work. In conclusion, employees with high well-being may think differently and suggest valuable ideas for the organization. Moreover, according to Wright and Cropanzano (2000), those with a high level of well-being have better mental and physical health, are more productive in the workplace, and live longer in favor of their happy lives. Unlike the employees with higher well-being, those with lower well-being may present counterproductive work behavior or unethical behavior in the organizations (Sonnentag, 2015).

The low well-being observed in the workplace causes changes in employees' attitudes and behaviors and some changes in their physical health. Considering the deadly consequences of high blood pressure, those working in a stressful work environment are at risk of high blood pressure. Evidence shows a negative link between well-being and pulse product (Wright et al., 2009). In other words, if employees have more increased well-being in the work environment, their pulse products, and cardiovascular problems will be lower.

Considering employee well-being literature, there is a great emphasis and interest in the subject. Employee well-being is significantly associated with work outcomes, including job performance, employee engagement or retention, creativity, counterproductive work behavior or unethical behavior, and physical health (Wright et al., 2009). In addition, studies show that people spend most of their time at work and cope with any negative situation in the workplace by spending their physical, cognitive, and emotional resources. It shows how work can physically and psychically affect human health (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004). As a result, examining employee well-being is very important for both employees and employers.

2.2. The Concept of Organizational Virtuosity

2.2.1. The Differences of Virtue with the Close Notions

While explaining the concept of virtue, the richness of concepts such as morality, ethics, value, goodness, and happiness draws attention. Explaining the other concepts related to virtue is important to reveal the concept. Since the concept of virtue is both a framework and a basis for different concepts, it is better to define the concepts of morality and ethics around it (Şener, 2018).

Although ethics and morality are often used in the same sense, there are crucial differences between them. Morality explains what is good or bad, right or wrong. Ethics examines how this behavior is good-bad or right-wrong (Karaman, 2000). Ethics, which is called moral philosophy, has two main functions: (1) ethics is a discipline examining morality philosophically, and (2) it is a system of moral principles. Ethics defines and evaluates moral actions and studies moral concepts such as freewill, responsibility, conscience, virtue, duty, good, and bad (Günay, 2010). According to Adugit (2013), ethics analyze people and their behaviors in terms of value. As regards these definitions, ethics is a science that studies morality. At the same time, it is similar to morality as it is a system determining professional principles and rules. Moreover, ethics has made significant progress based on extensive literature, especially in the second half of the 20th century. With the aggravation of societal, social, political, economic, and legal problems worldwide, ethics focuses more on these problems (Gürler, 2007).

The concepts of morality and ethics converge around the concept of justice and form the concepts such as freedom, happiness, and equality. While morality differs from society to society under the needs of the ages and has a local meaning, ethics is a universal concept. The concept of morality underlines harmony, whereas ethics emphasize a principle. Morality takes its origins from historical, traditional, anthropological, political, and psychosocial processes, but on the other hand, ethics takes its principled basis from reason and the universal rules of logic (Tunçel & Önkül, 2018).

The concept of virtuousness lies based on morality, and morality constitutes the individual dimension of virtuousness (Özkul, 2009). Virtue expresses a personality trait in a moral sense. In this context, morally virtuous people are strongly committed to the shared moral values of society (Ocak, 2011). In other words, you can be moral but not virtuous; however,

you cannot be virtuous without being moral (Şener, 2018). Character and virtue should be at the center of ethics (MacIntyre, 2001; Pence, 1993); thus, it can be inferred that virtues are the subject of ethics. However, according to the views suggesting that virtuousness is different from other normative theories, ethics generally emphasizes avoiding negativities and achieving positive results, while virtuousness aims to achieve the highest moral good (Cameron & Caza, 2002; Cameron, Bright, & Caza, 2004). Ethics asks, “What is my obligation? How can harm be avoided?” while virtue asks, “What is ennobling? How can good be produced?”. The questions of morality are “What is right? What is moral?” and the equivalence with these questions in virtue: “What is best? What is honorable?” (Cameron, 2003).

In the dictionary of philosophical terms, Cevizci (2003) defines virtue as the power of the human will to act for goodness and morally tend towards good and right behavior. Virtue is the moral and intellectual perfection of human character and behavior (Bright, Winn, & Kanov, 2014; Adugit, 2013; Cameron, 2011). Virtues are excellent habits and tempers deriving from our character (Gough, 2002). In the definitions of virtue, some concepts such as moral, will, character, habit, proportionality, and good orientation are common. Therefore, virtue is the subject of ethics. Individuals act virtuously by balancing excesses with wisdom (MacIntyre, 2001).

On the other hand, Socrates taught his students to know themselves and not to overdo anything. According to Socrates, wisdom and temperance are the main virtues (Platon, 2007; Gough, 2002). Aristotle also explains this balancing topic: a virtuous choice is the middle of two extreme options. For example, the middle ground between being cold and being overly kind to someone is the virtuous choice of friendly behavior (Kleinman, 2018). Virtue is an individual’s characteristic for self-actualization (Küçükalp, 2008; Provis, 2010).

Moreover, in positive psychology studies that aim to increase lasting happiness (Seligman, 2007), results have indicated that virtue provides individual and organizational happiness (Sheldon & King, 2001). For this reason, the concept of virtue has attracted the attention of organizational and behavioral researchers in recent years. Within the framework of positive psychology, the concept of virtue in business life has started to be discussed and examined in two ways: virtue in the workplace and organizational virtuousness (Akyüz, 2017). In this study, the concept of virtue will be discussed as organizational virtuousness.

2.2.2. The Definition of Organizational Virtuosity

Being virtuous is defined as “individuals do their part.” The way to be virtuous is to know. An individual will be virtuous if they know their humanity and does what is necessary for humanity. Based on the definition, virtue is a concept that is valid not only for individuals but also for organizations (Torlak, 2008). Individual virtue has contributed to the organization because virtuousness at the individual level facilitates virtuousness at the organizational level (Cameron et al., 2004; Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2007; Erkmen & Esen, 2012). Moreover, Cameron (1986) adds that organizations can acquire virtuousness thanks to their human factor, and there is no virtuousness for an organization whose system does not involve an individual.

Although virtue is an individual concept, it expands within the organization through leadership, colleagues, and informal systems. This transition from the individual level to the organizational level is called the reinforcing effect or “virtuous cycle” (Caza, Barker, & Cameron, 2004; Meyer, 2018). Employees who witness each other’s virtues in the organization tend to repeat and respond to those virtues. Positive affects lead to positive behaviors, arousing more positive affects (Seligman, 2002). Thus, a virtuous cycle came into sight. The capacity, which spreads within the organization and is increasingly an element of organizational culture, is called “virtuousness” (Caza et al., 2004). Virtuousness is a part of organizational culture and is concerned with the moral goals of the organization (Park & Peterson, 2003). Organizational virtuousness is defined as “a concept that includes individuals’ actions, collective activities, cultural attributes, or processes that enable dissemination and perpetuation of virtuousness in an organization” (Cameron et al., 2004).

The term, organizational virtuousness, adds value to the organization for the improvement and development of organizational communication and organizational culture, and it is also a concept that has the potential to lead organizational success. Organizational virtuousness is generally explained by the characteristics such as “organizational goodness, social betterment, tolerance, integrity, and moral goodness” (Erkmen & Esen, 2012). Therefore, it is possible to explain organizational virtuousness with three key definitional attributes that complete each other: moral goodness, human impact, and social betterment (Cameron et al., 2004). The attributes are briefly expressed as follows:

- *Moral goodness*: Virtuousness is explained by moral excellence, which encompasses what is right, what is wrong, or what is worthwhile, and it is also one of the key characteristics of organizational virtuousness (Cameron, 2003). In addition, the moral

component of virtuousness emphasizes the importance of its own sake and goods of first intent for individuals and organizations (Park & Peterson, 2003).

- *Human impact*: Human impact, which is another important feature of organizational virtuousness, includes some factors such as moral character, a meaningful purpose, one's control, and resilience. In other words, it emphasizes that if there is no human impact on individuals' behavior, this behavior is not considered virtuous (Bright, Cameron, & Caza, 2006).
- *Social betterment*: It is concerned with benefits regardless of reciprocity or reward and social values related to an individual's interests (Akyüz, 2017). Virtuousness characterized by social betterment goes beyond personal interests and creates social value, and it makes virtuousness different from ethics, citizenship behavior, and social responsibility (Bright et al., 2006).

Neither an individual nor an organization can be properly attributed as virtuous or nonvirtuous. No single tool can also measure virtuousness, including multiple indicators. Thus, Cameron et al. (2004) suggested that there are various psychological tools to evaluate individual virtue. The organizational virtuousness scale, which consists of five dimensions: optimism, trust, compassion, integrity, and forgiveness, was developed by the researchers. As a result, the five-dimensional scale will be used to measure organizational virtuousness within this study.

2.2.3. Dimensions of Organizational Virtuousness

Although the concept of virtue is mainly discussed in a philosophical framework, it is also used theoretically and structurally in organizational studies. Some researchers involved virtuousness studies in organizational research due to their critical influence. Meanwhile, some researchers have reviewed organizational virtuousness practically and designed a scale to measure it (Kooshki & Zeinabadi, 2015). Cameron et al. (2004) examined organizational virtuousness in five dimensions. The dimensions forming the model are described below:

- *Optimism*: Optimism, which is also a positive psychological capital dimension, expresses the belief of the organization's members that they can do good things and be successful despite difficulties. A deep sense of purpose also guides the actions (Rego, Ribeiro, Cunha, & Jesuino, 2011).
- *Trust*: It represents respect, confidence, and courtesy towards both the organization and the individuals in the organization (Erkmen & Esen, 2012; Akyüz, 2017).

- *Compassion*: It means that employees care, worry, and treat each other with kindness. In this dimension, employees are related and exhibit mutually loyal behaviors (Hamrahi et al., 2015).
- *Integrity*: It means staying on the straight and narrow whatever the case is and encouraging dignity in this way. This dimension demonstrates honor and righteousness. In other words, it is defined as being honorable and defending righteousness in all situations (Cameron et al., 2004). Integrity in individuals has been associated with high self-confidence, sincerity, self-esteem, and positive outcomes (Cameron, 2003).
- *Forgiveness*: Forgiveness does not consider mistakes a frustrating problem, but it treats them as a phenomenon gaining an advantage from the mistakes. The dimension states that mistakes can be regarded as an opportunity, and people can forgive those mistakes. The important point is to turn the mistakes into an advantage (Ziapour, Bistoni, & Afsari, 2015).

Erkmen and Esen (2012)'s scale adaptation study revealed that organizational virtuousness in Turkish culture consists of three dimensions (integrity and forgiveness - trust and compassion - optimism). Later, the same scale was adapted by Akyüz and Alici (2019), concluding that the scale is three-dimensional in Turkish culture. Both studies showed that organizational virtuousness in Turkish culture is expressed through three instead of five dimensions. Researchers explained the reason as overlapping some dimensions and participants' perception of some items as similar or close to each other.

The way to understand the concept of virtuousness in organizations is to explain it on a continuum. While a state of normality is right in the middle of the continuum, negative deviance is on the left end of the continuum, and positive deviance is on the right end of the continuum. When considering the continuum concept at the individual level, we see the state of illness on the left, health in the middle, and the state of physical fitness or psychological flow on the positive deviance side (Cameron, 2003). A similar continuum is also experienced in organizations. Left-side focus in organizations emphasizes recovery, healing, and problem-solving. It is a structure demonstrating "repair the damage" or "do no harm" from an ethical point of view. Therefore, the left side requires preventing wrong rather than advancing well. The right side of the continuum underlines the concepts of abundance, positivity, and vitality. The right-side structure is consistent with "enable the best" or "do good," increasing virtuous thinking. Normal or ethical behavior is seen in the middle point (Bright et al., 2006).

Table 2. A Continuum Illustrating Positive Deviance

Phenomenon	Negative Deviance	Normal	Positive Deviance
Physiology	Illness	Health	Wellness
Effectiveness	Ineffective	Effective	Excellence
Relationships	Harmful	Helpful	Honoring
Ethics	Unethical	Ethical	Virtuousness

Source: Bright, D. S., Cameron, K. S., & Caza, A. (2006). The Amplifying and Buffering Effects of Virtuousness in Downsized Organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 64, p. 250.

The current study explores the concept of virtuousness, which is on the right end of the continuum. Researchers will discuss the existence of organizational virtuousness and its possible relationships with other concepts empirically. Special attention will be paid to the relationship of organizational virtuousness with employee well-being and social capital in the organization.

2.2.4. Organizational Virtuousness and Effectiveness

Recently, it has been stated that positive organizational behavior has been interiorized instead of negative behaviors in organizations under the umbrella of positive psychology (Kutanis & Oruç, 2014). Positive organizational behavior explains the virtuous organization as fulfilling its obligations internally and externally and being motivated to achieve the best and the highest individual potential (Cameron & Caza, 2002). Based on the explanations, some scandals and corruption in society, especially in organizations, have caused researchers to study virtuous organizations (Rego et al., 2010). In other words, virtuous organizations can survive and gain a respectable identity in their environment as long as there is no major economic shock. Individuals' positive behavior is the factor that enables the dissemination and perpetuation of virtuousness within the organization. Virtuous managers motivate their employees to have positive emotions; thus, they increase their performance and become role models for their employees (Tapan, 2019).

Cameron (2003) stated that the positive relationship between performance and virtuousness may be an important issue that needs to be emphasized and explored from different

perspectives. Cameron et al. (2004) stated a strong and positive relationship between performance and organizational virtuousness the following year. They expressed this association with two key attributes of virtuousness. The first of these is the “amplifying qualities,” which encourage the reproduction of positive results, and the other is the “buffering qualities,” which protect against some negative attacks. According to the results of the studies, virtuousness providing an *amplifying effect* reveals positive emotions, social capital, and prosocial behaviors in employees and encourages them to engage in virtuous behavior. It enables the spread of virtuous behavior in organizations (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004; Bright et al., 2006). On the other hand, the positive effect of virtuousness on resilience, sense of efficacy, and solidarity *buffers* the negativities caused by stress and traumas in organizations. Organizational virtuousness provides flexibility and resilience at the individual and group level (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). In addition, those who perceive virtues tend to be healthier physically and spiritually (Ryff & Singer, 1998).

Considering the positive effects of virtues on individuals at the individual level, the dissemination and perpetuation of virtuous behaviors in the organization may bring positive organizational outcomes at the organizational level (Cameron, 2003).

Every organization, whether profit-oriented or not, must be virtuous. The subject of organizational virtuousness includes the individual and ensures the social acceptance of the organizations formed by individuals with their reputations in society. Thus, organizational virtuousness is highly important for every organization and community’s image, reputation, and future (Torlak, 2008). Virtuous organizations provide more individual and social benefits since they give confidence to their employees (Bolino, Turnley, & Bloodgood, 2002). Organizations with a high level of virtuousness might be more creative and innovative. Thus, those organizations become more successful than their competitors, and their profitability increases accordingly. Considered in terms of customers, it increases their commitment to the organization (Akyüz, 2017; Caza et al., 2004).

Virtuous organizations bring an ethical perspective to their cultures. Organizations with higher virtuousness train productive and creative leaders who enable their employees to be successful thanks to their team-oriented behavior models (Froman, 2010). Leaders, organizations, and employees are expected to be virtuous because virtuous leaders increase their employees’ performance. Virtuous leaders help employees develop new ideas and projects by giving them personal freedom and encouraging them to use their skills (Bertrand, 2009). In other words, employee behaviors should be enabled to ensure virtuousness within the

organization (Cameron et al., 2004). The manager is not a control mechanism but an incentive factor in an organization where virtuousness is developed (Torlak, 2008).

Based on virtue ethics studies (Hackett & Wang, 2012), virtues have three main effects on leaders and employees: (i) promoting ethical behavior, (ii) experiencing goodness and excellent character traits, and (iii) increasing performance. Moreover, some concepts that organizational virtuousness effects have been revealed by other studies, such as positive emotions (Seligman, 2002), performance, participation, teamwork, positive organizational climate (Cameron et al., 2004), organizational citizenship behavior (Ribeiro & Rego, 2009; Rego et al., 2010), organizational support, performance, and organizational identification (Bacaksız, 2016), ethical climate (Asad, Naseem, & Faiz, 2017), personnel empowerment (Akbolat, Durmuş, & Ünal, 2017), and job satisfaction (Kahveci, Kotbaş, & Bayram, 2019).

Virtuous organizations can act more flexibly in unexpected situations, especially during downsizing. For example, it has been demonstrated that these organizations exhibit a stable performance during an environmental crisis (Cameron, 2003). In another study, organizational virtuousness was grouped with positive organizational behavior topics such as organizational citizenship behavior, flexibility, gratitude, and forgiveness (Searle & Barbuto, 2011). Moreover, individuals' happiness, performance, and belief in self-actualization increase when the virtuousness criteria are met in the organizational environment (Donaldson & Ko, 2010). These organizations face less negativity, and even if they do, they cope with negativity more easily (Cameron et al., 2004).

2.2.5. The Relationship between Organizational Virtuousness and Employee Well-Being

In the global world where competition increases daily, organizations have begun to consider the happiness of their employees more. Organizations have also realized how vital employee well-being is for organizational performance and innovation in such an environment. For this reason, security and well-being are essential to compensate for uncertain environmental conditions and fluctuations (Engwall & Hadjikhani, 2014). According to Tehrani et al. (2007), a stress-free and physically safe environment should be created for the employees' physical and mental health. Well-being provides both individual performance and employee retention, loyalty, and corporate social responsibility (Gorgenyi-Hegyes, Nathan, & Fekete-Farkas, 2021). Since employee happiness is important both individually and organizationally, employee well-being brings organizational success (Rego et al., 2010).

In this case, how do institutions ensure the happiness of their employees? Previous studies point out virtuousness which is the best of the human condition, as a necessary condition for well-being (Cameron et al., 2004; Cameron & Caza, 2013). Virtuousness is important for individuals and organizations. If the employees in the organization realize that the organization they work for exhibits virtuous behaviors, they have positive attitudes towards the organization (Dutton & Heaphy, 2003). Employees in a virtuous organization are more creative in solving problems and happier in reducing distress (Fridrickson, 2001). Since virtues play a vital role in difficult times, individuals perceiving virtues tend to be healthier physically and mentally (Ryff & Singer, 1998). In other words, it has been underlined that virtues support psychological and physical health (Cameron, 2003; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). On the other hand, the positive effect of organizational virtuousness on resilience, sense of effectiveness, and solidarity buffers the negative effects of stress and trauma in organizations (Cameron, 2003). Individuals in virtuous organizations experience less psychological stress and less destructive behavior in response to unfavorable conditions (Caza et al., 2004).

The virtuous behaviors experienced by the employees in the workplace improve the individual's self-respect and increase human capital and well-being. (Cameron & Winn, 2012). A result of virtuous behavior in the workplace is well-being since it fosters human capital ultimately. Some previous studies have demonstrated the relationship between organizational virtuousness and employee well-being. Virtues contribute to experiencing positive emotions as they are associated with psychological and physical health (Şener, 2018). Organizational virtuousness has been beneficial to employee health. Virtue in the organization means a positive workplace, which is very beneficial for employee health, mentally and physically. Employees experience virtuousness at work through levels of optimism, trust, compassion, integrity, and forgiveness, and such experiences result in subjective well-being (Rego et al., 2011). For instance, a positive relationship between a virtuous organizational climate and well-being has been examined in a more recent study of daycare centers in Finland (Viitala, Tanskanen, & Sääntti, 2015). In light of the empirical studies, it is expected that organizational virtuousness is positively associated with individual outcomes. In other words, virtuous activities and processes experienced in an organization might contribute to employees' well-being at work. Thus, the first hypothesis of the study is stated as follows:

H1: There is a positive relationship between organizational virtuousness and employee well-being.

2.3. The Concept of Socially Responsible Leadership

2.3.1. Theoretical Foundations of Socially Responsible Leadership

SRL style has been counted among contemporary leadership theories. Underlying the concept of SRL, one of the most recent and widely used models to define the concept is the social change model. When another theory is examined, we come across the stakeholder theory, which underlines that organizations should be more inclusive in the face of some problems and scandals and that they are responsible to all their stakeholders and shareholders. Considering the model and the theory, SRL has a new meaning, unlike the mainstream leadership approaches. In this chapter, the model and the theory will be explained.

2.3.1.1. Social Change Model of Leadership

Socially responsible leadership style is examined in the research model within the scope of the study. One of the pillars of this style is the Social Change Model (SCM). The model is considered among the contemporary leadership approaches in which leadership is seen as more democratic (Özgan & Öztuzcu, 2016; Skendall, 2012; Buschlen & Dvorak, 2011). The SCM, among the most contemporary and widely used models in leadership development, is a leadership model specifically designed to meet the leadership development needs of university students (Page, 2010; Dugan, Komives, & Segar, 2008). According to the Higher Education Research Institute - HERI (1996), the Social Change Model of Leadership Development focused on students' social change and revealed which knowledge, values, or skills needed to be developed to participate in effective leadership (Wagner, 2006). Two central principles are associated with SCM (HERI, 1996, p.19). These principles are as follows:

- To increase the development and learning of each individual. Self-Knowledge; understanding and recognizing one's abilities, values, interests, and capacities for effective leadership. Leadership Ability; is the actuation capacity of the individual and others to serve society and work collaboratively.
- To achieve positive social change within the society or organization. In other words, to work to benefit the community and society's welfare.

Applying the model means using individual values in one's life and interacting with others. In short, the model includes movements to take care of the environment and improve humanistic conditions (Wagner, Ostick, & Komives, 2010; Wagner, 2009). Accordingly, the

SCM is based on key assumptions such as; leadership is collaborative, leadership is the process, leadership is based on values, leadership is about change, and all students can do leadership (Skendall, 2012; Wagner, 2006; HERI, 1996).

The SCM has seven critical values that aim to increase an individual's level of self-awareness, improve their ability to work with others, and increase their capacity to effect change (HERI, 1996). Each value starts with the letter C and is called the Seven C of leadership development. The Seven C's are grouped into three categories such as the individual level (consciousness of self, congruence, commitment), the group level (collaboration, common purpose, controversy with civility), and the societal level (citizenship). These seven values gather to generate the eight values labeled *change* for the common good (Dugan & Komives, 2010). When individuals develop their capacities at three levels, positive social change for the common good will likely occur (Hogendorp, 2012).

Table 3. The Seven C's of the Social Change Model

Level	Value	Definition
The Individual • <i>What individual qualities should our programs attempt to develop?</i> • <i>What personal qualities support effective collective action and social change?</i>	Consciousness of self	Awareness of the beliefs, values, attitudes, and emotions that motivate one to take action.
	Congruence	Actions are consistent with your values and beliefs.
	Commitment	Implies passion, intensity, and duration, and is directed toward both the group activity as well as its intended outcomes.
The Group • <i>What processes do students need to learn in order to work effectively in groups?</i> • <i>How can collaboration foster individual development and social change?</i>	Collaboration	To work with others in a common effort, sharing responsibility, authority, and accountability.
	Common purpose	To work with shared aims and values.
	Controversy with civility	Recognizes two fundamental realities of any creative group effort: that differences in viewpoint are inevitable, and that such differences must be aired openly, but with civility.
The Community/Society • <i>How can involvement in positive change in the community promote group collaboration and develop individual character?</i>	Citizenship	The process whereby an individual and/or a group become responsibly connected to the community and to the society through some activity.
"Hub" of the SCM	Change	Believing that individuals, groups and communities have the ability to work together to make that change.

Source: Higher Education Research Institute. (1996). *A Social Change Model of Leadership Development Guidebook Version III*. College Park, MD: National Clearinghouse for Leadership Programs.

There is a mutual and dynamic interaction between each level. In other words, development and learning at the individual level influence the group level. Likewise, cooperative processes contribute to a person's development at the individual level. These levels are inextricably linked, and feedback loops emerge between the three groups (Komives & Dugan, 2010; Skendall, 2009; Wagner, 2006). Therefore, contrary to the industrial paradigm, leadership in the social change model is regarded as a process based on values, foresees change

for the benefit of society, does not depend on an individual or a position solely, and cares about working harmoniously with all group members around a common goal (Skendall, 2009).

2.3.1.2. Stakeholder Theory

Stakeholder theory generally suggests that businesses should best meet and manage the expectations and needs of their stakeholders. The most crucial element underlying the stakeholder theory is that managers can identify their relevant stakeholders and provide effective stakeholder management that the organization should follow (Reinig & Tilt, 2009). In addition, Freeman (1984) focused on corporate social responsibility before the development of stakeholder theory and argued that organizations also have some responsibilities to various groups in society besides shareholders.

When research in the field of responsible leadership is examined, it is seen that stakeholder theory generates the basis of this leadership, with employees viewed as primary stakeholders for the responsible organization (Freeman, 1984; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997). Despite the abundance of leadership research in the literature, there is very little research examining leadership from the perspective of ethics and social responsibility. Moreover, few studies have explained the associations between leadership, corporate social responsibility, and ethics issues (Doh, Stumpf, & Tymon, 2011). Therefore, under responsible leadership, leaders ought to create a global community for the common good of all stakeholders and citizens, including issues of cooperation, social responsibility, and ethics (Rost & Barker, 2000).

Considering an organization's responsibilities towards its internal and external environment, it is expected that they should pay attention to their shareholders in their immediate environment and to their internal and external stakeholders. (Wade, 2006). Organizations' long-term success also depends on their leaders' responsible behavior toward all internal and external stakeholders (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Maak & Pless, 2006). Responsible leadership goes beyond traditional leadership and requires a leadership approach that includes inclusion, collaboration, and cooperation with different stakeholder groups (Wicks, Gilbert, & Freeman, 1994).

According to Freeman's stakeholder theory (1984), organizations must find answers to some questions to establish and maintain good relations with their stakeholders. These questions are listed as follows: Who are the organization's stakeholders? What do the

stakeholders want from the organization, and what are their aims? How do stakeholders act to achieve their goals, and how do these behaviors affect organizations? However, contrary to this point of view, Maak and Pless (2006) have examined the responsible leader with a different meaning:

- They evaluated responsible leadership from a normative perspective and explained it in a moral and values-based way.
- Leadership is not only based on the leader-follower relationship, and all relevant internal and external stakeholders can be followers.
- Their approach proposes considering the quality of interactions and asking how goals are achieved.

Among the primary stakeholder group counted as shareowners, employees, customers, communities, and suppliers, employees are the most critical stakeholder group experiencing questionable ethical decisions and poor economic choices (Doh et al., 2011). Similarly, Pless and Maak (2004) also stated that the foremost stakeholders are the employees. Stakeholder theory will be examined in this way within the scope of our study.

2.3.2. The Definition of Socially Responsible Leadership

SRL has emerged as a result of the Social Change Model by considering the changing social conditions (Tyree, 1998). SRL style focuses on what leadership is, how and why it is implemented, and it is also about creating individual, organizational, and social change (Watt, 2009). Consequently, the leadership style developed under the social change model overlaps with the definitions of leadership based on social responsibility (Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006).

SRL can be defined as a positive, collaborative, purposeful, and value-based leadership model under social values. The primary purpose of the socially responsible leader is to contribute to other individuals' welfare by behaving in a way that increases their quality of life (Cilente, 2009). Similarly, Wagner (2009) considers SRL as a type of leadership having a sense of responsibility for the welfare of other people. According to Wagner, Ostick, and Komives (2010), SRL is a leadership approach that involves the values of an organization serving the public welfare and cooperation. Komives and Dugan (2010) have mentioned that leaders should first raise their awareness and then serve others by creating a change in society since community service is an inseparable part of the SRL style.

Responsible leaders must motivate stakeholders with different backgrounds and values, ensure cooperation among them, and set a shared vision for them. The additional features of the responsible leader consist of nine roles. Although their meanings of them are different from each other, they come together to form the gestalt of the responsible leader, which requires a holistic perspective (Maak & Pless, 2006; Pless, 2007): a *steward* to protect and maintain values and resources; a good *citizen* as a caring member of the group rather than being the head of the group; a *servant* for the others; a *visionary* who inspires and gives perspective to group members. These roles are crucial for the leader's self-image and self-understanding since they are in the first circle around the leader. In the second circle, some roles are more operational: an *architect* to create an inclusive environment; a *change agent* to initiate the change; a *coach* who supports group members; a *storyteller* and *meaning enabler* who provides the moral foundation and creates meaning. As a result, as Dachler (1992) states, these roles cannot be considered separately from each other; they are all related to each other. Similarly, supporting this statement, Koh (2014) states that responsible leadership encompasses the individual roles concerning the leader's characteristics and qualities within the contextual environment. For this reason, Doh and Stumpf (2005) have explained the three basic components of a responsible leader: values-based leadership, ethical decision-making, and quality stakeholder relationships.

SRL is a collaborative and inclusive leadership approach that respects different perspectives. To summarize, socially responsible leadership includes some basic principles (Watt, 2009): (1) the leader is a change agent who creates change, (2) ensures cooperation among people, and (3) socially leads the individuals in the group for their well-being. SRL stands for influencing group members and raising awareness of a group's decisions and actions. Leaders, who exhibit this leadership behavior, consider the well-being of group members and the impact of a decision made by the group on society. The leaders influence how group members work together, the purpose of the group, and the way they make decisions (Wagner, 2009; Skendall, 2012).

Considering leadership studies in the literature, there are many studies; however, recent studies have begun to combine leadership with ethics and corporate social responsibility (Doh et al., 2011). The responsible leader, based on stakeholder theory, establishes and maintains social and moral relations between leaders and different stakeholders based on a sense of justice, recognition, care, and accountability (Pless, 2007). Responsible leadership can be defined as a leadership style based on values and ethical principles between leaders and their stakeholders to execute sustainable value creation and social change (Maak & Pless, 2006).

While traditional leadership studies focus on cognition and behavior, responsible leadership examines the leadership from an ethical perspective by considering it within the framework of the stakeholder community (Kets de Vries, Vrignaud, & Florent-Treacy, 2004).

2.3.3. Dimensions of Socially Responsible Leadership

Organizations need a responsible leader who can ensure talent retention to survive and continue their sustainability in the long term (Guthridge, Komm, & Lawson, 2008). Similarly, a responsible leader must establish and maintain businesses for multiple stakeholders, and the foremost stakeholders are the employees (Maak & Pless, 2006; Doh & Stumpf, 2005).

Given a focus on talent management and retention, Doh et al. (2011) focused on the HR management dimensions of the responsible leader and explained responsible leadership in three dimensions. Such dimensions are determined as the stakeholder culture component, HR management component, and managerial support component. While the stakeholder culture component explains what is necessary to bring about responsible leadership, the other two components form the focus of HR management.

- *The Stakeholder Culture Component:* Many studies have been conducted on corporate social responsibility (CSR) antecedents and consequences. It has been revealed that organizations with CSR perform better than others (Doh et al., 2011). In this context, CSR plays a notable role in different stakeholder groups because stakeholders make their decisions based on the reputation of the organization in question (Maden, Arıkan, Telci, & Kantur, 2012). Reputation affects all stakeholders as it is defined as the perception of the stakeholders about the organization and plays a role in determining the success or failure of the organization (Fombrun, Gardberg, & Barnett, 2000). Moreover, a relationship has been found between ethical culture, CSR, and employees' organizational commitment (Collier & Esteban, 2007). In general, CSR does not only mean fulfilling its responsibilities towards its known stakeholders but also being ethical and acting ethically towards the society they are in (Snider, Hill, & Martin, 2003). Such discourses are based on the stakeholder culture (Phillips & Freeman, 2003). In light of the mentioned literature, it can be concluded that leadership refers to establishing reliable relations with all stakeholders inside and outside the organization within the scope of corporate social responsibility.
- *The HR Management Component:* Fair and effectively implemented HR practices positively affect the performance of the employee and the organization (Collins & Clark

2003; Guthrie 2001). While it causes positive results for Western countries, it can be said that there are no similar outcomes for developing and emerging countries (Parker et al., 2003). HR management systems (e.g., hiring, promotion, performance) need to be based on moral values such as respect, honesty, tolerance, and fairness (Pless & Maak, 2004). It means that the mentioned systems measure and reward the behavior that is morally based (Maak & Pless, 2006). Since effective employee management and development bring frequent positive results, organizations should implement HR practices fairly and inclusively (Doh et al., 2011; Phillips & Freeman, 2003). These applications should be well designed and then implemented correctly. At the same time, the effective implementation of HR practices is a critical way to attract and retain talents (Delery & Doty, 1996). The most important point to consider is that talent retention is indispensable in a globalizing and increasingly competitive environment.

- *The Managerial Support Component:* Responsible leaders have an aspect called interpersonal relationships. They have features motivating people and supporting their development instead of establishing dyadic relationships as in traditional leadership approaches (Pless, 2007). If the values and principles of the leaders are consistent with what they do, people trust their leaders (Pless & Maak, 2004). In addition, the importance of interpersonal relationships in employees' commitment to their work and organization has been demonstrated by research (Bhatnagar, 2007; Mitchell et al., 2001). Consequently, Pless and Maak (2006) defined this component of responsible leadership as a relationship between leaders and stakeholders based on values and ethical principles that elevate each other to higher levels of motivation and commitment. The dimension also expresses the success and development of employees.

2.3.4. Studies Related with Socially Responsible Leadership

When the literature is examined, it is seen that the number of studies involving socially responsible leadership is limited, mainly conducted on university students. Recently, these studies have started to be applied to teachers who are expected to create social change. Studies in management are relatively less than these two fields and have only recently begun to be done. Studies regarding the concept in both Turkish and international literature are explained below.

A qualitative study was conducted to raise awareness among university students about the changing definition of leadership on the subject. In the study, they interviewed 13 students. According to the study results, leadership is a learnable, collaborative, relational, and value-

based process rather than a leader-centered view (Komives et al., 2005). Another study examined leadership development using the social change model in the leadership development of undergraduate students. The result of the study found a positive relationship between participating in student communities, official leadership programs, and social service on campus and socially responsible leadership. It was also stated that this result increased students' perceptions of socially responsible leadership (Dugan, 2006a).

On the other hand, socially responsible leadership perceptions of university students were examined in terms of gender variables. Studies show that women's scores are higher than men's in perceptions of socially responsible leadership (Haber, 2006; Dugan, 2006b). Buschlen and Johnson (2014) investigated whether age and gender variables affect the development of students' SRL capacities over 16 weeks. According to the results of the analysis, it was concluded that there was no significant difference between the SRL and students' age. It was also found that men showed more remarkable improvement in their training program at the end of 16 weeks compared to women. Finally, a significant increase in favor of post-test scores regarding pre-test and post-test scores shows that students can learn leadership.

Moreover, Özgan and Öztuzcu (2016)'s study with teachers indicates that teachers' socially responsible leadership skills are moderately competent. In addition, it was stated that the married participants had a higher perception of socially responsible leadership than the single ones, and the female participants had a higher perception of socially responsible leadership than the men. Barnes (2014) discussed the study's relationship between socially responsible leadership and mentoring. According to the study conducted with 148 students, SRL means of the students who became mentors were significantly higher. These findings suggest that serving as a mentor influences SRL and personal identity development.

In light of the studies above, it is seen that many studies have been conducted abroad on the Social Change Model and socially responsible leadership. Those articles and theses aim to determine socially responsible leadership perceptions of university students. Moreover, in the studies conducted, it is underlined that the relationships between the Social Change Model and SRL and the variables such as mentoring, gaining a social perspective, and social participation are examined.

2.3.5. The Relationship between Socially Responsible Leadership and Employee Well-Being

It has been emphasized that socially responsible leadership, considered within the scope of positive organizational behavior, is value-based. With this, SRL is seen as a positive orientation that helps individuals reveal their potential and focuses on positive processes and results (Cameron & Caza, 2002). Thus, it can be concluded that socially responsible leadership is expected to focus on the positive in all circumstances and to promote the highest human potential under positive organizational behavior.

Recent studies indicate that reciprocal relationships are established between the leader and the followers participating in the leadership process, and such relationships provide both support and trust to the employees (Haque et al., 2019; Voegtlin et al., 2019). According to another study, relationships based on mutual trust and support also bring employee well-being (Chughtai et al., 2015). Furthermore, responsible leaders contribute to the well-being of their employees through positive relationships, as described here, because they care closely about their employees and try to ensure their development and satisfaction (Alfes et al., 2012). Some studies have demonstrated that individual consideration the leader provides increases commitment and well-being (Kara et al., 2013; Joseph, 2019). Millennial employees from today's businesses expect to receive more support and respect from their managers by acting as responsible leaders (Pless, 2007). A study was conducted with teachers to determine the relationship between perceived organizational support, positive psychological capital, and socially responsible leadership. The study mentioned that teachers' perceptions of socially responsible leadership were at a very high level. In addition, a significant relationship was found between teachers' positive psychological capital and socially responsible leadership levels (Erol & Bozbayındır, 2018).

In organizational activities, responsible leadership creates a positive climate, establishes positive connections, and strengthens positive communication to spread human potential and positive relations in the organization (Cameron & Caza, 2002). Furthermore, responsible leaders do the right thing for their employees' well-being; thus, they need to act with an inner sense of obligation (Waldman & Galvin, 2008). Responsible leadership involves the stakeholders (employees, customers, society, and governance) and aims at balancing among all parties. Responsible leaders consider the employees and get the attention of their benefits. Team psychological safety, knowledge sharing, and sustainable development of the organization are

crucial for responsible leadership (Doh & Quigley, 2014). These leaders communicate with the employees daily by serving support and encouragement, thus creating employee well-being thanks to the beneficial leader and their member relationships. Indeed, a positive relationship between responsible leadership and well-being was found in a study (He, Morrison, & Zhang, 2019). Based on these perspectives and studies, the second hypothesis is pointed out as follows:

H2: There is a positive relationship between socially responsible leadership and employee well-being.

2.4. The Concept of Social Capital

2.4.1. Theoretical Foundations of Social Capital

Although the meaning of social capital dates back centuries, its conceptual basis coincides with the early 1900s. Conceptually, it started to be used for the first time in the 90s with its current equivalent. The importance of the concept has been better understood with the studies of Bourdieu (1986), Coleman (1988), and Putnam (2000). Therefore, the basis of the concept of social capital will be explained through the theories of such people.

According to Bourdieu, the first of these researchers, social capital is a form of capital consisting of relations with social obligations, which can be converted into economic capital under certain conditions and includes various nobility titles (Winter, 2000). The title of nobility of social capital is not about having material power; it is regarding relationships and being able to turn them into various resources (Bourdieu, 1986). Two important points draw attention to Bourdieu's definition. First, social relationships give individuals access to various resources, and second, the quantity and quality of these relationships affect the resources available to a person (Portes, 1998). From this point of view, Bourdieu's approach to the concept, which focuses on the return of social capital to individuals, is defined as *instrumental* (McGonial et al., 2007). Contrary to Bourdieu, Coleman, and Putnam, who examine social capital as a concept that fights against social injustice and inequality, they are named *functionalists* with their approach (Holland et al., 2007). In addition, Coleman examines interpersonal relationships, family, and community, while Putnam explains regional dissonance and the roles of social capital and civil society (McGonial et al., 2007).

According to Coleman (1990), human capital is a phenomenon of people who use their skills and abilities to discover new ways. On the other hand, social capital consists of relationships established between individuals to complement human capital. In Coleman's

definition of social capital, individuals direct their social actions within the framework of norms, information channels, obligations, and expectations (Smith & Kulynych, 2002). Furthermore, Coleman adds that individuals choose to cooperate even when they have to compete for their interests (Field, 2006). Contrary to Bourdieu, Coleman focuses on the concept of cooperation rather than competition. The third name of the social capital discussions is Putnam, and there are traces of Coleman in Putnam's definitions. Putnam (2000) defines social capital as the social characteristics of organizations such as networks, norms, and social trust facilitating coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit. In addition, Putnam takes the issue into a more comprehensive framework and explains social capital as something possessed or not possessed by communities or nations (DeFlippis, 2001). In this context, Putnam states that social networks will be developed with participation in local unions and volunteer organizations, creating voluntary associations that increase the general reciprocity norms (Parts, 2004).

To summarize the views of three researchers on social capital, according to Bourdieu, the possession of social capital has only one purpose: maximizing economic capital. On the other hand, Coleman emphasizes the more effective use of human capital to develop social capital. Finally, the critical thing in Putnam's theory is collective action, and the goal is effective democracy at the social level and a well-functioning economy (Winter, 2000).

2.4.2. The Definition of Social Capital

Considering the historical development of social capital, as mentioned above, many people have suggested different definitions. Although each definition says various aspects of social capital, to sum up with a common definition, Moran (2005) states that social capital is a valuable asset, and its value is access to resources arising from the social relations of the actors. In addition, examining the concept in fields such as sociology, economics, and organization makes it difficult to make a single definition of the concept (Taştan & Torun, 2015; Yiyit, 2017). Thus, some definitions of social capital, compiled from different perspectives, will be discussed below.

With a general definition, it is seen that social capital is considered a resource that can be possessed by a community, society, or country and arises from the relationships established within the boundaries of that area (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1995). As can be understood from this definition, while Bourdieu, Coleman, and Putnam focus on solidarity and reproduction of group, other authors such as Lin, Burt, and Marsden emphasize accessing and

using resources embedded in social networks (Lin, 1999). On the other hand, Fukuyama (1995) states that social capital is a skill that arises from the dominance of trust in some parts of society and emphasizes trust in these relationships. In addition, Woolcock and Narayan (2000) demonstrate that social capital corresponds to norms and networks allowing people to act together to provide and maintain the respective relations in a community or society. To sum up the definition of social capital, according to Cohen and Prusak (2001, p.20), social capital connects human networks and groups with the active stock of connections among people. In addition, it is a whole consisting of trust, mutual understanding, and shared values and behaviors that enable cooperation.

It is possible to underline that the main points in the definitions of social capital are mutual relations. However, the following elements are also emphasized in the definitions (Putnam, 1993; Condeluci et al., 2008): (i) relations and networks between people, groups, and organizations, (ii) social norms and values created by respective relations, (iii) trust built by relationships as well as norms and values, and (iv) interest and participation by being sensitive and close to the society or community. All these mentioned elements are stated as factors affecting the concept of social capital.

Social capital is not a self-existing concept because every element and organism building the society contributes to creating, developing, and maintaining social capital (Stolle, 1998). As a result, the concept of social capital is examined at different levels, starting from individuals and organizations, including regions, societies, and nations. In this context, organizational capital is explained at three different levels: micro-level individual and family, meso-level organizational, and macro level, including the state and political institutions (Kirel et al., 2016). Each level complements and substitutes the other (Grootaert, 2002, p.4). Employee relationships in the organization with the managers and each other, as well as the organization's relationships with other organizations, customers, and suppliers, constitute the social capital of that organization (Özdemir, 2008). In other words, organizational social capital is formed thanks to members' relationships and the relationships established by the organization with its stakeholders other than the employees (Taştan & Torun, 2015). From this point of view, it is seen that organizational social capital is considered as internal social capital and external social capital in the literature (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Bull et al., 2010). Intra-organizational relations, which include common values and norms among employees of the organization, constitute internal social capital. The organization's production activities and relations with the market are defined as external social capital (Taştan & Torun, 2015; Yiyit, 2017). Finally, it

would be beneficial to remind that the organization's social capital is not much different from the social capital of the society.

2.4.3. Dimensions of Social Capital

As the definitions of social capital differ, its dimensions have been discussed from many different perspectives. Social capital dimensions, which are considered structural and cognitive by some authors (Colleta & Cullen, 2002), have been examined by other authors by adding the relational dimension (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Fischer et al., 2004; Scherif et al., 2006; Kapu, 2008). Within the scope of the current study, the three-dimensional model presented by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) will be used, and the dimensions are explained as follows.

The first dimension of social capital is *the structural dimension* in which social systems such as groups and organizations are handled as a whole rather than individual relations (Kapu, 2008). Therefore, it encompasses all forms of connectivity, network structures, configurations, and morphologies between actors (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). It also points to the information channels that connect the units (Scherif et al., 2006). In other words, structural social capital, which is directly observable and changeable, indicates that social ties and networks are used to obtain information, social support, and suggestions from others (Morris et al., 2006). Thus, social capital determines the hierarchy, work, and decision flows by affecting the social relations within the organization and providing the occurrence of social ties (Göksel et al., 2010).

The second dimension is *the relational dimension*, which arises from people's relationships with others, affects their behavior, and is also affected by situations such as respect and friendship (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). The sources of relational social capital are embedded in relationships, such as trust among members and the reliability of individual actors (Scherif et al., 2006). Thus, people meet their motivations such as sociability, acceptance, and prestige through their relationships (Kapu, 2008), and their willingness to behave collectively increases (Reimer, 2006, p.134). Behaviors under the relational dimension are manifested by emotional trust, degree of reliability and interdependence, a relationship of trust, cooperation without expecting a reward, and altruistic behaviors (Göksel et al., 2010).

The last dimension of social capital, *cognitive social capital*, is an internal state related to how interacting network members think and feel (Scherif et al., 2006). The cognitive dimension represents the expressions, interpretations, and meaning systems between the parties

and states the bonding force that holds the community together (Fischer et al., 2004). On the other hand, a common language is created with the cognitive structure (Kapu, 2008), and thus an environment that supports the increase of resources and give-and-take is created by preventing misunderstandings and disruptions in communication (Cohen & Prusak, 2001, p.142). Accordingly, a common understanding of the environment is developed (Göksel et al., 2010).

2.4.4. Studies Related with Social Capital

As can be understood from its definitions of social capital, it is a multidimensional concept. The concept of social capital generally examines gaining some benefits from social relations in networks and reaching necessary resources (Özdemir 2008). In addition, since it is an interdisciplinary concept, it is possible to see its effects on many fields. Therefore, studies with social capital, the fields that affect social capital, and the fields affected by social capital will be explained under this topic.

First, norms are seen as one factor that produces social capital (Rea-Holloway, 2008, p.25). Moreover, norms are also considered as the mediating mechanism of shared trust and reciprocity. The social capital produced in this way will eliminate future uncertainty and ensure the establishment of a sense of trust (Özdemir, 2008). Trust facilitating the life of society also fills the gap arising from the contracts (Erdem & Janset, 2003). The inability to establish trust causes the context to be impoverished regarding social capital and, therefore, the society to work with low synergy (Sargut, 2006). On the other hand, when other determinants of social capital are examined, Yavuz (2012) presented different factors such as personal values, education, history and culture, family, environment, and consumption habits determining social capital. According to Iyer et al. (2005), social capital is determined by the characteristics of individuals such as education, age, income, ethnicity, and factors such as individuals' place of residence, whether they own a house, and whether they work.

Organizations have increased the potential impact of social capital over time as they see relationships and networks as valuable resources to demonstrate better performances (Sainaghi & Baggio, 2014). Researches reveal that social capital is an important determinant of the innovation capacity of enterprises and creates an environment open to change (Erbil & Öğüt, 2016). It has been shown that many organizational elements, such as knowledge-sharing behavior and innovation, are positively affected by social capital (Turgut & Begenirbaş, 2014).

Furthermore, social capital creates a facilitating effect on access to a qualified workforce. Thanks to social networks, there are high-quality and low-cost candidates (Uğuz, 2010, p.118). In other words, increasing the individuals' number of networks can advance their career opportunities and provide convenience in finding a job (Fernandez & Weinberg, 1997). Cohen and Prusak (2001, p.28) state the following among the contributions of social capital to organizations; better information flow and sharing, lower transaction costs, reduced layoffs, and absenteeism, reduced training costs, and as a result, the preservation of organizational knowledge, team spirit, and a sense of unity.

In other studies, it is stated that strong social capital reduces conflict in organizations and contributes to solutions to problems thanks to positive communication between individuals (Perry-Smith & Shalley, 2003). Moreover, a study on the psychological support needs of managers stated that strong social ties are an important source of psychological support for managers (James, 2000). All in all, based on the studies mentioned above, it is seen that social capital is a very crucial concept for the life quality of individuals and societies. The important thing is that they should know how to use it.

2.4.5. Social Capital as a Mediator

Social capital has a different meaning from other known types of capital, and what makes this capital different is that it naturally exists in social dynamics. Accordingly, it makes social capital accessible. Researchers have introduced the concept of social capital to enable people to act together; thus, institutions, associations, and innovative organizations have been developed by creating new structures. (Fukuyama, 1995; Putnam, 1995). Moreover, the concept of social capital is extended with mutual understanding, shared values, and behaviors, providing cooperation and human networks (Cohen & Prusak, 2001). Therefore, creating trust between manager and organization and sustaining fair relationships increase employees' social capital, and social capital fosters individual and organizational level positive outcomes in the organization (Taştan, 2015; Taştan et al., 2020).

According to the social capital theory, individuals with more substantial and broader social networks are more likely to be healthier, happier, wealthier, and more successful than individuals with narrower and weaker social networks. A study in Sweden revealed that widespread and strong social networks are beneficial in protecting against mental illness (OECD, 2001). Putnam (2000) similarly states a positive relationship between the social capital index and health and a negative relationship between death rates. There are opinions that

individuals with high social capital are psychologically sound (Çetin, 2021). From another point of view, it can be summarized as follows: The social capital that individuals gains through trust, belonging, cooperation, and mutual knowledge sharing can prevent them from experiencing some psychological problems (Putnam, 2000).

Social capital is one of the consequences of virtuousness amplifying effect. Virtue behaviors generate positive emotions “love, empathy, awe, zest, and enthusiasm,” and all of them ensure decision making, cognitive functioning, and more effective interpersonal relationships in organizations (Staw & Barsade, 1993). Effective relationships have a role in social capital; thus, social capital is vital for communication, cooperation, employee commitment, strong relationships, and involvement (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Virtuous behaviors in organizations not only ensure resilience and toughness but also preserve social capital and collective efficacy (Dienstbier & Zillig, 2002; Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003). According to previous research findings, an organization presenting more virtuous processes and behaviors helps employees experience positive attitudes and behaviors more. Individuals with a higher level of social capital are likely to be in more effective relationships. In other words, virtuous activities in organizations may contribute to employee well-being through the level of social capital they have. Thus, the third hypothesis of this study is presented as follows:

H3: Social capital has a mediating effect on the relationship between organizational virtuousness and employee well-being.

According to Putnam (1995), social capital includes some characteristics of social organizations, like networks, norms, trust, coordination, and cooperation for beneficial relationships. Furthermore, the concept of social capital is extended with mutual understanding, shared values, and behaviors, providing cooperation and human networks (Cohen & Prusak, 2001). Accordingly, key factors enable mutually beneficial relationships with stakeholders and their trust and goodwill in the light of responsible leadership. Social capital is necessary to sustain stakeholder connections, and responsible leaders behave like a weaver of social capital (Maak, 2007), so it might be stated that socially responsible leaders help to foster individuals’ social capital. On the other hand, social change, a process of cooperation, requires that people create a relationship with each other and act together (Wagner, 2006). In that case, socially responsible leaders try to develop effective relationships among every internal and external customer, as seen in individuals with a higher social capital level. It might be stated that socially responsible leaders help to foster individuals’ social capital. Socially responsible leaders might

contribute to employees' well-being positively with the help of social capital they have. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 is pointed out as:

H4: Social capital has a mediating effect on the relationship between socially responsible leadership and employee well-being.

As a result of the literature, theoretical background, and empirical evidence evaluations mentioned above, a research model is designed based on the basic concepts covered by the current study, as shown in Figure 2. The model's independent variables are organizational virtuousness and socially responsible leadership, while its dependent variable is employee well-being. In addition, social capital will be tested as a mediator variable in the model.

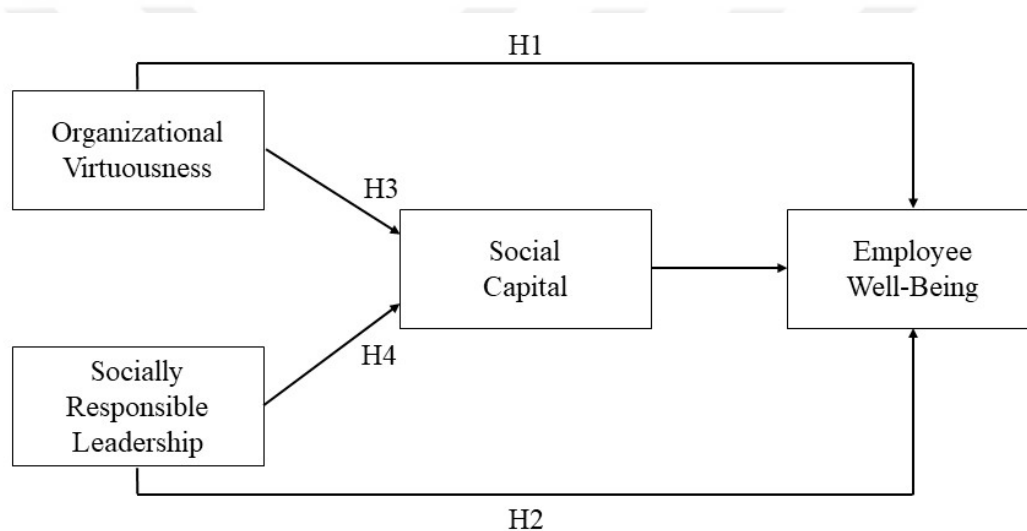


Figure 2. Proposed Model of the Research

Considering the literature discussed above, the importance of the study is expressed as follows. Especially with the effect of the pandemic, managers and HR leaders made high investments in well-being practices and put them at the top of companies' priority lists. As many factors affect employee well-being, the attitudes and behaviors of the organization, managers, and colleagues are among the issues that need to be examined.

3. METHODOLOGY

In this part, the methodology of the study will be presented. In this regard, first, we will explain the scales utilized for the analysis in detail. Then, the pilot study's findings will be given to have information about the research variables and the reliability and validity of the scales used in the research. Lastly, the sample of the study, procedure, and data analysis will be presented.

3.1. Research Instruments

With the scope of this research, four different scales were used to measure all the variables, such as employee well-being, organizational virtuousness, socially responsible leadership, and social capital. Those four scales used within the study were measured with a six-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree. Employees answered all items; thus, we have used a self-report method in the current study.

Previously developed scales were adapted and re-evaluated by the researcher and the dissertation advisor. Turkish translations of the scales were completed and examined by two academics and two specialists with Ph.D. working in the sector.

The questionnaire consists of two sections demographic factors and the scales used in the study. Demographic characteristics of the participants were defined by gender, age, marital status, education, total work experience in business life, total current organization experience, and total experience with the current manager. There are 72 items under the scales to measure the research model's variables. All measures of the study are explained briefly as follows.

3.1.1. Employee Well-Being Scale

To measure employee well-being at work, 18-item Employee Well-Being Scale was used (Zheng, Zhu, Zhao, & Zhang, 2015). It consists of three dimensions such as *life well-being* (like "I am close to my dream in most aspects of my life."), *workplace well-being* (like "Work is a meaningful experience for me."), and *psychological well-being* (like "I generally feel good about myself, and I'm confident."). The total Cronbach's alpha of the scale is .93, and the internal consistencies of the sub-dimensions are .92, .93, and .88, respectively. In Turkish context, the Cronbach's alpha values for the overall scale are .93 (Küçük, 2019), .92 (Karapınar, Camgöz, & Ekmekçi, 2020), and .90 (Mamacı, Şişlioğlu, & Altun, 2020) in different studies.

3.1.2. Organizational Virtuousness Scale

Organizational Virtuousness Scale is a 15-item including both aspects of virtuous behaviors *in* and enabled *by* the organization, which was developed by Cameron, Bright, and Caza (2004). The scale has five dimensions, and each of them has three items: *optimism* (like “We are optimistic that we will succeed, even when faced with major challenges.”), *trust* (like “People trust the leadership of this organization.”), *compassion* (like “Acts of compassion are common here.”), *integrity* (like “Honesty and trustworthiness are hallmarks of this organization.”), and *forgiveness* (like “We try to learn from our mistakes here, consequently, missteps are quickly forgiven.”). Erkmen and Esen (2012) have made a Turkish adaptation of the scale and found three sub-dimensions such as (F1) integrity & forgiveness, (F2) trust & compassion, and (F3) optimism with Cronbach alpha values of .92, .86, and .81 respectively.

3.1.3. Socially Responsible Leadership Scale

The 13-item scale developed by Doh, Stumpf, and Tymon Jr. (2011) was used to measure SRL. The Cronbach’s alpha value for the scale was reported as .95 with three dimensions named *managerial support* (like “My immediate manager gives me the support I need to do my job well.”), *stakeholder culture* (like “This organisation responds well to a diverse group of stakeholders.”), and *human resource practices* (like “Our organisation believes that all employees deserve to be actively managed as talent.”). Turkish adaptation of the scale is made by Taştan and Davoudi (2019), and Cronbach alpha values are .81 for the total of the scale, .75 for managerial support, .76 for stakeholder culture, and .77 for human resources practices, respectively.

3.1.4. Social Capital Scale

The “social capital” scale was developed by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) based on the three dimensions with a total of 26 items (9 items for structural, 4 items for cognitive, and 13 items for relational). An example item is “People should be made aware that if they are going to be part of an organization, then they are sometimes going to have to do things they don’t want to do.” for the *cognitive* dimension, “I think my organization treats me fairly.” for the *relational* dimension, and “In my organization people combine their information, ideas, and other resources to accomplish joint tasks.” for the *structural* dimension. The Cronbach’s alpha value for the scale is reported to vary between .77 and .92. In the Turkish context, the

Cronbach's alpha values for the overall scale are .87 (Turgut, 2013) and .91 (Taştan & Güçel, 2017).

3.2. Findings of the Pilot Study

146 responses were collected through the researcher's contacts and professional social media platforms. Accordingly, employees working in various organizations in public and private sectors in Istanbul were included in the study. The pilot study was conducted through online questionnaires collected between August and September 2021. Factor and reliability analyses, as well as correlation analyses, were run based on the data.

Regarding the demographic factors, 67.1% ($n = 98$) of all participants were female and 32.9% ($n = 48$) were male. The majority of respondents were between 22 and 35 years old with 71.2% ($n = 104$), followed by the group of 36-45 years with 26% ($n = 38$). When the marital status is considered, 57.5% ($n = 84$) was single and 42.5% ($n = 62$) was married. The majority of the respondents were undergraduate with 58.2% ($n = 85$), followed by graduate with %34.2 ($n = 50$). Concerning total work experience in business life, most of the group is in the categories of 1-5 years (33.6%) and 6-10 years (33.6%). Besides, total current organization experience was 1 and 5 years with 41.1%, and experience with the current manager was also 1 and 5 years with 50.7%.

First, factor analyses were performed for 4 scales used in the study. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test results should be checked to determine whether the data is capable of factor analysis (Karagöz & Kösterelioğlu, 2008; Büyüköztürk, 2010). Accordingly, Bartlett's test is expected to be significant, and the KMO is greater than 0.50 (Field, 2000). As seen in Table 4, the results of the KMO and Bartlett's tests meet all conditions. Furthermore, all the scales and their sub-scales are above .70 for internal consistency, and none of the items were eliminated from the scales regarding pilot study results.

Table 4. Factorial Structures and Reliability Analyses of the Scales

Scale / Sub-Scale	Factor Analysis	Reliability Analysis
Employee Well-Being	KMO = .91 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test=1893.533 P = .00	Cronbach α = .94
<i>Life Well-Being</i>		<i>Cronbach α = .87</i>
<i>Workplace Well-Being</i>		<i>Cronbach α = .92</i>
<i>Psychological Well-Being</i>		<i>Cronbach α = .80</i>
Organizational Virtuousness	KMO = .93 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test=2197.442 P = .00	Cronbach α = .96
<i>Optimism</i>		<i>Cronbach α = .87</i>
<i>Trust & Compassion</i>		<i>Cronbach α = .91</i>
<i>Integrity & Forgiveness</i>		<i>Cronbach α = .94</i>
Socially Responsible Leadership	KMO = .91 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test=1918.989 P = .00	Cronbach α = .94
<i>Stakeholder Culture</i>		<i>Cronbach α = .90</i>
<i>Human Resource Practices</i>		<i>Cronbach α = .92</i>
<i>Managerial Support</i>		<i>Cronbach α = .95</i>
Social Capital	KMO = .90 Chi-Square Bartlett's Test=3211.135 P = .00	Cronbach α = .94
<i>Structural Social Capital</i>		<i>Cronbach α = .94</i>
<i>Cognitive Social Capital</i>		<i>Cronbach α = .90</i>
<i>Relational Social Capital</i>		<i>Cronbach α = .92</i>

After the factor and reliability analyses, the correlation analysis was applied to see the direction, strength, and significance of the bivariate relationships among pilot study variables. Thus pilot study correlation matrix is demonstrated in Table 5. According to correlation analysis results, significant and positive relationships were found between all the variables of the pilot study. These results provide us with important insights into the main study results.

Consequently, data collection will continue by reaching more participants, and it has been decided to continue the main study.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Pilot Study Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Employee Well-Being	4.57	.82	1			
2. Organizational Virtuousness	4.47	1.03	.64**	1		
3. Socially Responsible Leadership	4.35	1.13	.59**	.84**	1	
4. Social Capital	4.76	.73	.46**	.57**	.49**	1

N=146; **p* < .05; ***p* < .01 (2-tailed)

3.3. Sample

Participants work in academia, banking, information technologies, consultancy, e-commerce, aviation, automobile, tourism, and textile. A total of 400 questionnaires were sent to people working in Istanbul, and the sample consisted of 311 people for the main study. The survey return rate is 78%. While 37 participants were reached through a paper-based survey, the remaining 274 were contacted through an online survey.

As presented in Table 6, 175 participants were female, and 136 were male. Another demographic variable, age, is examined. The majority (72.3%) are in the 22-35 years category, followed by the 36-45 years category with 22.5% and the 46 years and above category with 5.1%. The marital status rates of the sample group were 58.8% (*N* = 183) single and 41.2% (*N* = 128) married. The category with the majority under educational status is the undergraduate group, with 185 people constituting more than half of the sample (59.2%). It is followed by graduate with 30.2%, a vocational school with 6.1%, and high school with 4.2%, respectively.

Table 6. Distribution of Sample in Terms of Gender, Age, Marital Status, Education

Variable	N	%
Gender		
Female	175	56.3
Male	136	43.7
Age		
22-35 years	225	72.3
36-45 years	70	22.5
46 years and above	16	5.1
Marital Status		
Single	183	58.8
Married	128	41.2
Education		
High School	13	4.2
Vocational School	19	6.1
Undergraduate	185	59.5
Graduate	94	30.2
TOTAL	311	100.0

The sample group was also analyzed in three ways regarding the participants' experience in the sector: work experience, organization experience, and experience with the current manager (See Table 7). While the total work experience of the participants is 35%, mostly between 6 and 10 years, their experience in the current organization is mostly in the category of 1-5 years with 44.1%. Finally, the participants' experience with the current manager is in the categories of 1-5 years (52.7%) and 1 year and below (32.2%).

Table 7. Distribution of Sample in Terms of Work Experience, Organization**Experience, Experience with the Current Manager**

Variable	N	%
Work Experience		
1 year and below	6	1.9
1-5 years	96	30.9
6-10 years	109	35.0
11-15 years	61	19.6
16 years and above	39	12.5
Organization Experience		
1 year and below	60	19.3
1-5 years	137	44.1
6-10 years	76	24.4
11-15 years	25	8.0
16 years and above	13	4.2
Experience with the Current Manager		
1 year and below	100	32.2
1-5 years	164	52.7
6-10 years	38	12.2
11-15 years	5	1.6
16 years and above	4	1.3
TOTAL	311	100.0

3.4. Procedure

A convenience sampling method and a cross-sectional study design were utilized to reach the current study's sample. Moreover, questionnaires were sent to people in two ways to collect data. First, online questionnaires were distributed through several professional websites and the researcher's social circle. Another is that the surveys created as hardcopy were distributed in regions such as Levent and Maslak, where employees are more (See Appendix B). The research purpose was mentioned on the front page of the questionnaire, and it was stated that the data to be obtained would only be used for scientific research. In addition, before answering the questionnaire, participants received consent to participate voluntarily.

3.5. Data Analysis

First of all, factor analyses were performed for the scales through the data obtained from the participants. For only one of the variables in the study's research model, first explanatory factor analysis (EFA) and then confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were applied. In contrast,

CFA was applied for the other three scales. Then, reliability analyses were conducted to see the internal consistency of the scale structures and sub-dimensions. Pearson Correlation analysis was run to determine the relationships among the study variables and their sub-dimensions. In addition, regression analysis was performed for hypothesis testing. Finally, t-test and ANOVA tests were applied to demographic data to reveal whether there were differences between groups.



4. THE FINDINGS OF THE MAIN STUDY

In this part of the study, the validity and reliability of the scales will be tested. After the scale tests, correlation and regression analyzes will be performed to test the hypotheses created within the research. Finally, comparative tests will be run for demographic variables, and the findings of the main study will be completed.

4.1. Analysis for the Scales

A total of four scales were used in the study. Since the validity and reliability of three scales (Organizational Virtuousness, Socially Responsible Leadership, and Social Capital) were tested in previous studies and in the Turkish context, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) analysis was applied to those three scales. CFA verifies a predetermined structure and checks whether it conforms to the original factor structure (Suhr, 2006). The other scale, Employee Well-Being Scale, was translated into Turkish from its original form, as it was not often found in Turkish context studies. Since the aim is to explore the factor structure of this measurement tool through the present sample (Osborne & Fitzpatrick, 2012), first Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and then CFA were applied to the EWB scale. Model fit indices for comparison of values as a result of CFA are listed in Table 8.

Table 8. Model Fit Indices for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Model Fit Indices	A Good Fit
X^2 / df	$X^2 / df \leq 3$
CFI	CFI > .90
GFI	GFI > .90
TLI	TLI > .90
NFI	NFI > .95
AGFI	AGFI > .85
RMSEA	$.05 < RMSEA \leq .08$

Note. 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.

Source: Kalafatoğlu, Y. (2017). *Examining contextual and individual antecedents of mindfulness and its relation with ethical behavior* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Marmara University Social Sciences Institution, Istanbul, p. 47.

4.1.1. Factor and Reliability Analyses for Employee Well-Being Scale

Since the items of the 18-item EWB scale were translated into Turkish within this study, EFA was first applied to the scale. According to the EFA result, it is seen that there are three factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1, and a total of three factors explain 67.59 percent of the variance ($KMO = .94$, Bartlett Sphericity Test = 3938.41, $p < .001$). The first factor was named life well-being, the second one was workplace well-being, and the third was psychological well-being in line with the original scale (Zheng et al., 2015). The only difference is that Items 8 and 12 belonging to workplace well-being were grouped under life well-being, and item 13 belonging to psychological well-being was gathered under workplace well-being.

Then, CFA has applied to cross-validate the three-factor scale. It was determined that Item 8 and Item 14 created covariance with other variables; thus, these two items were excluded from the analysis. CFA was run to test the factor solution through 16 items. Furthermore, based on modification indices, three different modifications were put together among e1-e6, e4-e5, and e12-e13 to reach a better model fit. The final result of the model was significantly accepted and presented a good model fit in which $X^2 (98, N = 311) = 275.98$, $X^2/df = 2.81$, $GFI = .89$, $AGFI = .86$, $CFI = .94$, $NFI = .91$, $TLI = .93$, and $RMSEA = .07$. The results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Model Fit Indices of Employee Well-Being Scale

Model	X^2	df	p	X^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
Three-factor solution	275.98	98	.000	2.81	.89	.86	.94	.91	.93	.07

According to the CFA results, the scale's factor loadings and reliability levels are presented in Table 10. The Cronbach alpha coefficients of the sub-dimensions are higher than .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Moreover, since the factor loadings are higher than .50, it can be implied that the items explain the scale well.

Table 10. Factor Loadings and T-Values of Employee Well-Being Scale

Variable	Factor Loading	T Values
Employee Well-Being Scale ($\alpha = .93$)		
Life Well-Being ($\alpha = .91$)		
EWB1. I feel satisfied with my life.	.799	16.22
EWB2. I am close to my dream in most aspects of my life.	.803	16.27
EWB3. Most of the time, I do feel real happiness.	.810	14.77
EWB4. I am in a good life situation.	.663	12.50
EWB5. My life is very fun.	.762	14.81
EWB6. I would hardly change my current way of life in the afterlife.	.715	13.78
EWB12. I feel basically satisfied with my work achievements in my current job.	.805	
Workplace Well-Being ($\alpha = .88$)		
EWB7. I am satisfied with my work responsibilities.	.769	12.39
EWB9. I find real enjoyment in my work.	.835	14.69
EWB10. I can always find ways to enrich my work.	.756	14.20
EWB11. Work is a meaningful experience for me.	.689	12.73
EWB13. I feel I have grown as a person.	.745	
Psychological Well-Being ($\alpha = .77$)		
EWB15. I generally feel good about myself, and I'm confident.	.619	9.32
EWB16. People think I am willing to give and to share my time with others.	.623	9.77
EWB17. I am good at making flexible timetables for my work.	.609	9.45
EWB18. I love having deep conversations with family and friends so that we can better understand each other.	.540	

4.1.2. Factor and Reliability Analyses for Organizational Virtuousness Scale

Based on the previous studies in the Turkish context, the organizational virtuousness scale has a three-factor structure such as (F1) integrity & forgiveness, (F2) trust & compassion, and (F3) optimism (Erkmen & Esen, 2012; Tapan, 2019; Kahveci, 2019). Consequently, CFA was applied to check the factor structure.

No item was excluded from the analysis; however, modification indices were made to make the model fit better and provide strong results. Hereby, nine covariance were added into the model such as e4-e5, e4-e8, e5-e7, e10-e13, e10-e14, e10-e15, e11-e12, e13-e14, and e14-e15. After that CFA result indicated a good model fit ($X^2(78, N = 311) = 232.64, X^2/df = 2.98,$

$GFI = .91$, $AGFI = .86$, $CFI = .96$, $NFI = .95$, $TLI = .95$, and $RMSEA = .08$). Results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11. Model Fit Indices of Organizational Virtuosity Scale

Model	X ²	df	p	X ² /df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
Three-factor solution	232.64	78	.000	2.98	.91	.86	.96	.95	.95	.08

The factor loadings and reliability levels of the scale are shown in Table 12. The Cronbach alpha coefficients of the sub-dimensions and the factor loadings represent the scale well.

Table 12. Factor Loadings and T-Values of Organizational Virtuosity Scale

Variable	Factor Loading	T Values
Organizational Virtuosity Scale ($\alpha = .96$)		
Optimism ($\alpha = .86$)		
OV1. A sense of profound purpose is associated with what we do here.	.691	14.55
OV2. In this organization we are dedicated to doing good in addition to doing well.	.781	18.80
OV3. We are optimistic that we will succeed, even when faced with major challenges.	.765	
Trust & Compassion ($\alpha = .92$)		
OV4. Employees trust one another in this organization.	.787	15.93
OV5. People are treated with courtesy, consideration, and respect in this organization.	.798	15.39
OV6. People trust the leadership of this organization.	.868	19.29
OV7. Acts of compassion are common here.	.808	16.63
OV8. This organization is characterized by many acts of concern and caring for other people.	.862	20.48
OV9. Many stories of compassion and concern circulate among organization members.	.828	
Integrity & Forgiveness ($\alpha = .94$)		
OV10. Honesty and trustworthiness are hallmarks of this organization.	.883	20.60
OV11. This organization demonstrates the highest levels of integrity.	.870	20.88

OV12. This organization would be described as virtuous and honorable.	.839	19.68
OV13. We try to learn from our mistakes here, consequently, missteps are quickly forgiven.	.853	22.20
OV14. This is a forgiving, compassionate organization in which to work.	.860	
OV15. We have very high standards of performance, yet we forgive mistakes when they are acknowledged and corrected.	.807	20.30

4.1.3. Factor and Reliability Analyses for Socially Responsible Leadership Scale

According to the theoretical factor structure of the socially responsible leadership scale, the 13-item scale consists of three factors: stakeholder culture with four items, human resource practices with five items, and managerial support with four items (Doh et al., 2011; Taştan & Davoudi, 2019). CFA was performed to validate the three-factor solution provided in the literature.

Modification indices were applied in the next step, as the results of the model fit indices showed appropriate values. Three covariance were added considering the modification indices and the theoretical framework such as 5-7, 8-13, and 9-12. Therefore, the model fit to the data well and significantly approved ($X^2(59, N = 311) = 169.42$, $X^2/df = 2.87$, $GFI = .92$, $AGFI = .88$, $CFI = .97$, $NFI = .95$, $TLI = .96$, and $RMSEA = .07$) as shown in Table 13.

Table 13. Model Fit Indices of Socially Responsible Leadership Scale

Model	X^2	df	p	X^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
Three-factor solution	169.42	59	.000	2.87	.92	.88	.97	.95	.96	.07

The factor loadings and reliability levels of the scale are shown in Table 14. The Cronbach alpha coefficients of the sub-dimensions and the factor loadings represent the scale well.

Table 14. Factor Loadings and T-Values of Socially Responsible Leadership Scale

Variable	Factor Loading	T Values
Socially Responsible Leadership Scale ($\alpha = .95$)		
Stakeholder Culture ($\alpha = .89$)		
SRL1. This organization takes an active role in its community.	.596	13.63
SRL2. This organization takes ethics seriously (e.g., is committed to ethics training).	.799	18.18
SRL3. This organization responds well to a diverse group of stakeholders.	.796	19.97
SRL4. This organization takes corporate social responsibility seriously (e.g., has a clear policy that reflects its commitment to one or more social causes).	.753	
Human Resource Practices ($\alpha = .93$)		
SRL5. Our performance appraisal programs are effectively used to retain the best talent.	.852	19.13
SRL6. Our compensation programs are effectively used to retain the best talent.	.756	17.13
SRL7. Our organization believes that <i>all</i> employees deserve to be actively managed as talent.	.853	20.00
SRL8. Our organization's program for high potentials helps in talent retention.	.828	24.64
SRL9. The company has a formal "high potential" program – people know what they need to do to get into it and to advance within it.	.787	
Managerial Support ($\alpha = .95$)		
SRL10. My immediate manager leads by example.	.841	24.39
SRL11. My immediate manager gives me the support I need to do my job well.	.802	29.76
SRL12. My immediate manager is effective.	.815	30.62
SRL13. My immediate manager is good at developing people.	.828	

4.1.4. Factor and Reliability Analyses for Social Capital Scale

CFA was applied to cross-validate the social capital scale, which was approved as a 26-item under three factors: structural social capital, cognitive social capital, and relational social capital (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Turgut, 2013; Taştan & Güçel, 2017). First, Item 16 was excluded from the analysis since it has a low factor loading.

After exclusion step, it was seen that there is a marginal fit and hence post-hoc model modifications were run to reach better model fit. According to the modification indices, ten

covariance were added between e1-e2, e2-e3, e8-e9, e14-e15, e17-e18, e20-e21, e23-e26, e24-e25, e24-e26, and e25-e26. Then, the final CFA showed X^2 (262, N = 311) = 572.11, X^2/df = 2.18, GFI = .86, $AGFI$ = .83, CFI = .95, NFI = .91, TLI = .94, and $RMSEA$ = .06. The final results of CFA are also presented in Table 15.

Table 15. Model Fit Indices of Social Capital Scale

Model	X^2	df	p	X^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
Three-factor solution	572.11	262	.000	2.18	.86	.83	.95	.91	.94	.06

The factor loadings and reliability levels of the scale are shown in Table 16. The Cronbach alpha coefficients of the sub-dimensions and the factor loadings represent the scale well.

Table 16. Factor Loadings and T-Values of Social Capital Scale

Variable	Factor loading	t values
Social Capital Scale (α = .95)		
Structural Social Capital (α = .93)		
SC1. There are communication channels through which we can share our information with others.	.571	12.22
SC2. Communication channels allow me to access information that others have.	.636	15.28
SC3. Communication channels allow the sharing of information available in different units and persons.	.626	16.48
SC4. The communication system allows information from different units and people to be transmitted to other people in a timely manner.	.646	18.07
SC5. The communication network provides the people in the network with the opportunity to be aware of the opportunities to share and distribute their information.	.665	18.40
SC6. The communication channel has a large number of people and units to share information and knowledge.	.547	15.63
SC7. The communication channel allows people and units who want to share their information to easily join the communication network.	.622	17.19

SC8. Organizational understanding enables communication and relationships based on different individual and cultural values.	.631	15.62
SC9. Communication channels allow the dissemination of information available in different units and persons.	.678	
Cognitive Social Capital ($\alpha = .93$)		
SC10. We use common terms, expressions, and phrases to make it easier for us to understand and communicate with each other.	.740	24.05
SC11. The common language we use provides efficiency in obtaining, interpreting and understanding owned and shared information.	.733	23.52
SC12. The common language we use makes it easy to obtain new information from existing information.	.688	
Relational Social Capital ($\alpha = .94$)		
SC13. The success stories told are a guide for individuals and units in keeping, sharing and storing information and values.	.668	10.21
SC14. We have a sharing relationship with my colleagues. We can freely share our ideas, feelings and hopes.	.706	14.54
SC15. I can freely discuss my work challenges with my colleagues and they would like to listen to me.	.674	13.82
SC17. If I share my problems with my colleagues, they will react in a constructive and caring way.	.675	14.20
SC18. We make significant emotional investments in each other in our business relationships.	.596	12.07
SC19. There is an understanding that supports teamwork and cooperation.	.775	16.65
SC20. Willingness and openness to communication and information sharing is a shared value.	.788	16.35
SC21. Openness to criticism and different opinions is a shared value.	.759	14.60
SC22. Unwritten rules support information sharing.	.663	12.41
SC23. Willingness and openness to communication and information sharing compel me to act similarly.	.804	17.92
SC24. I find the shared values compatible with my own values.	.736	16.61
SC25. I feel myself as a whole with all the schools and teachers.	.746	17.29
SC26. The values of willingness and openness to communication and information sharing drive me to act in this direction.	.811	

4.2. Correlation Analysis

The problem of multicollinearity emerges as a situation that needs attention regarding the analysis. This problem arises if independent variables have a high correlation (Field, 2009).

Multicollinearity is a situation that should be considered, especially in multiple regression analyzes, because the inputs are assumed to be independent of each other in multiple regression analyzes. Two methods can be followed to determine whether this problem exists (Hines & Montgomery, 1990; Alpar, 2003; Albayrak, 2005): (i) The correlation coefficient between independent variables should not be close to 1. (ii) The VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) value, which indicates the degree of relationship of an independent variable with other independent variables, should not be equal to or greater than 10. In the present study, according to the correlation results, the correlation between independent variables is found as .85. When the VIF value is above .90, a multicollinearity problem is seen. Thus this value is not a problem. Moreover, the VIF values of both independent variables of the study were found as 3.63. Accordingly, it can be argued that multicollinearity is not a problem between the variables within the study.

Furthermore, the self-report method, which constitutes the majority of quantitative studies, was also used in this study. As a disadvantage of the self-report method, the relations between the variables may be higher than usual, that is, inflated (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). In the present study, Harman's one-factor test was applied to test whether there is any potential common method bias. The results have demonstrated that 40.89% of the total variance is expected to be lower than 50%. Consequently, common method bias has not a significant effect on the study.

After the preliminary analysis of the variables, Pearson Correlation Analysis was performed to see the relationships among the study's variables. Descriptive statistics and correlation analysis results are shown in Table 17. In addition, correlation analysis was run with sub-dimensions of the variables, and the correlation table of the sub-dimensions is presented in Appendix A.

Table 17. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Employee Well-Being	4.40	.91	1			
2. Organizational Virtuousness	4.33	1.10	.68**	1		
3. Socially Responsible Leadership	4.17	1.18	.63**	.85**	1	
4. Social Capital	4.76	.80	.52**	.64**	.56**	1

N=311; **p* < .05; ***p* < .01 (2-tailed)

According to the results of the correlation analysis, all the variables are significantly and positively related to each other. It was found that the employee well-being has a moderate significant correlation with organizational virtuousness ($r = .68, p < 0.01$), a moderate significant correlation with socially responsible leadership ($r = .63, p < 0.01$), and a moderate significant correlation with social capital ($r = .52, p < 0.01$). For organizational virtuousness, the relationship with socially responsible leadership was significantly strong correlation ($r = .85, p < 0.01$) and the relationship with social capital was significantly moderate correlation ($r = .64, p < 0.01$). Finally, socially responsible leadership significantly and moderately correlated with social capital ($r = .56, p < 0.01$). Considering the correlation table in a body, the highest value was found between organizational virtuousness and socially responsible leadership, while the lowest value was found between employee well-being and social capital.

4.3. Hypothesis Testing

4.3.1. Regression Analysis

After the correlation analysis, regression analysis was applied to test the hypotheses. This chapter will examine the contributions of the independent variables in Hypothesis 1 and 2 to the dependent variable.

A simple regression analysis was conducted to examine the effect of organizational virtuousness on employee well-being. The result of regression analysis demonstrated that organizational virtuousness has a positive and significant contribution to the level of employee well-being ($\beta = .56, p < .001, F = 270.67$). In this regard, 46% of employee well-being can be

explained by organizational virtuousness, as presented in Table 18. With this, organizational virtuousness has significant explanatory power over employee well-being. As a result, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Table 18. Contribution of Organizational Virtuousness to Employee Well-Being

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	1.94	.15	12.66	.000***
Organizational Virtuousness	.56	.03	16.45	.000***
R = .68; R ² = .46; F = 270.67				

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Furthermore, a simple regression analysis was rerun to test socially responsible leadership's effect on employee well-being. Based on the values listed in Table 19, socially responsible leadership had a positive and significant effect on employee well-being ($\beta = .48$, $p < .001$, $F = 203.31$). In this regard, 39% of employee well-being can be explained by socially responsible leadership. It can be mentioned that socially responsible leadership contributes and predict employee well-being. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is supported.

Table 19. Contribution of Socially Responsible Leadership to Employee Well-Being

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	2.38	.14	16.21	.000***
Socially Resp. Leadership	.48	.03	14.25	.000***
R = .63; R ² = .39; F = 203.31				

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

4.3.2. Mediator Analysis

To test the mediator role of social capital proposed in Hypotheses 3 and 4, the three-step model suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used. In the first step, the direct effect of the independent variable on the mediating variable should be checked. In the second step, the significant impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable should be controlled. In the last step, the significant contribution of the independent and mediating variables to the dependent variables should be examined.

The results of mediation analysis in Table 20 present that organizational virtuousness contribute to both social capital ($\beta = .46, p < .001$) and employee well-being ($\beta = .56, p < .001$) as the three-step model suggested. Accordingly, the first and the second steps fit the model. In the last step, organizational virtuousness and social capital together make a significant contribution to employee well-being ($\beta = .48, p < .001; \beta = .17, p < .01$). As a result, it can be concluded that social capital had a partial mediator role on the relationship between organizational virtuousness and employee well-being. Thus, Hypothesis 3 is supported.

Table 20. The Mediating Role of Social Capital between Organizational Virtuousness and Employee Well-Being

	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	<i>R</i> ²	<i>Adj R</i> ²	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
1 st Step	Social Capital	Organizational Virtuousness	.41	.40	214.78	.000	.46	14.65	.000***
2 nd Step	Employee Well-Being	Organizational Virtuousness	.46	.46	270.67	.000	.56	16.45	.000***
3 rd Step	Employee Well-Being	Organizational Virtuousness Social Capital	.48	.47	142.38	.000	.48 .17	10.97 2.82	.000*** .005**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Moreover, the same method was used to examine the mediating role of social capital on the relationship between socially responsible leadership and employee well-being. The results of mediation analysis in Table 21 show that socially responsible leadership contribute to both social capital ($\beta = .37, p < .001$) and employee well-being ($\beta = .48, p < .001$). Accordingly, the first and the second steps fit the model. In the last step, socially responsible leadership and social capital together make significant contribution to employee well-being ($\beta = .37, p < .001$;

$\beta = .28, p < .001$). Therefore, it can be concluded that social capital partially mediated the relationship between socially responsible leadership and employee well-being. In this regard, Hypothesis 4 is supported.

Table 21. The Mediating Role of Social Capital between Socially Responsible Leadership and Employee Well-Being

	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	R^2	<i>Adj</i> R^2	F	p	β	t	p
1 st Step	Social Capital	SRL	.31	.31	141.13	.000	.37	11.88	.000***
2 nd Step	Employee Well-Being	SRL	.39	.39	203.31	.000	.48	14.25	.000***
3 rd Step	Employee Well-Being	SRL Social Capital	.44	.43	121.45	.000	.37 .28	9.49 4.92	.000*** .000***

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

According to the Sobel Test result, both the mediator model are significant and approved that social capital mediates the relationships demonstrated in H3 and H4 ($p < 0.001$). The effect of organizational virtuousness on employee well-being due to social capital is 14.1%, and the impact of socially responsible leadership on employee well-being due to social capital is 22.4%.

4.4. Analysis of the Comparative Tests

4.4.1. Independent Samples T-Test

T-test analysis was performed for gender, age, and marital status. No significant differences were found for the gender and marital status variables regarding employee well-being, organizational virtuousness, socially responsible leadership, and social capital.

On the other hand, the age variable consisted of 3 categories; however, more than 30 people in a group should increase its representation power (Durmuş et al., 2013). For this reason, the categories of 36-45 years and 46 years and above were combined as a single group. Since the age variable fell into two groups, the t-test was performed. There was a significant difference between the groups of “22-35 years” and “36 years and above” in terms of employees’ well-being at 95% ($t = -2.24, df = 309, p < .05$), as seen in Table 22. Participants

aged 36 and over ($M = 4.58$) had higher well-being at work than those aged between 22 and 35 ($M = 4.32$).

Table 22. T-Test of Age and Employee Well-Being

	Age	N	M	SD	t	df	p
Employee Well-Being	22-35 years	225	4.32	.90	-2.24	309	.026
	36 year and above	86	4.58	.90			

4.4.2. One-Way ANOVA Tests

One-way ANOVA tests were performed to test whether the study variables differ depending on education, total work experience in business life, total current organization experience, and total experience with the current manager. As a result of the analyses, the level of employees' well-being, organizational virtuousness, socially responsible leadership, and social capital did not differ depending on education and total experience with the current manager. However, differences were found between the total work experience and current organization experience. Five categories were identified as less than 1 year, 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, and 16 years and above to determine whether both demographic factors differ in the study variables.

First, as above, 6 participants in the group of less than 1 year were included in the group of 1-5 years regarding the representation of the sample group. When ANOVA analysis was run between the participants' total work experience and study variables, it was determined that there was only a significant difference with socially responsible leadership ($p = .006$). The scores of participants with total work experience between 0 and 5 years ($M = 4.31$) and 16 and above ($M = 4.49$) were higher than the scores of participants with total experience between 6 and 10 years ($M = 3.86$), as shown in Table 23.

Table 23. ANOVA Test of Total Work Experience and Socially Responsible Leadership

	Groups	N	M	SD	F	p
Socially Responsible Leadership	0-5 years	102	4.31	1.03	4.20	.006
	6-10 years	109	3.86	1.19		
	11-16 years	61	4.27	1.26		
	16 and above	39	4.49	1.29		

The other variable differing among the demographic variables was total current organization experience. 13 participants in the group of 16 and above were included in the group of 11-15 years regarding the representation of the sample group. ANOVA results show that employee well-being, as well as socially responsible leadership demonstrated some differences in terms of total current organization experience. As presented in Table 24, there was a significant difference in employee well-being mean scores between total current organization experience groups ($p = .010$) with the scores of participants with total organization experience between 1 and 5 years ($M = 4.50$) being higher than scores of participants with total organization experience between 6 and 10 years ($M = 4.10$). Besides, there was a significant difference in socially responsible leadership mean scores between total current organization experience groups ($p = .002$). Participants with total organization experience of less than 1 year ($M = 4.37$) perceive socially responsible leadership more than those with total organization experience between 6 and 10 years ($M = 3.77$). Lastly, the participants with total organization experience of 11 years and above ($M = 4.58$) perceive socially responsible leadership more than those in the 6-10 years ($M = 3.77$).

Table 24. ANOVA Tests of Total Current Organization Experience with Employee Well-Being and Socially Responsible Leadership

	Groups	N	M	SD	F	p
Employee Well-Being	Less than 1 year	60	4.44	.93	3.83	.010
	1-5 years	137	4.50	.85		
	6-10 years	76	4.10	.98		
	11 and above	38	4.55	.83		
Socially Responsible Leadership	Less than 1 year	60	4.37	1.02	5.17	.002
	1-5 years	137	4.18	1.20		
	6-10 years	76	3.77	1.21		
	11 and above	38	4.58	1.12		

5. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

5.1. Summary of the Findings

In the previous chapter of the study, the main research was completed. Moreover, necessary analyzes were conducted, and the main study results were obtained. The results show that the four hypotheses established within the scope of the study are supported. In this chapter, the hypotheses are summarized in Table 25. The beta values of the relationships that emerged as a result of the analyses are given in Figure 3.

Table 25. Summary of the Hypotheses of the Study

	Hypothesis of the Study	Findings
H1	There is a positive relationship between organizational virtuousness and employee well-being.	Supported
H2	There is a positive relationship between socially responsible leadership employee well-being.	Supported
H3	Social capital has a mediating effect on the relationship between organizational virtuousness and employee well-being.	Partially Supported
H4	Social capital has a mediating effect on the relationship between socially responsible leadership and employee well-being.	Partially Supported

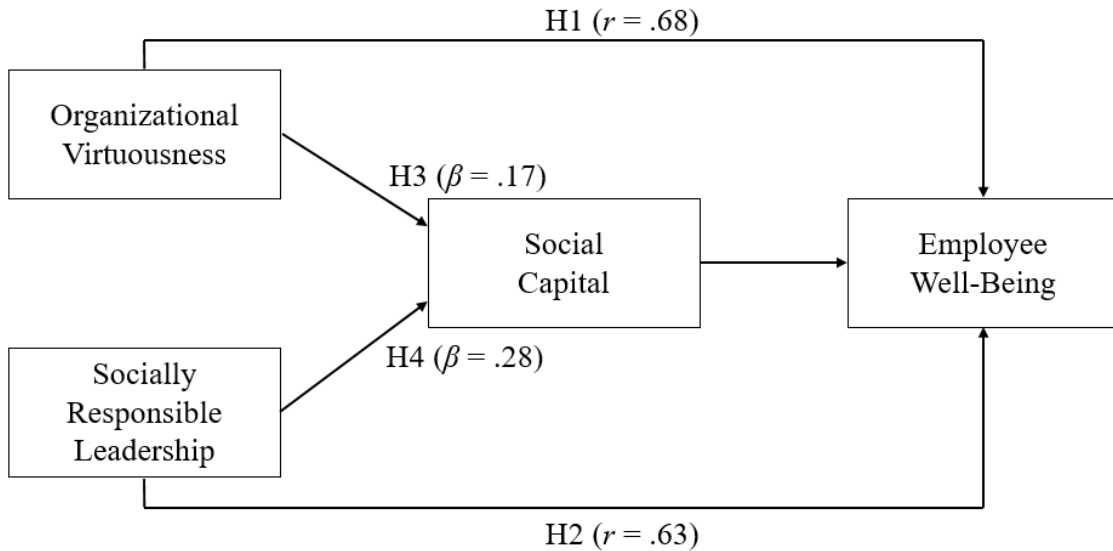


Figure 3. Results of the Hypotheses Tests

5.2. Conclusion of the Study

Based on Positive Organizational Behavior (Luthans, 2002a; 2002b) approach, firstly, it aims to reveal the relationship between organizational virtuousness, socially responsible leadership, and employee well-being. At the same time, finding the mediator role of social capital in such relationships is one of the aims of the study. The concepts are based broadly, and many studies in their fields continue to reveal these relationships. In this context, the results have been reached through the sample determined within the limits of the current study. These results are explained as follows.

The first part of the study comprehensively discusses the definitions, theories, and research of the four concepts (employee well-being, organizational virtuousness, socially responsible leadership, and social capital) constituting the current research subject. Then, in the next part, the method followed to analyze the research is explained in terms of scales, pilot study, and sample characteristics. Finally, analyses of the scales were applied, and analyses were run that revealed the relationship and effects among the variables. The mediating role of social capital in these relations was examined. In the last part, it was discussed whether significant differences exist among some demographic groups in terms of the variables of this study.

The present study used Employee Well-Being Scale, Organizational Virtuousness Scale, Socially Responsible Leadership Scale, and Social Capital Scale to estimate variables. CFA was executed for each scale, and the final results of CFA showed good fit models for all of them. Among the scales, since only the Employee Well-Being scale was translated into Turkish within the scope of this study, first, EFA was performed, and then CFA was run. Similarly, reliability analyses were conducted to examine the internal consistency of each scale. The results revealed that each scale was statistically reliable: Employee Well-Being Scale ($\alpha = .93$), Organizational Virtuousness Scale ($\alpha = .96$), Socially Responsible Leadership Scale ($\alpha = .95$), and Social Capital Scale ($\alpha = .95$).

First, correlation and regression analyses were applied to find the relationship between organizational virtuousness, socially responsible leadership, and employee well-being. When we consider the first hypothesis, which refers to the effect of organizational virtuousness on employee well-being, the current results revealed a significantly moderate and positive relationship between such variables. Organizational virtuousness predicts employee well-being at 46% rate ($\beta = .56, p < .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was supported. On the other hand, the study's second hypothesis was established to examine the relationship between socially responsible leadership and employee well-being. It was found that employee well-being has a moderately significant correlation with socially responsible leadership. Furthermore, socially responsible leadership explains employee well-being at 39% rate ($\beta = .48, p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was also supported.

Then, the third hypothesis of the study was established to examine and predict the mediating effect of social capital on the relationship between organizational virtuousness and employee well-being. In the correlation table, it was found that all three variables are significantly related to each other. According to the three-step model suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), organizational virtuousness contribute to both social capital ($\beta = .46, p < .001$) and employee well-being ($\beta = .56, p < .001$). In addition, organizational virtuousness and social capital together make a significant contribution to employee well-being ($\beta = .48, p < .001; \beta = .17, p < .01$). The current findings demonstrated that there is a partial mediating effect of social capital on the relationship between organizational virtuousness and employee well-being. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was supported partially. The last hypothesis of the study was created to examine and predict the mediating effect of social capital on the relationship between socially responsible leadership and employee well-being. In the correlation table, it was found that all three variables are significantly related to each other. According to same model as mentioned

in previous hypothesis, socially responsible leadership contribute to both social capital ($\beta = .31$, $p < .001$) and employee well-being ($\beta = .39$, $p < .001$). Moreover, socially responsible leadership and social capital together make significant contribution to employee well-being ($\beta = .37$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .28$, $p < .001$). Therefore, it can be concluded that social capital partially mediated the relationship between socially responsible leadership and employee well-being. In this regard, Hypothesis 4 was also supported partially.

In addition, t-test analysis was performed for gender, age, and marital status. One-way ANOVA tests were also performed to test whether the study variables differ depending on education, total work experience in business life, total current organization experience, and total experience with the current manager. Independent sample t-tests demonstrated a significant difference between age groups regarding employee well-being. Participants aged 36 and over ($M = 4.58$) had higher well-being at work than those aged between 22 and 35 ($M = 4.32$). On the other hand, one-way ANOVA also demonstrated a statistically significant difference between some groups of total work experience and total current organization experience in socially responsible leadership. People with total work experience between 0 and 5 years ($M = 4.31$) and 16 and above ($M = 4.49$) tend to perceive socially responsible leaders more than people with total experience between 6 and 10 years ($M = 3.86$). Similarly, people who have total current organization experience of less than 1 year ($M = 4.37$) and 11 years and above ($M = 4.58$) perceive socially responsible leadership more than the ones who have total organization experience between 6 and 10 years ($M = 3.77$). Lastly, there was a significant difference in employee well-being regarding the total current organization experience. People with total organization experience between 1 and 5 years ($M = 4.50$) were higher than people with total organization experience between 6 and 10 years ($M = 4.10$).

In light of the study's results, many individuals, organizational, and theoretical implications may affect organizational outputs in an attitudinal or behavioral sense. Furthermore, some scholarly implications can be presented to shed light on the concepts in the research model for future studies. All of those will be discussed in the next part.

5.3. Discussion

This study has some theoretical and managerial implications, as it reveals concepts that have not been discussed and studied relatively much in the relevant literature, according to the perception of a particular sample. It will be addressed by drawing attention to the theoretical implications and managerial implications together under this part.

First, when the scale structures were checked, it was observed that all scales were similar to the dimensions previously stated in the relevant literature. According to the confirmatory factor analysis of the 26-item Social Capital Scale, only Item 16, “If one of my colleagues is transferred somewhere, both they and we will feel lonely” was excluded from the analysis. Thus, it can be deduced that Item 16 is not significant for the relevant relational social capital factor due to low factor loading within the sample obtained. On the other hand, except for the Employee Well-Being (EWB) scale, the other three scales have already been tested for validity and reliability as they were used in the Turkish context (e.g., Erkmen and Esen (2012) for organizational virtuousness, Taştan and Güçel (2017) for social capital, and Taştan and Davoudi (2019) for socially responsible leadership). All the scales’ structures regarding this study’s results overlap with the previous literature. However, since the EWB scale was not utilized much in the Turkish context and its Turkish adaptation could not be found within the research process, the researchers translated it into Turkish, and its face validity was implemented. Then, the validity and reliability of the translated scale were tested by first performing EFA and then CFA. As a result of the analysis, the three-dimensional EWB scale was found to be three-dimensional as in its original form (Zheng et al., 2015) under the research sample. Item 8 (In general, I feel fairly satisfied with my present job.) and Item 14 (I handle daily affairs well.) were excluded from the analysis because of the covariance created with other variables as to the research sample. It can be concluded that the sample does not sufficiently understand the Turkish meaning of these two items since they also explain other variables apart from the variables they are in.

Hypothesis 1 predicted finding the relationship between organizational virtuousness and employee well-being, and H1 was supported according to the analysis results. These findings support some previous studies. For example, individuals in virtuous organizations experience less psychological stress, engage in less destructive behavior (Caza et al., 2004), have higher resilience (Cameron, 2003), and have more positive emotions (Şener, 2018). Moreover, all sub-dimensions of organizational virtuousness and employee well-being are correlated (see Appendix A). It was concluded that each dimension of organizational virtuousness also predicts overall employee well-being and sub-dimensions. As a result, to maintain people’s happiness in the organization, it is necessary to increase its virtuous behavior. The more virtuous behaviors are experienced within the organization, and these behaviors are shared among the employees, the better life well-being, workplace well-being, and psychological well-being of the employee might be observed in the organization. When interpreted from an even deeper perspective,

ethical and moral issues in philosophy are at the core of the concept of organizational virtuousness. Many philosophers talk about being moral or displaying virtuous behavior while defining happiness. Considering that the starting point of the concept of well-being is happiness in philosophy, it can be said that it is possible to find a relationship between these concepts in organizations that reflect society.

Hypothesis 2 predicted finding the relationship between socially responsible leadership (SRL) and employee well-being, and H2 was supported according to the analysis results. Finding a positive relationship between both variables and supporting the hypothesis is consistent with previous studies. Responsible leaders help people to realize their potential by creating a positive climate as they communicate fairly with all stakeholders and work for the success of each one (Cameron & Caza, 2002). Another study underlines that team psychological safety, knowledge sharing, and sustainable development of the organization are crucial for responsible leadership (Doh & Quigley, 2014). We can say that the stakeholders of socially responsible leaders, based on stakeholder theory, are their employees. These leaders create the appropriate stakeholder culture for their employees, implement fair processes and practices, and provide the necessary support for each employee. Contributing to the employees so much may mean that the leader is raising a socially responsible leader for the future because there is a participatory view at SRL that followers can also be leaders one day. It is predictable that SRL, which has many positive outcomes for organizations, will contribute to the EWB within the framework of positive organizational behavior.

In Hypothesis 3 and 4, examining the mediating role of social capital on the relationships was discussed above, and both hypotheses were partially supported. In other words, social capital has a partial mediation effect on both relationships. It has been demonstrated that social capital is one of the consequences of virtuousness amplifying effect. Amplifying the qualities of social capital encourages the reproduction of positive results such as positive emotions and prosocial behaviors along with social capital (Cameron et al., 2004; Bright et al., 2006). On the other hand, social capital makes people feel better by keeping them away from negative mental problems (Putnam, 2000; Çetin, 2021). Moreover, social capital is different from other types of capital and includes mutual understanding, shared values, cooperation, and human networks (Cohen & Prusak, 2001). Since SRL as a concept consists of the stakeholder culture, it can be said that these leaders create social capital through their inclusive communication and contribute positively to the well-being of their employees through the mediation effect. However, employees' well-being depends not only on the mediating role of social capital but

also on the stakeholder culture created by the leader, fair evaluation of human resources practices, and providing managerial support. It is an essential contribution to the literature that both hypotheses are significant. No research has been found that measures the mediating effect of social capital as stated in both H3 and H4 hypotheses.

For the practical implementations of this study, we can suggest the following implications: Employee well-being practices should increase gradually and be diversified according to the needs of the organizations. In addition, it is crucial to be fair in matters related to human resources processes and to support their employees, whom they are considered crucial stakeholders. Virtuous behaviors within the organization should be reinforced and shared by all employees. Furthermore, the social network and communication channels established within the organization should be maintained very well. Finally, corporate transparency guidelines should be generalized, shared, and even explained to employees at specific intervals.

Lastly, according to the results of the t-test and ANOVA analyses, it can be concluded that people who have worked in their current organization for a maximum of five years feel more well-being than people who have worked in the same company for more than five years. Furthermore, working less in the same organization might provide more life well-being, workplace well-being, and psychological well-being. It can be said that people who are in middle age and above may experience more well-being than younger people in the workplace. It can be interpreted that ones with much newer or much older total work experience perceive their socially responsible leaders in their work life and organizations more than others. In summary, some significant differences were found between EWB and SRL variables and demographic variables in terms of the sample's demographic characteristics. While total work experience and current organization experience influence employees' SRL perception, age and current organization experience also create significant differences in EWB.

5.4. Limitations and Future Directions

In addition to many contributions to the literature, the current study has some limitations. First of all, this study was designed as cross-sectional. Accordingly, future studies may apply experimental manipulations or longitudinal studies to test such relationships over time.

Since the questionnaires were self-reported, the scores may be exaggerated due to common method bias. It is recommended to use multisourcing data involving the perception of

co-workers and managers for future studies. For example, within the scope of this study, managers could be asked to answer the socially responsible leadership scale on behalf of their self-evaluation. Thus, unlike traditional leadership concepts, the behavior of the leader, who sees themselves as one of their stakeholders, could evaluate their behavior in terms of both the employee and the leader, making comparative inferences easier.

Another limitation of the study is that although the sample is obtained from many sectors, it is limited to only one city, Istanbul. This way, the opinions of people living and working in only one city were taken. Conducting future studies with samples from different cities or regions provides insight in providing a comparative perspective and reflecting on the lifestyle in those regions in business life. In addition, people living in different areas can also examine their level of well-being according to whether the part they live in is rural, urban, or metropolitan. On the other hand, some sectoral and occupational inferences can be made within the sample obtained from different sectors. However, for future studies, analyzing a single sector through a specific sample can provide a deeper perspective on the subject.

Moreover, future studies may test more group-level or organizational-level variables that may affect employee well-being at the individual level. Thus, there can be more contribution to the employee well-being literature, which is a relatively new studied concept. Future studies could extend this research by testing other variables such as psychological capital, work-life balance, organizational support, work engagement, and work attachment. Apart from social capital, different mediator or moderator variables can be added to these relationships, such as collaborative culture or climate, organizational support, prosocial behavior, social connectedness, organizational trust, and organizational justice. Moreover, some moderator variables can also be added (e.g., individual concepts, hardness, resilience).

Lastly, statistical analyses in this study were limited to the relationships between main constructs. It is better to extend statistical analyses, including sub-dimensions of the scales as a future suggestion, and it would provide a more specific understanding of the relationships among concepts. For example, organizational virtuousness, one of the concepts in the study, was found to have a positive and significant effect on employee well-being. In terms of sub-dimensions, determining which sub-dimensions (optimism, trust, compassion, integrity, and forgiveness) most affect employee well-being may mean helping that behavior is experienced more in the organization. These statistical analyses can be extended by involving the sub-dimensions of the variables in future studies.

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APPENDIX A. CORRELATION RESULTS AMONG THE SUB-DIMENSIONS OF THE STUDY VARIABLES

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Employee Well-Being	4.40	.91	1															
2. Life Well-Being	4.11	1.06	.93**	1														
3. Workplace Well-Being	4.48	1.07	.90**	.76**	1													
4. Psych. Well-Being	4.79	.86	.78**	.60**	.62**	1												
5. Org. Virtuousness	4.33	1.10	.68**	.62**	.65**	.53**	1											
6. Optimism	4.16	1.17	.66**	.57**	.66**	.49**	.84**	1										
7. Trust & Compassion	4.37	1.13	.63**	.58**	.60**	.47**	.96**	.75**	1									
8. Integrity & Forgiveness	4.37	1.20	.63**	.57**	.58**	.51**	.95**	.71**	.88**	1								
9. SRL	4.17	1.18	.63**	.59**	.58**	.46**	.85**	.68**	.80**	.84**	1							
10. Stakehol. Culture	4.50	1.20	.51**	.49**	.46**	.40**	.73**	.55**	.67**	.76**	.84**	1						
11. HR Practices	3.79	1.39	.57**	.54**	.54**	.40**	.76**	.64**	.72**	.74**	.91**	.68**	1					
12. Manag. Support	4.30	1.43	.56**	.53**	.51**	.41**	.75**	.58**	.73**	.73**	.86**	.60**	.67**	1				

13. Social Capital	4.76	.80	.52**	.43**	.52**	.47**	.64**	.57**	.60**	.61**	.56**	.51**	.45**	.52**	1			
14. Structural Social Capital	4.84	.95	.33**	.26**	.32**	.32**	.38**	.34**	.35**	.38**	.37**	.35**	.29**	.35**	.82**	1		
15. Cognitive Social Capital	4.87	1.03	.33**	.27**	.33**	.29**	.45**	.40**	.44**	.42**	.38**	.37**	.28**	.36**	.77**	.61**	1	
16. Relational Social Capital	4.67	.91	.56**	.46**	.57**	.49**	.68**	.62**	.64**	.64**	.58**	.52**	.47**	.53**	.89**	.50**	.61**	1

N=311; **p* < .05; ***p* < .01 (2-tailed)

APPENDIX B. QUESTIONNAIRE FORM

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu anket formu, akademik bir araştırmaya veri tabanı sağlamak üzere hazırlanmış olup çalışanların bir birey olarak iyi oluşlarının (employee well-being), bireysel, örgütsel ve lider temelli değişkenler açısından görüşlerini almayı amaçlamaktadır. Formdaki ifadelerin doğru/yanlış cevapları yoktur ve anket içerisinde yer alan tüm bölümleri **eksiksiz yanıtlanmanız** araştırmanın geçerliliği açısından önemlidir. Katılımcılardan ad-soyad gibi kişisel bilgiler istenmemektedir.

Değerli zamanınızı ayırarak bilimsel bir çalışmaya sağladığınız katkı için teşekkür ederiz.

Ankete katılmayı kabul ediyorsanız devam etmek için lütfen kutucuğa X koyun.

Araştırmacılar

Doç. Dr. Seçil TAŞTAN
Marmara Üniversitesi
İşletme Fakültesi / İngilizce İşletme Bölümü
Örgütsel Davranış Anabilim Dalı Öğretim
Üyesi

Merve KARAHAN
Marmara Üniversitesi
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü / İngilizce İşletme
Bölümü
Örgütsel Davranış Anabilim Dalı Doktora
Öğrencisi

◆ Kendinizden bahseder misiniz?

1. Cinsiyetiniz: () Kadın () Erkek

2. Yaşınız: () 18-21 () 22-35 () 36-45 () 46 ve üstü

3. Medeni Durumunuz: () Bekar () Evli

4. Eğitim Düzeyiniz (Lütfen mezun olduğunuz son okulu belirtiniz):

() İlk/Orta Öğretim () Lise () Ön-Lisans (Yüksekokul)
() Üniversite () Yüksek Lisans/Doktora

5. Meslek yaşamınızdaki toplam iş tecrübeniz:

() 1 yıldan az () 1-5 yıl () 6-10 yıl () 11-15 yıl () 16 yıl ve üstü

6. Şu anki kurumunuzda kaç yıldır çalışmaktasınız?

() 1 yıldan az () 1-5 yıl () 6-10 yıl () 11-15 yıl () 16 yıl ve üstü

7. Şu anki yöneticiniz ile çalışma süreniz:

() 1 yıldan az () 1-5 yıl () 6-10 yıl () 11-15 yıl () 16 yıl ve üstü

8. Hangi sektörde çalışmaktasınız? _____

◆ *Mevcut kurumunuzdaki sosyal ilişkileri ve iletişimi nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?*

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerden *sizi en iyi tanımlayan bir seçeneği* işaretleyiniz.

Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum (1)	Katılmıyorum (2)	Pek Katılmıyorum (3)	Biraz Katılıyorum (4)	Katılıyorum (5)	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum (6)
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1	Bilgilerimizi diğerleriyle paylaşabileceğimiz iletişim kanalları mevcuttur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	İletişim kanalları, başkalarının sahip olduğu bilgilere erişimime olanak sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	İletişim kanalları, farklı birim ve kişilerde mevcut olan bilgilerin paylaşılmasına olanak sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	İletişim sistemi, farklı birim ve kişilerden gelen bilgilerin diğer kişilere zamanında iletilmesine olanak sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	İletişim ağı, ağ içinde bulunan kişilere bilgilerini paylaşma ve dağıtma olanaklarından haberdar olma fırsatı sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	İletişim kanalında, bilgi paylaşımını gerçekleştirecek çok sayıda kişi ve birim yer alır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	İletişim kanalı, bilgisini paylaşmak isteyen kişi ve birimlerin kolayca iletişim ağına katılmasına olanak sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Örgütsel anlayış, farklı bireysel ve kültürel değerlere dayalı iletişim ve ilişkilerin oluşmasına olanak sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	İletişim kanalları, farklı birim ve kişilerde mevcut olan bilgilerin dağıtılmasına olanak sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Birbirimizi anlamamızı ve iletişime geçmemizi kolaylaştıracak ortak terimler, ifadeler ve sözlerden oluşan bir dil kullanırız.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Kullandığımız ortak dil, sahip olunan ve paylaşılan bilgileri elde etmede, yorumlamada ve anlamada etkinlik sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Kullandığımız ortak dil, mevcut bilgilerden yeni bilgiler elde edilmesinde kolaylık sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Anlatılan başarı hikâyeleri; bireyler ve birimler için bilgi ve değerlerin yaratılmasında,	1	2	3	4	5	6

	paylaşılmasında ve saklanmasında yol gösterici olur.						
14	İş arkadaşlarım ile paylaşımcı bir ilişkimiz vardır. Fikirlerimizi, duygularımızı ve ümitlerimizi rahatlıkla paylaşabiliriz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	İşle ilgili yaşadığım zorlukları iş arkadaşlarımla özgürce konuşabilirim ve onlar da beni dinlemek ister.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Eğer iş arkadaşlarımdan birileri bir yere transfer edilirse hem onlar hem biz yalnızlık hissederiz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Eğer iş arkadaşlarımla sorunlarımı paylaşırsam, yapıcı ve ilgili bir şekilde davranacaklardır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	İş arkadaşlarımla ilişkilerimizde, birbirimize hatırı sayılır duygusal yatırımlar yaparız.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Takım çalışmasını ve yardımlaşmayı destekleyen bir anlayışımız vardır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	İletişime ve bilgi paylaşımına isteklilik ve açıklık, paylaşılan bir değerdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Eleştirilere ve farklı fikirlere açıklık, paylaşılan bir değerdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	Yazılı olmayan kurallar bilgi paylaşımını desteklemektedir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	İletişime ve bilgi paylaşımına isteklilik ve açıklık, benim de benzer şekilde davranmamı sağlıyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	Paylaşılan değerleri kendi değerlerimle uyumlu buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	Kendimi, diğer çalışanlar ve kurumlarla birlikte bir bütün olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	İletişime ve bilgi paylaşımına isteklilik ve açıklık değerleri, beni de bu yönde davranmaya sevk ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6

◆ **Kendiniz, hayatınız ve iş hayatınız hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?**

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerden *sizi en iyi tanımlayan bir seçeneği* işaretleyiniz.

Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum (1)	Katılmıyorum (2)	Pek Katılmıyorum (3)	Biraz Katılmıyorum (4)	Katılıyorum (5)	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum (6)
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1	Hayatımdan memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Hayatımın çoğu alanında hayallerime ulaşmaya yakınım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Çoğu zaman gerçek mutluluğu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6

4	Yaşam koşullarım iyi durumdadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Hayatım çok keyiflidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Yeniden dünyaya gelsem yine böyle yaşardım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	İşteki sorumluluklarımdan memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Genel olarak mevcut işimden oldukça memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	İşimi yaparken gerçek anlamda keyif alıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Her zaman işime renk katmanın yollarını bulabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Çalışmak, benim için anlamlı bir deneyimdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Mevcut işimden elde ettiğim kazanımlar beni genel olarak memnun eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Bir birey olarak gelişme gösterdiğimi düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Günlük işlerin iyi bir şekilde üstesinden gelirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Genel olarak kendimle ilgili düşüncelerim olumludur ve kendimden eminimdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	İnsanlar, başkalarına zaman ayırmaya ve zamanımı onlarla paylaşmaya istekli olduğumu düşünür.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	İşim için esnek zaman çizelgeleri oluşturmada iyiyimdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Birbirimizi daha iyi anlayabilmek adına ailem ve arkadaşarımla derin sohbetler etmeyi severim.	1	2	3	4	5	6

◆ *Mevcut kurumunuz hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?*

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerden *sizi en iyi tanımlayan bir seçeneği* işaretleyiniz.

Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum (1)	Katılmıyorum (2)	Pek Katılmıyorum (3)	Biraz Katılıyorum (4)	Katılıyorum (5)	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum (6)
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1	Bu kurumda yapılan işler, derin bir amaç duygusuyla ilişkilidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Bu kurumda çalışanlar, işleri iyi yapmanın yanı sıra iyi işler yapmaya da kendilerini adanmışlardır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Bu kurumda çalışanlar, zorluklarla karşılaşmalar dahi başarılı olunacağı konusunda iyimserdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Bu kurumda çalışanlar, birbirlerine güvenirlere.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Bu kurumda çalışanlar, nezaket ve saygı kuralları çerçevesinde hareket ederler.	1	2	3	4	5	6

6	Çalışanlar, bu kurumda gösterilen liderlik davranışına güven duyar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Bu kurumda, nezaket kurallarına yaygın olarak uyulur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Bu kurum, çalışanların haklarına ve isteklerine saygı gösteren bir kurum olarak tanınır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Bu kurumda, çalışanlara saygı duyulduğuna ve onlara ilgi gösterildiğine ilişkin hikâyeler anlatılır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Dürüstlük ve güvenilirlik bu kurumun belirleyici özellikleridir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Bu kurum çok dürüst olarak bilinmektedir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Bu kurum, erdemli ve itibarlı olarak tanımlanır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Bu kurumda hatalardan ders alınır ve bu hatalar kısa sürede telafi edilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Bu kurum, bağışlayıcı ve hoşgörülü bir kurumdur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Bu kurum yüksek performans standartlarına sahip olmasına rağmen, kabul edildiğinde ve düzeltildiğinde hatalar affedilebilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6

◆ *Mevcut kurumunuz, yöneticiniz ve İnsan Kaynakları uygulamalarını nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?*

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerden *sizi en iyi tanımlayan bir seçeneği* işaretleyiniz.

Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum (1)	Katılmıyorum (2)	Pek Katılmıyorum (3)	Biraz Katılmıyorum (4)	Katılıyorum (5)	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum (6)
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1	Kurumumuz, toplumda aktif bir rol oynar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Kurumumuz, iş etiğine ve çalışanlara etik eğitimi verme konusuna önem verir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Kurumumuz, toplumdaki tüm paydaşlarıyla olumlu bir etkileşime sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Kurumumuz, kurumsal sosyal sorumluluk çalışmalarına önem verir ve bunun için politikalar geliştirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Kurumumuz, performans değerlendirme programlarını etkin şekilde uygulayarak en yetenekli çalışanların işletmede kalmasını sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Kurumumuz, ücretlendirme sistemlerini etkin şekilde uygulayarak en yetenekli çalışanların işletmede kalmasını sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6

7	Kurumumuz, her çalışana birer potansiyel yetenek gözüyle bakar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Kurumumuzda, yüksek potansiyele sahip çalışanlara uygulanan eğitim programları onların kurumda kalmasını sağlamaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Kurumumuzda, başarılı ve yetenekli çalışanlara yönelik yapılandırılmış kariyer programları uygulanmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Yöneticim davranışlarıyla bizler için örnek teşkil eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Yöneticim, işimi daha iyi yapabilmem için bana gerekli desteği sunar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Yöneticim, yönetme konusunda etkilidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Yöneticim, çalışanların geliştirilmesi konusunda yetkindir.	1	2	3	4	5	6

KATILIMINIZ İÇİN TEŞEKKÜR EDERİZ.