

T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI
YÖNETİM VE ORGANİZASYON (İNG) BİLİM DALI

**RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CORPORATE
CULTURE AND JOB SATISFACTION**

AN APPLICATION IN BANKING SECTOR IN KDZ.EREĞLİ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

SENEM ÇAKIRYILMAZ

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ABSTRACT

Corporate culture is the building stone of a company. How it is managed and how it reflects to the employees become the vital part of the researches. Researchers who study on the importance of corporate culture are searching the possible effects of corporate culture in the companies to examine this concept more tangibly.

This study mainly aimed to find out relationship between corporate culture and job satisfaction. Result of the factor analysis indicated five factors of corporate culture as: “Development of human resources to focus on customer needs”, “Reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system”, “Resistance to change”, “Favourable conditions at work and collaboration” and “Strategy, goals and plans”. These factors emerged by analysing the data obtained from 155 employees working in banks in the town-Kdz.Ereğli with participation to the study by full counting method. It was seen that only three of them effected job satisfaction. The effecting factors appeared as: “Reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system”-as the most effecting factor, “Development of human resources to focus on customer needs”-as the second most effecting factor in rank and “Favourable conditions at work and collaboration”-as the least effecting factor.

In the literature, it is seen that there is lack of study searching for relationship between corporate culture dimensions and job satisfaction. In the previous researches, different studies related to typologies of corporate culture and job satisfaction took place. This study contributes to the existing literature results about which corporate culture factors appeared in the banking sector in town-Kdz.Ereğli and which of these factors effected job satisfaction. It is hoped that this study will be useful to fill the gaps related to this research area and will supply different point of view for future researches.

ÖZET

Kurum kültürü, şirketin yapı taşıdır. Nasıl yönetildiği ve çalışanları nasıl etkilediği, araştırmaların çok önemli bir parçası haline gelmektedir. Kurum kültürünün önemi üzerinde çalışan araştırmacılar, bu konsepti daha somut olarak incelemek için kurum kültürünün şirketlerdeki olası etkilerini araştırmaktadırlar.

Bu çalışma esas olarak kurum kültürü ve iş tatmini arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamıştır. Faktör analizi sonucu, şu beş kurum kültürü faktörünü işaret etmiştir: “Müşteri ihtiyaçlarına odaklanmak için insan kaynaklarının geliştirilmesi”, “Ödül, teşvik sistemi ve kontrol sisteminde kullanılan kural ve normlar” , “Değişime karşı direnç”, “İşte uygun koşullar ve işbirliği” ve “Strateji, amaçlar ve planlar”. Bu faktörler, Kdz. Ereğli ilçesindeki bankalarda çalışan, tam sayım yöntemine göre çalışmaya katılmış 155 kişiden elde edilen verinin analiz edilmesi sonucu ortaya çıkmıştır. Bunlardan sadece üç tanesinin iş tatminini etkilediği görülmüştür. Etkileyen faktörler şöyle belirtmiştir: “Ödül, teşvik sistemi ve kontrol sisteminde kullanılan kural ve normlar”- en çok etkileyen faktör, “Müşteri ihtiyaçlarına odaklanmak için insan kaynaklarının geliştirilmesi”-en çok etkileyen ikinci sıradaki faktör ve “İşte uygun koşullar ve işbirliği”-en az etkileyen faktör.

Literatürde kurum kültürü boyutları ile iş tatmini arasındaki ilişkiyi araştıran çalışmaların yetersiz miktarda olduğu görülmektedir. Önceki araştırmalarda, kurum kültürü tipolojileri ve iş tatmini ile ilgili olarak farklı çalışmalar yer almaktadır. Bu çalışma mevcut literatüre, hangi kurum kültürü faktörlerinin Kdz.Ereğli ilçesindeki bankacılık sektöründe belirttiği ve bu faktörlerden hangilerinin iş tatminini etkilemekte olduğuna dair sonuçları katmaktadır. Çalışmanın, bu araştırma alanındaki boşlukları doldurmada yararlı olacağı ve ileriki çalışmalar için farklı bir bakış açısı sunacağı umulmaktadır.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Objectives and the scope of thesis

This thesis includes literature by a comprehensive research on corporate culture including its definition, characteristics, functions, levels in organizations, process of beginning-getting maintained and changed, its types depending on different researches, its dimensions and assessments. Job satisfaction framework is constructed on its definition, theories, components and assessment. Also, literature about previous studies on the relationship between corporate culture and job satisfaction is examined in this thesis and an empirical study on this relationship related to employees working in banks in the town- Kdz.Ereğli is performed. Discussion, conclusion and implications for future research are written after the findings of the study.

The main objective of this thesis is to find out whether there is an effect of corporate culture on job satisfaction or not in banking sector in Kdz.Ereğli.

The importance of corporate culture is getting better known and understood day after day. How this subject gets managed and shared and its possible effects are searched by the researchers. Today, a second important topic that is also widely searched is job satisfaction of employees.

It is hoped that this study will be useful for future studies and for research area on these topics.

1.2. Importance of topic and the reason for focusing this research area

Corporate culture is the building stone of a company. How the corporate culture is managed and how it reflects to the employees become the vital part of the subject. Human is the backbone of the company. It helps the company stand or it may cause to bend. Thus, it means that the building stone feeds the backbone. Corporate culture is highly effected from the founder. So, what the founder wants to be internalized in the company may not match with what the employees guess to have. That situation may also reflect to what the employees think about their existing jobs or whether they are satisfied or not with their present jobs.

The concept of corporate culture must not be considered as a single issue. It effects how the system works in the company and also it gives us clues of what the founder brought to the company with him/herself. Köse, Tetik and Ercan (2001, p.219, 228) say: “Organizational culture is expressed as the system of norms, behavior ve values, beliefs and habbits system that direct behaviors of individuals in an organization. Today, organizational culture plays an important role for corporations to obtain competitive advantage. Organizational culture supplies internal variables that give organization members a different identity and help them to commit to the organization and are shared by organization members. Organizational culture regulates relationships between individuals and teams, relations with environment, activities, with another word of saying as organizational life and determinates the future of the organization”. Depending on these words, corporate culture also regulates activities. How employees perform their jobs is also a part of these activities. Thus, organizational culture supplies rules and norms and the desired behaviours to the employees and the organization desires employees to obey them. If employees feel themselves closed to these regulations and values, they adapt to company culture easier and that may facilitate the internalization of company values for the individuals. However, if employees feel themselves so far to company priorities, culture and values that make them work unwillingly or leave the organization. That also effects their job satisfaction levels. Because, at least as an example rules and norms, the mentality of employees’ job security, depending on which criterions employees are rewarded become important at job. Because employees will come face to face every day with the components of

corporate culture that relates to their jobs. Thus, it will be normal that their job satisfaction may be effected by the corporate culture of the company.

Hodgetts (1999, p.555) says that company culture points at behaviors, acts, manners and expectations of employees of the company. At the process of beginning of a corporate culture and maintaining it in the company, the role of founder can not be incontrovertible. The founder creates a group of employees who will have strength on directing employees around him / her and these employees extend corporate culture in the company by applications. For the new recruits, if their expectations do not match with what they get, also about their jobs, that can cause problems about adaptation to the company, accepting company culture and the level of their job satisfaction.

The topic is very important to be searched about. Köse, Tetik and Ercan (2001, p.228) touch on that corporate culture determinates the future of the organization as also mentioned above and this supports the idea of how much this topic is important.

Existing literature indicated that there were studies about relationship between corporate culture and job satisfaction. In Lund's (2003), Silverthorne's (2003), Lok and Crawford's (2004), Huang's (2005), Koberg and Chusmir's (1987) and Pool's (2000) studies, it was seen that significant relationship between two variables was found, however this relationship was depending on different corporate culture typologies used in these studies. Ooi, Bakar Arumugam, Vellapan and Loke (2007) found that teamwork, organizational trust, organizational culture and customer focus were positively associated with employees' job satisfaction. Another study by Sosa and Sagas (2006) indicated that organizational culture had a significant effect on job satisfaction.

Moreover, Fey and Denison (2003) and Denison and Mishra (1995) found a significant relationship between corporate culture traits and job satisfaction. Ginevičius and Vaitkūnaitė (2006) studied on the relationship between dimensions of corporate culture and job satisfaction.

Literature review points out that there is lack of study about relationship between corporate culture and job satisfaction depending on dimensions of corporate culture. That was why this field of research was selected to study about. It is hoped that this study will be useful for future studies and for research area on these topics.

2. LITERATURE ON ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

2.1. Definition of culture and organizational culture

“In the fifties and sixties MBO-management by objectives –was the order of the manager’s day. In the sixties and seventies OD –organization development and the management of change-exercised progressive managers’ minds” (Lessem, 1990, p.3). Lessem’s book was published in 1990, at that time Lessem (1990) supposed that in the eighties and nineties it seems likely that corporate culture would play a dominating role in general management thinking and indicated four main reasons for that: “

- 1.Management has become progressively more human.
- 2.There has been a recent move back to basics.
- 3.Managers,today,have become ‘cultivators of meaning’.
- 4.Myth and ritual have now entered the management arena” (Lessem, 1990, p.3).

The year is 2007 and corporate culture is a subject that is still discussed about.

The effects of organizational culture is searched in many fields. Researchers try to understand the possible impacts of organizational culture. It is a very complex issue. For example in mathematics, you may know what you will get after calculating. However for the issue of organizational culture, it is hard to consider the concept. Because, it is not a concept that you can calculate or you can count and it shows its face by communication style, the way employees get worn in the company, management applications, etc... To better understand the concept of organizational culture, at first the term of ‘culture’ has to be defined. There are many definitions about the subject of culture. Here are some of them as written below:

-“Culture equals ‘how things are done around here’ ” (Drennan, 1992, p.1).

By this definition, which procedures and rules work, and which does not work are separated, because the common way is mentioned. So, these procedures have to be shared to be used as widely.

That is why Drennan (1992) indicates the terms of 'accepted way of doing things' and procedures.

-Drennan (1992, p.1) adds that by repetition these ways of doing things become habits, and that is what culture is: the habits that have grown up over time and become part of the organization's personality.

By this definition, it is mentioned that culture is shaped by time and it takes a part in the organization's character.

-Mayo and Hadaway (1994, p.64) mention that culture is most simply defined as 'the way we do things around here'.

Culture consists of many issues as customs, beliefs, values, common language, etc... The important point should be how they are shared by the members. There should be a word like 'shared' as a hidden one under these issues.

Ivancevich, Konopaske and Matteson (2005, p.38) say: "The values, norms, customs, and rituals of cultures do not simply appear. They take an evolutionary course and are influenced by politics, religion, language, and other cultural aspects. Individuals and groups in the society play a role in the course that a culture takes over time".

By that statement, it is mentioned that it takes time to compose a culture. It takes time and has a special concept for the culture. Culture is not a simple subject that can be appeared easily. Members have common characteristics (as religion, as language, also as the way they get worn, etc...). These can not be formed just in a day. Because, they come from attitudes, habits, etc... They have to be taught to the new generations. In order to talk about culture, we must know that the components of culture are formed by time.

Culture is a very dynamic subject for the researchers. It shows its importance on many areas, also in cross-cultural studies. National culture plays an important role in cross-cultural studies. Ivancevich, Konopaske and Matteson (2005, p.38) say that a national culture is the sum total of the beliefs, rituals, rules, customs, artifacts, and institutions that characterize the population.

The term of culture is explained to better understand the organizational culture concept. When the culture is talked about, a nation's culture comes to our mind like Turkish culture, German culture, Japanese culture, etc... However, when the organizational culture is talked about, the shared procedures, rules, norms, management applications, rites and rituals, jargon, organizational values come to our mind. Organizational culture is a concept including core values, mission, vision, strategies, norms, rules, applications, etc... shared by the members in the enterprise. The enterprise can be multinational. However, there is one organizational culture, the employees may be Turkish, Hungarian, English, American, etc... One of the ways to make them work together effectively is constructing an organizational culture to make them share company values, strategies, procedures, norms, etc...

It is better to mention how organizational culture is defined in the literature. Some of the definitions are below:

-“A company's culture is a mix of written values, morals and codes of behaviour-and many that are unwritten-and it reveals an organization's true internal priorities” (Wahl, 2005).

-“A corporate culture is the combination of the values and characteristics that define an organization. It influences the way employees relate to each other, to customers, to shareholders, and to business partners. It drives behaviors and unites employees around a shared set of values. It can lift our performance and improve our work environment” (Fairbairn, 2005, p.79).

-Schein (1992, p.12) defines culture of a group as “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems”.

At Schein's definition it is seen that he points out some specific words as 'shared', 'external adaptation, internal integration', 'taught to new members'. By the word of 'shared', commonly held assumptions are mentioned. By the word of 'external adaptation, internal integration', functions of the organization to its members are discussed about and by the word of 'taught to new members', socialization is meant by closed words.

Eren (2000, p.119) states that Deshpande and Webster defined organizational culture as “the pattern of shared values and beliefs that help individuals understand organizational functioning and thus provide them with norms for behavior in the organization” by gathering the works which were written on the field of organizational behavior, sociology and anthropology about the subject together.

As it is seen, there are many different definitions of corporate culture. However, they intersect at the same point via using similar words like shared values, norms, beliefs, attitudes, etc... Even without using these words, they indicate the same direction as “to be shared in the organization”. This idea is supported by Schein (1992) by this statement: “Commonly used words relating to culture emphasize one of its critical aspects-the idea that certain things in groups are shared or held in common” (p.8).

According to Cameron and Quinn (1999, p.38-39), an organization's culture is reflected by what is valued, the dominant leadership styles, the language and symbols, the procedures and routines, and the definitions of success that make an organization unique.

Çetin (2004) says that culture can be explained like this: “

- a) Its base is model of assumptions.
- b) It is invented, discovered or developed by a certain group.
- c) It teaches coping with the problems related to external adaptation and internal integration.
- d) It has to run well to be valid and accepted in the organization.
- e) It shows the right way about the subject of perceiving, thinking and feeling the relationships with problems.
- f) Culture has to be taught to new members” (p.10).

By this explanation above, Çetin mentions the word of “being shared” and “socialization” closely. If it is wanted to learn how it is taught to new members, “socialization” should be underlined to help the culture to be shared. If it is not shared by the members, it may direct for a weak corporate culture.

At many definitions, we see the terms of ‘organizational culture’ and ‘corporate culture’. These terms points out the same direction. But, at business subjects we may use the term of ‘corporate culture’. Also, via using the term of ‘organizational culture’, the same area is pointed out.

Also, the concept of strong / weak cultures are vital for an organization. Because having a strong corporate culture is an important power for the organization. Robbins (1996, p.685) says that the more members who accept the core values and the greater their commitment to those values, the stronger the culture is and adds that consistent with this definition, a strong culture will have a great influence on the behavior of its members because the high degree of sharedness and intensity creates an internal climate of high behavioral control. “Successful companies have strong cultures” (Luthans, 1992, p.565).

Table 2.1: Elements of Strong Corporate Cultures

ELEMENTS OF STRONG CORPORATE CULTURES
<i>A widely shared philosophy.</i> This philosophy is not an abstract notion of the future but a real understanding of what the firm stands for, often embodied in slogans.
<i>A concern for individuals.</i> This concern often places individual concerns over rules,policies,procedures, and adherence to job duties.
<i>A recognition of heroes.</i> Heroes are individuals who actions illustrate the shared philosophy and concerns of the company.
<i>A belief in ritual and ceremony.</i> Management understands that rituals and ceremonies are real and important to members and to building a common identity.
<i>A well-understood sense of the informal rules and expectations.</i> Employees understand what is expected of them.
<i>A belief that what employees do is important to others.</i> Networking in order to share information and ideas is encouraged.

Source: See Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (1994, p.436) which was developed from Deal and Kennedy (1982).

Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (1994, p.439) state that in organizations with strong cultures, shared values and beliefs characterize a setting in which people are committed to one another and to an overriding sense of mission and add that this commitment can be a source of competitive advantage for these organizations over their rivals.

Strong cultures necessitate the values to be shared; the rules, rituals, philosophy to be understood and issues related to individuals to be understood by the members of the organization. Employees may act similarly to each other in the company, because if the employees mostly share the organizational values, rules, principles, procedures and norms, they may behave in similar ways and a common thought may appear among employees.

2.2. Characteristics of corporate culture and Culture's Functions in Organizations

Luthans (1992) mentions that organizational culture has a number of important characteristics and some of the most readily agreed upon are the following: “

1. *Observed behavioral regularities*. When organizational participants interact with one another, they use common language, terminology, and rituals related to deference and demeanor.
2. *Norms*. Standards of behavior exist including guidelines on how much work to do, which in many organizations come down to ‘Do not do too much; do not do too little.’
3. *Dominant values*. There are major values that the organization advocates and expects the participants to share. Typical examples are high product quality, low absenteeism, and high efficiency.
4. *Philosophy*. There are policies that set forth the organization's beliefs about how employees and / or customers are to be treated.
5. *Rules*. There are strict guidelines related to getting along in the organization. Newcomers must learn these ‘ropes’ in order to be accepted as full-fledged members of the group.
6. *Organizational Climate*. This is an overall “feeling” that is conveyed by the physical layout, the way in which participants interact, and the way in which members of the organization conduct themselves with customers or other outsiders” (p.563).

Luthans (1992) says that none of the above characteristics by themselves represent the culture of an organization and adds that however, collectively, they can reflect the organizational culture (p.563). By this statement, it is mentioned that

corporate culture can not be evaluated only by values, regularities norms, regularities, philosophy or organizational climate. A system of all can reflect corporate culture.

In Köse, Tetik and Ercan's (2001) study, the factors of organizational culture- values, leaders and heroes, rites and symbols, stories and myths, language, customs, norms and organizational socialization- are examined. Köse, Tetik and Ercan (2001) basically examine these issues as: “

- Values- Organizational values are shared ideals and they show direction on organizational behavior.
- Leaders and heroes- While main values and beliefs are composing the infrastructure of the organization, leaders and heroes are their symbols, are models or representatives that reflect them on their personalities.
- Rites and symbols- Symbols are certain indicators of organizational culture.
- Stories and Myths- Stories and myths work as a bridge between organization's past and existing situation.
- Language- Every organization has a language peculiar to itself.
- Customs- Customs indicates what is really important in the organizations. They may be seen in some management applications.
- Norms- Norms are in one respect sanctional rules which determinate employees' behavior styles.
- Organizational socialization- Organizational socialization may be defined as learning organizational culture and adapting to it” (p. 229-231).

Luthans' (1992) and Köse, Tetik and Ercan's (2001) study both indicate the organizational culture factors. Factors may be named as differently, however they indicate the same direction as organizational culture. When their concepts are read carefully, it is seen that the words of “to be shared” is a hidden issue again.

According to Schein (1992), “if one asks oneself why one needs the word culture at all when we have so many other words such as norms, values, behavior patterns, rituals, traditions, and so on, one recognizes that the word culture adds two other critical elements to the concept of sharing. One of these elements is that culture implies some level of structural stability in the group. When we say that something is ‘cultural,’ we imply that it is not only shared but deep and stable. By deep I mean less conscious and therefore less tangible and less visible. The other element that lends stability is patterning or integration of the elements into a larger paradigm or gestalt that ties together the various elements and that lies at a deeper level. Culture somehow implies that rituals, climate, values, and behaviors bind together into a coherent whole. This patterning or integration is the essence of what we mean by ‘culture’ ” (p.10).

Via this explanation, it is understood that being shared is not enough for a culture. Also, the terms of “stability” and “patterning or integration” should be added to the concept of the culture.

According to Robbins (1996, p.696), culture is transmitted to employees in a number of forms, the most potent being stories, rituals, material symbols, and language. To better understand the subject, these four issues are examined briefly below:

a) *Stories*- Wilkins (1984, p.43) says that in general, stories are powerful in passing on a culture because they are like maps that help people know how things are done in a particular group. Corporate stories are examined in Dowling’s (2006) study and it is mentioned that two parts of a corporate story should remain the same, namely, mission and morality. Dowling (2006, p.93) adds that these are the things that underpin the culture and character of a company and they also guide employee behavior and provide the moral authority for making tough decisions. Marzec (2007) states that the story is ultimately intended to engage employees in the company vision and result in a more productive workforce. “By observing employee actions, listening to stories, and asking members to interpret what is going on, one can begin to understand the organization’s culture. Often, the stories will provide valuable hidden information about who is more equal than others, whether jobs are secure, and how things are really controlled. In essence, the stories begin to suggest how organizational members view the world and live together” (Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn, 1994, p.433). “Stories must convey

visual imagery rather than verbal abstraction if they are to be effective in conveying information and shaping behaviour. They have the power to change reality or maintain cohesion within set guidelines. Eventually it becomes important that the stories are told in the right way, if they are to continue to be meaningful” (Lessem, 1990, p.144). Stories are one side of corporate culture because, they symbolize and hide properties of the culture in it and may serve as a guide for the employees to make them better know about company’s corporate culture and the behaviors which are desired and accepted via the organization.

b) *Rituals*- “Some of the most obvious aspects of organizational culture are rites and rituals. Rites are standardized and recurring activities that are used at special times to influence the behaviors and understanding of organizational members; rituals are systems of rites. It is common, for example, for Japanese workers and managers to start their work days together with group exercises and singing of the ‘company song’. Separately, the exercises and song are rites. Together, they form part of a ritual” (Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn, 1994, p.434). Rites and rituals are traditional for the company and rituals are the whole system of rites.

c) *Material Symbols*- Smith (2004) mentions that symbols are signs, company logos, the way offices look, the type of clothing that is allowed are all symbolic reflectors of a culture. “A cultural symbol is any object, act, or event that serves to transmit cultural meaning” (Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn, 1994, p.434). Material symbols give idea to members and people about the company culture. The logos, colours of the logo, the style of the company architecture and design of the furniture are examples of material symbols.

d) *Language*- “Something arising out of the depths, represented in a vision, and located in a context that can be readily understood, must then be named. The possibility of expression comes through ‘language’. When something is named it is literally called in to existence, as a conscious element in the life of the organization” (Lessem, 1990, p.123). Smith (2004) mentions that organizations develop acronyms, metaphors, proverbs, and jargon that have specific meaning inside. “New employees are frequently overwhelmed with acronyms and jargon that, after six months on the job, have become fully part of their language” (Robbins, 1996, p.699). Sharbrough, Simmons and Cantrill

(2006, p.326) say that an individual's communication competence can include general items such as having a clarity of expression, using language appropriate to a situation, providing a timely response, and being attentive and add that an employee's communication competence can also include job-specific or special communication skills; for example, customer service, sales, human resources, and so on, may all require special skills. In addition to that, members in an organization use jargon-which is a special language that is used and that has a value in the organization. Members of the organization understand what is meant by using this language.

Also, functions of culture in organizations should be touched on under this concept. "According to Schein, organizational culture has three main functions:

1. Solving organization's adaptation problems to the external environment
2. Solving organization's integration problems to the environment
3. Reducing environmental uncertainties, quenching anxieties and conquering fears" (Eren, 2000, p.128).

Schein (1985, p.51) says: "The external issues have to do with the leader's and the group's definition of the environment and how to survive in it; the internal issues have to do with the leader's and the group's definition of how to organize relationships among the members of the group to permit survival in the defined environment through effective performance and the creation of internal comfort".

a) External Adaptation- "Organizational members need to know the real mission of the organization, not just the pronouncements to key constituencies, such as stockholders. Members will naturally develop an understanding of how they contribute to the mission via interaction. The final issues in external adaptation deal with two important, but often neglected, aspects of coping with external reality. First, individuals need to develop acceptable ways of telling outsiders just how good they really are. Second, individuals must collectively know when to admit defeat" (Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn, 1994, p.430-431). Lessem (1990) mentions that the functions of 'culture', with regard to an organization's external survival and adaptation, involve: "

- securing a shared understanding of the core mission, primary task, manifest and latent functions of the organization,
- developing consensus on goals, as derived from the core mission
- developing consensus on the means to be used to attain goals such as organization structure, division of labour, and the reward and authority systems,
- developing consensus on the criteria to be used in measuring how well the group is doing,
- developing consensus on remedial strategies to adopt when things go wrong” (p.66).

Also, external adaptation is related to the issues of analysing the external forces effecting the company and evaluating external conditions. If a change appears in the environment, the organization may be effected via that change. So, the organization should take measures against the change and should has an ability to answer it.

b) Internal Integration- “While the questions of external adaptation help a collection of individuals cope with a changing environment, the corporate culture also provides answers to the problems of internal integration. Internal integration deals with the creation of a collective identity and with finding ways of matching methods of working and living together” (Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn, 1994, p.431). Lessem (1990) states that Schein specifies six cultural factors that determine the state of internal integration: “

1. *Common language*- if members cannot communicate with, and understand each other, the management of a group or organization becomes impossible. For instance, engineers and salesmen in a manufacturing concern may not share a common business language.

2. *Group boundaries*- there needs to be a shared consensus on who who is within the organization, and who is without.
3. *Intimacy, friendship, love*- every organization must work out the basis for conducting peer relationships, including the intensity and frequency of contact both inside and outside of work.
4. *Power and status*- every organization must work out its pecking order, its criteria and rules for getting, maintaining and losing power.
5. *Rewards and punishments*- every group must know what sorts of behaviour might be considered 'heroic' and what sorts may be considered 'sinful'.
6. *Ideology and religion*- finally every organization, like every society, faces unexplainable events which must be given meaning. To avoid the anxiety of dealing with the inexplicable or uncontrollable a religious or ideological outlook may be called upon" (p.66).

Internal integration deals with the relationships among members and internal organizational system.

c) The Anxiety Reduction Function- Schein (1985, p.82) says that culture does more than solve external and internal problems and adds: "It serves the basic function of reducing the anxiety that humans experience when they are faced with cognitive uncertainty or overload. Cultural assumptions can be thought of as a set of filters or lenses that help us to focus on and perceive the relevant portions of our environment. Without such filters and lenses, we would experience overload and uncertainty. Once we have cultural solutions, we can relax to some extent, and one reason why we resist culture change is that it is inherently anxiety producing to give up the assumptions that stabilize our world, even though different assumptions might be more functional. In other words, culture not only solves external survival and internal integration problems

but, once acquired, also reduces the anxiety inherent in any new or unstable situation” (Schein, 1985, p.82-83).

Anxiety is an undemanded position for organizations. That should be solved immediately in the organizations, otherwise it may cause the loss of trust and increase of suspicion in the organization. Culture has also a function of coping with anxiety problems. If the culture makes the system certain, anxiety may decrease and a trustworthy setting may be constructed.

2.3. Levels of Culture in Organizations

2.3.1. Levels of Cultural Analysis in Organizations

There are three levels of cultural analysis in organizations (observable culture, shared values, and common assumptions) as shown at Figure 2.1.

OBSERVABLE CULTURE
SHARED VALUES
COMMON ASSUMPTIONS

Figure 2.1: Levels of Cultural Analysis

Source: Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (1994, p.427).

1. Observable Culture: The first level is named as observable culture.

Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (1994) say: “These are the methods that the group has developed and teaches to new members. The observable culture includes the unique stories, ceremonies, and corporate rituals that make up the history of a successful work group” (p.427).

2. Shared Values: The second level of analysis is named as shared values.

Arce (n.d., p.1) mentions that values are beliefs, convictions and goals.

3. Common Assumptions: The third level is named as common assumptions.

Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (1994) say: “At the deepest level of cultural analysis are common assumptions, or the taken-for-granted truths that collections of corporate members share as a result of their joint experience. It is often extremely difficult to isolate these patterns, but doing so helps explain why culture invades every aspect of organizational life. These common assumptions may surface in an organizational crisis” (p.427).

Culture is a very complex issue that consists of a lot of elements. If somebody tries to see what the culture of the organization brought to the organization, he / she should first see the observables as ceremonies, rites and rituals, histories, the way employees get worn, etc... These issues may give the observer a clue about the culture in the organization. However, as it is discussed before, the observer should examine all the elements of the culture. Otherwise, via examining only rites and rituals, or examining only the procedures, the observer may see just one side of the culture of the organization. To better understand the culture, the observer should examine the shared values in the organization. Common assumptions are harder to examine when compared to the observables. The deeper in the organization, the harder to examine.

2.3.2. Schein's Levels Of Culture

Schein (1992) mentions three levels of culture as artifacts, espoused values and basic underlying assumptions as seen in the Figure 2.2 below:

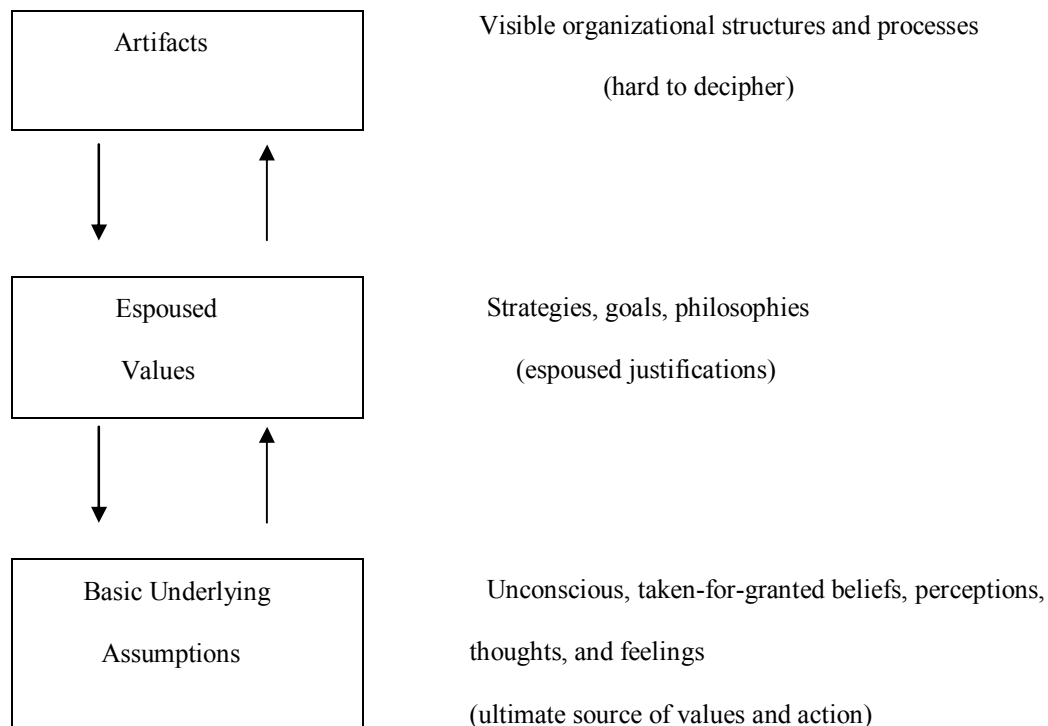


Figure 2.2: Levels of Culture

Source: Schein (1992, p.17).

According to Schein (1992, p.16), some of the confusion of definition of what culture really is results from not differentiating the levels at which it manifests itself and adds that these levels range from the very tangible overt manifestations that one can see and feel to the deeply embedded, unconscious basic assumptions that he is defining as the essence of culture.

1. Artifacts- “At the surface, we have the level of artifacts, which includes all the phenomena that one sees, hears, and feels when one encounters a new group with an unfamiliar culture. Artifacts would include the visible products of the group such as the architecture of its physical environment, its language, its technology and products, its artistic creations, and its style as embodied in clothing, manners of address, emotional displays, myths and stories told about the organization, published lists of values, observable rituals and ceremonies, and so on. For purposes of cultural analysis this level

also includes the visible behavior of the group and the organizational processes into which such behavior is made routine. The most important point about this level of the culture is that it is easy to observe and very difficult to decipher. In other words, the observer can describe what she sees and feels but cannot reconstruct from that alone what those things mean in the given group, or whether they even reflect important underlying assumptions. It is especially dangerous to try to infer the deeper assumptions from artifacts alone because one's interpretations will inevitably be projections of one's own feelings and reactions" (Schein, 1992, p.17-18).

2. Espoused values- Schein (1992, p.21) says: "If the espoused values are reasonably congruent with the underlying assumptions, then the articulation of those values into a philosophy of operating can be helpful in bringing the group together, serving as a source of identity and core mission. But in analyzing values one must discriminate carefully between those that are congruent with underlying assumptions and those that are, in effect, either rationalizations or only aspirations for the future. Often such lists of values are not patterned, sometimes they are even mutually contradictory, and often they are inconsistent with observed behavior. Large areas of behavior are often left unexplained, leaving us with a feeling that we understand a piece of the culture but still do not have the culture as such in hand. To get at the deeper level of understanding, to decipher the pattern, and to predict future behavior correctly, we have to understand more fully the category of basic assumptions".

3. Basic Assumptions- According to Schein (1992), "the power of culture comes about through the fact that the assumptions are shared and therefore mutually reinforced. Each member of a new group will bring her or his own cultural learning from prior groups, but as the new group develops its own shared history, it will develop modified or brand-new assumptions in critical areas of its experience. Those new assumptions make up the culture of that particular group" (p.25-26).

Schein (1992) argues that "any group's culture can be studied at these three levels-the level of its artifacts, the level of its values, and the level of its basic assumptions. If one does not decipher the pattern of basic assumptions that may be operating, one will not know how to interpret the artifacts correctly or how much credence to give to the articulated values. In other words, the essence of a culture lies in

the pattern of basic underlying assumptions, and once one understands those, one can easily understand the other more surface levels and deal appropriately with them” (p.26).

Also, as Schein mentions, the roots of the culture lie on the basic underlying assumptions. Artifacts are just a part of the culture. Without the underlying assumptions, culture can not be examined as a complete term. So, to understand the culture, it should be examined deeper and deeper to find out the hidden components.

Table 2.2: Levels of Culture

LEVELS OF CULTURAL ANALYSIS	SCHEIN’S LEVELS OF CULTURE
1. OBSERVABLE CULTURE	1. ARTIFACTS
2 .SHARED VALUES	2. ESPOUSED VALUES
3. COMMON ASSUMPTIONS	3. BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

Source: The table is prepared by Senem Çakıryılmaz

As seen in Table 2.2, Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (1994) and Schein (1992) touch on similar concepts related to levels of culture in organizations.

2.4. How An Organizational Culture Begins, Gets Maintained and Changed

Schein (1992, p.211-212) says: “Cultures basically spring from three sources; (1) the beliefs, values, and assumptions of founders of organizations; (2) the learning experiences of group members as their organization evolves; and (3) new beliefs, values, and assumptions brought in by new members and leaders. Though each of these mechanisms plays a crucial role, by far the most important for cultural beginnings is the impact of founders. Founders not only choose the basic mission and the environmental context in which the new group will operate, but they choose the group members and bias the original responses that the group makes in its efforts to succeed in its environment and to integrate itself”. Schein (1992) adds that the process of culture

formation is, ... , first a process of creating a small group and in the business organization, this process will usually involve some version of the following steps: “

1. A single person (founder) has an idea for a new enterprise.
2. The founder brings in one or more other people and creates a core group that shares a common goal and vision with the founder. That is, they all believe that the idea is a good one, is workable, is worth running some risks for, and is worth the investment of time, money, and energy that will be required.
3. The founding group begins to act in concert to create an organization by raising funds, obtaining patents, incorporating, locating work space, and so on.
4. Others are brought into the organization, and a common history begins to be built. If the group remains fairly stable and has significant shared learning experiences, it will gradually develop assumptions about itself, its environment, and how to do things to survive and grow” (p.212).

Robbins (1996) states that the founders of an organization traditionally have a major impact on that organization’s early culture and adds: “They have a vision of what the organization should be. They are unconstrained by previous customs or ideologies. The small size that typically characterizes new organizations further facilitates the founder’s imposition of their vision on all organizational members” (Robbins, 1996, p.689).

Founders have vital importance in creating corporate culture, because they show the direction where the company follows, study on strategies which will be implemented, have an important word to say on procedures, rules and management applications. That is why the founders are the critical parts of the company. After creating corporate culture, how to survive it is at least important as the creating process.

According to Robbins (1996), “three forces play a particularly important part in sustaining a culture as selection practices, the actions of top management, and socialization methods” (p.690).

“The selection process, performance evaluation criteria, reward practices, training and career development activities, and promotion procedures ensure that those hired fit in with the culture, reward those who support it, and penalize (and even expel) those who challenge it” (Robbins, 1996, p.690). “A powerful way that leaders reinforce culture lies in the selection of newcomers to the organization. Leaders often unconsciously look for individuals who are similar to current organizational members in terms of values and assumptions. Some companies hire individuals on the recommendation of a current employee; this tends to perpetuate the culture because the new employees typically hold similar values” (Nelson and Quick, 1994, p.499).

Top management has a vital role in sustaining the corporate culture. Because, corporate culture also indicates its face via management applications. Top management has power to implement and manage these applications, also they transmit information to the lower level managers who are more closed to employees and who may provide information flow to the employees. By this way, the top management may share company values with employees via help of lower level managers.

“Socialization is the process by which organizations bring new employees into the culture. In terms of culture, there is a transmittal of values, assumptions, and attitudes from the older to the newer employees” (Ivancevich, Konopaske and Matteson, 2005, p.47). “All organizations and groups socialize new members in some way, but the process can vary greatly in terms of how explicit, comprehensive, and lengthy it is. Generally, rapid socialization is advantageous. For the individual, it quickly reduces the uncertainty and anxiety surrounding a new job. For the organization, it helps the new employee become productive quickly. If the culture is effective, the socialization process will contribute to organizational success. However, if the culture needs changing, a strong socialization process reduces the prospects for making the needed changes” (Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman, 1995, p.487-488).

Table 2.3: Possible Outcomes of Socialization Process

Successful Socialization Is Reflected In	Unsuccessful Socialization Is Reflected In
- Job satisfaction - Role clarity - High work motivation - Understanding of culture, perceived control - High job involvement - Commitment to organization - Tenure - High performance - Internalized values	- Job dissatisfaction - Role ambiguity and conflict - Low work motivation - Misunderstanding, tension, perceived lack of control - Low job involvement - Lack of commitment to organization - Absenteeism, turnover - Low performance - Rejection of values

Source: Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman, 1995, p.488.

Robbins (1996, p.692) says: “As we discuss socialization, keep in mind that the most critical socialization stage is at the time of entry into the organization. This is when the organization seeks to mold the outsider into an employee ‘in good standing.’ Those employees who fail to learn the essential or pivotal role behaviors risk being labeled ‘nonconformists’ or ‘rebels,’ which often leads to expulsion. But the organization will be socializing every employee, although maybe not as explicitly, throughout his or her entire career in the organization. This further contributes to sustaining the culture”.

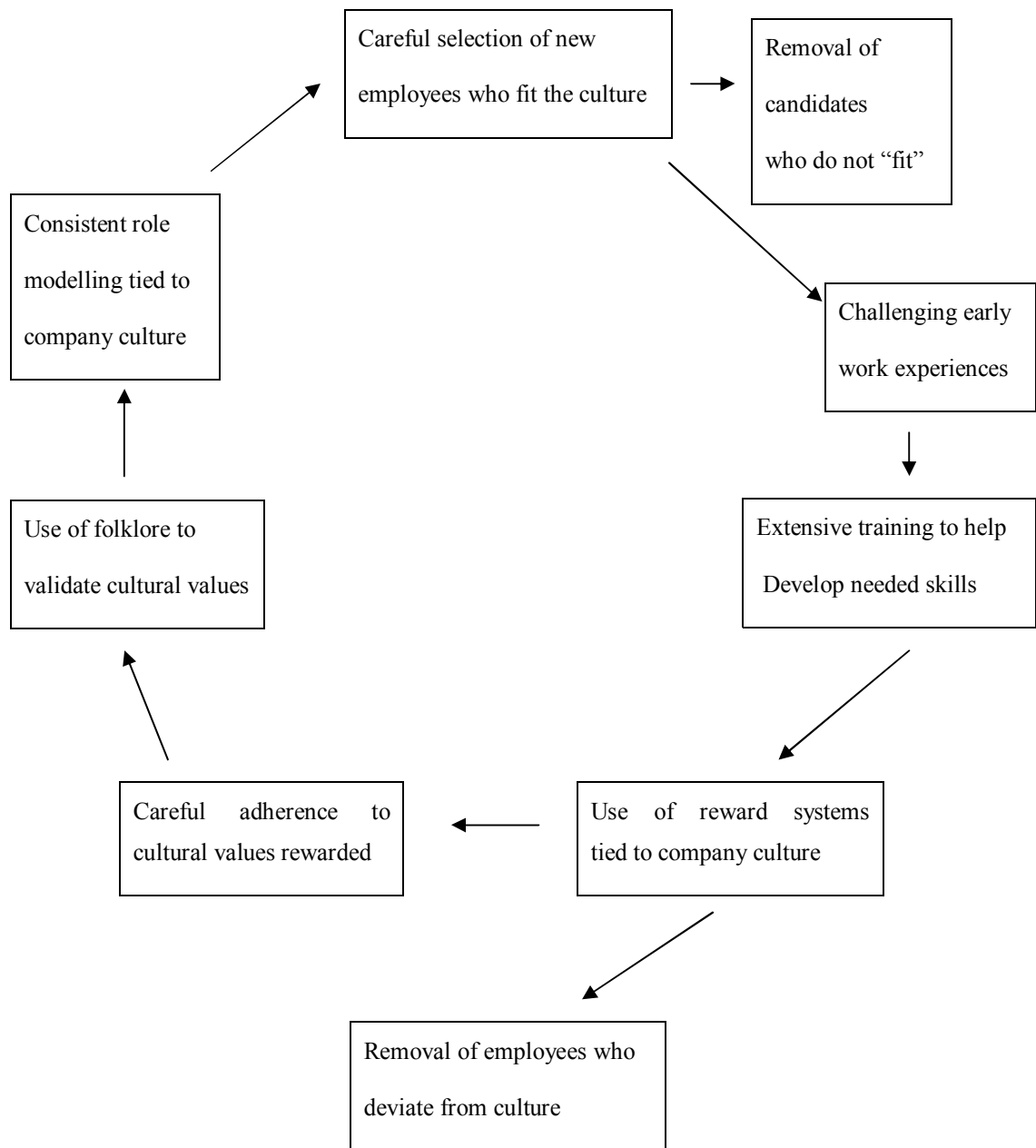


Figure 2.3: An Example of an Organizational Socialization Process

Source: Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman, 1995, p.486.

Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman (1995, p.485) state: “Socialization provides the means by which individuals learn the ropes upon joining an organization. It includes learning work group, departmental, and organizational values, rules, procedures, and norms; developing social and working relationships; and developing skills and knowledge needed to perform the new job”.

Socialization helps employees to feel them as a part of the company. Because, organizational values, rules, information, knowledge is transmitted to the employee. That also reflects the behaviors of the employees. Because, the employee learns which behaviors are accepted in the organization and he / she sees that these behaviors are supported via organizational values and rules. Via socialization, employee may leave feeling himself / herself as a foreigner in the company. Because, if the corporate culture components are shared with the employee, the length of time that the employee tries to get used to the company may be reduced and good relationships may appear. Also, it may be the first time that the employee performs this job, so if the elders transmit their knowledge about the job to the employee, it may be easier for the company to obtain efficiency from that employee.

How to construct a corporate culture and how to maintain it were examined. However, also how to change it is an important issue in the business setting.

Lessem (1990) says: “This is Deal and Kennedy’s prescription for change:

- Position a hero in charge, to add weight to the change process,
- Recognize a real threat from outside, to accentuate the need for change,
- Make transition rituals the pivotal elements of change, allowing people to mourn the passing of the old days, and to anoint the heroes of the new ones,
- Provide transition training in the new values and behaviour patterns now required,
- Build tangible symbols of new directions, into such things as physical settings, letterheads, and company newsletters,
- Respect people’s security during the process of transition, duly empathizing

with the anxieties they are likely to go through” (p.41-42).

Lessem (1990) adds: “Should the attempt to change a culture fail, so that a weak culture continues to prevail:

- there will be no clear beliefs or values expressed about how to succeed in business, or,
- there will be many such beliefs with lack of agreement as to which are most important,
- different parts of the company will have fundamentally different beliefs,
- the heroes of the culture will often be more destructive than constructive,
- the rituals of day-to-day life will be contradictory and disorganized” (p.42).

Also, Want (2003) points out some requirements under the concept of “building a better culture”. Want (2003) states that some requirements for corporate culture building include: “

1. Close the gap between business planning and culture planning. Too many business plans and mergers have failed when the corporate culture is unable to support the new strategy.
2. Create a corporate culture that embraces change – no change, no gain. The need to control is the worst enemy of a company trying to build change ready corporate culture.
3. Keep innovative people and their ideas at home. If for no other reason, than to prevent them from becoming future competitors or working for your current competitors.
4. Break down the bureaucratic mind-set. This is not accomplished through the

usual down-sizing but is best accomplished through empowerment and alternative performance standards, that will promote innovation, risk-taking and a shared common purpose.

5. Identify natural change leaders and empower them to lead the change process. They need not be senior managers. They may be the squeaky wheels of the organization and those who are always looking for ways to expand the envelope.
6. Build a broad consensus for culture change from the bottom up as well as the top down. If the culture is to change, the culture building and change process must be accomplished through broad consensus building where everyone owns it.
7. Reinforce ethical conduct at all levels. This is best accomplished by creating and maintaining one unified culture for the entire company.
8. Create sponsorship at the top. The CEO and other officers must be in front of the change process as well as behind it.
9. The culture is about behaviors. Politics as usual, punishment, projection of blame, persistently negative attitudes and obsessive compulsive behaviors must be replaced with positive behaviors – or the people who exhibit them.
10. Never lose track of the customer. Regardless of whether a company is in a true service industry (e.g. retail sales or hospitality) or the most exotic advanced technology, it must never lose sight of customer needs and requirements” (p.14-21).

While corporate culture change, the top management should observe the employees very well. Because, if culture change process can not be successful, it would be hard to make them share common company values, rules and procedures. Top management and superiors should support change and behave through the direction of change, because employees may learn how to behave related to the new corporate culture from their superiors.

In this transition process, managers hold important roles. Lorsch (1987) says: “Managers need to devote as much care, resources, and skill to managing the transition as they would to any other major project. Four specific action areas are relevant.

- The first is to develop and communicate a clear image of the future state.
- Managers should use multiple and consistent leverage points for changing behavior.
- Certain transition devices may prove useful.
- Finally, managers should build feedback and evaluation of the transition state” (p.365-366).

“The approaches about changing organizational culture have similarities. First of all, the leader must be in the vanguard of cultural change and has to show needed effort about this subject, has to show beliefs and values which will be model for all employees, has to put forward standards” (Eren, 2000, p.153).

Here are examples of approaches which are about organizational culture change:

a) *According to Schein*: Eren (2000) says: “According to one of the famous thinkers- Schein, a possible change is based on these reasons;

1. Cultural change becomes necessary in accordance with organization’s period and situation in its life curve (birth, growth, maturity and decline).
2. Organizational culture can change by recognizing the change of suppositions by time which create culture.

3. Cultural change starts in condition of organization's becoming ready to change by a result of a crisis coming from the environment or by inner-organization strengths' becoming able to start culture change"(p.153).

b) *According to Kilmann*: "Kilmann puts five main phases forward for change. These are;

1. Making real norms clear or known.
2. Distributing new expectation and orders.
3. Composing new norms.
4. Determinating culture gaps.
5. Filling culture gaps" (Eren, 2000, p.155-156).

c) *According to Toyohiro Kono*: "According to Toyohiro Kono, organizational culture can change by three ways. The first one is realized by forcing and aggressive behaviors, the second one is realized by performing a pilot study on a appropriate department and gaining experience and spreading to whole organization, the third one is realized by changing structure, rules, management, process and their mechanisms" (Eren, 2000, p.156).

Schein mentions that depending on organizational life cycle, organizational culture may change. Kilmann gives importance to establish new rules and make them simply understood by the organization members. Toyohiro Kono mentions where the change starts from and how it is performed in the organization.

What Schein mentions is also important. Schein (1992, p.140-141) says: "..., if we think of cultures as interlocking sets of assumptions, what often goes wrong in organizational change programs is that we manipulate some assumptions while leaving others untouched. We create tasks that are group tasks, but we leave the reward system, the control system, the accountability system, and the career system alone. If those other systems are built on individualistic assumptions, leaders should not be surprised to discover that teamwork is undermined and subverted".

Schein mentions that while changing organizational culture, the whole system has to be taken into consideration, so change should not be focused on a special area.

2.5. Studies on Types of Corporate Culture

There are many studies on types of corporate culture. Eleven researchers' studies on corporate culture types are examined under this concept. They are collected under five headlines to minimize the length of the outline of this study.

2.5.1. Sonnenfeld's culture types

According to Sonnenfeld, there are four culture types named as academy culture, club culture, baseball team culture and fortress culture. Here is a brief explanation of these culture types as below:

1. *Academy Culture*- "An academy is the place for steady climbers who want to thoroughly master each new job they hold. These companies like to recruit young college graduates, provide them with much special training, and then carefully steer them through a myriad of specialized jobs within a particular function" (Robbins, 1996, p.683).
2. *Club Culture*- "According to Sonnenfeld, clubs place a high value on fitting in, on loyalty, and on commitment. Seniority is the key at clubs. Age and experience count. In contrast to an academy, the club grooms managers as generalists" (Robbins, 1996, p.683). "Managers typically work at various jobs in different functions during a slow, steady progression up the corporate hierarchy; quick upward mobility is unusual. Employees often start young and may spend 35-40 years with the same firm" (Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman, 1995, p.465).
3. *Baseball Team Culture*- Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman (1995) say: "Organizations with a baseball team culture attract entrepreneurs, innovators, and risk takers and pay employees for what they produce. Top performers often receive large salaries or other financial rewards and considerable autonomy. However, risks are high, and long-term security is virtually non-existent. High performers tend to see themselves as free agents, much like professional athletes. Job hopping is common, with employees

readily leaving one firm for greater rewards or freedom at another” (p.465). “Organizations that fit the baseball team description are common in accounting, law, investment banking, and consulting firms; advertising agencies; software developers; and bioresearch concerns” (Robbins, 1996, p.684).

4. *Fortress Culture*- Robbins (1996) states: “While baseball teams prize inventiveness, fortresses are preoccupied with survival. Many were once academies, clubs, or baseball teams, but fell on hard times and are now seeking to reverse their sagging fortunes” (p.684). Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman (1995) mention: “Organizations with a fortress culture promise a little in the way of job security and have difficulty in rewarding employees for good performance. Typically, they may be in the process of downsizing or restructuring, causing the dismissal of many employees. A fortress culture might appeal to individuals who relish the challenge of turning a company around, but wouldn’t appeal to those who desire a sense of belonging, opportunities for professional growth, or secure future income. Currently, the ranks of fortress companies include some forest products firms, hotels, oil and gas companies, publishers, large retailers, and textile firms” (p.465).

Robbins (1996, p.684) says that Sonnenfeld found that many organizations can’t be neatly categorized into one of the four categories either because they have a blend of cultures or because they are in transition and adds that Sonnenfeld found that each of the four cultural types tends to attract certain personalities, and the personality-organizational culture match affects how far and how easily a person will move up the management ranks.

The four types include different properties and applications in the organization. Different procedures and applications differentiates the type of the corporate culture. As an example, if the company shows great interest to the young employees and want them to be trained for the job, the company has tendency to have an academy culture. On the other hand, if the company shows great interest to the terms-seniority, loyalty and commitment, the company has tendency to have a club culture. It may be hard to classify organizations with one corporate culture type. Organizations may have properties related to two-three or four organizational culture types.

2.5.2. Deal and Kennedy's Culture Types

According to Deal and Kennedy, there are four culture types named as tough-guy / macho culture, work-hard / play-hard culture, bet your company culture and process culture. Eren (2002) examines these four concepts as stated in Table 2.4 below:

Table 2.4: Deal and Kennedy's Culture Types and Their Properties

Tough guy, Macho Culture: Macho culture appears at the situations where environmental uncertainty is high, decisions are risky and also the success and the failure news coming fast from environment (feedback). These companies are the entrepreneurs which do not hesitate of high risky decisions and which take their success's feedback fast. Here, the stars are individuals, not the groups or teams. The need for rapid feedback or the conditions' necessitate of it is the weakest side of macho culture.
Work-hard, Play-hard culture: Because of the low risk level of the taken decision at industry at this culture, the secret of surviving and developing depends on working hard and showing effort. In opposite to the macho culture, the sellers who work as a team like an organized work of ants or bees, so hold high sales volume, are the heros of this culture. This culture is necessary at the firms which have a strong marketing method and at which the sales organizations take an important place on success.
Bet your company culture: In view of industry sectors, it is the type of culture which is for large investments and which has a high environmental success risk but at which a long time is waited for the feedback coming from the environment for success. In this sector, the secret of being a hero depends on technical rivalry superiority and success. It necessitates pretentious manager and employees who are patient, have a scientific and technical mind, are delighted and excited so much about innovation and explorations, can work individually and can make team work as a group. There is not a work discipline, the people can work at any time in a day at the work place.
Process culture: This is the culture of decisions having low environmental uncertainty risk and companies and organizations having a slow feedback gained from environment. The employees focus on the issues about how the decisions are taken and performed and focus on the regulation and instructions came into use about these issues. In this culture, the most important value is to follow the processes which management believes at the work that will be done.

Source: Adapted from the text to the table from Eren (2002, p.433-435).

Eren (2002, p.435) adds that all the companies can have the mixture of these cultures in their structure, but, it is reality that one of them is more dominant according to the sectors that the company is in and does activity at.

While tough guy, macho culture is giving more importance to individual work, work-hard, play-hard culture consists of a collective work. On the other hand, rivalry and technical side are the vital points of bet your company culture while performing what the managers believe is a part of the process culture. These four cultures have many different characteristics. However, as Eren mentioned above, there may be an existence of a mixture of these types in the company. Via that approach, it is similar to Sonnenfeld's thought. Because, while examining Sonnenfeld's approach, it was told that there might be the existence of different characteristics of culture types in the company.

2.5.3. Quinn and Cameron's Culture Types

Eren (2000) says: "These thinkers searched the culture that was developed inside of the organization and this culture's affects on organizational success or efficiency in the organization's culture model that they developed" (p.131). Four culture types are mentioned in Cameron and Quinn's (1999) model as market, adhocracy, clan and hierarchy cultures.

1. *Market Culture*- "In market culture, organization's main tendency is rivalry and reaching the aim. Activities are directed by market mechanisms and while evaluating organization's success, market dynamics and productivity of the elements that take place at market compose a scale" (Eren, 2000, p.132).

2. *Adhocracy Culture*- Cameron and Quinn (1999) say: "Unlike markets or hierarchies, adhocracies do not have centralized power or authority relationships. Instead, power flows from individual to individual or from task team to task team depending on what problem is being addressed at the time. A high emphasis on individuality, risk taking, and anticipating the future exists as almost everyone in an adhocracy becomes involved with production, clients, research and development, and so forth" (p.39).

3. *Clan Culture*- "The culture type that has completely opposite values to market culture in its structure is named as clan culture. The organization's qualifications at this culture

type depends on working style, jointing, attendance, values of a team work, family mentality, leadership at the role of parents, loyalty, devotion between people, owning and developing traditions, developing human resources. These values are considered to be superior to market share and financial earnings” (Eren, 2000, p.133).

4. *Hierarchy Culture*- Eren (2000) says: “In hierarchy culture type, values which are considered to be superior are order, rules, regulations and uniformity. All activities necessitates supervision, evaluation and directing. Measuring work efficiency can be determinated by calculating reaching degree to clearly determined targets” (p.134).

Cameron and Quinn’s hierarchy culture looks like Deal and Kennedy’s process culture when there is a consideration about rules and regulations. Deal and Kennedy’s work-hard, play-hard culture looks like Cameron and Quinn’s clan culture related to collectivism and common work. The concepts may be similar to each other, however there are also differences between each other, that is why matching as fully one to the other may be wrong.

2.5.4. Kilmann’s Culture Types

Eren (2000, p.130) says that Kilmann identifies the mission of the organizational culture as a social energy that stirs up everything.

According to Kilmann, there are two corporate culture types named as bureaucratic cultures and reformist cultures.

1. *Bureaucratic cultures*- “Bureaucratic cultures which were functional at the past were used for the organizations which composed hierarchic structures, at which all of the employees’ authority and responsibilities are clearly determinated, at which work doing mechanisms composed control systems. The firms having this qualification of culture are the firms which usually reached to a certain size and reached to maturity degree at the organization life curve. It’s very hard to change the culture which is formed like this” (Eren, 2000, p.130).

2. *Reformist cultures*- “Today, to which given importance is more and which are necessary for adaptation to changing setting, are reformist cultures. The people who have reformist spirit are people who are creative, who shows courage about taking risk and fires their team and who don’t like coping with bureaucratic rules. According to them, organization is belief, creativity, change, success and reform” (Eren, 2000, p.130-131).

Bureaucratic cultures may obstacle creativity and improvement of ideas. Because, bureaucracy brings many rules, procedures and status symbols. That is why, it has a strict standing. On the other hand, reformist cultures are more flexible and giving chance for new ideas. In this globalised world, change is needed. Via always staying stable as a company, it may be harder to catch today’s conditions, customers, innovations, etc... So, company should follow what is happening outside and give chance for improvement of new ideas.

2.5.5. Other Studies on Corporate Culture Types

Eight more different culture type studies are examined below:

1. *Byar’s Culture Types*- Eren (2000) says: “Some classifications about organizational culture are made by different thinkers. The most interesting of them is organizational culture scale method that’s developed by Byars. This scale has two dimensions. One of the dimension associates with determination of participation qualification, and the second associates with the property of activity which is performed to the environment. At activity dimension, the companies are classified as ‘reactive (the ones which reply external environment)’ and ‘effective (the ones which affect, direct and shape external environment)’. Participator cultures are strong in communication and have adequateness to meet customers’ and employee’s wish and needs. Nevertheless, there is not participation in the cultures at which mostly there are not communication and relationship dimension between employees and customers” (p.134).

Eren (2000) examines Byar's four culture types as: “

- a) Interactive Culture- These cultures are directed to cover employees' and customers' needs. The most important thing is giving the best service for the needs that are emerged.
- b) Integrated Culture- This culture is directed to effect and change employee's and customers' needs. It performs that by composing new products or services, displaying reformist behaviors, briefly by effecting environment.
- c) Enterprising Culture- It is very reformist at bringing new products and service. But, at these cultures usually decision giving is insufficient and also tendency to employees is insufficient because of non-participation. There's a domination of individualism dimension.
- d) Systematic Culture- These cultures concentrated on procedures, applying policies and systems at running activities. In these cultures, decision giving is directed depending on external environment interaction. Meeting environmental needs is carried on by routine activities” (Eren, 2000, p.135-136).

External environment is mentioned in this model. Customers are one of the dominant points of this approach. Interactive and integrated cultures are participative, enterprising and systematic cultures are non-participative cultures at this model. Also, systematic and interactive cultures are reflective, while enterprising and integrated cultures are effective. Effective cultures have more opportunity to change conditions, they remind us the word of “proactive”. Reflective cultures try to cover the existing situation.

2. **Handy's Culture Types-** Lessem (1990, p.55) says: "For Handy there are four main corporate cultures, based respectively on power, role, task and person. He emphasizes that each can be a good and effective culture".

a) **Power Culture-** "A power culture is often found in small, entrepreneurial organizations, as well as in larger trading and finance companies, including modern conglomerates. Its structure is best pictured as a web" (Lessem, 1990, p.55).

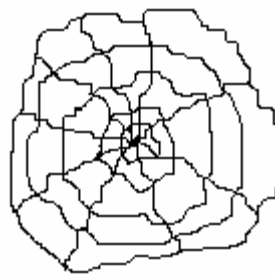


Figure 2.4: Power Culture

Source: Lessem (1990, p.55).

"This culture depends on a central power source, with rays of power and influence spreading out from that central figure. The closer you are to the centre the greater your power and influence. Control is exercised from the centre largely through the selection of key individuals. These cultures, and organizations based on them, are proud and strong. They have the ability to move quickly and can react well to threat and danger. Whether they move in the right direction will depend on the abilities and instincts of the people in the centre" (Lessem, 1990, p.56).

These organizations pursue the advantage of web connections. Also, the centre has a great power on decisions. If the centre gives right decisions for the organizations, that strength may be an advantage for the organizations. On the other hand, if the centre gives wrong decisions, that may turn to a disadvantage easily and because of the wide web, that may effect a great area in the organization.

b) Role Culture- Lessem (1990) says: “The role culture is often stereotyped as a bureaucracy. The accompanying structure can be pictured as a Greek temple” (p.56).

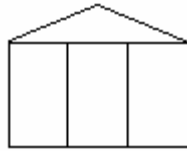


Figure 2.5: Role Culture

Source: Lessem (1990, p.56).

“In this culture the role, or the job description is often more important than the individual who fills it. Role cultures offer predictability and security to the individual. They offer a predictable rate of climb up a pillar. They offer the chance to acquire specialist expertise without risk. The role organization will be found where the economies of scale are more important than flexibility or where technical expertise and depth of specialization are more important than product innovation or product cost” (Lessem, 1990, p.56-57).

Job descriptions are certain in the organization. The roles and procedures are also certain, so flexibility does not take a wide part under this type. Because, the ways to do the jobs are determined and the thing which is desired to be seen is that the employee is performing his / her work via these ways.

c) Task Culture- Lessem (1990, p.57) says that the task culture is job or project oriented and its accompanying structure or picture is that of a net.



Figure 2.6: Task Culture

Source: Lessem (1990, p.57).

“Some of the strands of the net are thicker and stronger than others. Much of the power and influence lies at the interstices of the net, at the knots. It is a team culture where the result of the team’s work tends to be the common enemy. Groups, project teams or task forces are formed for a specific purpose and can be reformed, abandoned or continued. You will find the task culture, therefore, where the product life is short, where speed of reaction is important, and where flexibility is at a premium” (Lessem, 1990, p.57).

In the power culture, the power of the centre is mentioned. However, in the task culture teams have power. They have power for the projects they run.

d) Person Culture- “If there is a structure or an organization it exists only to serve the individuals within it. Its structure is as minimal as possible, a cluster is the best word for it, or perhaps a galaxy of individual stars” (Lessem, 1990, p.57-58).



Figure 2.7: Person Culture

Source: Lessem (1990, p.57).

This type of culture symbolizes individualism.

3. ***Ouchi’s Culture Types***- Eren (2000) says: “William Ouchi explained at first Japanese management applications which were peculiar to itself and participative(P) culture and then explained how to adapt this management style to American style. While doing that, he took values of Japanese and American societies into consideration. Starting from here, he explained(Z) management culture by giving examples of some successful American firms and pointed out that American company managers can apply Japanese successful management styles which were the biggest weapon of the Japanese, to their firms by developing Z management culture in their organizations” (p.142).

Table 2.5: American, Japanese and Type-Z Companies

AMERICAN COMPANIES	JAPANESE COMPANIES	TYPE-Z COMPANIES
-When a smallest recession in economy appears, an employee which is not liked can be fired immediately.	-Life-long work.	- Look closely similar to Japanese companies with their all properties.
-Recently, some of the American companies started to apply participative decision giving system.	-Given importance to develop personal professional know-how.	-Despite life-long relationship is not brought out formally, they have the tendency for giving long-term work even life-long work.
-The weak-point of American profession developing method is employees' never drawing near to each other.	-Slow evaluation and promotion in position.	-Decision giving is a participative operation which depends on a joint opinion.
- In modern American management, tools like cost-benefit analyse, planning and evaluation of programme, management directed to aims take place at the base of audit.	-There is an employee mostly in every department who knows the problems, people and procedure of the other field.	-Have complex audit mechanisms like modern information-operation systems, accounting systems, management directed to aims.
- Partially devotion (In most of the Western companies, there is an approach in domination between a company and an employee about a connection only related to activities which include completion of a work.).	-In Japanese companies, there is "full participation".	Despite these operations are important, they rarely effect important decisions.
	-Main management mechanism is very flexible despite it is very comprehensive, very disciplined.	- They are the companies which have the fastest development and which have the biggest profit share in big American companies.
	- Participative approach in decision giving (the method which is used in Japanese companies is more comprehensive than used in American companies).	-Equalism that is called as the main property of the Type-Z organizations means a method which includes trust to employees and at which employees can work autonomously without being watched by their superiors.
	-Japanese people have tendency to common values and especially to team responsibility.	

Source: Adapted from the text to the table from Ouchi (1989, p.21-79).

Ouchi (1989, p.69) says that at Type-Z companies, generally as a natural result of business relationships, big interest is shown to inferiors and to all employees. Ouchi (1989, p.78) adds that at a Type-Z company, it is impossible to change the behaviors of the people by efficiency measurement or the calculation style of the profit and says: “Only way to effect behaviors is to change culture. It is a very slow operation to change culture because values are settled as rooted and changed to coherent beliefs. That’s why Type-Z company is face to face to the risk of being an industry dinosaur which can’t keep up with big changes in its environment” (Ouchi, 1989, p.78).

Japanese culture and American culture have many differences. While Japanese culture has priority for collectivism, on the other hand American culture mentions individualism. What Ouchi did was applying Japanese management style to American companies. Ouchi obtained Type-Z companies after that treatment. Despite these companies were American companies, they were so similar to Japanese companies.

4. Miles and Snow’s Culture Types- According to Miles and Snow, there are four culture types named as protective, developer, analyser and reactive culture types. Eren (2000) examines four culture types as: “

- a) Protective Culture Type: Organization has conservative belief and values. That’s why low-risk strategy is preferred, the managers pay attention to do activities in safe markets. The term “safe markets” means that the firm prefers to become dense in a narrow market instead of a wide market and customer range.
- b) Developer Culture Type: This type of organizations are reformist. The managers of the firms having this culture type, have tendency to produce new products, to enter new markets and they like taking risk.

- c) **Analyser Culture Type:** In this type of organizations, two different dimensions as stability and change are situated altogether. Stability is about composing formal structures and searching existing activities' effectiveness. Change is provident strategies which are developed by controlling rivals' activities and strategies and by taking their behaviour and opinion into consideration.
- d) **Reactive Culture:** In this type of organizations, change presses come from the rivals and environment, but the managers have not ability to reply them effectively. Mostly, saving strategies are composed in this type of cultures to get out of crisis and to live" (p.140-142).

Miles and Snow's Developer Culture type has a similarity with Byar's Enterprising Culture related to the concept of "searching for new products".

5. ***Peters and Waterman's approach-*** Eren (2000) examined Peters and Waterman's "Excellence model" and stated that according to Peters and Waterman, these were 8 main cultural values and behaviors that compose the success of excellent firms: "

- 1) Preferring action; Doing something by deciding quickly instead of spending time by choking in problems and analysis.
- 2) Continuous relationships with customers; Being closed to customers by keeping in touch with them continuously, serving them by knowing their preferences and giving more importance to customer satisfaction than everything .

- 3) Activity freedom that encourages (entrepreneurship); Increasing company power in fast rivalry setting by giving activity freedom and initiative to substages and by increasing their (entrepreneurship).
- 4) Increasing efficiency by appreciating people; Increasing efficiency by giving importance that's needed and appreciating people that they deserved, composing an atmosphere of sharing company's future success altogether by creating emotion at all the employees (including the workers) about they are important and precious for the company.
- 5) Simple structure and few staffs; Doing activities with a simple organization structure that's composed of few staff personnels and few hierarchy stages.
- 6) Giving importance to a main company value; Creating an organization climate at which devotion to company values is obtained and there is an acception of these values by the personnel, showing effort to make the talked about values to be a guide to all the personnel's behaviors.
- 7) Staying at the best well-known work area; Not being adventurous at business life, not taking excessive risk, having the principle of growing and developing at the best well-known work areas and at the work areas which is specialized in.
- 8) Using slack and strict control together; Keeping in control one or two important subjects carefully and continuously and giving freedom to managers at the other subjects" (Eren, 2000, p.146-147).

Peters and Waterman examined eight characteristics of successful companies. Performing actions quickly, customer care, enterprising, involvement, simple structure, shared values, constructing business activities on core competencies and knowing how to use power and authority are mentioned under this concept.

6. **Trompenaars' Four Diversity Cultures**- “This model assumes major dimensions of person vs. task and centralised (which is also assumed to be hierarchical) versus decentralised (which is assumed to be more egalitarian)”
 (http://changingminds.org/explanations/culture/trompenaars_four_cultures.htm
 [February 12, 2007]).

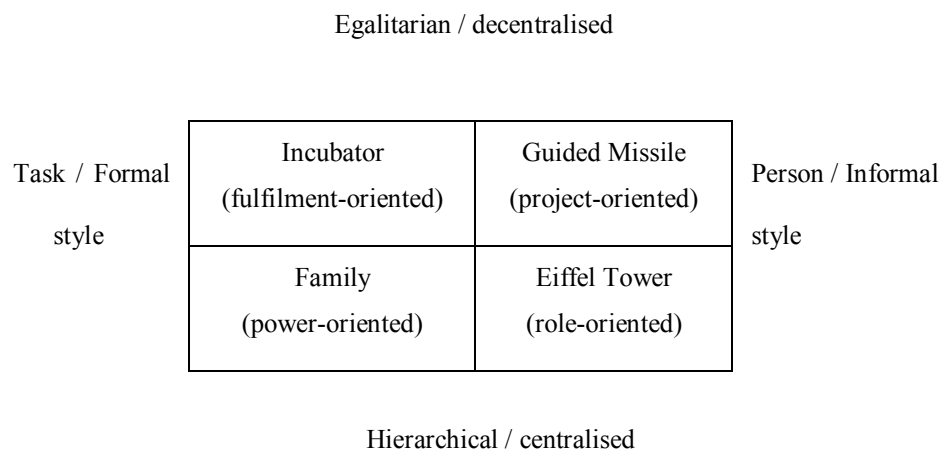


Figure 2.8: Trompenaars' Culture Types

Source: http://changingminds.org/explanations/culture/trompenaars_four_cultures.htm (February 12, 2007).

“Factors in each model:

a) Relationship between employees:

Family: Diffuse relationship to organic whole to which one is bonded.

Eiffel Tower: Specific role in mechanical system of required interactions.

Guided Missile: Specific tasks in cybernetic system targeted upon shared objectives.

Incubator: Diffuse spontaneous relationships growing out of shared creative processes.

b) Attitude to authority:

Family: Status is ascribed to parent figures who are close and all powerful.

Eiffel Tower: Status is ascribed to superior roles who are distant yet powerful.

Guided Missile: Status is achieved by project group members who contribute to the targeted goal.

Incubator: Status is achieved by individuals exemplifying creativity & growth.

c) Ways of thinking and learning:

Family: Intuitive, holistic, lateral and error correcting.

Eiffel Tower: Logical, analytical, vertical and rationally efficient.

Guided Missile: Problem centred, professional, practical, cross disciplinary.

Incubator: Process oriented, creative, ad-hoc, inspirational.

d) Attitudes to people:

Family: As family members.

Eiffel Tower: Human resources.

Guided Missile: Specialists and experts.

Incubators: Co-creators.

e) Managing change:

Family: "Father" changes course.

Eiffel Tower: Change rules and procedures.

Guided Missile: Shift aim as target moves.

Incubator: Improvise and attune"

(http://changingminds.org/explanations/culture/trompenaars_four_cultures.htm)

[February 12, 2007]).

There are important terms which are mentioned under these culture types. In family culture, “the status of people” are important. “Father” has an effective status. Eiffel Tower culture is based on “rules and procedures”. “Project groups” become important in Guided Missile culture and the term-“creativity” is mentioned in incubators. Relationship between employees, attitude to authority, ways of thinking and learning, attitudes to people and managing change are performed depending on these terms.

7. *Schneider's Culture Types*- According to Schneider (1998), there are 4 core cultures named as control, collaboration, competence and cultivation. These cultures are: “

- a) Control- This culture is all about certainty. It fundamentally exists to ensure certainty, predictability, safety, accuracy, and dependability. Organizational systematism means that the fundamental issue in a control culture is to preserve, grow, and ensure the well-being and success of the organization per se. This culture is centered on organizational goal attainment.
- b) Collaboration- This culture is all about synergy. It fundamentally exists to ensure unity, close connection with the customer, intense dedication to the customer. The organization moves ahead through the diverse collective experience of people from inside and outside the organization. This culture is centered on unique customer goal attainment.
- c) Competence- This culture is all about distinction. It fundamentally exists to ensure the accomplishment of unparalleled, unmatched products or services. This is the culture of uniqueness per se, of one-of-a-kind products or services. The framework for information and knowledge is built

essentially around the conceptual system goals of the organization and the extent to which those goals are met. This culture is centered on conceptual goal.

- d) Cultivation- This culture is all about enrichment. It fundamentally exists to ensure the fullest growth of the customer, fulfillment of the customer's potential, the raising up of the customer. This culture is all about the further realization of ideals, values, and higher order purposes. The key emphasis in this culture is the connection between what is espoused and what is put into operation. This culture is focused on value-centered goal attainment" (Schneider, 1998).

These four cultures depend on goal attainment. However, they get differentiated via their concepts. Control culture mentions organizational goal attainment, collaboration culture gives priority to relationship with customers and it is based on customer goal attainment. Competence culture point outs conceptual goal concept and in cultivation culture, it is wanted to indicate what is accepted and what works in the organization and it focuses on value-centered goal attainment.

2.6. Studies on Dimensions of Culture and Corporate Culture

There are different approaches about dimensions of corporate culture written by different authors. Under this concept, four approaches will be examined.

2.6.1. According to Hofstede

Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman (1995) say: "Geert Hofstede, a Dutch social scientist, has developed a framework consisting of several cultural dimensions that can be used to compare national cultural values. Recently, Hofstede's cultural dimensions have been used to examine the potential impacts of national culture on organizations" (p.469).

Hofstede points out five dimensions related to his national culture study. These dimensions are examined below:

a) Power Distance- Huliselan and Ali (n.d.) say that power distance defines the extent to which societies accept inequality in power and consider it as normal. Lu (2006, p.437) says that power distance is the first dimension in Hofstede's study and adds that it can be defined as the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally. Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman (1995,p.470) mention that in low power distance societies, more interaction takes place among people from different social classes, and individuals can move up in social status more easily. "In countries in which people display high power distance (e.g., Malaysia), employees acknowledge the boss's authority and typically follow the chain of command" (Ivancevich, Konopaske and Matteson, 2005, p.39).

Under the term-power distance, relationships, authority, differences in status, and many resulting from understanding power differences in the society are mentioned. Relationships differ related to this distance, authority becomes a vital property in societies of high power distance. Structures become flattened and coordination may get improved in the societies of low power distance.

b) Individualism / Collectivism- "Individualism is the tendency to take care of oneself and one's immediate family. Collectivism is characterized by a tight social framework in which people distinguish between their own group and other groups" (Luthans, 1992, p.588). "Individualistic societies encourage their young to be independent and to look after themselves. Collectivistic societies integrate individuals into cohesive groups that take responsibility for the welfare of each individual" (Lewicki, Barry, Saunders and Minton, 2003, p.408).

In collectivistic cultures, it may be easier to direct individuals to the shared goals and common values. However, in individualistic cultures, more personal properties become prior.

c) Masculinity / Femininity- Ivancevich, Konopaske and Matteson (2005) say: “Masculinity refers to the degree of traditionally ‘masculine’ values—assertiveness and materialism. In comparison, femininity emphasizes ‘feminine’ values—a concern for relationships and the quality of life. In highly masculine societies (e.g., Austria), one finds considerable job stress and conflict between the job and family roles. In countries with low masculinity (e.g., Switzerland), one finds less conflict and stress” (p.39). “Countries that are higher in masculinity include Japan, Austria, and Venezuela, while countries that are higher in femininity include Costa Rica, Chile, and Finland” (Lewicki et al., 2003, p.412).

In masculine societies, rivalry may be seen more than feminine societies. Because, in masculine societies, ambition becomes important in the concept. Feminine societies are more based on friendly relationships.

d) Uncertainty Avoidance- Lu (2006, p.437) says that uncertainty avoidance was defined as the tolerance or acceptance of ambiguity, risk, or the reduction of chance factors and adds that it is related to the need for stability and conflict reduction. According to Hofstede (n.d.), “Uncertainty avoiding cultures try to minimize the possibility of such situations by strict behavioral codes, laws and rules, disapproval of deviant opinions, and a belief in absolute Truth; ‘there can only be one Truth and we have it’. The opposite type, uncertainty accepting cultures, are more tolerant of opinions different from what they are used to; they try to have fewer rules, and on the philosophical and religious level they are relativist and allow different currents to flow side by side”. “Countries that are higher in uncertainty avoidance include Greece, Portugal, and Guatemala, while countries that are lower in uncertainty avoidance include Sweden, Hong Kong, and Ireland” (Lewicki et al., 2003, p.412).

e) Confucianism- This term is examined as long term orientation or confucianism in the studies. Hofstede (n.d.) says: “Values associated with Long Term Orientation are thrift and perseverance; values associated with Short Term Orientation are respect for tradition, fulfilling social obligations, and protecting one’s ‘face’. Long-term oriented are East Asian countries, in particular in China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan, and South Korea but to a lesser extent also India and Brazil. A medium term orientation is found in

most European countries, but the U.S.A. and Britain are more short term oriented. A very short term orientation is found in Africa and in a number of Islamic countries”.

Smith (1998, p.61) says that the differences in scores in each of these areas mean that people in these countries will respond differently to business challenges.

The different scores of these five dimensions give us clues to perceive differences in national characteristics of countries.

His national culture dimensions are used in cross-national cultural studies (e.g. Chakrabarti, Jayaraman and Mukherjee [2003] studied on cross-border acquisitions and used Hofstede’s dimensions in their study.).

Because in cross-national cultural studies, differences between national cultures become the issue of the research and it may be easier to see the differences of cultural aspects.

2.6.2. According to Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner

Seven cultural factors are the spirit of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner’s model. These factors are examined below: “

- a) Universalism vs. Particularism- Universalism is about finding broad and general rules. When no rules fit, it finds the best rule. Particularism is about finding exceptions. When no rules fit, it judges the case on its own merits, rather than trying to force-fit an existing rule.
- b) Analysing versus Integrating- Analyzing decomposes to find the detail. It assumes that God is in the details and that decomposition is the way to success. It sees people who look at the big picture as being out of touch with reality. Integrating brings things together to build the big picture. It assumes that if you have your head in the weeds you will miss the true understanding.
- c) Individualism versus Communitarianism- Individualism is about the rights

of the individual. It seeks to let each person grow or fail on their own, and sees group-focus as denuding the individual of their inalienable rights.

Communitarianism is about the rights of the group or society. It seeks to put the family, group, company and country before the individual. It sees individualism as selfish and short-sighted.

- d) Inner-directed versus Outer-directed- Inner-directed is about thinking and personal judgement, 'in our heads'. It assumes that thinking is the most powerful tool and that considered ideas and intuitive approaches are the best way. Outer-directed is seeking data in the outer world. It assumes that we live in the 'real world' and that is where we should look for our information and decisions.
- e) Time as sequence versus Time as synchronisation- Time as sequence sees events as separate items in time, sequence one after another. It finds order in a serried array of actions that happen one after the other. Time as synchronisation sees events in parallel, synchronised together. It finds order in coordination of multiple efforts.
- f) Achieved status versus Ascribed status- Achieved status is about gaining status through performance. Ascribed status is about gaining status through other means, such as seniority.
- g) Equality versus Hierarchy- Equality is about all people having equal status. It assumes we all have equal rights, irrespective of birth or other gift. Hierarchy is about people being superior to others. It assumes that order happens when few are in charges and others obey through the scalar chain of command"

(http://changingminds.org/explanations/culture/trompenaars_culture.htm ,

[February 12, 2007]).

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's "Individualism versus Communitarianism" is similar to Hofstede's "Individualism / Collectivism". Also Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's "Equality versus Hierarchy" looks similar to Hofstede's "Power distance" dimension.

2.6.3. According to Schein

According to Schein, there are seven deeper dimensions as the nature of reality and truth, the nature of time, the nature of space, the nature of human nature, the nature of human activity, the nature of human relationships and homogeneity versus diversity.

a) The nature of reality and truth- According to Schein (1992, p.95), this concept points out the shared assumptions that define what is real and what is not, what is a fact in the physical realm and the social realm, how truth is ultimately to be determined, and whether truth is revealed or discovered. "A fundamental part of every culture is a set of assumptions about what is real and how one determines or discovers what is real. These assumptions do, of course, relate to other assumptions about human nature and relationships, but the focus now is on how members of a group determine what is relevant information, how they interpret information, how they determine when they have enough of it to decide whether or not to act, and what action to take" (Schein,1992, p.97-98).

The truth may change depending on national properties. Because, national properties may impact on how people perceive what the truth and reality are.

b) The nature of time- Schein (1992, p.105) says that the perception and experience of time are among the most central aspects of how any group functions;when people differ in their experience of time, tremendous communication and relationship problems typically emerge. In his study, Schein (1992) mentions "*Basic Time Orientation* (At the level of the organization, one can distinguish companies that are primarily oriented to the past, thinking mostly about how things used to be; the present,worrying mostly about quarterly results;and the distant future, investing heavily in research and

development or in building market share at the expense of immediate profits.), *Monochronic and Polychronic Time* (Monochronic time controls human behavior and is therefore well suited to situations that require highly coordinated actions. Polychronic time is therefore more suitable for the early stages of an organization, for smaller systems, and for organizations where one person is the central point of coordination.), *Planning time and Development time* (Planning time seeks closure; development time is open ended and can extend far into the future.), *Discretionary Time Horizons* (Do we measure and plan for things annually, quarterly, monthly, daily, hourly, or by the minute? What is considered accurate in the realm of time? How many minutes after an appointed time can one show up and still be considered “on time”? What are the timetables for certain events, such as promotions? How much time should be spent on a given task, and what is the length of a feedback loop? What is our planning horizon in days, months, or years?) and *Temporal Symmetry and Pacing* (A subtle but critical aspect of time is the way activities are paced.)” (Schein, 1992, p.106, 108, 110, 113).

Also Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner examined time concept as “Time as sequence versus Time as synchronisation”.

c) The nature of space- Schein (1992) says: “The meaning and use of space are among the most subtle aspects of organizational culture because assumptions about space, like those about time, are likely to be taken for granted totally and therefore to operate outside of awareness. At the same time, when those assumptions are violated, as when members of different cultures confront each other, very strong emotional reactions occur. The basic reason for this is that space comes to have very powerful symbolic meanings, as expressed in the current phrase, Don’t get into my ‘space’” (p.115).

People want space in different ways (physical space in their work areas, communication distances, etc...). So, space has a very powerful meaning symbolizing status and relationship distances of a person.

d) The nature of human nature- “At the organizational level, the basic assumptions about the nature of human nature—that is, how workers and managers are viewed—will, no doubt, reflect the more basic assumptions of the host culture. However, each organization will also build up its own elaborations of such assumptions. And the

broader cultural assumptions may leave a great deal of latitude in that human nature may be considered highly variable” (Schein, 1992, p.124).

e) The nature of human activity- “Closely connected to assumptions about human nature are assumptions about the appropriate way for humans to act in relation to their environment. Such assumptions then also translate at the group level into how the group should relate itself as a collectivity to its environment” (Schein, 1992, p.127). Schein (1992, p.129) adds that the relevance of this dimension can be seen most clearly in organizational attitudes and norms about the expression of emotions.

f) The nature of Human Relationships- “Whereas the previous assumption areas deal with the group’s relationship to the external environment, this set of assumptions deals more with the nature of the group itself and the kind of internal environment it creates for itself. Assumptions about relationships must solve the problems of (1) power, influence, and hierarchy and (2) intimacy, love, and peer relationships” (Schein, 1992, p.131-132).

This is the point where organization concentrates more on internal components.

g) Homogeneity versus diversity- “Members of a homogeneous group share a number of similar characteristics. Characteristics may be demographic (race, gender, socioeconomic background, education, age, or cultural origin), personality, skills and abilities, or work experience, to name just a few” (Ivancevich, Konopaske and Matteson, 2005, p.328). According to Cox (2001, p.3), diversity is the variation of social and cultural identities among people existing together in a defined employment or market setting.

Homogeneous groups may have more advantages than diverse groups about common properties in the organization. However, if diversity is well managed, it may get rid of its disadvantages.

2.6.4. Corporate Culture Dimensions Related to Ginevičius and Vaitkūnaitė’s (2006) study

Ginevičius and Vaitkūnaitė (2006) studied on corporate culture dimensions related to performance and employee satisfaction. Fifty three studies were examined in

their research and at first step, twenty five dimensions were gained. Monosemantic dimensions were taken into consideration and at the end, twelve dimensions were in existence. These dimensions were involvement, cooperation (collaboration), transmission of information, learning, care about clients, adaptability, strategic direction, reward and incentive system, system of control, communication, agreement, coordination and integration.

To better understand the concept, each dimension is examined below:

2.6.4.1. Care about clients

Customer care is very popular for marketing researches, brand loyalty, etc... But, also that is a mentality for the company to gain more customers, to make more profit and to survive at the business setting. Also, it is a part of the company culture, it is a mentality and it symbolises how to behave to the customers. To better understand the term of “customer”, we have to start by defining what customer is.

Taşkın (2000) says: “Customer is a person or a corporation who / which purchases a certain brand of a certain company for commercial or personal goals. Existing customer is the customer to whom the company always sells and who always purchases company’s goods or services” (p.19).

At first, it may seem to be different when thinking about a company culture and customer care together. Because, when talking about corporate culture, intangible properties come to the mind. However, also there is another side of the medallion as tangibles. The tangibles may be seen at management applications, company policies and procedures. Customer care is one of the activities “what company performs”. That is why it is a part of the company culture. Because, via this, also the behaviors are shaped.

“According to Drucker-management philosopher, missions and goals of companies are creating customers and satisfying them. T. Levitt-famous marketer explains the company goal as finding customer and making them stay loyal to the corporation” (Odabaşı, 2000, p.48).

Two terms become important under this subject as “customer satisfaction” and “customer loyalty”. These terms may look like the same, however they have different

meanings and are not the same with each other. Loyalty includes more than satisfaction. Loyal customers are likely to be satisfied, but if the customers are satisfied, that does not mean they are loyal. Here is a model explaining the issue:

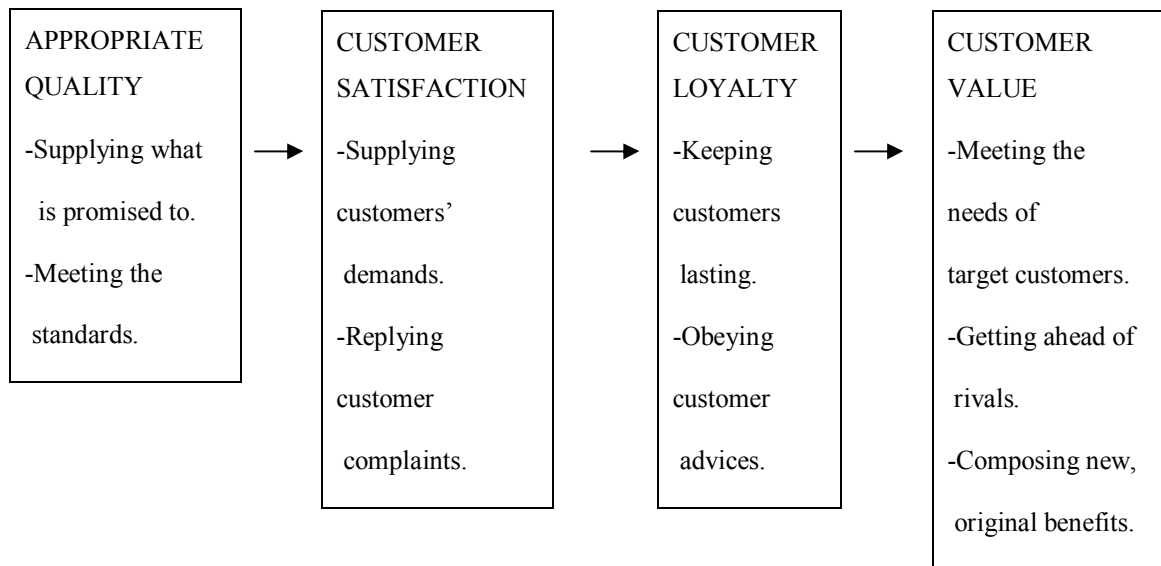


Figure 2.9: Customer Satisfaction, Customer Loyalty and Creating Value For Customer

Source: Odabaşı (2000, p.49).

As it is seen from Figure 2.9, customer satisfaction is the way / chance to catch customer loyalty. If appropriate quality is met in goods / services, it creates a possibility to reach customer satisfaction, then the target becomes to be customer loyalty and at the end, the target becomes to be the customer value. These are steps to reach customer value.

According to Odabaşı (2000, p.50), “creating value for customer is an approach about what customers demand and what they obtained after they have purchased and used the product. The concept of creating value from the customer point of view, includes the situation and meaning that the customer obtained more than was guessed in

return for what he / she paid. If the created “value” is not customer-directed and does not tend to customer’s needs, it does not hold so much meaning”. Odabaşı (2000, p.50) adds that customer satisfaction which may be obtained at the end of creating value for customer may provide these benefits to corporations: “

1. Increased sales including higher ratio-repeated purchases,
2. Increased profit margins by managing costs and expenses more consciously,
3. Increased employee motivation and turnover ratio because of supporting creativity,
4. The customers who obtain high value share their emotions with the people who are closed to them” (Odabaşı, 2000, p.51).

If customers’ habits, tendencies and hopes are well-known, it becomes easier to meet their expectations and demands. Also, because of that knowledge, necessary investment can be made to improve or differentiate the product / service depending on customer’s needs. So, communication between company and customers becomes a vital issue in customer care. Taşkın (2000, p.26) mentions that an effective communication is necessitated to serve the customer well and adds that effective communication is a non-separated part of good customer relationships.

Communication is a mutual process between the corporation and the customer. Customer may be satisfied because of having their ideas and hopes taken into consideration by the corporation. Also, the company may benefit from that process because of getting “important” information from the customer. The reason why it is called as important is, it may provide competitive advantage for the company at the business setting if these information is used effectively. Because via these information, demands of the customers, their ideas, hopes, expectations may be evaluated carefully and that may result as product / service improvement, differentiation. That provides an advantage to the company in the competitive setting and among the rivals.

Also, when talking about customer care, the term of “CRM (Customer Relationship Management)” takes an important place. Some people may think about

CRM with its one side as a programme but that is a concept which has to be thought as a full system for customer care. According to Bozgeyik (2005), “CRM is application of front office (marketing, sales and customer service) and back office (accounting, production and logistics) and also a customer-centralized relationship management philosophy that provides coordination and cooperation with all the other departments, customers and business partners. Recognizing customer can be possible via predicting not only existing situation but also via predicting customer’s past, habits, tendencies, hopes and possible behaviors, examining customer information, analysing, comparing and using them” (p.24-25).

Keeping the customers at your portfolio is very important. Because, if they are lost or not well-satisfied, they may not prefer the product / service that the company offers again. Then, the company may pay more to get these customers back. So, the employees have to take customers’ needs, hopes and expectations into consideration and have effective communication with the customers still it is not late.

According to Gerson (1997), to show interest to the customers, the company must have these properties: “

- to be esteemed,
- to be easy-reachable when needed,
- to be trustworthy,
- to look for the good, always looking for the best” (p.59-60).

Gerson (1997) also states 50 ways to keep customers life-long. Also, some of them are about corporate culture like: “compose a company culture directed to service”, “have a service vision”, “general support”, “written policies”, “delegation of authority to the employees”, “rewarding loyalty”, etc...

If customer care takes place in the company’s culture, it may be easier to make that shared by the members and the results may be more efficient. To put customer focus mentality in the corporate culture, CMS (customer mind-set) is used in the companies. In Kennedy, Lassk and Goolsby’s (2002) study, “customer mind-set (CMS) is defined as an individual’s belief that understanding and satisfying customers, whether

internal or external to the organization, is central to the proper execution of his or her job” (p.160). This mentality locates itself in the corporate culture of the company and also related to employees’ jobs. Thus, a customer-based approach gets internalized in the company, and also in employees’ jobs.

Trust is an another element in customer relationships. If customers think that the company is trustworthy, they may not hesitate to give information to the company, however if they do not trust the company, they may not want to give information to the company. Company has to know how to use this information as a feedback from the customers. If the company knows about how to use those ideas, expectations and hopes on the product / service, it may give the opportunity to not to lose the customers and may give an advantage to be powerful in the business setting. Also, the company may take attention of the target customers via these innovations or differentiations.

2.6.4.2. Learning

According to Cohen and Sproull (1996, p.438), learning is related to knowing; in one sense, it is the act of acquiring knowledge.

According to Mitchell and Larson (1987), “first learning involves change. It is concerned with the acquisition of new knowledge or skills. Second, it is based on experience. That is, some sort of interaction with the environment is necessary. This may involve repetition or practice; as well as receiving feedback (e.g., from a teacher or trainer) about what is being done well or poorly. Both practice and feedback facilitate the learning process. Finally, in most cases learning results in a fairly permanent change. As we shall see, however, unless we have the opportunity to practice the behavior and to perceive periodic feedback, the learning may eventually disappear” (p.20).

Learning necessitates change at behavior. You can get information, however if it does not make any change at your behavior, it means that learning is not in existence and at that situation, the term of “learning” can not be discussed about.

Learning can be achieved in the organization. But, the concept of “sharing” is at least important as the learning activity. If the things that are learned are shared in the

organization, that situation may affect the organization as a whole and displays itself on member's behaviors.

To better understand the learning concept, the term of “organizational learning” must be explained. There are many definitions about organizational learning in the literature. Some of those definitions are below:

- “Organizational learning is learning-in-organizing, because working, learning, and organizing are not distinct activities within a practice” (Gherardi and Nicolini [Dierkes, Antal, Child and Nonaka, Ed.], 2001, p.35).

According to Schein (1992, p.68), culture ultimately reflects the group's efforts to cope and learn and is the residue of learning processes.

Sørensen (2002, p.74) says that while organizational cultures reflect past learning, they also define the context for future organizational learning, which, in turn, has consequences for performance reliability.

Margulies and Raia (1978) mention that “the culture of an organization may be highly homogeneous in terms of value systems and patterns of behavior or may consist of a number of sharply differing entities. These cultural patterns are transmitted to, and learned by, new members via a socialization process that includes the reinforcement of behavior, the imitation of social models, social interaction with other members, and a wide variety of selection and training activities” (p.96).

Organizational learning is not a distinct area out of applications. The employees who learn in the organization apply them in the processes. Mitchell and Larson (1987, p.20) searched what is learned in the organization and stated that:

1. “First, motor skills often need to be learned” (Mitchell and Larson, 1987, p.20).
2. “Second, technical knowledge also needs to be learned” (Mitchell and Larson, 1987, p.20).
3. “Third, interpersonal skills must be learned” (Mitchell and Larson, 1987, p.20).
4. “Finally, attitudes are also learned in organizations” (Mitchell and Larson, 1987, p.20).

They added that these four sources can have a significant impact on both the behavior of individuals and the performance of the organization as a whole (Mitchell and Larson, 1987, p.21).

How the learning process takes a part in organizations is at least important as what is learned. Socialization is a vital issue in learning. Also as it was indicated before at Table 2.3, successful socialization is reflected in job satisfaction.

Also, it is important to provide training on the personnels' insufficiencies. Because the employee should have a know-how about his/her work. When he / she meets a problem on-job, he / she has to know how to cope with that and this solution should be shared with the other employees.

2.6.4.3. Transmission of information

Under this concept, the communication system will be examined. In the literature, there are many explanations about communication. Here are some of them as written below:

- "A basic definition of communication is that it is a process of transmitting information and understanding from one person to another. In other words, communication is the process of imparting ideas and making oneself understood by others" (Haimann and Hilgert, 1982, p.91).
- "Communication is the only way humans can relate to each other" (Costley, Santana-Melgoza and Todd, 1994, 16).
- Mondy and Premeaux (1995, p.375) define communication as the transfer of information, ideas, understanding, or feelings among people.
- "Communication is defined as the process of information and understanding transfer from a person to the other" (Davis, 1988, p.504).
- "Communication between people is the process of information, knowledge and emotions transfer from a person to the other" (Eren, 2001, p.349).

The common point of these definitions is "transferring information from one person to the other". It is a complex system to supply effective communication.

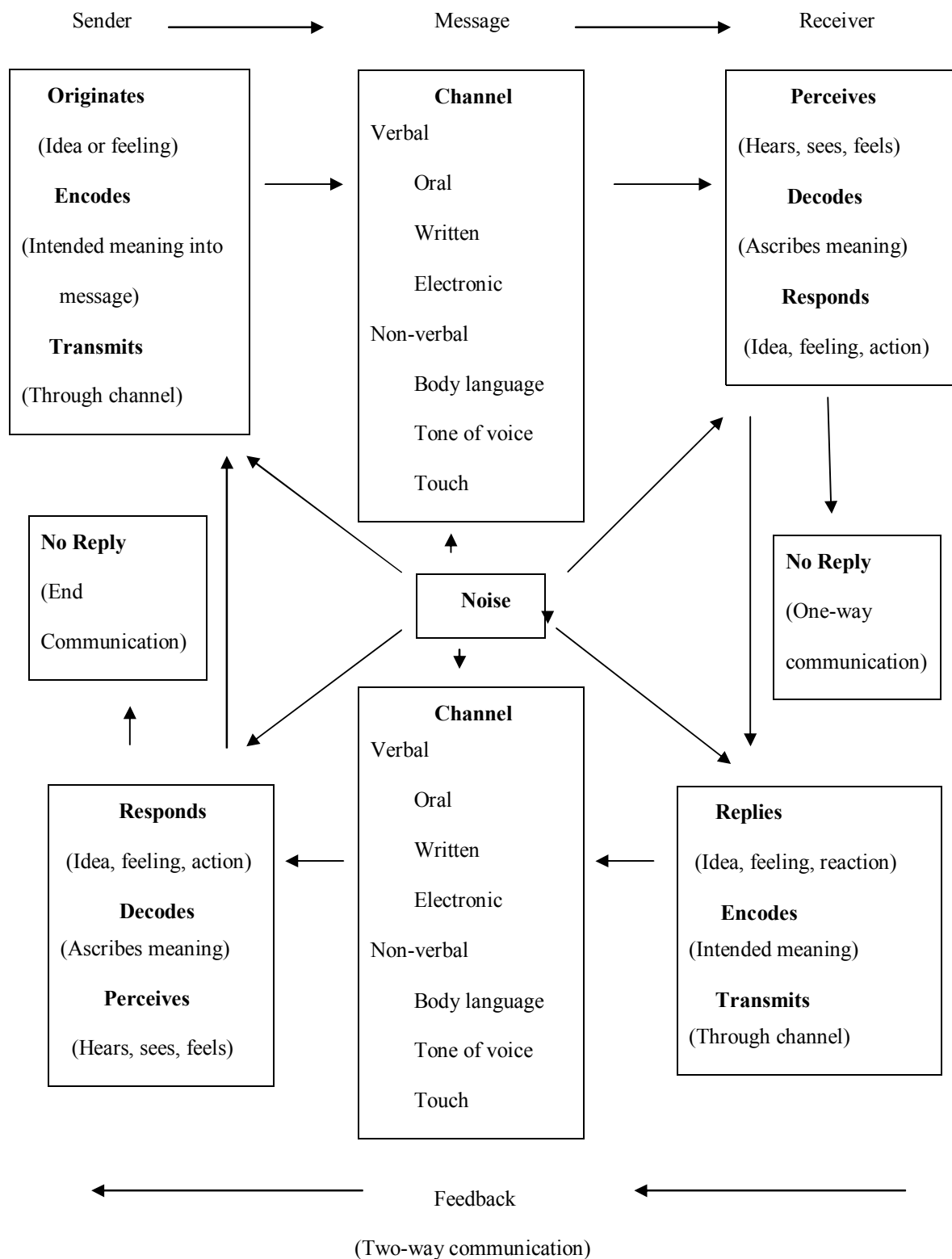


Figure 2.10: A Model of The Interpersonal Communication Process

Source: Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey (1997, p.258).

To better understand the process, the process elements are examined below:

Sender – “The source (or sender) is the person who has an idea or message to communicate to another person or persons” (Mondy and Premeaux, 1995, p.377).

Encoding process- Donnelly, Gibson and Ivancevich (1984) state that “with the communicator, an encoding process must take place which translates the communicator’s ideas into a systematic set of symbols-into a language expressing the communicator’s purpose. The major form of encoding is language. The function of encoding then is to provide a form in which ideas and purposes can be expressed as a message” (p.432).

Communication channel- Tevrüz, Artan and Bozkurt (1999, p.160) mention that the way that provides connection between source unit and target unit is named as “channel” and add that telephone, fax, computer, written texts that connect the people who are far from each other, are named as communication channel or communication tool.

Decoding- “Receivers interpret (decode) the message in light of their own previous experience and frames of reference. The closer the decoded message is to the intent desired by the communicator, the more effective is the communication” (Donnelly, Gibson and Ivancevich, 1984, p.433).

Receiver- Ataman (2002, p.421) states that receiver is the person to whom the message is sent and adds that it is primarily necessitated for the success of the communication.

Feedback- “Feedback can be defined as the receiver’s reply to the sender’s message. By feedback, sender understands whether the message is certainly reached to the receiver or not” (Ataman, 2002, p.425).

There is also another element-*noise* that must not be forgotten to be examined. As it is seen in the model, noise can appear any time in the communication process.

Noise- Eren (2001, p.356) defines noise as whatever an element that decreases rightness and reliability of communication and adds that if a sender is devoid of encoding or telling something, he / she causes noise.

In the communication process, there should be an excellent feedback for the sender to check whether the receiver got the message or not. There can be noise in the process that causes the sender and the receiver to understand each other in the wrong way. The communication system is like a web and connected to each other.

“Behavioral scientists have demonstrated that worker motivation is impossible without effective communication. Research has also underscored that the need for subordinates to be heard and understood by their supervisors. The responsibility to maintain a good communication climate clearly falls to management. To sustain employee cooperation in the pursuit of organizational objectives, the manager must consider employee needs and must communicate how those needs will be addressed” (Mondy and Premeaux, 1995, p.378-379).

To provide effective communication in the company, the managers hold an important role. If the company shares common values, it becomes easier to understand each other. Managers should form a feedback system and clear communication channels should be supported in the company.

Table 2.6: Information Employees Want To Know

-How their jobs should be performed. Most workers want to do a good job. In order to be effective, they must be told the proper way to do it.

-How effectively they are performing their jobs. Workers need and want to know how their superiors view the performance. Problems cannot be corrected if workers do not know what needs to be changed.

-How much they will be paid. Pay is a sensitive subject. Workers need to have a clear understanding of how much they will receive and how their pay is calculated.

-Changes in conditions within the firm that might affect them. Workers want to know what is going on. If management does not tell them the real story, they may get inaccurate information through informal sources.

-Company policies and rules that directly affect their jobs.

Source: Mondy and Premeaux (1995, p.379).

As seen in the Table 2.6, employees want to have know-how about their jobs, know their performance at job, and the conditions that affect them in the company. Management should supply training to the employees to get better results about job performance and should transmit the information to the employees via clear communication channels.

Studies on improving and having good communication in organizations took place in the literature (see Çetin, Akin and Erol, 2001; Donnelly, Gibson and Ivancevich, 1984; Mondy and Premeaux, 1995). Çetin, Akin and Erol (2001) mention these elements for a good communication: “

- Putting forward principles on vision, mission and values.
- Putting forward organization's target and goals.
- Expressing expectation and results well.
- Effective transmission of personal ability and knowledge to team members.
- Listening to team members and understanding their personal target and interests.
- Encouragement and rewarding positive behavior.
- Taking and giving sincere, certain feedback at the right time about people, teams and himself / herself.
- Providing necessary information flow” (p.99).

Donnelly, Gibson and Ivancevich (1984) state seven elements to improve communications in organizations. These elements are examined below:

- “- *Following up*- Following up involves assuming that you are misunderstood and, whenever possible, attempting to determine whether your intended meaning was actually received.
- *Regulating information flow*- Regulating the flow of communications

ensures an optimum flow of information to managers, thereby eliminating the barrier of 'communication overload'.

- *Utilizing feedback*- Feedback is an important element in effective two-way communication. It provides a channel for receiver response, enabling the communicator to determine whether the message has been received and has produced the intended response.
- *Empathy*- Empathy is the ability to put oneself in the other person's role and to assume the viewpoints and emotions of that person. Empathy requires communicators to place themselves in the receivers' positions for the purpose of anticipating how the message is likely to be decoded.
- *Simplifying language*- Complex language has been identified as a major barrier to effective communication" (p.446-448).
- *Effective listening*- "The supervisor who pays attention and listens to what the employee is saying learns more about the employee's values and attitudes toward the working environment" (Haimann and Hilgert, 1982, p.107).
- *Utilizing informal communication systems: the grapevine*- "In most cases, managers can count on the fact that the grapevine is fast, efficient, accurate, and fulfills people's need to communicate" (Donnelly, Gibson and Ivancevich, 1984, p.449).

Mondy and Premeaux (1995) state that managers can become better communicators by: "

- *Empathy*- Managers should take the time to understand as much as possible about the people they work with daily. By being empathic, they can more

easily get to the heart of many workers' problems.

- *Listening*- Listening skills help managers discover problems and determine solutions.
- *Reading Skills*- Particularly in larger organizations, the ability to read rapidly and with understanding is an essential communication skill.
- *Observation*- Using our powers of observation to supplement listening and reading adds immeasurably to our understanding of what is going on.
- *Word Choice*- Generally, for effective communication, simple or common words are best.
- *Body language*- Body language is the nonverbal method of communication in which physical actions such as motions, gestures, and facial expressions convey thoughts and emotions. Effective managers appreciate the importance of body language in the communication process.
- *Actions*- The manager must also recognize that one communicates by what one does or does not do. If no verbal explanation accompanies the action, people will interpret it their own way; the missing symbol or signal will be supplied by the observer” (Mondy and Premeaux, 1995, p.394-399).

Çetin, Akin and Erol's (2001) study looks like behavioral studies. Donnelly, Gibson and Ivancevich's (1984) and Mondy and Premeaux's (1995) studies look similar to each other. Management may have a vital effect on the communication process. Because, company policies, etc... are transmitted by management to the inferiors. If management espouse clear communication and feedback activities and also spend time to listen employees, misunderstandings may decrease, employees may think that their ideas are taken into consideration and they may try to do their best at work.

2.6.4.4. Adaptability

As it was mentioned before, Schein (1985) examines “external adaptability” as one of the culture’s functions. Carmeli (2004) says: “The organization’s culture provides the foundation for a shared system of norms and beliefs, which can support the ability to adapt to the external environment” (p.319).

Organization should be closed to changes in the environment. It has to know how to cope with these changes and how these changes can be turned to be an advantage for the firm. The employees should follow the innovations in the sector and try to adapt those innovations to their work. If the company does not know what is happening in the environment, it does not have a chance to be proactive and it does not have a word to say in the sector. Because that means that it used its chance to be just “reactive”. However if the company benefits from these novelties, new ideas, innovations in the sector, that may provide competitive advantage to the company. Company processes should be improved via the novelties in the environment. Otherwise, it can stay behind innovations in the sector. Also, employees should be open to changes in the environment. Otherwise, the company may get constrained in every change in the environment.

There are studies about adaptability and performance relationship. Fey and Denison (2003) found that, in Russia, adaptability and involvement are the strongest correlates of the effectiveness index, overall performance, profitability, and product development.

Adaptation is the subject depends on external environment and customers. If the company can succeed in adapting itself to the external environmental changes, that may prepare company to reply effectively to external changes.

2.6.4.5. Cooperation (Collaboration)

Anderson (1984, p.87) states that cooperation is seen as as an increasingly important dimension of performance. Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey (1997) mention that “collaborating consists of both assertive and cooperative behavior. It involves working with the other person to find a solution that fully satisfies both parties. This is a joint

problem-solving mode involving communication and creativity on the part of each party to find a mutually beneficial solution” (p.366).

Teamwork is an important part of cooperation (collaboration).

“An important pre-condition of formation of team work is that all the group members understand and accept group’s common goals. In addition, it is more beneficial that group members have some differences in views instead of thinking at the same way completely, because via ‘audience effect’ (e.g. the ones who watch chess see attacks which players could not see), creative, good ideas are formed” (Kondo, 1999, p.233). Kondo (1999, p.233) states that there is a widespread opinion as Japanese are excellent in team work but Westerners lag at team work. However, Kondo (1999, p.233) adds that he does not agree with that idea, he mentions that team work can be performed between people who have more independent spirit.

“Let there be no misunderstanding of the meaning of ‘works with’. This does not mean ‘responsibility for the same things’; it means each man is gladly responsible for his particular function on his appropriate level” (Magoun, 1960, p.60). Magoun (1960) states that “the achievement of a cooperative relationship is management’s responsibility because it is management’s function to manage. Management produces the conditions, both physical and emotional. That’s its job. Labor uses them, gladly or reluctantly, in the creation of a product” (p.60).

“Cooperative leadership knows not only the methods of production and the conditions of employment; it knows what the workmen feel about their jobs, what they think about the men they work for, and why. Cooperative leadership is of necessity based on a sound knowledge of the laws of human nature and of acceptable methods for applying them. The result is an adequate quantity of high quality work, good morale, low turnover, self-reliant employees growing into better jobs, security for both management and labor” (Magoun, 1960, p.61). Magoun (1960) mentions that cooperation will flourish especially: “

1. Between the workmen themselves in each particular department, with a high degree of group identification and loyalty,
2. Between the workmen of each department and their supervisors, so there is

- little resentment against management,
3. Between individual departments,
 4. Between management levels of both line and staff, from top to bottom, and from department to department” (p.62).

If evaluated effectively, cooperation between superiors-inferiors, superiors-superiors and inferiors-inferiors may benefit to the organization. Via superiors-inferiors cooperation, superiors can learn inferiors’ ideas about jobs and processes. Inferiors can learn about management applications better and feel that their ideas are important for superiors. Via superiors-superiors cooperation, inferiors may think that there is a friendly setting among superiors in the company. Via inferiors-inferiors cooperation, creativity may appear. Because, they have know-how at work, the difference is they have different point of views at work and maybe they have different know-how. That brings them advantage for product improvement, for determining inefficiencies in processes, etc... Also, teamwork symbolizes collectivism at work. Via brainstorming, teams may generate new ideas related to work.

Also, under this category, “participative management” has to be touched on. Because, it shows properties of cooperation (collaboration) inside as hidden.

“One of the most effective ways to build a sense of employee pride, teamwork, and motivation is for the supervisor to seek advice, suggestions, and information from employees concerning ways in which work should be performed and problems solved. This is called participative management” (Haimann and Hilgert, 1982, p.75). According to Mondy and Premeaux (1995), “an open and participative culture is characterized by such attributes as the following:

- Trust in subordinates.
- Openness in communications.
- Considerate and supportive leadership.
- Group problem solving.

- Worker autonomy.
- Information sharing.
- High-output objectives” (p.482).

If managers consult employees, they may get different ideas. Also, via teams, a lot of creative ideas can emerge and management can use these ideas for future applications.

2.6.4.6. Involvement

Wagner, Ferris, Fandt and Wayne (1987, p.63) examine job involvement as the importance of work and work success to one’s life and self-image. “Job-involved employees are likely to believe in the work ethic, have high growth needs, and enjoy participation in decision making. As a result, they seldom will be tardy or absent, are willing to work long hours, and will attempt to be high performers” (Davis and Newstrom, 1989, p.179).

“People seem to be more satisfied with their job when it demands something from them. People tend to be more committed to the job and are more involved with their work when they are challenged by what they do” (Mitchell and Larson, 1987, p.140).

Involvement is an issue about creating appropriate conditions to make the job interesting, to give employees opportunity to participate decisions, to connect the employees to each other by making them sharing company values. It is a wide and a complex concept. There are many factors as job involvement, participation in decisions, etc... The logic of the subject is making employees work desirously, connecting employees together via common company values, making employees participate to decision making processes, making employees empowered, creating good conditions to make employees own their work.

Woolf (2006) says that empowering employees is about giving them a voice. “Empowered team members can give 80%-90% of the daily decisions about team’s works” (Çetin, Akın and Erol, 2001, p.89). Çetin, Akın and Erol (2001) examine

“showing direction by principles” as a key element of an empowered organization with high performance and under that category, these thoughts are mentioned in their study:
“

- There is a common vision which is known and shared by everyone in the organization.
- All the works and decisions are constructed on the philosophy dependent to organization’s mission, vision and principles” (p.94).

So, empowered employees can give daily decisions about their work and while taking these decisions they take company’s values, mission, and vision into consideration. These are the part of the company culture and affect the decisions of the employees. Decisions have to be in harmony with the company culture. When employees have freedom to give daily decisions about their works, that can make them own their work willingly.

2.6.4.7. Reward and Incentive System

Mitchell and Larson (1987) state that “from the organization’s point of view, the reward system can serve a number of functions. First, it can be used to attract and keep high-quality employees. Everything else being equal, people want to go where the rewards are greatest. Second, it can be used to acknowledge past performance and accomplishments. Finally, it can serve as a motivator for future performance. Rewards can be explicitly tied to future goal attainment, thereby stimulating higher levels of work motivation. From the individual’s perspective, the reward system also serves a number of functions. First, it provides a sense of security. Second, rewards are a source of recognition. Finally, rewards can serve as important personal goals to attain” (p.497).

Rewards have an important part in organizational system. Because, employees may see which behaviors are appreciated, which targets that have to be reached. After that period, employees may have more tendency to behave in the way management wants them to. Rewards do not have to be very comprehensive. Because, if a very comprehensive reward is provided to the employee, after one time of getting it, the next

time it would be very hard to motivate that employee again, because he / she got the best what he / she could guess. Rewards may be the ones which may provide prestige to the employee among others. Because, if they provide prestige, next time employees can try hard to get them. Via that side, rewards look like motivational.

Extrinsic rewards look like intermediaries. It means that they may not be the end-goal. They may facilitate to get intrinsic rewards. It is better to touch on intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to better examine the concept:

1. Extrinsic Rewards: Anderson (1984) mentions that extrinsic rewards are those that management provides, and they occur outside the work itself. Anderson (1984) adds that there are three extrinsic reward options available to management as pay, promotions and recognition from supervisors and peers:

a) Pay- “Money is usually described as the most important extrinsic reward (Anderson, 1984, p.275)”. Mondy and Premeaux (1995, p.329) state that “money is undoubtedly a motivator to many, and fear may well alter behavior; but more long-term motivators, such as a comprehensive and applicable reward system, should be sought”. There are different pay systems that are used in the companies. Time-based pay systems, skill-based pay systems and performance-based pay systems are examined under this concept.

Time-based pay systems- Mitchell and Larson (1987) mention that “most managers, professionals, and upper-level employees receive a salary or some sort of time-based pay. The amount they earn is dependent on the amount of time they work, by the hour, day, week, or month. It is not how much you produce that matters but how long you work. Organizations with time-based pay systems are usually forced to find other rewards to motivate their employees. Promotions, recognition, and intrinsic rewards (such as assigning interesting or challenging tasks) may be used” (p.498).

Skill-based pay systems- Robbins (1996) mentions that “a number of studies have investigated the use and effectiveness of skill-based pay. The overall conclusion, based on these studies, is that skill-based pay is expanding and that it generally leads to higher employee performance and satisfaction” (p.270). Davis and Newstrom (1989) mention that “they provide strong motivation for employees to develop their work-related skills,

they reinforce an employee's sense of self-esteem, and they provide the organization with a highly flexible work force that can fill in when someone is absent. Skill-based pay, like other incentive programs, works best when the organizational culture of the firm is generally supportive and trusting" (p.165-166).

Performance-based pay systems- "Performance pay is an incentive to improve performance on one's job" (Davis and Newstrom, 1989, p.166-167). Heneman, Fisher and Dixon (2001, p.21) say that to issue the rewards, an organization must assess how well the employee is performing the job, and some sort of measure is needed to assess performance. Arnold and Feldman (1986, p.347) mention that there are problems related to determining exactly what should be measured in order to obtain an accurate indication of the quality and quantity of an individual's contribution to the effectiveness of the organization and add that the precise methods used for linking pay and performance vary widely from one organization to another and three primary issues can help draw some distinction among the tremendous variety of pay-for-performance schemes that exist: "

1. Whose performance to measure- It is possible to design plans to link an individual's pay to his or her own personal performance, to the performance of the work group of which he or she is a member, or to the performance of the total organization.
2. What method of performance measurement to use- In general, performance measurement techniques can be seen as varying on a continuum from the extremely objective to the extremely subjective.
3. What types of monetary rewards to employ- These generally fall into two categories of salary increments and cash bonuses. Salary increments have the advantage of being cumulative from year to year, while cash bonuses provide an effective performer with a large lump sum of cash at a single time" (Arnold and Feldman (1986, p.347-348).

Mondy and Premeaux (1995) mention that “pay based on performance is one of the best means for motivating people and encouraging increased productivity, but more money is simply a short-term motivator” (p.329). Mitchell and Larson (1987) state that “if a performance-based pay system is to succeed, it must be perceived as being equitable. If there are clear differences in how well people perform and in how much they are paid, but the pay differences bear no relationship to the performance differences, then the pay system will be seen as being grossly unfair, and the result will be low motivation, dissatisfaction, and turnover” (p.499-501). According to Robbins (1996), “rewards should be contingent on performance. Importantly, employees must perceive a clear linkage. Regardless of how closely rewards are actually correlated to performance criteria, if individuals perceive this correlation to be low, the result will be low performance, a decrease in job satisfaction, and an increase in turnover and absenteeism statistics” (p.277).

At this point, trust becomes important. There should be trust in relationships between inferiors and superiors. Because, it should be certain that there is a fair evaluation of performance among employees. If employees believe that, they become more focused on their works to achieve the goals.

Also studies indicate that rewards can influence motivation and satisfaction. “When used in combination, the appraisal and reward systems represent a very powerful mechanism that organizations can use to influence the motivation of their employees” (Mitchell and Larson, 1987, p.496). Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (1997, p.101) mention that well-managed rewards can have a positive influence on both satisfaction and performance.

Money may have a vital sense, however it should not be forgotten that it is not everything in the business settings. If there are employees who are only motivated by pay, it means that making employees own their job and making them satisfied depends on money and that is a great disadvantage for the company. Recognition, social status and prestige should take a part in employees’ business lives.

b) Promotions- “Promotions are a form of organizational reward whose average level of importance to individuals tends to be quite high” (Arnold and Feldman, 1986, p.343).

Anderson (1984) says: “Promotion is one of the more important rewards management controls since it sends signals to everyone in the organization about exactly what management wants. It meets needs for security, esteem, and achievement” (p.277).

Luthans (1992) states that “promotional opportunities seem to have a varying effect on job satisfaction. This is because promotions take a number of different forms and have a variety of accompanying rewards. For example, individuals who are promoted on the basis of seniority often experience job satisfaction but not as much as those who are promoted on the basis of performance” (p.121). Mitchell and Larson (1987) mention that “promotional opportunities and wages have traditionally been used by organizations to foster job satisfaction. In the case of promotions, it does appear that employees are more satisfied with situations in which this opportunity is likely than those in which it is not” (p.141).

If an employee can not see chance to get promoted after a certain or planned time, he / she can leave the organization. Employees have many expectations from the company as recognition, social status, prestige, good working conditions, good relationships among employees, etc... If these are not performed, so employees can get dissatisfied. This dissatisfaction may lead to turnover or absenteeism.

c) Recognition- According to Costley, Santana-Melgoza and Todd (1994), “recognition may take many forms, from verbal or written recognition to pay increases and bonuses. Regardless of the form, the motivational value of recognition does not last very long. Frequent reinforcement is necessary for it to be of continuing motivational value” (p. 252).

Sabuncuoğlu (1984) says: “While a manager is taking up workers as social being and providing them participation in various groups or showing tolerance to them about participation in various groups, on the other hand he/she has to appreciate their personalities, works they performed, their views and thoughts. Workers do not achieve satisfaction only via participation in a group. They also need recognition, to get admired and to get appreciated by managers and group members” (p.92).

Getting recognized via employees and managers may give the person prestige and happiness and may encourage him / her to perform his / her job better. Recognition may be a motivation tool for employees.

2. Intrinsic Rewards: Robbins (1996, p.660) mentions that intrinsic rewards are those that individuals receive for themselves.

Also, punishment takes a part with the concept of rewards. Reward systems may be used for employee satisfaction, also punishment systems are used to indicate that there is a fault in what employees did. On the point of employees' views, rewards may be more desired applications than punishments. However, managers sometimes prefer punishments to make employees know about their faults.

“Punishment is a means of eliminating undesirable behavior by administering an unpleasant consequence upon the occurrence of that behavior. To punish an employee, a manager may deny the individual a valued reward, such as verbal praise or merit pay, or the manager may administer an unpleasant outcome, such as a verbal reprimand or pay reduction” (Schermerhorn, 1996, p.356).

Kolb, Rubin and Osland (1991) mention that “people using reward and punishment are very comfortable, generally, in situations of conflict. They are comfortable giving clear feedback-both positive and negative-and are very direct about prescribing their goals and expectations” (p.384). Whyte (1974) states that “if rewards appear to be sparse and penalties frequent and heavy, the participants will either leave the organization or else develop their own strategies for evading penalties without doing what their superiors expect of them” (p.565).

During punishment process, managers should think how he / she will be behaved via the work group after punishment. Punishment should not prevent his / her desire to work. Otherwise, there may be a lot of times he / she can get punished in the future because of not being able to meet the goals or performance standards. Because, if the manager's punishment causes a distance between employee and job, so it may become hard to think of performance from that employee any more. So, managers should be very careful about rewards and punishments and should not only think of that period, also may foresee what these rewards and punishments may cause in the future.

There are also different and new trends on reward systems. Cafeteria approach, all-salaried work force and the decrease in individual pay plans will be touched on as briefly:

The Cafeteria Approach- “Historically, compensation was based on the belief that one size fits all, that people could be uniformly rewarded. Today’s increasingly popular practice is to let people select from among a portfolio or menu of benefits” (Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey, 1997, p.235).

All-salaried work force- “If management is sincere about treating employees as responsible and committed members, then the all-salaried plan may be a worthwhile program” (Meltzer and Nord, 1981, p.82).

Decrease in individual pay plans- Meltzer and Nord (1981) mention that “pinpointing individual performance is extremely difficult. For this reason it appears that individual plans will be replaced in increasing numbers by group incentive plans” (p.82).

2.6.4.8. System of Control

Control is a wide system to examine. It is a very complex system having a lot of ingredients. At first, it is beneficial to explain what “control” means. There are many explanations related to the term of “control” in the literature. Here are some of them below:

- Gilmer (1971, p.66) mentions that control relates to influence, authority, and power; it refers to any system that determines what another person, group, or organization will do.

- Haimann and Hilgert (1982) state that “controls are necessity in organizations. Without controls, very little would be accomplished in comparison with what was planned and expected” (p.346).

- Zoga (1970, p.96) mentions that control in real sense, provides the desired in appropriate to desire and procedure.

- “Control refers to the problem of regulating the activities of subordinates” (Fincham and Rhodes, 1988, p.291).

Control is about regulating activities to get the desired results in the company. These activities are in harmony with rules, regulations, procedures and policies. Superiors may control employees via these subjects. To get the desired results that the company wants to achieve, all the activities, rules and procedures about the control process must be determined certainly.

Anderson (1984) mentions that “managers typically focus their control efforts in one of five areas-money, operations, information, time, and behavior. Monetary control involves the financial and accounting measures (like ROI and break-even analysis). Control of operations is very common. Production control, in particular, focuses on item tolerances (quality) and number of units produced. Control in service industries is vitally important. Control of information is vital, if managers are to make decisions consistent with plans. The purpose of management information systems is to ensure that the right information gets to key decision makers on time. Managers control time which is related to the other four areas” (p.589-590). Anderson (1984, p.590) adds that controlling personal time use is an important issue for most managers.

These four control areas are generally examined above, control of behaviors should be focused on more. Because, if the manager provides appropriate conditions to get the desired monetary results, he / she can get or the manager can manage time as it is desired. But, managing behavior is a very hard topic in business. Because, sometimes the manager may not get the results that he / she desires to have on that topic.

Anderson (1984) mentions that “control of behavior is a critical issue. Of the five areas, this one typically gets managers into the most trouble, since too much control can lead to resistance and other dysfunctional behavior, and too little can lead to a large amount of variance in performance due to different motives and abilities. Typically, the behavior of people is controlled by setting work standards (such as when and where they report for work), the number of hours they work, and expectations of what they should produce. Thus, by controlling behavior, managers also gain control in the other four areas” (p.590).

“Managers need control more than everything. That is why they also have to follow worker performance. This is done via performance appraisal. Decisions about pay raise, promotion, education, transfer or turnover are given via evaluating personal performance” (Hodgetts, 1999, p.252).

Hodgetts (1999) indicates three traditional control techniques as graphic / proportion scale, pairing comparison and management by objectives. These three control techniques are examined below as briefly:

Graphic / Ratio Scale- “Via this method, the performance of each worker in different areas is evaluated. Form is filled in by only putting X to the appropriate box” (Hodgetts, 1999, p.252).

Technical knowledge about job	Excellent	Well	Adequate	Average	Poor
The amount of work he / she performed					
Work quality					
Comprehension (success of decision making)					

Figure 2.11: Graphic Proportioning Scale (Partial Form)

Source: Hodgetts (1999, p.253).

Pairing comparison- “In this process, one employee in each unit is compared to another employee. As a final result, an employee evaluation list including a range from the best to the worst gets formed” (Hodgetts, 1999, p.252).

Management by objectives- “Management by objectives is a process that superiors and inferiors define organization targets together and at which responsibilities that are

expected from each employee is determined on the direction of these targets and at which measures which guide unit's activities are used via evaluation of each member's contribution. At the end of a decided time-generally changes as six months to one year-performance is evaluated and target for the next term are determined" (Hodgetts, 1999, p.590, 253).

Hodgetts (1999) states that "the main problem of much evaluation is, not being adequately related to behaviors about work, and not being able to measure completely the degree of how well performance the individual indicated. Managers' second problem is, not being educated about how they will evaluate an employee" (p.253).

Anderson (1984, p.591) mentions that generally, large organizations require more complex, formal controls (like written rules) than smaller ones do. Anthony and Govindarajan (1998, p.98) state that "some rules are guides-that is, organization members are permitted, and indeed expected, to depart from them, either under specified circumstances or if in the person's judgment a departure is in the best interests of the organization". Anthony and Govindarajan (1998, p.99) add that some rules should never be broken.

There should be certain rules, procedures for control activity. Otherwise, it may become hard to direct employees to the desired outcomes.

Scanlon and Keys (1983) state that there are four important guidelines to effective control administration: "

- First, the manager must communicate, discuss, and gain the highest possible degree of commitment among his people to the goals and objectives of the unit or department and their individual goals.
- Second, emphasis should be placed on educating subordinates with respect to the purpose of control. The control procedure does not exist for the purpose of finding out who made mistakes and who should be disciplined and subject to various types of pressure. It should be clearly communicated that the control system is a tool to help the individual perform at her full

level of capability.

- Third, in day-to-day dealings with subordinates, and in particular those dealings involving aspects of control, the manager must establish a climate of help and support and must create a climate where employees are convinced that he or she is truly concerned about helping them to do the best job possible.
- Fourth, in order to gain commitment and to reinforce the true purpose of control, managers should continually provide feedback on the status of achievement and progress toward objectives” (p.550).

Communication also takes place in the process of control. The manager should construct open communication with employees to transmit rules and procedures and to make these shared by members of the organization and to take feedback. So, employees can better understand how important to achieve the goals, targets of the organization and perform their works better.

Scanlon and Keys (1983, p.551) state that control help organizational members achieve desired results, in terms of quality, quantity, timing, cost, or combination of these elements.

Zoga (1970) says: “Control which will be done about personnel is important related to indicate how the personnel is used; their security; their knowledge, skills and specialization positions; their degree of success and productivity at work. By their control related to money, manager or supervisor will find opportunity to prevent squandering, to prevent unproductiveness, to do expenses in appropriate to reality, to obtain saving, to make costs believable. Control which is done about time makes the works to get done at the right time, the works to be productive, the idea of a real time to be achieved possible. Control about material gives opportunity to determine how the material is used, who has authority to demand which material and what amount of

material, which type and what amount of material is needed. Controls which will be done in other issues nearly aim the same goal” (p. 97-98).

Zoga (1970, p.102) also adds that control which is done more than needed is as dangerous as the control which is done less than needed.

For the effective control, managers need employees’ help, because employees sometimes do not understand why the controls are made and may show resistance to this application. Effective communication between managers and employees help this problem to get solved. Managers should explain the reason of the controls to the employees and should try to fix the control frequency at average. The controls more than needed can make employees feel anxious, disturbed and unhappy. They may also lead to the emotion that their every step is analysed via management. Also, controls less than needed may lead to unconcern. So, managers should perform the controls in an average frequency.

What to control, when to control and how to control have to be determined before the process. Rules, plans are used during the process. It is desired to compare the existing performance and desired one, the resulted productivity and the desired one, etc... The aim of the control is not punishing somebody who could not arrive the desired performance outcomes. The aim is to compose corrective activities on the behaviors and processes. Also, there must be objectivity at the controls for a trustworthy setting in the company.

In McGlone and Chenoweth’s (2001) study, their objective was to investigate the role of job demands and job control as predictors of job satisfaction in general practice, they found that the major determinants of job satisfaction were gender, job demands, hours worked and job control and stated that job control was the most powerful predictor of job satisfaction.

2.6.4.9. Agreement

Agreement includes the employees’ acceptance of organizational rules, goals, norms and values. It symbolizes the general agreement between employees about obeying rules, sharing company values and connection to each other friendly. Agreement may show itself in the company when employees behave through the same

direction when they meet a problem, when they agree about company rules, policies, procedures and norms and when they behave as a family.

Eren (2001) mentions that “if members become like-minded about the target, solidarity increases. Goal-unity ties the ones in the team to each other, brings the members into action by encouraging them for success and gives energy. Personal loyalty to the team means that employees identify themselves with similar behavior and values with each other and they like to be with each other” (p.481).

Davis and Newstrom (1989) state that “as a minimum, supervisors need to explain the purpose behind goals and the necessity for them. It may be necessary for the manager to involve the employees in the goal-setting process to obtain acceptance” (p.120).

Thus, acceptance of company values, rules, procedures and norms become important. Agreement is very important for the organization to keep employees together and to tie them to each other like a family.

2.6.4.10. Communication

Under the term of “communication”, behavioral relations between employees (including managers) and organizational communication types become important.

“Organizational communication is the specific process through which information moves and is exchanged among persons throughout an organization. Such information flows through both formal and informal structures, and it flows downward, upward, and in lateral directions” (Schermerhorn, 1996, p.375-376).

Schermerhorn (1996) says that “formal communication channels follow the chain of command established by an organization’s hierarchy of authority. Formal communication channels are recognized as official and authoritative, it is typical for written communications in the form of letters, memos, policy statements, and other announcements to adhere to them. In more progressive organizations, formal communications are informative, include performance reports, and support empowerment by making sure that people at all levels have the information needed to make decisions about their work. Informal communication channels develop separately

from the formal structure and do not follow the chain of command. They are sometimes referred to as grapevines. Among the advantages of grapevines are their abilities to transmit information quickly and efficiently. The primary disadvantage of grapevines occurs when they transmit incorrect or untimely information” (p.376).

Haimann and Hilgert (1982, p.94-95) examine formal channels in organizational communication in three types as downward communication, upward communication and horizontal communication.

- *Downward communication*- “The concept of the downward formal channel of communication suggests that someone at the top issues a directive or disseminates some information, and the people at the next level in the hierarchy pass the communication along to their subordinates , and so forth down the line. The downward direction is the most frequently used and relied upon by management for communication” (Haimann and Hilgert, 1982, p.94).

Management use this type of communication to share policies, company procedures and the rules. Employees believe those data because they know that these data are transmitted from management.

- *Upward communication*- “Advocates of participative management emphasize the establishment of upward channels of communication. These channels are necessary not only to determine if subordinates have understood the information sent downward but also to satisfy the need of subordinates to be involved” (Mondy and Premeaux, 1995, p.382).

If superiors want to see the realities about the company, they should let their inferiors to give ideas, information to themselves. This process is like feedback. Via this way, the superior has an opportunity to evaluate the ideas, expectations, suggestions and may hold a good project that gives the company competitive advantage in business.

- *Horizontal communication*- “This is sideward, or horizontal, communication, which is concerned mainly with communication between departments or people at the same levels but in charge of different functions. In order to achieve coordination between various departments’ functions, a free flow of horizontal communication is needed” (Haimann and Hilgert, 1982, p.95).

If the company wants to produce a new product or wants to differentiate a product, as a project, the employees at the same levels and from different departments may take each other's ideas for this project. That is like "brainstorming" and that may bring advantage to the company.

Mondy and Premeaux (1995, p.384) state that informal communication may be either lateral or diagonal.

- *Lateral communication*- "Communication by managers at the same organizational level is lateral communication. This form of communication benefits from established personal relationships and mutual trust. The development of lateral communication often takes time, but if it is effective, it can improve the productivity of both departments" (Mondy and Premeaux, 1995, p.384).

- *Diagonal communication*- "Diagonal communication is the exchange of information with people who are higher or lower in the organization but who are not directly in the formal chain of command" (Mondy and Premeaux, 1995, p.384). "Although diagonal communication probably is the least-used channel of communication in organizations, it is important in situations in which members cannot communicate effectively through other channels" (Donnelly, Gibson and Ivancevich, 1984, p.437).

Grapevines have to be mentioned when talking about informal communication in the company. "The grapevine does not respect formal lines of authority. It reaches into every unit and level of an organization. Managers should not ignore the grapevine, because it can not be eliminated" (Mondy and Premeaux, 1995, p.384-385).

The issue here is using grapevines effectively. If they can not be obstructed very much, so the way to use them effectively should be found to be prevented from negative effects that can appear.

Also, relationships between employees determinate the quality of the communication system. Managers behaviors at work is a vital issue here. Because, the effected are "employees" and employees are the "backbones" of the company so they help the company stand.

"The nature of a traditional boss-employee relationship brings to mind a vision of a hierarchy or of a boss who is superior to the employee. For many employees, this

relationship is not a comfortable one, because another individual has the right to tell them what to do. Some people resent authority more than others, and obviously this creates conflicts. In addition, some bosses are more autocratic than others; this compounds the potential for conflict in the relationship. As organizations move toward the team approach and empowerment, there should be less potential for conflict from authority relationships” (Nelson and Quick, 1994, p.393).

Managers should know how to use authority. If that authority makes employees afraid of the manager and makes them live in a close system, it may become harder to make them feel that they are an important part of the organizational system. If managers become more moderate about relations with the employees, the employees may not be afraid of asking something to them. This can influence employee’s performance. The employee feels that the manager behaves friendly to them. So, he / she may not hesitate to ask to the manager and can apply on work what he / she learned from the manager. There should be a friendly setting in the company that the employee can ask what he / she wants to learn. In an opposite position, this can be a disadvantage for the company.

Robbins (1996) says: “Having the behavior of one’s boss also is a major determinant of satisfaction. Studies generally find that employee satisfaction is increased when the immediate supervisor is understanding and friendly, offers praise for good performance, listens to employees’ opinions, and shows a personal interest in them” (p.193).

Lebbin (2007, p.A) mentions that the right relationship begins with good communication and adds that communication is key to creating a positive impression of the overall organization. Vallas (2006, p.26) says that truly effective employee communication can influence what employees value, and in turn influence their behavior. Başaran (2004, p.268) states that it is frequently seen that a manager uses friendliness to an employee for motivating him / her to targets. “If the manager has an understanding, tolerant and respectful personality, communication becomes easier” (Sabuncuoğlu, 1984, p.144). Bolton and Bolton (2003) state that there are three keys for good relations and add that these are respect, equity and honesty.

Relations have vital importance in the organizations. If managers support new ideas, prepare an atmosphere of open communication and suggest system, do not only command but also ask employees, support and help employees, that should bring the company an advantage to be like a family. So, if manager may need something from workers, the workers can perform that not only because of pay or procedure, but also because of this friendly environment.

Koç (1991) says that mutual relations diversify in four issues: “

1. Period of relation: Some relations are in short-period.
2. Power balance between the people who are in communication: Relations which have broken power balance do not run as effectively as the relations between the sides having equal power.
3. Rules which are put via environment in relations: Relations between people change depending on plenty or rigidity of these rules.
4. Employees' confusion of the relations with supervisors and personal relations: For example, when the supervisor says that works do not run and working method has to be changed, the employee may think that the supervisor are criticizing his / her personality. However, supervisor is not thinking the relation among personally” (p.30).

Bentley (1999, p.176) states that everyone needs help from time to time and adds that that is why bringing help to the degree that everyone who needs can reach and encouraging individuals at every level on the issues of getting help and also helping are necessitated.

Trust is an important factor. If employees see differences about what the manager say and what he / she does, this may cause a distrustful setting in the company. According to Mondy and Premeaux (1995), “managers who are open and receptive to employees' ideas encourage employee feedback. Managers need this feedback to do

their job. If managers give the impression that their orders should never be questioned, communication tends to be stifled” (p.391).

Koontz, O'Donnell and Weihrich (1986, p.430) say that distrust, threat, and fear undermine communication and adds that in a climate containing these forces, any message will be viewed with skepticism.

“In reality, managers are responsible from communication in two ways. They are responsible of communicating to others like everyone, but also they are responsible of their personnels’ constructing good communication” (Davis, 1988, p.513). Davis (1988) points out two targets of communication, one of them is developing the necessary knowledge and understanding for group effort and the other one is providing the necessary attitudes for motivation, cooperation and job satisfaction as seen in Figure 2.12.

Process of managers’ starting action

GOALS		RESULT
1. Necessary knowledge and understanding for group effort.	2. Necessary attitudes for motivation, cooperation and job satisfaction.	3. Better communication causes better job success and better job satisfaction.
Working skills	+ Demand to work	= Team work

Figure 2.12: Communication’s Two Goals as The Management Activity

Source: Davis (1988, p.509).

“Two important causes of job dissatisfaction are related to communication. First, the worker may think that he or she does not have adequate information to do the job. Second, interpersonal relations among members of a unit may be poor” (Hunt, 1980, p.45). The first one is related to transmission of information as examined before.

The second indicates relationships as examined under the communication concept. Communication has a wide area and includes a lot of subjects, it is not narrow.

2.6.4.11. Coordination and Integration

Anderson (1984) says: “Coordination is a process involving the transfer of information between jobs and people to avoid overlap of work and to ensure that effort and resources are balanced across the total organization” (p.21). According to Haimann and Hilgert (1982, p.33), coordination is the orderly synchronization (or putting together) of efforts of all the members and resources of an organization to provide the proper amount, timing and quality of execution so that their organized efforts lead to the accomplishment of the organization’s stated objectives. Bobbitt, Breinholt, Doktor and McNaul (1974, p.46) state that when work is divided into specialized activities, some form of coordination is required.

“Coordination produces positive results with respect to employees and also with respect to the organization by preventing confusion and repetitions in the company. By this way, while motivation of employees is increasing, the organization works more effectively and productively. The need for coordination increases depending on the organization’s largeness and complexity. When differentiation increases, the need for integration increases and it becomes hard to provide integration” (Ataman, 2002, p.496).

According to Ataman (2002), “in the situations at which coordination is not performed effectively, a situation of each departments’ trying to achieve their own goals will arise, competition among departments will appear and it will become impossible to achieve organizational goals. In the situation at which there is a strong organizational culture in the company, it will become easier to make coordination provided. Employees working in organization’s all stages, will search for solution to the problems under the frame of common value, thought and norms and by this way, certain behavior forms will arise” (p.536).

Schein (1965, p.7) mentions that as several people coordinate their efforts, they find that they can do more than any of them alone could have done.

Zoga (1970) states that coordination is a directive cooperation (p.74) and adds that via coordination: “

1. New ideas being spread out provide opportunity for development,
2. Problems no matter who have, are understood actually by the others,
3. More advanced material and spiritual agreement occurs,
4. Confusion and repeatations may be prevented,
5. Existing policy, plan and principles are understood as the same,
6. Performing works regularly increases the related people's desire to work,
7. Plans have opportunity to get better applicated” (Zoga, 1970, p.80).

Koontz, O'Donnell and Weihrich (1986) say: “The best coordination occurs when individuals see how their jobs contribute to the goals of an enterprise. They are able to see this only when they know what those goals are. If, for example, managers are not sure whether the goal of their firm is sales volume, quality, advanced techniques, or customer service, they cannot coordinate their efforts to achieve any objective. Each would be guided by his or her own ideas of what is in the interest of the firm or, without any such conviction, might work for self-enrichment. To avoid such splintering of efforts, the dominant goal of the enterprise should be clearly defined and communicated to everyone concerned. And, naturally, goals of subordinate departments should be designed to contribute to the goals of the enterprise” (p.38).

“Goal unity causes organizational unity. Goal unity does not compose spontaneously, it is created. The creator of this unity must be managers. If the manager can convince inferiors that working honestly and productively is directed towards as much as company benefits and also their own benefits, the employee can understand that he / she serves his / her own goals via contributing to organizational goals” (Sabuncuoğlu, 1984, p.98).

Bobbitt et al. (1974, p.236) mention integration as the organization of the system and add that based upon the relations that exist among the component parts, it refers to

the actual organizational mechanisms, functions, and principles that hold a system together. “Integration is the level of coordination achieved among an organization’s internal components” (Schermerhorn, 1996, p.249).

“The manufacturing function and the marketing function must, for example, be coordinated because of their completely different perspectives on how their own work—and that of the other functions—should be performed. The manufacturing function, emphasizing production as it must, would much prefer to produce identical products, with mass-production techniques, completely standardized parts, and long production runs. Marketing, on the other hand, would much prefer to sell and distribute products that are customized to the specific needs of each customer, which would require a craft technology of production, with extremely short production runs and high unit costs of production and sales, yet with relatively higher revenues” (Herbert, 1976, p.86).

“Lawrence and Lorsch themselves focused on major types of inter-group relations in organizations which give rise to recurring problems of integration. They looked at the relationships between production, sales, and research and development departments, and revealed typical patterns of conflict. For example, production managers favoured stable output and low product variation, as these helped them to meet production targets and stay within budget, while managers in sales desired the exact opposite” (Fincham and Rhodes, 1988, p.292-293).

Also, related to the concept of integration, the term of “differentiation” has to be examined. Bobbitt et al. (1974) mention that “components of a system can often be distinguished from one another or take on certain distinctive characteristics-become subsystems. This is the process of differentiation in organizational systems” (p.236). Schermerhorn (1996) states that there are four common sources of differentiation among subsystems as differences in time orientation, differences in objectives, differences in interpersonal orientation and differences in formal structure. Schermerhorn (1996, p.249) says that increased differentiation among organizational subsystems creates the need for greater integration and adds that integration becomes harder to achieve as differentiation increases.

Schein (1985) examines internal integration widely and indicated that term as one of the functions of culture in organizations and argues the problems of internal integration under six categories as common language and conceptual categories, group boundaries and criteria for inclusion and exclusion, power and status, intimacy, frienship, and love, rewards and punishments, ideology and religion.

These six categories are vital for the focus on agreement, sharedness, membership, etc... They can be used to form common feelings among members of the organization and to connect them to each other in organization. By this way, conflicts, disagreements, differentiation may decrease. Because, it becomes important to connect the members of the organization via common, shared goals and issues and it needs integration to achieve them.

Coordination is more comprehensive than cooperation. Because, under the concept of coordination, mutual work is performed to achieve organizational goals. However, under the concept of cooperation, collaboration is mentioned. Coordination indicates the target. That is why it is a larger concept than cooperation.

2.6.4.12. Strategic Direction

Strategic direction points out strategies, goals, plans, mission and vision. Mission helps the company to understand the reason why it exists and lives. However, via the term of direction, goals and vision are emphasized. Company determinates strategies to achieve these goals. That seems to be a simple process, however implementation may sometimes be hard for the companies.

Companies should have a clear mission, vision and goals. Because, employees should be directed towards clear goals, and if these goals are not clear enough, some problems may arise in the company.

To better examine the concept, the related terms are explained below:

Strategy and plans- “Every organizational mission and the visions that emerge in pursuit of the mission call forth multiple strategies. Strategy is the process of planning a fit between an organization’s capabilities and its evolving environment to achieve a favorable position within the competitive marketplace” (Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey,

1997, p.44). “Strategy is the statement of objectives and plans for the entire organization” (Anderson, 1984, p.26). Koontz, O’Donnell and Weihrich (1986) say: “three definitions are indicative of the most common usages of the term ‘strategies’: (1) general programs of action and deployment of resources to attain comprehensive objectives; (2) the program of objectives of an organization, resources used to attain these objectives, and policies governing the acquisition, use, and disposition of these resources; and (3) the determination of the basic long-term objectives of an enterprise and the adoption of courses of action and allocation of resources necessary to achieve these goals” (p.78). According to Marquardt (2002, p.15), strategy relates to the action plans, methodologies, tactics, and steps that are employed to reach a vision and goals.

Wheelen and Hunger (2004, p.13) say that the typical business firm usually considers three types of strategy: corporate, business, and functional.

- “Corporate strategy describes a company’s overall direction in terms of its general attitude toward growth and the management of its various businesses and product lines” (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004, p.13). “Corporate strategy deals with three key issues facing the corporation as a whole:

1. The firm’s overall orientation toward growth, stability, or retrenchment (directional strategy),
2. The industries or markets in which the firm competes through its products and business units (portfolio strategy),
3. The manner in which management coordinates activities, transfers resources, and cultivates capabilities among product lines and business units (parenting strategy)” (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004, p.137).

De Feo and Janssen (2001) mention that ten steps are required for corporate strategy to become an integral part of an organization’s culture: “

1. Establish a vision,

2. Agree on a mission,
3. Develop key strategies,
4. Develop strategic goals,
5. Establish values,
6. Communicate company policies,
7. Provide top management leadership,
8. Deploy goals,
9. Measure progress with key performance indicators,
10. Review progress” (p.4-6).

- “Business strategy usually occurs at the business unit or product level, and it emphasizes improvement of the competitive position of a corporation’s products or services in the specific industry or market segment served by that business unit” (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004, p.13).

- “Functional strategy is the approach taken by a functional area to achieve corporate and business unit objectives and strategies by maximizing resource productivity” (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004, p.13).

Child (1974, p.3) states that the strategy and plans that are formulated are regarded as major determinants of an organization’s activities, and hence a critical influence on its eventual performance. Payne (2007) says: “Strategy is influenced heavily by culture. Culture allows an organisation to develop coherence in the interactions among its members. A positive organisational culture tends to be one that focuses on the needs of all stakeholders in the organisation, especially its customers and employees” (p.40).

Anderson (1984) examines Steiner’s recommendations for improving strategic planning and saw some important suggestions as: “

-It is vital to understand the process of planning and what it can do for you.

Developing a strategic plan educates managers about their business, their industry, and their competition.

-Good strategic plans require creativity. Using methods developed for other firms is usually not appropriate.

-The best climate for planning is one of good communication between all levels of the organization. Planning must take relations between people into account if it is to be effective.

-Plans must be continually updated. Since events and competitor's actions constantly change, plans should not be set in concrete. If they are, they will ultimately fail, as did Ford's plan for basic transportation in the automobile industry.

-Performance evaluations and reward systems must be tied to long-range plans. The best reward system is based on attaining strategic goals.

-Finally, every strategic plan should have a control system designed into it" (p.373).

According to Koontz, O'Donnell and Weihrich (1986), "Often short-range plans are made without reference to long-range plans. This is plainly a serious error. The importance of integrating the two types can hardly be overemphasized, and no short-run plan should be made unless it contributes to the achievement of the relevant long-range plan" (p.91).

"Plans are efficient if they achieve their purpose at a reasonable cost, when cost is measured not only in terms of time or money or production, but also in the degree of individual and group satisfaction. Plans can even make it impossible to achieve objectives if they make enough people in an organization dissatisfied or unhappy" (Koontz, O'Donnell and Weihrich, 1986, p.75-76).

Vision- “University of Arkansas researcher Molly Rapert believes the key to long term employee commitment and job satisfaction is much more related to the organization’s strategic vision than to trash and trinkets or even promotions and perks. Rapert found that agreement with strategic decisions is most strongly related to job satisfaction and that involvement in those strategic decisions is most important to organizational commitment” (Zemke, 2002, p.19).

According to Marquardt (2002, p.15), vision captures a company’s hopes, goals, and direction for the future.

Çetin, Akin and Erol (2001, p.115) state that the thing that has to be done before defining vision is defining the mission.

Mission- “The mission of an enterprise is its fundamental purpose, articulated to define the nature of its business and provide a unifying sense of strategic direction” (Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey, 1997, p.42). “A mission may be defined narrowly or broadly in scope” (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004, p.12). The point here is that it should be clear and understood easily.

Bart and Baetz (1998, p.834) mention that their own experience suggests that for a mission statement to have any real immediate and long lasting impact on organizational members, it should be relatively short (or KISS-keep it simple and straightforward!) and add that if it is not, no one will remember it.

Goal- According to Bart and Baetz (1998, p.829), goals and objectives (or sub-goals) are usually described as ‘targets’ (or ‘end-points’) which a firm is striving to achieve, they add that traditionally, goals are the quantitative / financial yardsticks by which a firm’s strategic options and alternatives are judged. Koontz, O’Donnell and Weihrich (1986, p.78) state that objectives or goals are the ends toward which activity is aimed. Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey (1997, p.219) say that a goal is the desired outcome of an action: it becomes motivational when an individual wants it and strives to achieve it. McCormick and Ilgen (1980, p.286) mention that goals have two functions; they provide a basis for motivation, and they guide behaviors. According to Davis and Newstrom (1989), goal setting, as a motivational tool, is most effective when four

elements are present and these are goal acceptance, specificity, challenge and performance feedback (p.119) as below:“

1. Goal acceptance: As a minimum, supervisors need to explain the purpose behind goals and the necessity for them.
2. Specificity: Goals need to be as specific, clear, and measurable as possible so that employees will know when a goal is reached.
3. Challenge: Perhaps surprisingly, most employees work harder when they have difficult goals to accomplish rather than easy ones” (Davis and Newstrom, 1989, p.120).
4. Performance feedback: Employees need to know how they performed to achieve the goals so, there should be feedback that indicates their performance for them.

If mission and vision are clear to understand and goals are reachable via working, employees may be directed more easily to the target. Because they should know what to do to achieve the desired results. However, if mission and vision are not clear or goals symbolize more than what employees may do at their best performance, it may be hard to impose employees company values or direct them to the goals.

2.7. Organizational Culture Assessment

There are several instruments to assess organizational culture. The examined ones are some of them as below:

2.7.1. Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)

Cameron and Quinn (1999) say that the OCAI is based on a theoretical model entitled the Competing Values Framework (p.28) and they make a classification including four culture types named as clan, hierarchy, adhocracy and market. More

explanation about these culture types can be seen under the concept of studies on culture types on previous pages in this thesis.

Cameron and Quinn (1999, p.xii) state that this instrument- The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)- produces an overall organizational culture profile and six dimensions of organizational culture are assessed and add that the six dimensions are based on a theoretical framework of how organizations work and the kinds of values upon which their cultures are founded. “The OCAI identifies what the current organizational culture is like,as well as what the organization’s preferred,or future culture should be like” (Cameron and Quinn, 1999, p.xii).

In Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) study, it is seen that this tool is a six-item response tool to assess organizational culture type via these six dimensions-dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organization glue, strategic emphases, criteria of success and there are four statements for each dimension and totally there are 24 statements in the survey and these statements are not in the question format. It is also seen in Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) study that the respondents rate the statements via evaluating them and via this method, the tendency for the existing culture type and tendency for preferred culture type may be examined. Via Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) study, corporate culture is assessed by these six dimensions and each dimension can be examined with respect to tendency to the four culture types.

Liu, Shuibo and Meiyung (2006) used OCAI in their study, their study was based on assessing organisational culture of Chinese construction enterprises and these enterprises were located in different geographical areas in China. In Liu, Shuibo and Meiyung’s (2006, p.336) study, cronbach alpha for clan culture was 0.79, for adhocracy culture was 0.86, for market culture was 0.88 and for hierarchy culture was 0.84.

2.7.2. Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI)

Cooke and Rousseau (1988) developed OCI to assess organizational culture and mentioned behavioral norms and expectations.

“The Organizational Culture Inventory contains 120 items designed to produce 12 scales of 10 items each. Each item describes a behavior or personal style that might be expected of members in an organization” (Cooke and Rousseau, 1988, p.257).

“The OCI focuses on behaviors that help employees fit into the organization and meet the expectations of co-workers. Using Maslow’s motivational need hierarchy as its basis, it measures twelve cultural styles. The two underlying dimensions of the OCI are task / people and security / satisfaction. There are four satisfaction cultural styles and eight security cultural styles” (Nelson and Quick, 1994, p.503). In Cooke and Rousseau’s (1988, p.258-259) study, it is seen that the cultural styles are humanistic-helpful culture, affiliative culture, approval culture, conventional culture, dependent culture, avoidance culture, oppositional culture, power culture, competitive culture, competence / perfectionistic culture, achievement culture and self-actualization culture.

Cooke and Rousseau (1988, p.259) found reliability coefficients between .67 to .92 for the 12 scales.

Cooke and Rousseau (1988, p.269) say that the OCI can be used both to clarify the desired direction of culture change and to motivate members to accept and participate in change and also state that OCI can help managers articulate their vision of change, expressing it in terms of behaviors desired and needed from organization members.

2.7.3. Kilmann-Saxton Culture-Gap Survey

“A self-report instrument, the Gap Survey provides an individual assessment of culture and may be aggregated to the work group. It has been used in firms throughout the United States and in nonprofit organizations” (Nelson and Quick, 1994, p.505).

Nelson and Quick (1994) mention that “its two underlying dimensions are technical / human, and time (the short term versus the long term). With these two dimensions, the actual operating norms and the ideal norms in four areas are assessed. These areas are task support (short-term technical norms), task innovation (long-term technical norms), social relationships (short-term human orientation norms), and personal freedom (long-term human orientation norms)” (p.505).

It is seen that in this assessment, the concepts of “short-term”, “long-term”, “actual norms” and “ideal norms” take a part.

2.7.4. Denison Organizational Culture Survey

Denison and Mishra (1995) indicate 4 culture traits in their study as involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission. They searched the relationship between these four traits and effectiveness.

“The culture measures prove to be weak predictors of sales growth and profits, but stronger predictors of quality, employee satisfaction, and overall performance” (Denison and Mishra, 1995, p.218).

In Denison and Mishra’s (1995) study, survey items are composed of four indexes as involvement index, consistency index, adaptability index and mission index-including two items for each index and totally eight items. However in Fey and Denison’s (2003) study, survey items are composed of four indexes as involvement index, consistency index, adaptability index and mission index-including three scales for each and three items for each scale and totally thirty six items. In Fey and Denison’s (2003, p.702-703) study, involvement includes the scales of empowerment, team orientation and capability development; consistency includes the scales of core values, agreement and coordination and integration; adaptability includes the scales of creating change, customer focus and organizational learning and mission includes the scales of strategic direction and intent, goals and objectives and vision. Fey and Denison (2003) tested their theory in Russia which was developed in the United States.

One of the results of Denison and Mishra’s (1995, p.219) study points out that mission is the strongest predictor of performance. Denison and Mishra’s (1995) study relates to U.S. data. Fey and Denison (2003, p.692) found that adaptability and involvement seem to be the most important determinants of effectiveness in Russia and are the most significant in the effectiveness and overall performance models. Fey and Denison (2003) added : “The correlation and regression results show many important similarities to the results from prior research from the United States, but present one important difference: In Russia’s turbulent transition economy, stability traits such as

mission and consistency are less strongly associated with effectiveness than are the flexibility traits of involvement and adaptability” (p.693).

2.7.5. Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) and Revisited and Revised Organizational Culture Profile

OCP which is developed by O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) includes 54 value statements about the organization and the aim of the profile is to observe how people match the organization. O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) factor analysed and seven dimensions were obtained as respect for people, team orientation, attention to detail, stability, innovation, outcome orientation and aggressiveness.

Nazir (2005, p.42) says that the correlation between the organizational value profiles and the individual value profiles determines the person-culture fit and adds that a pilot study of the scale was undertaken on 35 employees and the split-half test was employed to measure the reliability of the modified scale. “This test produced a correlation coefficient of 0.53. The reliability of the overall scale was 0.69” (Nazir, 2005, p.42).

In Cable and Judge's (1997) study, it is seen that a shortened version of OCP which includes 40 items was used. Sarros, Gray, Densten and Cooper (2005) based their study on 40 items OCP which included the sample of senior executive members of the Australian states and territories with a response rate as 39% and 1918 people in size by using a 5-point Likert-type scale and some of the items were removed in their study, however two new factors were identified as social responsibility and stability. A more shortened version of OCP which includes 28 items was obtained and seven factors emerged as supportiveness, innovation, competitiveness, performance orientation, stability, emphasis on rewards and social responsibility (p.167). Cronbach's alpha coefficient for seven factors were between 0.66 and 0.87 in their study (Sarros et al., 2005, p.168).

2.7.6. Cultural Compatibility Index

Veiga, Lubatkin, Calori and Very (2000) developed *Cultural Compatibility Index*. In their study (2000), they presented a post-hoc analysis of a cultural compatibility index.

Veiga et al. (2000, p.543-544) started their study including 45 items and applied a pilot study on a sample of 54 MBA students and about half of these students were from the U.S.

“Based on a preliminary examination of the distribution of their responses on these items, and on an analysis of the relationship between items, items deemed unimportant or too similar in nature were either dropped or modified resulting in 40 items. Finally, each of the 40 items was reviewed for initial content validation-including each item’s etic properties-by a multicultural panel of 15 judges consisting of faculty and PhD students from the fields of management, political science, and anthropology who came from the U.S., France, England, China, Turkey, Hungary, and Serbia” (Veiga et al., 2000, p.544). Veiga et al. (2000, p.544) added that the judges independently reviewed the items and then collectively explored those that were not believed to be related to organizational performance, resulting in the retention of the 23 items.

Veiga et al. (2000) mentioned that “specifically, the final instrument asked each manager to respond on a five-point scale of perceived importance to each of the following three questions:

1. ‘What values do you feel should be emphasized at a company, whether or not they appear at your present company?’ (what *ought* to be).
2. ‘How were things at your firm before the merger?’ (what *was*).
3. ‘How do things appear now at the buying firm?’ (what *is*)” (p.545).

There are some similarities between Veiga et al.’s (2000) study and Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) study with respect to these three questions. Veiga et al. (2000) ask these three questions with the keywords as ought to be, was and is. In Cameron and Quinn’s (1999) study, the keywords are now and preferred. Also, there are differences between these two studies, e.g. mergers become important in Veiga et al. (2000).

In Veiga et al.'s (2000, p.548) study, one factor solution is obtained with the internal consistency as cronbach's alpha of 0.94. Also, there are researchers who used their instrument. As an example, Runge, Hames and Shearer (2004, p.415) used that index and obtained three factor solution with the names of employee relations, organization climate and empowerment. In Runge, Hames and Shearer's (2004, p.415) study, the cronbach's alpha for employee relations was 0.88, for organization climate was 0.82 and for empowerment was 0.50.

3. LITERATURE ON JOB SATISFACTION

3.1. Definition of Job Satisfaction

Greenberg and Baron (2000) say: “If you asked people about their jobs, you likely would find they have strong opinions about how they feel (e.g., “I really dislike what I do.”), what they believe (e.g., “We provide important services to the community”), and how they intend to behave (e.g., “I am going to look for a new position”). Considering people spend roughly one-third of their lives at work and what we do to earn a living represents a central aspect of how we think of ourselves as individuals, these strong feelings should not be surprising” (p.170).

Every day, people have many different feelings related to their jobs, because during work time, they have many experiences on job that make them happy, anxious, upset, etc... Also, these experiences may not be just in one day, they may have continuous effect, not a day-effect. In addition, if the employees are not informed very well about mission, vision, company values, processes, know-how about job, etc... in the company, they may feel like a foreigner in the company or maybe they may think that they are not involved and they take a part just as watchers in the company. So, that may also reflect their behaviors or feelings on job. For example, think that most of the employees use special language to communicate in a company related to work processes, however when some employees listen to their conversations, maybe they may not understand them. These negative thoughts may reflect how they feel about and behave on job.

At this point, it is better to explain the concept-job satisfaction:

-Arnold and Feldman (1986, p.86) say that for their purposes, they define job satisfaction as the amount of overall positive affect (or feelings) that individuals have toward their jobs. They add: “When we say that an individual has high job satisfaction, we mean that the individual generally likes and values his job highly and feels positively toward it” (Arnold and Feldman, 1986, p.86).

-Rue and Byars (1986, p.187) state that job satisfaction refers to an individual’s general attitude about the job.

-In 61st IFLA General Conference, Kaya (1995) touched on Vroom's, Blum and Naylor's and Mc Cormic and Tiffin's definitions about job satisfaction and added: "In light of these definitions, we can define the job satisfaction as the sum of all negative and positive aspects related to the individual's salary, his / her physical and emotional working conditions, the authority s/he has, the autonomous usage of this authority, the level of success s/he has maintained and the rewards given due to this success, the social statute maintained in relation with his / her job, and his / her relations with his / her colleagues and administrators. Individual elements do not result in the job satisfaction. Job satisfaction can only be mentioned if all these elements exist in a place in harmony".

As we see from the definitions, how employees feel about their jobs are mentioned. Moreover, job satisfaction indicates the relationship between the person and the job itself. The higher the positive value of the relationship, the more tendency for satisfied employees may be arisen. If the relationship does not have a positive value for the employees and if the employees have negative thoughts, assumptions and attitudes about their jobs, then it may turn to the other side as the tendency to dissatisfaction with the job.

3.2. Theories of Job Satisfaction

There are many theories of job satisfaction as examined below:

3.2.1. Two-Factor Theory

"Herzberg, at the research which he ran in America, wanted the accountants and engineers to state the best and the worst they felt at their work. Because the aim here was to determine what motivated the employees, later the responds which were taken from the subjects, were amassed and commentated. The obtained results put out that the factors which were effective on the subject of motivation had to be examined by being separated into two groups" (Ataman, 2002, p.442).

"What that scientist found was somewhat surprising: Different factors accounted for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. This is known as the two-factor theory" (Greenberg and Baron, 2000, p.175).

Skemp-Arlt and Toupence (2007) say: “Herzberg’s theory describes motivation based on two factors: motivators that are associated with job satisfaction, and hygiene or maintenance, which consist of job dissatisfiers. It is important to understand that these two factors are distinct and unipolar. In other words, providing for hygiene needs can prevent dissatisfaction, but does not contribute to satisfaction and, therefore, cannot increase motivation” (p.28-29).

Greenberg and Baron (2000) state: “You might have expected certain factors to lead to satisfaction when they are present and to dissatisfaction when they are absent, but this was not the case. Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction stemmed from different sources. In particular, dissatisfaction was associated with conditions surrounding the job (e.g., working conditions, pay, security, quality of supervision, relations with others) rather than with the work itself. Because these factors prevent negative reactions, they are referred to as hygiene (or maintenance) factors. In contrast, satisfaction was associated with factors associated with the work itself or to outcomes directly derived from it (e.g., nature of the job, achievement in the work, promotion opportunities chance for personal growth and recognition). Because such factors are associated with high levels of job satisfaction, they are called motivators. Because motivators and hygiene factors are the major components of two-factor theory, it sometimes is referred to as motivator-hygiene theory” (p.175).

Table 3.1: Motivation and Hygiene Factors

<i>Motivators</i>	<i>Hygiene Factors</i>
<i>The Job Itself</i>	<i>Environment</i>
Achievement	Policies and administration
Recognition for accomplishment	Supervision
Challenging work	Working conditions
Increased responsibility	Interpersonal relations
Growth and development	Money, status, security

Source: Hersey and Blanchard (1988, p.64).

In summary, this theory states that the absence of hygiene factors are related to job dissatisfaction, however if they are in existence, that does not mean that job satisfaction will arise. Because, the motivation factors are related to job satisfaction.

3.2.2. Maslow's Needs Hierachy Theory

Ataman (2002) says that according to this approach which is developed by Abraham Maslow, human needs can be examined in five main groups:

- “physiological needs, -safety needs, -social needs, -esteem-ego-needs and –self actualization needs” (p.440).

The pyramid in Ataman (2002, p.441) displays that Maslow composed a pyramid including these 5 groups; at the bottom, there were pyhsiological needs and at the top there were self actualization needs. Halepota (2005) says: “Maslow’s theory helps us to understand human behavior and to select motivational strategies appropriate to individuals who we are motivating” (p.15).

Tevrüz, Artan and Bozkurt (1999) state that Maslow’s 5-step needs are American extraction. They add that at “Nevis’s study which was done in China has different needs steps as:

4. Self actualization in society service.
3. Safety need
2. Physiological needs
1. Affiliation need” (p.72).

According to Tevrüz, Artan and Bozkurt (1999, p.72), this difference may come from more mentioning on service to society and loyalty by the Chinese; on the other side, American culture is mostly individualistic.

This reminds readers Hofstede's approach on national culture which includes a dimension named as individualism / collectivism.

So, it is indicated that this theory may not include the steps in the same order in different countries because of different national cultures.

3.2.3. Value Theory

Greenberg and Baron (2000) say: "This conceptualization claims job satisfaction exists to the extent the job outcomes (e.g., rewards) an individual receives match those that are desired. The more people receive outcomes they value, the more satisfied they are. Likewise, the less people receive outcomes they value, the less satisfied they are. Value theory focuses on any outcome that people value. The key to satisfaction in this approach is the discrepancy between those aspects of the job one has and those one wants; the greater the discrepancy, the less people are satisfied. An interesting implication of value theory is that it calls attention to aspects that must be changed for job satisfaction to result. Specifically, this theory suggests these aspects might not be the same for everyone, but any valued aspects about which people perceive serious discrepancies. By emphasizing values, this theory suggests job satisfaction may derive from many factors. Thus, an effective way to satisfy employees is to find out what they want and - to the extent possible - to give it to them" (p.176-177).

It may be hard to prevent discrepancies, however it maybe possible to decrease the level of them, so that situation may change the level of dissatisfaction that arises.

3.2.4. Expectancy theory

Ivancevich, Donnelly and Gibson (1983) say: "The expectancy theory views motivation as a process governing choices. Thus, an individual who has a particular goal must perform some behavior in order to achieve the goal. The individual, therefore, weighs the likelihood that various behaviors will achieve the desired goal, and if a certain behavior is expected to be more successful than others, that behavior will probably be selected" (p.354-355).

“Using his own terms, Vroom’s theory may be stated as:

$$\text{Force} = \text{valence} \times \text{expectancy}$$

where force is the strength of a person’s motivation, valence is the strength of an individual’s preference for an outcome, and expectancy is the probability that a particular action will lead to a desired outcome” (Koontz, O’Donnell and Weihrich, 1986, p.379).

“The reason for using the concept of valence rather than that of value is as follows. A person’s motivation to perform effectively now is based upon what the person expects or anticipates will happen in the future as a result of current effective performance. The ability of any outcome to influence current motivation is thus dependent upon the extent to which the person expects or anticipates that he or she will positively value the outcome when it is in fact obtained. Thus it is the valence (i.e., the anticipated value and satisfaction) rather than the actual value of an outcome that determines its impact upon a person’s motivation” (Arnold and Feldman, 1986, p.59).

Tevrüz, Artan and Bozkurt (1999, p.78) mention that results have two levels as primary and secondary. They say: “Primaries are the target of the job. Secondary results are a person’s target. Perception of the person about the relationship between the two results, adds a new variable so adds a new concept to the theory: Instrumentality. Even if primary results do not take the employee’s attention, if he / she hopes that these results will be instrumental to achieve the secondary results that he/she wants to get, also primary results will have positive valence. But, it is not enough for the person’s motivation to construct instrumentality relationship between these two results, because for achieving primary results, showing a certain effort, showing some kind of activities are needed” (Tevrüz, Artan and Bozkurt, 1999, p.78-79).

The important points here are the terms of “valence”, “force”, “expectancy”, “instrumentality” and “effort”. Effort has a vital role in motivation, motivation should be supported via effort. Maybe the primary results may not be important for the employee. However, if it is a way to achieve the secondary results, so the primaries

become important for him / her. That is such a system including complementary properties between its components for each other.

3.3. Components of Job Satisfaction

Related to Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), general job satisfaction includes intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction and it consists of twenty dimensions which are examined under this concept.

Udechukwu (2007, p.132) mentions that the MSQ manual makes a distinction on which satisfaction components are intrinsic and extrinsic. “These are denoted by (I) for intrinsic and (E) for extrinsic. Such components include, activity (I), independence (I), variety (I), social status (I), supervision-human relations (E), supervision-technical (E), moral values (I), security (I), social service (I), authority (I), ability utilization (I), company policies (E), compensation (E), advancement (E), responsibility (I), creativity (I), working conditions, coworkers, recognition (E), achievement (I)” (Udechukwu, 2007, p.132).

3.3.1. Intrinsic Job Satisfaction

Hirschfield (2000, p.256) says that intrinsic job satisfaction is how people feel about the nature of the job tasks themselves, whereas extrinsic job satisfaction is how people feel about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks or work itself.

3.3.1.1. Activity

According to Eren (2001, p.242), some parts of dissatisfaction and complaints on work arise from tiredness. “For example;

- a) Working harmony can not be obtained because of some repetitions that the work necessitates and arranging a fairly short relaxing time. So, situation of weariness which is caused by monotony can be talked about.
- b) It will cause tiredness and weariness if the individual can not adapt to hard-working situations which are over individual’s physical capacity

(strength) and which necessitate a continuous physical effort. However, this situation may change from person to person.

- c) The employee's working at out of normal situations to do the work at the company causes his / her body and organs to get unsuitable situations and accelerates tiredness" (Eren, 2001, p.242).

Jobs should not capture individuals all the time, sometimes employees should have time to take a breath and relax. After relaxing, the employees may better concentrate on their jobs.

Jobs may keep employees busy all the time. It is important whether employees are pleased with that situation or not. Some jobs may necessitate more intense hard-working and that may cause employees to get tired in a short time. At these works, employees should relax in some time periods to regain power to go on working.

3.3.1.2. Independence

"Individuals and groups often desire a degree of independence from bosses who are far away" (Koontz, O'Donnell and Weihrich, 1986, p.237).

Employees may feel more comfortably when they have opportunity to work alone. Because they may use initiative on their work, schedule their work and they may develop their methods to do the work in some limits.

"The term of independence on work does not mean giving unlimited freedom to the employees. The desire for independence on work is an emotion coming from individual's nature" (Sabuncuoğlu, 1984, p.91).

Sabuncuoğlu (1984) says: "Employees do not like working under excessive pressure. They avoid to be interfered to their work in all subjects, to take commands or to be affected" (p.91).

If the opportunity to work alone on the job is given to the employees, their supervisors may better understand how the employees perform their job. Maybe that employee is not the right employee to do that job, that is why it may be also a chance

for the supervisors to evaluate the employee on job. Or, maybe the supervisor would see that the employee performs better when he / she works alone.

Also, some jobs may supply more independence than others.

Sometimes, employees need to work alone. If that setting may be arranged via superiors, more efficiency may be gathered from the employees.

3.3.1.3. *Variety*

Argyris (1957, p.94) tells about a study in which 10 top managers expressed as many different needs as did the 400 employees. “Moreover, 75 per cent of these needs are classified as having ‘high’ or ‘extremely high’ importance. An analysis of the kind of needs expressed by top management, shows the following to be most frequently expressed:

- a. Directive-initiating action for others.
- b. Variety-prefers many and different kinds of workflow activities.
- c. Challenge-accepting-accepting work which represents a challenge to the intellectual abilities.
- d. Problem-solving-minded-continually solving administrative problems and creating new solutions.
- e. Success seeking-achieving goals quickly and successfully. There is a tendency to overwork in order to reach the goal.
- f. Organizationally upward mobile-tending to advance in the organizational hierarchy” (Argyris, 1957, p.94-95).

Variety gives opportunity to employees to do different things. Maybe, at these times, employees may discover their different abilities that they have not discovered before.

3.3.1.4. Social Status

Tannenbaum (1966) says: “Persons at higher levels are formally assigned greater status in the organization than persons at lower levels. Accordingly, persons at higher levels are considered more important and have greater responsibility, official respectability, and recognition” (p.40).

“The status that individuals want to obtain in the business world and the need of being appreciated by the others unite with esteem gaining motive. To be pointed at by the others, to be praised, to be respected, to be admired are results of this motive. However, these motives’ effects change according to people. While some have excessive complex of being admired, some people feel suspicious or may be disturbed from excessive interest and praise” (Sabuncuoğlu, 1984, p.93).

Sabuncuoğlu (1984) says: “Taking a part in a known company supplies a status to the employee in the society. Especially, if the employee integrates to the company, he / she boasts with company’s success, feels happy. Other people’s prasing words about the company that he / she works for inject him / her proud and working honour” (p.93).

“Status mostly exists together with respect. That is, a person who has a real status and in return for that, is respected via working friends or the people whom he / she is in relation with out of work” (Eren, 2001, p.512).

Social status is an important aspect of the job. It is one of the subjects that people may take into consideration when applying the job. The jobs which provide more social status may have an advantage to be preferred by people to work at. Because, if the job supplies social status to the person, that may bring prestige and may bring appreciation of the other people.

3.3.1.5. Moral Values

“Moral is the study of attitudes of doing the right and the wrong...” (Hodgetts, 1999, p.692). Hodgetts (1999, p.693) says that now, a lot of companies have settled moral rules. “Moral values are the standards of good and evil, which govern an individual’s behavior and choices” (<http://www.allaboutphilosophy.org/moral-values->

faq.htm [August 30, 2007]). Ursery (2002) mentions that moral values are quite specific about what should be done.

Kahn, Ishiguro, Friedman and Kanda (2006, p.367) say that a defining feature of the moral life, and likely all legal systems, is that people of sound mind are held morally accountable for their actions.

If an employee's moral values confuse with the way his / her superior wants him/her to perform his / her job, there may be a question mark that appears in the employee's mind and that question mark may disturb him / her. So, sometimes the employee may think whether he/she does the right while performing the job. For example the employee's superior may want the employee to not to call one of their customers because of several reasons, however the employee may think that he/she should supply some important information about a product to that customer. So, there may be a great confusion in the employee's mind and he/she may try to guess which one is right and which one is wrong and that idea may affect his/her behavior at work.

3.3.1.6. Security

Gélinas (2006, p.24) says that massive layoffs, globalization-driven contractions, rapid technological changes and ever-increasing outsourcing opportunities place job security at the center stage of more labor negotiations.

Gilmer (1971) states: "Security is a strong reason for liking a job and is generally mentioned first by both men and women as contributing to job satisfaction. The lower one gets in the occupational scale, the greater the importance attached to the security factor. The greater skill and responsibility demanded in higher-level jobs gives the employee more 'salability' and hence creates a demand for his services both within his own company and in others" (p.279). Gilmer (1971) adds: "Security is a job-attitudes factor which increases slightly in importance with an increase in age. There is evidence that security is less important to employees with more education. It seems to be equally important to employees regardless of their dependents, with the possible exception of the single man who is entirely on his own" (p.279).

"When individuals feel certain about their continuation in a job, security needs are usually being met. In a work situation, feelings of security are affected by whether

individuals believe they are protected by a fair and just system. For most employees, security needs are most affected by how workers perceive the behavior of their immediate supervisor. A supervisor who is reassuring, supportive, consistent in decisions, and easy to talk with strongly reinforces employee's feelings of security. The importance of security is reflected in employee concern for seniority rights, disciplinary action, review processes, and complaint procedures" (Costley, Santana-Melgoza and Todd, 1994, p.249-250).

The people who have know-how, a good education and who are skillful and asked to solve the problems by using their competencies may put the term of "security" behind other factors related to importance. Because they may think that the company would not want them to leave or would not want to fire them. They may think that the company needs them and this may help them to be more psychologically relaxed at work.

3.3.1.7. Social Service

Social service is one of the items which takes a part under intrinsic job satisfaction in Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) which includes 20 dimensions by the statement-the chance to do things for other people.

Doing things for other people at work may make employees happier because of this helpful relationship and this happiness may be seen on how the employees feel related to job and how they behave at work.

Herrera and Lim (2003) used MSQ including 20 dimensions. The participants of their study were 138 certified athletic trainers and they found out that social service ranked as the most satisfying variable in total job satisfaction.

3.3.1.8. Authority

Koontz, O'Donnell and Weihrich (1986, p.206) say that authority in organization is the power in a position (and through it the person occupying the position) to exercise discretion in making decisions affecting others. According to Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey (1997, p.463), authority is the right to make decisions and commit organizational resources based on one's position within the organizational

hierarchy. Koontz, O'Donnell and Weihrich (1986, p.224) state that organization authority is merely the discretion conferred on people to use their judgement to make decisions and issue instructions.

Tannenbaum (1966) says: "Organizations guard against chaos and preserve predictability, orderliness, and regularity through several devices. One such device is the system of authority. Authority is the formal right of a person, by virtue of his position or rank in an organization, to decide, determine, or influence what others in the organization will do" (p.4).

Nelson and Quick (1994, p.393) state that the nature of a traditional boss-employee relationship brings to mind a vision of a hierarchy or of a boss who is superior to the employee and for many employees, this relationship is not a comfortable one, because another individual has the right to tell them what to do.

Authority is a way to make the inferiors do what their superior says via using his/her position in the company. How the superior behaves while using that authority may also be important in the organization. Because if he / she uses a manner that is not desired by inferiors, the inferiors may do that work unwillingly.

3.3.1.9. Ability Utilization

According to Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey (1997, p.149), ability is the capacity to perform physical and intellectual tasks. Hutchison (2001, p.140) tells about theoretical definition of ability utilization as "to put to use skill or competence".

Nelson and Quick (1994, p.393) say that the work force is composed of individuals with varying levels of skills and ability.

"Managers should know what abilities are required to perform various jobs and should try to match the jobs with people who have appropriate abilities" (Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey, 1997, p.150).

If the employee uses his/her skills and ability to do the job, that situation may bring him / her more desire to do the work and also he / she understands that his / her abilities are needed to do the job and that situation may fire him / her to do the job more willingly.

Also, if the people who have ability to do the specific work are matched to related jobs, training may be less needed or training time may decrease.

3.3.1.10. Responsibility

Syptak, Marsland and Ulmer (1999) state that employees will be more motivated to do their jobs well if they have ownership of their work and adds that this requires giving employees enough freedom and power to carry out their tasks so that they feel they “own” the result.

“When individuals accept responsibility for decisions affecting their work, they develop a commitment to the job. If responsibility is to be a motivational factor, individuals must have the opportunity to accept responsibility. As responsibility is accepted, external control can be reduced. Individuals who work under close supervision seldom develop the desire to accept responsibility. In other words, increased job freedom and responsibility go hand in hand” (Costley, Santana-Melgoza and Todd, 1994, p.252).

Hodgetts (1999) mentions Fayol’s “Management’s 14 principles” and one of them is “authority and responsibility”. Hodgetts (1999) states: “According to Fayol, authority and responsibility run together. Authority is the power of commanding right and the power that provides to be obeyed to himself / herself. Responsibility is the reward and the punishment brought by use of this power” (p.44).

“To be motivating for people with salient higher-order needs, jobs must give workers responsibility for a significant piece of work; and this work must seem meaningful and worthwhile to them” (Gilmer and Deci, 1977, p.240).

When authority is given to the employee, also responsibility takes place, because employee becomes responsible with the obtained results via using that authority.

3.3.1.11. Creativity

Koontz, O’Donnell and Weihrich (1986, p.364) state that the term creativity often refers to the ability to develop new ideas.

“The biggest pleasure for a worker is to participate fully in their job. They need to be completely present in order to achieve satisfaction. This means workers need to have the freedom to be the best they can be. All the tools a worker needs to deliver a quality product must be made available. A worker who feels underemployed is not happy and productive. This is where creativity comes in. As humans, we are creative beings. It is a fundamental quality we have and it is also necessary in the workplace” (Ario, 2006, p.11). Ario (2006) says: “In many situations, a common occurrence is a worker will discover a new way of doing a job clearly superior to the method previously used. Workers who are ‘hands on’ have the best perspective on how to do a job. Their suggestions can end up saving a company a lot of money. In addition, the worker with the idea gets a lot of satisfaction from the implementation of his or her idea” (p.12).

Creativity should be supported by management. If not, then creativity may not appear and it may be hard to get new ideas related to work from the employees.

Kurtzberg (2005, p.52) states that creativity can be important for individuals in terms of job satisfaction, fulfillment, and self-esteem.

3.3.1.12. Achievement

Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey (1997) say: “Many people like to think of themselves as being achievement oriented, undoubtedly because achievement is highly valued in most Western societies. However, people’s achievement motives vary in intensity, as do all motives. People who have a high need to achieve are usually self-motivated; they seek tasks that will provide them with a sense of accomplishment” (p.195).

“As a motivational factor, achievement is present when employees have feelings of personal accomplishment or the need to accomplish. For achievement motivation to be present, the job must be challenging. Two factors are important in analyzing on-the-job achievement motivation: (1) the level of achievement motivation and (2) the ability to perform a specific job. Factors that can increase the opportunity for on-the-job achievement include delegation of authority and responsibility, involvement in planning and goal setting, availability of information concerning performance, and individual

control of the quality of job performance” (Costley, Santana-Melgoza and Todd, 1994, p.251).

“Several behavioral characteristics distinguish the achievement-motivated person” (Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey, 1997, p.195).

- “1. Achievers prefer a moderate level of difficulty or challenge. Just as they avoid tasks that are too easy, they also shy away from those that are extremely difficult. Being realistic, they know their limitations. The most desired task is one that requires a high level of exertion but carries a reasonable probability of success.
2. High achievers also like to feel that they are in reasonable control of an outcome. If the element of chance or luck is a primary factor in success, or if others over whom they have little influence are involved, there is reduced incentive to try.
3. Achievement-motivated people also like to perceive frequent and specific feedback about how well they are doing. This does not mean they need constant praise from their supervisors. Ideally the task itself should provide enough feedback so they can evaluate themselves; self-approval is good feedback for an achiever” (Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey, 1997, p.195).

The achievement-motivated people prefer not simple targets but also not the targets which are impossible to be reached and they like to learn the results of their activities.

3.3.2. Extrinsic Job Satisfaction

3.3.2.1. Advancement

Ivancevich and Matteson (1990, p.185) say that the manager making a promotion reward decision attempts to match the right person with the job. “Criteria often used to reach promotion decisions are performance and seniority. Performance, if it can be accurately assessed, is often given significant weight in promotion reward allocations” (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1990, p.185).

Eren (2001) states: “Promotion is a tool that satisfies impression-as the most important motive for driving the person to work. Favouritism is more met in promotion works. The people who can come into effect-area more and who can be managed, are promoted to upper levels more quickly” (p.248).

“The manager who provides an encouragement tool like advancement possibility to his / her inferiors will have a support for getting help and accepted cooperation easily” (Eren, 2001, p.510).

Employees may apply to jobs via taking promotional opportunities into consideration. They guess that after a period of working, they will hold a higher title. If that does not appear, so disappointment may appear and that may reflect to the desire of the employees to do their work.

3.3.2.2. Company Policies and Practices

Wheelen and Hunger (2004) say: “A policy is a broad guideline for decision making that links the formulation of strategy with its implementation. Companies use policies to make sure that employees throughout the firm make decisions and take actions that support the corporation’s mission, objectives, and strategies” (p.14).

“For many employees, dissatisfaction frequently centers on the policies and administrative procedures of the organization. An organization’s goals, policies, procedures, practices, and rules can be dissatisfiers when they are perceived by employees to be inadequate or unfair” (Costley, Santana-Melgoza and Todd, 1994, p.250). Syptak, Marsland and Ulmer (1999) state that an organization's policies can be a

great source of frustration for employees if the policies are unclear or unnecessary or if not everyone is required to follow them.

Company policies should be supported via procedures and practices to get the desired results in the company.

3.3.2.3. Co-workers

Costley, Santana-Melgoza and Todd (1994, p.250) say that an important part of the work environment is the social interaction that takes place among employees.

“People often use their coworkers as a sounding board for their problems or as a source of comfort. Employees seem to expect to like their coworkers, and only when they have to continuously deal with people whom they dislike does the work group become an important factor in their thinking” (Arnold and Feldman, 1986, p.90).

McBride (2006, p.45) states that the quality of the work relationships within your office can make or break every other aspect of your practice.

“For most employees, work also fills the need for social interaction. Not surprisingly, therefore, having friendly and supportive coworkers leads to increased job satisfaction” (Robbins, 1996, p.192).

Friendly relations among employees also support a friendly business setting. Some new recruited employees may need help about work, so the more experienced ones help them willingly if the relations among employees are friendly.

3.3.2.4. Recognition

“Employee recognition is a communication tool that allows companies to reinforce and reward behaviors that are reflective of the organization’s core values and objectives. Companies that prioritize employee recognition demonstrate an interest in fostering a positive, productive and innovative culture among employees. Employees who feel appreciated are more positive about themselves and the contributions that they make to the company’s success” (Ford and Fina, 2006, p.19-20).

Ford and Fina (2006, p.19) mention that every company must develop its own culture of recognition and add that recognition is one of the most effective ways to reinforce an organization's mission and support its objectives.

“Too many employees never receive positive recognition from their employers, and they will leave their jobs because of it. That means that praise and recognition are vital to a company's long-term success. Successful, effective recognition features three characteristics: it must be frequent, timely and specific” (Sturt and Vyse, 2007, p.12). Sturt and Vyse (2007, p.12) state that employees whose work is recognized and appreciated are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs and are more committed to the company's mission.

DeVries (2007) states that employees are most satisfied with their jobs, and perform at their best, when they feel appreciated and recognized for their efforts.

Bolster (2007) states: “Most people are happy to receive what they consider fair compensation for their job, but they also want other things. Those things can include recognition for a job well done, opportunities to learn and grow, a positive work environment, and a supportive team” (p.56).

Rewards do not have to be monetary every time, employees also need to be appreciated by managements and also by their peers. When the employees are recognized, that may bring them more desire to do their job.

3.3.2.5. *Working Conditions*

Syptak, Marsland and Ulmer (1999) state that the environment in which people work has a tremendous effect on their level of pride for themselves and for the work they are doing.

“Employees are concerned with their work environment for both personal comfort and facilitating doing a good job. Studies demonstrate that employees prefer physical surroundings that are not dangerous or uncomfortable. Temperature, light, noise, and other environmental factors should not be at either extreme-for example, having too much heat or too little light. Additionally, most employees prefer working

relatively close to home, in clean and relatively modern facilities, and with adequate tools and equipment” (Robbins, 1996, p.192).

Luthans (1992, p.122) says that if the working conditions are good (clean, attractive surroundings, for instance), the personnel will find it easier to carry out their jobs and adds that if the working conditions are poor (hot, noisy surroundings, for example), personnel will find it more difficult to get things done.

Costley, Santana-Melgoza and Todd (1994) state: “Physical working conditions involve the quality of the physical environment in which the individual performs the job. The lighting, temperature control, ventilation, and noise levels are physical factors that directly affect the work environment. Working conditions are also affected by the availability of employee facilities such as parking, rest rooms, and cafeterias. When physical working conditions are undesirable, employees tend to focus their attention on these problems and productivity suffers. What is expected by employees as desirable working conditions varies depending on the nature of the job” (p.249).

Working conditions symbolize the quality of at where and how working time is spent. If employees have positive attitudes about these conditions, that may reflect to their work.

3.3.2.6. *Compensation*

Hildebrand (2007) states that a supervisor has control over the core elements as compensation, opportunity, recognition and environment that create job satisfaction. To assist supervisors in embracing their accountability for employee retention, here are some suggestions related to compensation that Hildebrand (2007) points out: “

- Routinely monitor internal pay equity among staff members and recommend adjustments when needed.
- Reward for performance not for seniority.
- Establish an incentive-based compensation plan where at least some portion of earnings is determined by successful completion of objectives in order to encourage achievement”.

Tibergien (2006) says that when designing a compensation program, it's important to know what you want to accomplish as a business; what each individual's role should be in fulfilling those goals; and what individual behavior you seek to reinforce and adds that compensation has six basic components and each plays a role in reinforcing behavior and demonstrating your values: 1. base, 2. short-term incentive, 3. long-term incentive, 4. benefits and perquisites, 5. retirement plans, and 6. equity.

Compensation is an important part of the job that employees may take into consideration while applying the job. However, the term of compensation may be inadequate to be evaluated. The term of “fair compensation” may be more taken into consideration. Employees may think about whether they are compensated fairly in return for their effort to do the job or not. If they find some inadequacies about this relationship, their desire to do the job may be reflected by that.

3.3.2.7. Supervision-human relations

Hunt (1980) says: “Supervision is activated through communication. Establishing relationships among subordinates is one of the primary managerial tasks facing a supervisor. This is done through communication” (p.45).

“Supervision seems less important at the high levels in spite of the fact that people in high positions have a greater tendency to verbalize the things that are wrong with their particular supervisory structure” (Gilmer, 1971, p.281).

Moshavi, Brown and Dodd (2003, p.409) state that having trust in a manager is likely to be associated with satisfaction with supervision.

If there is trust to supervision in the company, employees may tell about problems at work or offer suggestions about work processes to the supervision without hesitation.

Also, supervision should not forget that people are the core part of the company. So, if the supervision supports positive human relations with the employees, the way employees behave at work may be reflected by that positively.

3.3.2.8. Supervision-technical

According to Anderson (1984, p.128), the most fundamental management skill is decision making. Anderson (1984, p.128) mentions that the point is that, as a manager, you must provide the skills for making effective decisions throughout your work unit or organization and suggests to spend time practicing decision skills and using them in solving management problems.

For effective decisions, supervision should know about the works and taking these decisions may require some know-how and experience related to the job. Otherwise, it may be hard to discuss about the possible results of the decision.

In some situations, supervision consults to employees to get their ideas about the related area. Because, by that decision, not only supervision but also employees may be affected.

Supervision should hold competency to give effective decisions. Otherwise, trust between employees and supervision may be damaged and employees may think that supervision is inadequate to do the job.

3.4. Job Satisfaction Assessment

There are several instruments used to assess job satisfaction. Some of them are examined below:

3.4.1. Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

Greenberg and Baron (2000, p.173) mention that Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is a rating scale for assessing job satisfaction; individuals respond to this questionnaire by indicating whether various adjectives describe aspects of their work.

“In earlier versions of the scale, individuals were asked to describe the job they would most like to have (their “best” job) and the one they would least like to have (their “worst” job). Responses thus elicited were used in an item analysis to identify those items which tended to be most discriminating; such items were then included in the final scale. In its final form the scale measures attitudes in five areas: work, supervision, pay, promotions and co-workers” (McCormick and Ilgen, 1980, p.310).

Also, Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (1997) explained these five facets of job satisfaction measured by the JDI as: “

1. The work itself- responsibility, interest and growth.
2. Quality of supervision- technical help and social support.
3. Relationships with coworkers- social harmony and respect.
4. Promotion opportunities- chances for further advancement.
5. Pay- adequacy of pay and perceived equity vis-à-vis others” (p.99).

McCormick and Ilgen (1980) say: “The scale consists of a series o adjectives or statements for each of these categories, and the individual is asked to mark each one as yes (Y), no (N), or cannot decide (?) as it relates to his or her job. The internal consistency reliability of the JDI, derived by correlating scores of random split-halves of the items for eighty men, ranged from .80 to .88 for the five separate scales” (p.310).

3.4.2. Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS)

Fincham and Rhodes (1988, p.92) say that Hackman and Oldman constructed the job diagnostic survey (JDS), a questionnaire completed by employees to provide measures for each of their variables.

“The scale is composed of 14 items and a 5-point rating scale developed with the aim to measure employees’ job satisfaction. Scale may be applied on people with all education levels” (Izgar, 2003, p.153-154).

3.4.3. Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

Luthans (1992) says: “The most common approach for measuring job satisfaction is the use of rating scales. One of the most popular is the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). This instrument provides a detailed picture of the specific satisfactions and dissatisfactions of employees” (p.114).

Nelson and Quick (1994, p.117) state that this survey also asks employees to respond to statements about their jobs, using a five-point scale that ranges from very dissatisfied to very satisfied.

“The MSQ provides an overall index of job satisfaction and assesses the following job satisfaction facets through the following 20-scale areas: Ability Utilization, Achievement, Activity, Advancement, Authority, Company Policies and Practices, Compensation, Co-Workers, Creativity, Independence, Moral values, Recognition, Responsibility, Security, Social Service, Social Status, Supervision-Human Relations, Supervision-Technical, Variety, and Working Conditions (DeMato and Curcio, 2004). “The MSQ is a 100-item, self-report instrument. It measures job satisfaction across 20 different dimensions, with five questions on each dimension. The short-form MSQ consists of 20 items from the long-form MSQ that best represent each of the 20 scales” (Ahmadi and Alireza, 2007, p.160).

Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire short form is used by many researchers. Sur, Hayran, Mumcu, Soylemez, Atli and Yildirim (2004) studied about intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction of a randomly selected group of dentists from nine provinces of Turkey and used short form of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. They excluded four items from their study and in their study. Cronbach's alpha for general satisfaction was .8067, for intrinsic satisfaction was .7999, and for extrinsic satisfaction was .4251 (Sur et al., 2004, p.163).

Hechanova, Alampay and Franco (2006, p.72, 75) surveyed 954 employees and their supervisors to determine the relationship of empowerment with job satisfaction and performance in five different service sectors: hotels, food service, banking, call centers, and airlines; they used short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and internal consistency reliability-alpha of the scale was 0.91.

Buitendach and De Witte (2005) studied on assessing the relationship between job insecurity, job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment of maintenance workers in a parastatal in Gauteng Province, they excluded one item from the total and extrinsic scale and cronbach alpha coefficients were 0.88 for job satisfaction (total

MSQ), 0.84 for extrinsic job satisfaction and 0.74 for intrinsic job satisfaction in their study.

The specific focus of Stringer's (2006) study is on "whether high-quality leader member exchange is positively related to job satisfaction, which can lead to positive outcomes for organizations and ultimately provide organizations the solution to remaining competitive in this new economy" (p.125). Short form of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was used in this study and the cronbach's alpha for general satisfaction was 0.926, for intrinsic satisfaction was 0.888 and for extrinsic satisfaction was 0.776 (Stringer, 2006, p.133).

4. LITERATURE ON STUDIES ABOUT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CORPORATE CULTURE AND JOB SATISFACTION

There are studies in the literature about relationship between corporate culture and job satisfaction. While studying on this issue, some of them focused on the relationship between corporate culture types and job satisfaction, some of them examined that relationship generally and some of them focused on the dimensions of corporate culture and so on as examined below:

- Lund's (2003, p.219) study indicated that job satisfaction was positively related to clan and adhocracy cultures, and negatively related to market and hierarchy cultures.

- Silverthorne (2004) studied about the impact of organizational culture and person-organization fit on organizational commitment and job satisfaction in Taiwan. In the study, Silverthorne (2004, p.592) found that involvement in an organization that had a bureaucratic organizational culture resulted in the lowest levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment and added that an innovative culture was next highest and a supportive culture had the highest level of employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Silverthorne (2004, p.592) mentioned that as a result of findings, organizational culture played an important role in the level of job satisfaction and commitment in an organization.

- Wang (2007, p.167,174-175) examined the relationships between organizational learning culture, job satisfaction and organizational commitment in China and in that study, findings indicated that there were significantly positive interrelations among organizational learning culture, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment; particularly, learning organization learning culture had a strong impact on job satisfaction and a considerable impact on organizational commitment, and job satisfaction also had a moderate impact on organizational commitment.

- Lok and Crawford's (2004, p.321) study examined the effects of organisational culture and leadership styles on job satisfaction and organisational commitment in samples of Hong Kong and Australian managers. "Statistically significant differences between the two samples were found for measures of innovative and supportive

organizational cultures, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, with the Australian sample having higher mean scores on all these variables. For the combined samples, innovative and supportive cultures, and a consideration leadership style, had positive effects on both job satisfaction and commitment, with the effects of an innovative culture on satisfaction and commitment, and the effect of a consideration leadership style on commitment, being stronger in the Australian sample” (Lok and Crawford, 2004, p.321).

- Fey and Denison (2003, p.686) examined the link between organizational culture and effectiveness for foreign-owned firms which operate in Russia by beginning with a model of organizational culture developed in the United States. They searched whether there were differences or not between the results taken from Russia and from the United States. Fey and Denison (2003) focused on four cultural traits as involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission and compared the data of Russian context with the data taken from United States. Fey and Denison (2003, p.692) concluded that four cultural dimensions in the Russian data were less highly correlated with overall performance, employee satisfaction, quality, and product development, than was the case in the United States. “On the other hand, in the Russian data the cultural traits correlated more highly with market share, sales growth, profitability, and the effectiveness index. In Russia, adaptability and involvement were the strongest correlates of the effectiveness index, overall performance, profitability, and product development; involvement and mission were the strongest correlates of market share, sales growth, employee satisfaction, and quality” (Fey and Denison, 2003, p.692).

- Ooi et al. (2007) examined employees’ perceptions of total quality management practices and its impact on job satisfaction within a large Malaysian outsourced semiconductor assembly and test organization and found that teamwork, organizational trust, organizational culture and customer focus were positively associated with employees’ job satisfaction.

-Sosa and Sagas’s (2006) study was based on assessing the effects of organizational culture on job satisfaction of academic athletic directors in collegiate athletics, it was found that organizational culture had a significant effect on job satisfaction.

-The results of Huang's (2005) study indicated that " 'clan culture' was not only the major organizational culture currently used in the international tourist hotels in Taiwan but also the preferred culture for most employees working there. Furthermore, the Pearson correlation indicated that clan culture significantly and positively related to job satisfaction. On the other hand, hierarchical of organization was significantly and negatively related to employee job satisfaction and positively related to employee turnover intention and work stress level. Market organization was significantly and negatively related to job satisfaction level. These results imply that the more clan culture appears, the higher job satisfaction is, and the lower turnover intention and work stress are". Huang's (2005) study indicated that "clan, adhocracy, hierarchical, and market organizational cultures significantly influenced employee satisfaction and turnover intention and thus, significant differences exist among different types of current organizational cultures and employee job satisfaction as well as turnover intention".

- Koberg and Chusmir (1987, p.397) studied about the relationship between three types of organizational cultures and managerial creativity, motivation, and other job-related variables and found that bureaucratic culture combined with high need for power was found to have significant positive relationships to job satisfaction and involvement and negative connections to propensity to leave, innovative culture combined with high need for achievement was significantly and positively related to job satisfaction and significantly and negatively to propensity to leave and supportive culture combined with high need for affiliation was significantly and positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to propensity to leave.

- Pool (2000, p.32) examined the relationship between the three organizational cultures as constructive, passive-defensive and aggressive-defensive and the role stressors within a business environment. Pool (2000, p.44,32) found that an organization that promoted either a passive or aggressive culture would hinder job performance, job commitment and job satisfaction; however, the constructive culture would significantly reduce role stressors, thereby:decreasing job tension and increasing job satisfaction, job performance, and job commitment.

- Denison and Mishra (1995) examined the relationship between organizational culture and effectiveness; four cultural traits-involvement, consistency, adaptability, and mission are focused in the study related to organizational culture. Denison and Mishra (1995, p.218) found that the culture measures proved to be weak predictors of sales growth and profits, but stronger predictors of quality, employee satisfaction, and overall performance.

- Unutkan (1995) said: “Organizational culture causes organization members to integrate with the organization, to make organization’s goals their own and so, to work more effectively and productively by satisfying their psychological and social needs. The individual who makes common value, norm and behaviors that emerge as a result of organizational culture which has an effect to increase person’s job satisfaction his / her own, becomes a member of a certain group by this part of him / her” (p.76).

- Altuğ (1997, p.91) stated that for individuals and groups, the quality of business life is shaped by the interaction of these three different properties to each other: “

1. Work atmosphere
2. Job Design
3. Organizational Culture” (p.91).

Altuğ (1997, p.91) added that managing business life with competency will increase the employee’s achievement of work, satisfaction and adaptation.

5. AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CORPORATE CULTURE AND JOB SATISFACTION RELATED TO BANKING SECTOR IN KDZ. EREĞLİ

5.1. Research Objective and Model of the Study

The aim of the study is to examine relationship between corporate culture and job satisfaction with an application in banking sector in Kdz.Ereğli. Dependent and independent variables were selected by the comprehensive study on literature. Model of the study is displayed below:

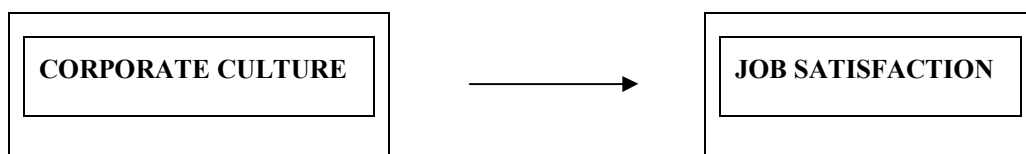


Figure 5.1: Model of The Study

5.2. Research Question

The research question below is examined in the study:

1. Does corporate culture effect job satisfaction?

5.3. Hypothesis

The hypothesis generated for the study is below:

- H1:** Corporate culture effects job satisfaction.

5.4. Methodology of the research

5.4.1. Population of the study

The population for the study consisted of 155 employees working in the banks in the town- Kdz.Ereğli. Banks of the study included state banks and also private sector banks. Working in the banks may be stressful, because most of the time the employees work on monetary issues. Also, they communicate with customers and should explain the issues related to customer demands so carefully because monetary issues are the base of their business and at this point, it is vital to uncover the hidden concepts related to corporate culture effecting employees' job satisfaction.

The town-Kdz. Ereğli was selected because of its special position in Turkey. Kdz. Ereğli is a very developed town. Several towns and also cities in Turkey do not have that amount of banks. It is very interesting that a town having sixteen different banks in Turkey. One of the biggest iron and steel factory- Erdemir is located in Kdz.Ereğli and also Kdz. Ereğli has a ship yard, that is why the circulation of money becomes very important in the town, so banks play a vital role in the town.

All the banks (sixteen banks) were applied to participate to the study and all of them accepted to answer the survey. In one bank, the employees at the bank told that it was a very hard-working period for them so, they could not participate to the study. That was why the data related to fifteen banks. Totally 211 surveys were distributed and 155 of them were collected back. The response rate for the study was 73 %.

5.4.2. Instruments and Data Collection Method used in the Study

5.4.2.1. Instruments Used in The Study

The survey consisted of two instruments and demographic data part. Demographic data part of the study located in the beginning of the survey. After demographics, corporate culture part took place in the survey and job satisfaction part followed corporate culture part in the questionnaire.

Demographic data part was designed in order to obtain information about participants' gender, age, working time in the company, marital status, education, and job title in the company.

Corporate culture part located between the 1st to 48th items in the survey and consisted of the items which was used in Ginevičius and Vaitkūnaitė's (2006) study. These two researchers examined corporate culture dimensions' impact on performance and also on employee satisfaction. Fifty three works were taken into consideration in their study and the questionnaire they prepared was based on twelve dimensions as involvement, cooperation (collaboration), transmission of information, learning, care about clients, adaptability, strategic direction, reward and incentive system, system of control, communication, agreement, coordination and integration. Ginevičius and Vaitkūnaitė (2006, p.208) say that it can be called as modified instrument of organizational culture assessment, because existing culture measurement instruments were under consideration and add that this instrument can be used for further investigations of organizational culture and its influence on success.

In this master thesis, 5-point likert scale of "totally disagree", "disagree", "neither agree nor disagree", "agree" and "totally agree" was used for the corporate culture part.

The other instrument used in this thesis was the short-form of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire for the measurement of job satisfaction including twenty items (see more details about "Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire" under the concept of job satisfaction assessment on previous pages). 5-point likert scale of "totally dissatisfied", "dissatisfied", "neither satisfied nor dissatisfied", "satisfied" and "totally satisfied" was used for this part. Job satisfaction part took place between 49th and 68th items in the survey.

5.4.2.2. Data Collection Method in The Study

In organizational culture studies, sometimes it may be hard to take answers from employees and they may not want to participate to the study. By that foresight, that was why the surveys were distributed by hand to increase the participation ratio for the study and the aim of the study was explained to the employees to get reliable answers from

them. Distribution and collection of the surveys took one week and were performed while the employees were on job. As stated before, 211 surveys were distributed and 155 of them were collected back with a response rate of 73 %.

6. RESEARCH FINDINGS

Data gained from the surveys was directly entered to SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 11.0 for Windows and statistical analyses were performed by the use of that statistical programme.

6.1. Frequencies of Demographic Data of the Study

Frequencies of demographics were examined to have an idea about the demographical properties of the data.

Demographic part was the first part of the survey and frequencies for the demographic data were examined below:

6.1.1. Gender

Table 6.1: Gender Data of The Study

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	female	86	55,5	55,5	55,5
	male	69	44,5	44,5	100,0
Total		155	100,0	100,0	

The study included 86 female and 69 male employees who were working in the banks in town- Kdz.Ereğli. Totally, the study consisted of 155 participants.

Female participants were more than male participants. 55,5 % of the participants was female and 44,5 % of the participants was male.

6.1.2. Age

Age was examined under three groups depending on the criteria below:

1. being between 21 and 29 years old,
2. being between 30 and 34 years old,
3. being 35 years old or more.

Table 6.2: Age Data of The Study

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 21-29	48	31,0	31,0	31,0
30-34	56	36,1	36,1	67,1
35 or more	51	32,9	32,9	100,0
Total	155	100,0	100,0	

31% (48 participants) of the participants were between 21 and 29 years old, 36,1% (56 participants) of them were between 30 and 34 years old and 32,9% (51 participants) of them were 35 years old or more. As seen in Table 6.2, more participation took place in the study by the employees working in the banks in the town-Kdz.Ereğli who were between 30 and 34 years old.

6.1.3. Marital Status

Table 6.3: Marital Status Data of The Study

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	single	57	36,8	36,8	36,8
	married	98	63,2	63,2	100,0
	Total	155	100,0	100,0	

Married participants were more than single participants. 57 single (36,8 % of the participants) and 98 married (63,2 % of the participants) employees working in banks in town- Kdz.Ereğli participated to the study.

6.1.4. Education

Table 6.4: Education Data of The Study

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	high school degree	38	24,5	24,5	24,5
	associate degree	17	11,0	11,0	35,5
	bachelor degree	92	59,4	59,4	94,8
	master degree	8	5,2	5,2	100,0
	Total	155	100,0	100,0	

Although, primary education and doctorate degree took place in the demographic part of the survey, there was not any observation for them. As it can be seen from Table 6.4, participants of the study holding bachelor degree were more than employees holding other education degrees.

38 participants (24,5 % of the participants) held high school degree, 17 participants (11 % of the participants) had associate degree, 92 participants (59,4 % of the participants) held bachelor degree and 8 participants (5,2 % of the participants) had master degree.

6.1.5. Working Time in the Company

Working time in the company was examined under three groups depending on the criterions below:

1. having 1-4 years working time in the company,
2. having 5-9 years working time in the company,
3. having 10 years or more working time in the company.

Table 6.5: Working Time Data of The Study

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-4 years	54	34,8	34,8	34,8
	5-9 years	55	35,5	35,5	70,3
	10 or more years	46	29,7	29,7	100,0
	Total	155	100,0	100,0	

34,8 % (54 participants) of the participants had 1-4 years working time in the company, 35,5 % (55 participants) of them had 5-9 years working time in the company and 29,7 % (46 participants) of them had 10 or more years working time in the company. As seen in Table 6.5, more participation took place in the study by the employees working in the town- Kdz.Ereğli who had 5-9 years working time in the company.

6.1.6. Job Title in the Company

Table 6.6: Job Title Data of The Study

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	assistant supervisor or officer	40	25,8	25,8	25,8
	supervisor	79	51,0	51,0	76,8
	assistant manager or department head	22	14,2	14,2	91,0
	manager	6	3,9	3,9	94,8
	other	8	5,2	5,2	100,0
Total		155	100,0	100,0	

Supervisor participants were more than other participants in the sample. 40 assistant supervisors or officers (25,8 % of the participants), 79 supervisors (51 % of the participants), 22 assistant managers or department heads (14,2 % of the participants), 6 managers (3,9 % of the participants) and 8 employees having other job titles like security, etc... (5,2 % of the participants) participated to the study.

6.2. Reliability and factor analyses

As mentioned before, the survey was composed of three parts. Demographic part took place in the beginning of the survey. Organizational culture part of the survey was located from between 1st to 48th items and job satisfaction part followed corporate culture part with the items between 49th to 68th. Reliability was analysed for organizational culture and job satisfaction parts. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and Kaiser- Meyer- Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO- MSA) were conducted to see whether the data was acceptable for factor analysis or not.

6.2.1. Reliability and factor analysis for organizational culture part

Corporate culture part of the study consisted of the items starting from the 1st to the 48th one. Varimax rotation was used by 150 iterations and rotated component matrix was obtained for factor analysis in this part (Rotation converged in 128 iterations).

Kaiser- Meyer- Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO-MSA) was 0,849 and significance of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was 0,000. KMO value was more than 0,50 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant. "The measure of KMO sampling adequacy being more than 0.50 indicates that variables which take place in the scale is suitable for factor analysis" (Perçin, 2005, p.144).

Thus, factor analysis was conducted for corporate culture part and reliability of this part was examined. Related to factor analysis, elimination of items from the scale depended on the criterions below:

- 1) At the first step, factors including one item were eliminated.
- 2) At the second step, items having less than 0,500 loading in the rotated component matrix were eliminated.
- 3) By the third step, reliability analysis was conducted again. Reliability of the remaning corporate culture scale as a whole, factors' reliabilities and reliabilities of items under factors if they were deleted were examined.

As a part of Kim and Jin's (2001, p.245) study, three factors emerged as Korean consumers' values and they mentioned that alpha coefficients of all three factors were above 0.60 representing good reliability (Kim and Jin, 2001, p.245).

In this master thesis, factors having less than 60 % reliability were eliminated and reliabilities of items' under factors if they were deleted were also examined as a part of the reliability analysis. After the elimination, revised appearance for corporate culture scale was obtained. The revised appearance was composed of 18 items. As seen from Table 6.7, Kaiser- Meyer- Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO- MSA) was 0,819 and significance of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was 0,000. KMO value was more than 0,50 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant. So, factor analysis was

conducted for corporate culture part and reliability of this part was examined. Five factors were obtained and these factors which had eigenvalues more than “1” explained 67,090 % of the total variance. The first factor explained 33,721 % of the total variance. So, these results displayed that the first factor explained more than the half of the total variance explained by the five factors.

Özdamar (1999) said: “Evaluation criterion that is obeyed while evaluating alpha coefficient is;

If $0.00 \leq \alpha < 0.40$, scale is not reliable.

If $0.40 \leq \alpha < 0.60$, scale is at low reliability.

If $0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.80$, scale is fairly reliable.

If $0.80 \leq \alpha < 1.00$, scale is a highly reliable scale” (p.522).

Reliability alpha of final organizational culture scale was obtained as ,7440. It was between 0,60 and 0,80. So, it was concluded that the scale was fairly reliable. Reliability of the scale if items were deleted was also taken into consideration. However, it was seen that there was no need to eliminate any item from the scale. Also, reliabilities if items were deleted under factors were examined. It was concluded that there was no need to eliminate any items more from the revised organizational culture scale.

Table 6.7: Factor and Reliability Analyses for Revised Organizational Culture Scale

		Factor Loadings	Cronbach Alpha	Variance explained
Item No.*	Factor 1: <i>Development of human resources to focus on customer needs</i>		,8193	33,721 %
13	Employees teach each other, share skills and knowledge.	,806		
14	Various investigation / analysis (e.g. of product characteristics, consumers and personnel needs) are made permanently.	,781		
16	Employees look after clients and satisfaction of their needs permanently.	,731		
15	It is enough invested into improvement of product / service quality.	,687		
17	Dissatisfaction of clients is always removed.	,580		
Item No.*	Factor 2: <i>Reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system</i>		,8356	10,253 %
30	Reward system is correct (employee is getting salary / wage according to the results and efforts).	,799		
31	It is always rewarded (in monetary or other form) for the good works, ideas, innovations and so on.	,797		
33	Employees are more often awarded than punished.	,762		
34	Managers care about welfare of employees (e.g. they are provided with free services, things and so on).	,602		
35	Existing rules and norms are more directive (i.e. show direction) than restrictive.	,586		
Item No.*	Factor 3: <i>Resistance to change</i>		,7584	9,994 %
46	It is very hard to work with person from other department / group.	,861		
47	Departments (groups) have difficulties when carrying out common activity, sharing information and so on.	,823		
44	Employees often do not approve of changes and resist or behave indifferently.	,629		
24	It is difficult for employees to adapt to novelties and changes in enterprise.	,626		
Item No.*	Factor 4: <i>Favourable conditions at work and collaboration</i>		,7046	6,796 %
4	Managers consult subordinates (they collaborate).	,872		
1	All employees have favourable conditions for decision making and for giving various ideas, suggestions, notes and so on.	,716		
Item No.*	Factor 5: <i>Strategy,goals and plans</i>		,7850	6,326 %
26	Goals and plans are achieved purposefully.	,741		
25	Enterprise has a long-term strategy, plans and goals.	,736		
Total			,7440	67,090 %
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = ,819 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square = 1238,158 df = 153 Sig. = ,000				
*The item numbers are coded for the statements which match them in the original survey, so these items can be seen with the same order related to item numbers in the original survey in Ginevičius and Vaitkūnaitė (2006).				

Five corporate culture factors emerged below as the base of the corporate culture concept for the continuation of the study:

- 1) Development of human resources to focus on customer needs,
- 2) Reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system,
- 3) Resistance to change,
- 4) Favourable conditions at work and collaboration,
- 5) Strategy, goals and plans

6.2.2. Reliability analysis for job satisfaction part

Job satisfaction part of the study consisted of the items starting from the 49th to the 68th one. Job satisfaction part was not factor analysed, only reliability of the scale was examined. The reason to examine the job satisfaction variables as a one variable was to put into regression analysis as a dependent variable.

Reliability alpha of job satisfaction scale was obtained as ,9157. As Özdamar (1999, p.522) mentioned that if $0.80 \leq \alpha < 1.00$, scale was a highly reliable scale. So, it was concluded that the scale was highly reliable. Reliability of the scale if items were deleted was also taken into consideration. However, it was seen that there was no need to eliminate any item from the scale.

Table 6.8: Reliability Analysis For Job Satisfaction Scale

VAR. NUMBER	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
VAR00049	70,3613	122,4011	,4737	,9137
VAR00050	70,5419	123,5356	,3678	,9163
VAR00051	70,3935	119,4610	,5453	,9122
VAR00052	69,8581	121,4343	,5995	,9112
VAR00053	70,4065	119,0220	,6033	,9108
VAR00054	70,2516	119,2674	,6282	,9103
VAR00055	70,3161	123,4254	,3614	,9166
VAR00056	70,0258	124,1032	,4363	,9144
VAR00057	69,8903	122,1762	,5984	,9114
VAR00058	70,2065	120,6324	,5340	,9124
VAR00059	70,0452	119,2902	,6453	,9100
VAR00060	70,2710	119,9651	,6554	,9100
VAR00061	70,7613	117,4426	,5412	,9128
VAR00062	70,4839	117,5111	,5528	,9124
VAR00063	70,5484	117,2882	,6639	,9093
VAR00064	70,3355	118,2633	,6983	,9088
VAR00065	70,4387	118,7413	,6159	,9105
VAR00066	70,3484	119,4363	,6083	,9107
VAR00067	70,3226	116,0641	,6750	,9089
VAR00068	70,0710	118,3001	,6418	,9099
Reliability alpha for job satisfaction scale = ,9157				

6.3. Multiple Linear Regression

Regression analysis was used to search about “effect relationship” between independent and dependent variables. In this study, multiple linear regression analysis was conducted. The reason to conduct this type of regression analysis was to put five organizational culture factors together into the analysis at the same time as independent variables.

- General hypothesis was composed as:

H1: Corporate culture effects job satisfaction.

Two sub- hypotheses were generated to examine the main hypothesis of the research. These hypotheses were:

H₀: None of the independent variables effects job satisfaction.

H_a: At least one of the independent variables affects job satisfaction.

Table 6.9: Anova Table Related To Regression

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	19,264	3	6,421	30,632	,000
Residual	31,654	151	,210		
Total	50,917	154			

At the beginning of the regression analysis, multicollinearity was searched. It was found that correlation between independent factors were less than 0,70 and pearson correlations were significant. It was concluded that there was significant correlation between independent variables and multicollinearity did not occur.

Testing the general hypothesis of the study was the prior aim of the research. As seen in Table 6.9, p value was significant ($0,000 < 0,05$). So, H_a was accepted. It indicated that at least one of the independent variables affected job satisfaction.

Table 6.10: Coefficients Table Related To Regression

Independent variables which have an effect on job satisfaction	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1,694	,220		7,705	,000		
Reward,incentive system and rules,norms used for control system	,198	,051	,295	3,854	,000	,704	1,419
Development of human resources to focus on customer needs	,234	,060	,284	3,902	,000	,779	1,283
Favourable conditions at work and collaboration	,142	,048	,212	2,955	,004	,800	1,250
R = ,615 R Square = ,378							

Because Ha was accepted, five corporate culture factors were examined to find out which one / ones effected job satisfaction.

While applying regression analysis, stepwise method was used to see the independent variables effecting dependent variable. The criterion for the method was eliminating independent variables one by one starting from the one which had the highest p value emerging more than 0,050.

The factors- “Resistance to change” and- “strategy, goals and plans” were eliminated during regression analysis because of their p values which were more than 0,050. Thus, it was concluded that these two independent variables did not effect job satisfaction.

As seen in Table 6.10, p values for “Reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system”, “Development of human resources to focus on customer needs” and “Favourable conditions at work and collaboration” had p values less than 0,050. That was why these three corporate culture factors remained in the regression model seen in Figure 6.2. It was found that both of these three factors effected job satisfaction. Via taken β values into consideration, the higher the β (Beta) value, the higher the explanation of variance at dependent variable.

As a result of the regression analysis, there was a relationship between corporate culture and job satisfaction by the level of 61,5 % and it was also found that “Development of human resources to focus on customer needs”, “Reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system” and “Favourable conditions at work and collaboration” explained 37,8 % of variation at job satisfaction. The independent variable which explained variation at job satisfaction as the most was “Reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system (β : 0,295)”. “Development of human resources to focus on customer needs (β : 0,284)” explained variation at job satisfaction less than “Reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system”. “Favourable conditions at work and collaboration (β : 0,212) explained variation at job satisfaction less than “Reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system” and “Development of human resources to focus on customer needs” in the study.

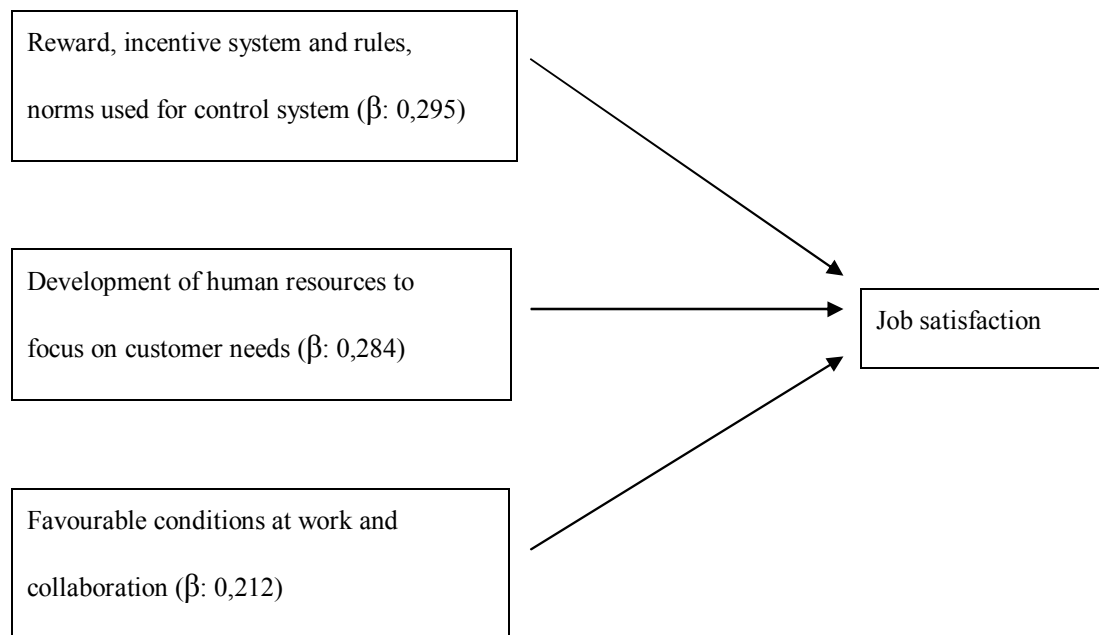


Figure 6.1: Model Representing Multiple Linear Regression Analysis Results

It was found that three organizational culture factors had both positively effected job satisfaction and they explained 37,8 % of variation at job satisfaction.

6. DISCUSSION

Studies that were examined in the literature focused on the relationship between corporate culture and job satisfaction related to the cultural typologies, very few of them carried out their studies related to dimensions of corporate culture. In this study, corporate culture was started to be examined by twelve dimensions which contributed the research freedom for flexible movements. That brought the study a wide perspective. It is hoped that this study contributes to fill the gaps related to the studies on relationship between corporate culture and job satisfaction by focusing on corporate culture dimensions.

The results of the frequencies of the demographics pointed out that female participants were more than male participants, participants who were between 30 and 34 years old were more than other employees, married participants were more than single participants, more than half of the participant held bachelor degree, participants who had 5-9 years working time in the company were more than others and more than the half of the participants were supervisors.

In the present study, corporate culture factors emerged as “Development of human resources to focus on customer needs”, “Reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system”, “Resistance to change”, “Favourable conditions at work and colaboration” and “ Strategy, goals and plans”. In the regression anaysis, it was found that “Resistance to change” and “Strategy, goals and plans” did not effect job satisfaction. Individuals’ perceptions about corporate culture and their job satisfaction may vary for different samples or populations. Thus, it can be concluded that these factors emerged depending on individuals’ perceptions about corporate culture of their companies and their job satisfaction.

In the literature, Trader-Leigh (2002, p.146) found that culture compatibility was one of the factors underlying causes of resistance and added: “Pursuing change and transforming organizations is hard work. Many change initiatives fail because cultures do not readily accept change, and do not effectively anticipate the impact on human systems. Resistance behavior reflects emotion that expresses people’s feelings about how they personally experience the impact of the change” (Trader-Leigh, 2002, p.151,

148). Yousef (2000, p.582) found that satisfaction with certain facets of the job directly and indirectly (via different dimensions of organizational commitment), influenced different dimensions of attitudes toward organizational change. It was seen that Yousef (2000) searched the relationship in the opposite direction with job satisfaction-as independent variable and attitudes toward organizational change-as the dependent variable. Rashid, Sambasivan and Rahman (2004) say: "The change process in each organization is unique in each situation, due to the differences in the nature of the organization, the nature of business, the work culture and values, management and leadership style, and also the behavior and attitude of the employees. Further, the risk of failure is greater as people are generally resistant to changes. For more, change may bring satisfaction, joy and advantages, while for others the same change may bring pain, stress and disadvantages" (p.161). Thus, "resistance to change" was examined in different point of views in the literature. In this thesis, it was found that "resistance to change" did not effect job satisfaction.

In Politis' (2006, p.210) study, he found that there was a relationship between self-leadership behavioral-focused strategies and job satisfaction, four of the five self-leadership behavioral-focused strategies were significantly and positively related to intrinsic job satisfaction and moreover he found that the five of them had positive effect on extrinsic job satisfaction. Ilozor, Ilozor and Carr (2001, 495,506) studied on the relationship between management communication strategies and job satisfaction in telecommuting sector in Australia and mentioned that the findings implied that several current management communication strategies could determine the job satisfaction of Australian telecommuters and as not all the examined management communication strategies were found to have significant impacts on the job satisfaction of telecommuters, there was a need to understand their relative impacts on improving telecommuting. Beam (2006) studied on the relationship between organizational goals and priorities and the job satisfaction of U.S. journalists and found that "journalists' perceptions of their news organization's business and professional (journalistic) goals and priorities are important predictors of job satisfaction and this relationship between job satisfaction and news workers' perceptions was most evident for the journalistic goals" (p.180). Tylel (2004) says that across the board, workers have clearly articulated

the direct correlation between robust benefit plans and job satisfaction. In the literature, there was a lack of study related to strategy, goals, plans and job satisfaction, that was why not a considerable amount of studies were observed related to this subject. The examined literature pointed out a relationship between strategy, goals, plans and job satisfaction. Findings of this thesis related to this subject did not appear as the same with the examined studies. It was found in this thesis that “strategy, goals and plans” did not effect job satisfaction.

The corporate culture factor- “Development of human resources to focus on customer needs” was based on customer focus and in this thesis, it was found that this factor effected job satisfaction positively. On the process of searching the literature, it was seen that this factor of corporate culture successfully matched to Customer Mind-Set “CMS” system. Kennedy, Lassk and Goolsby (2002, p.160) say: “Customer mind-set (CMS) is defined as an individual’s belief that understanding and satisfying customers, whether internal or external to the organization, is central to the proper execution of his or her job”. According to Kennedy, Lassk and Goolsby (2002, p.161), “CMS purposefully addresses culture, so that the extent to which the organization and its workers have embraced customer-oriented beliefs can be ascertained”. These three researchers evaluate CMS as the part of the organizational culture. Kennedy, Lassk and Goolsby (2002, 168) say that they observed the anticipated relationships between CMS and desirable outcomes of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance to support nomological validity. Mentality of customer mind-set is being customer focused and that mentality locates itself in the corporate culture of the company.

“Reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system” was another factor of corporate culture emerged in this study. It was also argued in the literature review of the study that rewards and incentive system had a positive relationship with job satisfaction. Also, it was stated in the thesis that these rewards did not have to be monetary. It also would be recognition or other non-monetary rewards. Thus, the result obtained related to rewards was not surprising. Moreover this factor also included norms and rules. Brewer and McMahan-Landers (2003) searched job satisfaction among industrial and technical teacher educators and mentioned that

administrators at postsecondary institutions could identify institutional and departmental rules and procedures that promoted job dissatisfaction; then, those rules and procedures identified as adversely impacting job satisfaction could be eliminated and replaced with rules and procedures fostering job satisfaction. Applbaum and Anatol (1979) examined relationship between job satisfaction, organizational norms, and communication climate among top administrators and managers at California State University, Long Beach; the results indicated that there was a significant correlation between job satisfaction and organizational norms but the two factors combined accounted for only four percent of the total variance. There were many studies related to reward, incentive system and job satisfaction, however also lack of studies on the relationship between rules, norms and job satisfaction took a part in the literature. In this study, it was found that “reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system” effected job satisfaction positively. This result supported the literature related to the subject.

“Favourable conditions at work and collaboration” was the third factor of corporate culture in rank which effected job satisfaction positively. Stark (1998) mentioned: “There is a direct correlation between how involved employees are in the decision making in their department or team and their overall morale, motivation, and satisfaction with their jobs. Companies and departments with a higher level of employee involvement in decision making show higher levels of employee motivation and satisfaction”. Känd and Rekor (2005) studied on perceived involvement in decision-making (PIDM) and job satisfaction among nurses in Estonia and said: “PIDM is an important determinant of job satisfaction. Increasing PIDM will have a positive effect on nurses’ job satisfaction” (p.26). Zangaro and Soeken (2007) found in their study that there was a positive correlation between nurse-physician collaboration and job satisfaction. Moreover, Thobega and Miller (2003) found that “agriculture teachers who experienced collaborative supervision reported a slightly but significantly higher level of job satisfaction than teachers who did not experience collaborative supervision” (p.57). In Chaboyer, Williams, Corkill and Creamer’s (1999, p.30) study, the relationship between the content of work, the work environment and job satisfaction among nurses working in a teaching hospital in a remote area of Central Australia indicated that strongest predictors of job satisfaction were job variety, feedback and

collaboration with medical staff. Findings of the present thesis related to this subject supported the literature.

Some findings of this thesis supported the literature and some emerged differently from the previous studies. Also, why the three corporate culture factors effected job satisfaction and why the other two did not were a topic that had been discussed about. It was concluded that the factors of corporate culture that could effect job satisfaction in the individual level and the ones which gave clues about jobs emerged as the predictors of job satisfaction. Employees get interested in what they are face to face every day and what they get after performing their work. They may not know about strategies of the company, however they are face to face with rules and norms everyday. Strategies, goals and plans are organizational based. Rules and norms are also organizational based but it is normal that these factors effected job satisfaction, because employees are akin to these two subjects every day at work. Also, it was explained that it was known also from the literature that reward and incentive system, favourable conditions at work and collaboration and development of human resources to focus on customer needs had positive relations with job satisfaction.

“Favourable conditions at work and collaboration” and “Development of human resources to focus on customer needs” gave clues about the employees’ jobs working in the banks in the town- Kdz.Ereğli and it was founded that these clues effected job satisfaction. Also, “Reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system” is the part of the jobs. It was found that also this factor effected job satisfaction positively.

6.1. Limitations of the research

First limitation in the study was that the study was in banking sector. The second limitation was that the study was applied in the town-Kdz.Ereğli.

The study related to the bank employees in Kdz.Ereğli. The reason to locate study in that town was because of its special position in Turkey. In several cities, it was not possible to find that amount of different banks in Turkey. Kdz. Ereğli is a town- not a city yet, however there are sixteen different banks in the town. It was interesting for

the researcher. Then, the reasons were searched and it was seen that one of the biggest iron and steel factory- Erdemir and ship yard were the vital economical sources for the town. It was concluded that because of that money circulation in the town, banks play a vital role and bank employees work related to monetary calculations and issues, and it is not desired to do any incorrect monetary calculation. That is why they have to be very careful at work and they have to concentrate at work. So, that may bring more stress, anxiety, discomfort, etc... on job. Also, their job satisfaction may be effected by corporate cultural elements. Thus, it became vital to search which factors of corporate culture effected employees' job satisfaction.

Distribution of the questionnaires depended on full counting method. Thus, that was why no limitation appeared related to sampling.

Data related to responses of employees working in banks in town- Kdz.Ereğli. That was why, the outputs represented participants' responses to the questionnaire statements. Thus, it could not be generalized as the country results.

7. CONCLUSION

Corporate culture is a vital part of the company. Rules, norms, management applications and many other organizational elements are shaped by that issue. It is a very comprehensive topic that serves the whole system of the company. Not only the way business goes on but also the employees are affected by corporate culture of the company.

It may become easier to satisfy the employees accepting and sharing values of the company. After a time, those employees internalize the company values. Thus, the employees get happier and pleased to be a part of that enterprise. Then, that can facilitate satisfying those employees.

This study aimed to find out relationship between corporate culture and job satisfaction with an application on the employees working in the banks in town-Kdz.Ereğli. The factors of corporate culture emerged as below:

- Development of human resources to focus on customer needs,
- Reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system,
- Resistance to change,
- Favourable conditions at work and collaboration, and
- Strategy, goals and plans.

These factors emerged depending on individuals' perceptions about corporate culture of their companies and their job satisfaction

Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted and it was seen that only three of them had effect on job satisfaction of employees working in the banks in town-Kdz.Ereğli. The effecting factors appeared as: "Reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system"-as the most effecting, "Development of human

resources to focus on customer needs”-as the second effecting in rank and “Favourable conditions at work and collaboration”-as the least effecting in rank.

The subject of corporate culture is the building stone of a company. How the corporate culture is managed and how it reflects to the employees become the vital part of the subject. Human is the backbone of the company. It helps the company stand or it may cause to bend. Thus, it means that the building stone feed the backbone. Corporate culture is highly effected from the founder. So, what the founder wants to be internalized in the company may not match with what the employees guess to have. That situation may also reflect to what the employees think about their existing jobs or whether they are satisfied or not with their present jobs. This thought was only an idea, however it was supported by the results taken from regression analysis of the study.

This study gave us also clues about priorities and properties about job as also located in corporate culture. Being customer focused, favourable conditions at work and collaboration, reward, incentive system and rules, norms used for control system are the subjects which normally relate to jobs. It was seen that these issues emerged also as a part of corporate culture with the effect on job satisfaction.

Lack of studies on the relationship with corporate culture dimensions and job satisfaction, it is hoped that this study will be useful to fill the gaps and will supply a different point of view for future research.

8. IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The study relates to the banking sector in Kdz.Ereğli. If the questionnaire is applied to a town with the same conditions related to banks, the results can be compared and if differences occur, that may shed light on future studies.

The questionnaire can be applied at different sectors or a single company. If it is applied to different sectors, sector-based comparison, if it is applied to different companies, company-based comparison can be performed.

As seen in the corporate culture part of the survey, it has many dimensions. So, because of that multi-dimensionalism, questionnaire feeds the study and may provide distinctive results and factors to get emerged. That is why organizational culture questionnaire can be used for future researches. Moreover, Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire consists of twenty dimensions and these dimensions can be shaped differently in the studies related to how they are grouped as factors. So, both of these two questionnaires include several dimensions in themselves and can provide to get new factors and comprehensive findings related to the data.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A – QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THE STUDY

(TURKISH VERSION)

Sayın katılımcı,

Bu anket Marmara Üniversitesi'nde gerçekleştirilen bir yüksek lisans tezinde kullanılmak üzere hazırlanmıştır. Çalışmanın amacı kurum kültürü ve iş tatmini arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır. Anketin değeri soruları cevaplarken gösterdiğiniz samimiyet ve ilgi ile pekişecektir. Amacımız genel bir sonuca ulaşmak olduğu için isim ve soyadınızı yazmanıza gerek yoktur. Cevaplarınız tamamen saklı tutulacaktır ve hiçbir zaman başka herhangi bir özel amaç için kullanılmayacaktır. Araştırmacı sadece anketleri değerlendirecek ve bu anketler genel sonuçlara varmak için araştırmacıya ışık tutacaktır. Ayırdığınız zaman ve işbirliğiniz için çok teşekkür ederiz.

Öncelikle aşağıdaki soruları cevaplayınız.

- | | | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------|------------------|-------------|
| Cinsiyetiniz | 1- Kadın | 2- Erkek | |
| Yaşınız | | | |
| Medeni Haliniz | 1- Bekar | 2- Evli | |
| Öğrenim Durumunuz | 1- İlköğretim | 2- Lise | 3- Önlisans |
| | 4- Lisans | 5- Yüksek Lisans | 6- Doktora |
| Bu Şirkette Çalışma Süreniz | | | |
| Şirketteki Göreviniz | 1- Yönetmen Yardımcısı | 2- Yönetmen | |
| | Veya Memur | | |
| | 3- Müdür Yardımcısı | 4- Müdür | |
| | Veya Departman Sorumlusu | | |
| | 5- Diğer | | |

Aşağıdaki ifadeler “kurum kültürü”nü ölçen ifadelerdir. Lütfen aşağıdaki ölçme aracına göre bu ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı, tercih ettiğiniz cevap seçeneğinin altına “X” işareti koyarak belirtiniz. Her bir ifade için tek cevap seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

		Hiç katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
1	Tüm çalışanlar karar vermekte ve çeşitli fikirler, öneriler, notlar vb. vermekte uygun koşullara sahiptirler.					
2	İlgi çekici bir iş için iyi koşullar yaratılmıştır, bu yüzden çalışanlar işlerine istekli olarak alışırlar.					
3	Kurumumuzun merasimleri ve gelenekleri çalışanları daha etkin çalışmalarını yolunda birleştirir.					
4	Yöneticiler astlara danışır (işbirliği yaparlar).					
5	Özellikle önemli soruların cevaplanmasında veya projelerde, bireysel çalışmadan daha sık olarak takım çalışması kullanılır.					
6	Problemler, zorluklar veya sorular ortaya çıktığında, çalışanlar bunları diğerlerine danışmaktan çok, daha bireysel olarak çözerler.					
7	Yeni veya başka önemli bilgiler çalışanlara, vakti geldiği zaman ulaşır.					
8	Çalışan genellikle karar vermek veya çalışmak için gerekli olan bilgiden yoksundur.					
9	Çalışanlar (yöneticiler dahil) sıklıkla birbirlerini yanlış anlarlar (bilginin yanlış iletilmesi).					
10	Yöneticiler çalışanlara geribildirimde bulunmazlar.					
11	Çalışanların yetenekleri ve bilgileri üzerine sürekli yatırım yapılır (farklı kurslar sunulur, vs...).					
12	Yöneticiler sürekli kendilerini geliştirirler.					
13	Çalışanlar birbirlerini eğitirler, yeteneklerini ve bilgilerini paylaşırlar.					
14	Sürekli, çeşitli araştırma / analizler yapılır (örneğin; ürün özellikleri, tüketiciler ve personel ihtiyaçları ile ilgili olarak).					
15	Ürün / hizmet kalitesinin iyileştirilmesinde yeterince yatırım yapılır.					
16	Çalışanlar sürekli müşterilerle ve müşteri ihtiyaçlarının tatminiyle meşgul olurlar.					
17	Müşteri tatminsizliği her zaman giderilir.					
18	Müşteriye, müşterinin istediği değil, kurumumuzca neyin daha iyi olabileceği düşüncesi önerilir.					
19	Kurumumuz ürünler / hizmetler ve bunların iyileştirilmesi konusunu müşteriye sorar ve bunları değerlendirmeye alır.					
20	Kurumumuz, dış çevredeki değişimlere sürekli cevap verir.					
21	Kurumumuz ciddi problemlerle karşılaşırsa, işler birbirlerinden ayrı olarak gerçekleştirilir.					
22	Birçok problem görmezlikten gelinir (Çalışanlar / yöneticiler problemlere cevap vermezler / problemler çözülmez).					
23	Çalışanlar, iç ve dış pazardaki iş ve haberleri yakından izlerler ve işleri iyileştirmek için uğraşırlar.					
24	Çalışanlar için, kurumdaki yeniliklere ve değişimlere adapte olmak zordur.					
25	Kurumumuzun uzun-dönem stratejisi, planları ve amaçları vardır.					

		Hiç katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
26	Amaçlar ve planlar amaçlar doğrultusunda gerçekleştirilir.					
27	Sizin kurumunuz yön gösteren bir lider gibidir, diğer kurumlar onu “takip ederler”.					
28	İş planlanır, böylece herkes ne yapacağını ve işini nasıl yapacağını bilir.					
29	Kurumun vizyonu yavaş yavaş gerçekleşir.					
30	Ödül sistemi doğrudur (çalışan sonuçlara ve çabaya göre maaş ‘haftalık / aylık’ alır).					
31	İyi işler, fikirler, yenilikler vb. her zaman ödüllendirilir					
32	Mevcut cezalandırma sistemi doğru bir sistemdir.					
33	Çalışanlar cezalandırılmaktan daha çok ödüllendirilirler.					
34	Yöneticiler çalışanların refahı ile ilgili itina gösterirler (örneğin; ücretsiz hizmetler sunulması, vs...).					
35	Mevcut kurallar ve normlar kısıtlayıcı olmaktan çok yönlendiricidir (yol gösterir).					
36	Çalışanlar çok fazla özgürlüğe sahiptirler, yöneticinin yön göstermesi gerektiğini düşünürler.					
37	Yöneticiler astları çok fazla kontrol ederler.					
38	Yöneticiler emir vermekten daha çok rica ederler.					
39	Yöneticilerin gösterdikleri ve yaptıkları arasında her zaman farklılık vardır.					
40	Yönetici her zaman çalışana yardım etmek ve tavsiye etmek için çabalar.					
41	Çalışanlararası iletişim arkadaşçadır (formelden çok informeldir)					
42	Çalışanlar aile gibi kaynaşmıştır.					
43	Çalışanlar soruların, problemlerin veya çatışmaların çözümünde her zaman en önemli şeylerde anlaşılır.					
44	Çalışanlar sıklıkla değişimleri onaylamazlar ve direnç gösterirler veya ilgisizce davranırlar.					
45	Çalışanlar çoğu kural, norm, değerlerde anlaşılır (bunların doğru olduğunu düşünürler).					
46	Başka bir departman / gruptan biriyle çalışmak çok zordur.					
47	Departmanlar (gruplar) ortak aktivite, bilgi paylaşımı, vb. sürdürürken zorluk çekerler.					
48	Farklı departmanlar (gruplar) birçok ortak şeye sahiptir (amaçlar, görevler, kutlamalar, vs...).					

Aşağıdaki ifadeler “iş tatmini”ni ölçen ifadelerdir. Lütfen şu anda sahip olduğunuz işinizden aşağıdaki ifadelerle belirtilen yönleriyle, ne derece memnun olduğunuzu “X” işareti koyarak belirtiniz. Her bir ifade için tek cevap seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

		Hiç memnun değilim	Memnun değilim	Ne memnunum ne değilim	Memnunum	Tamamen memnunum
49	Beni her zaman meşgul etmesi açısından					
50	Tek başıma çalışma olanağının olması açısından					
51	Ara sıra değişik şeyler yapabilme şansının olması açısından					
52	Toplumda “saygın bir kişi” olma şansını bana vermesi açısından					
53	Amirimin emrindeki kişileri idare tarzı açısından					
54	Amirimin karar verme yeteneği bakımından					
55	Vicdanıma aykırı olmayan şeyler yapabilme şansının olması açısından					
56	Bana sabit bir iş sağlaması bakımından					
57	Başkaları için bir şeyler yapabilme olanağına sahip olmam açısından					
58	Kişilere ne yapacaklarını söyleme şansına sahip olmam bakımından					
59	Kendi yeteneklerimi kullanarak bir şeyler yapabilme şansının olması açısından					
60	İş ile ilgili alınan kararların uygulamaya konması bakımından					
61	Yaptığım iş ve karşılığında aldığım ücret bakımından					
62	İş içinde terfi olanağının olması açısından					
63	Kendi kararlarımı uygulama serbestliğini bana vermesi bakımından					
64	İşimi yaparken kendi yöntemlerimi kullanabilme şansını sağlaması bakımından					
65	Çalışma şartları bakımından					
66	Çalışma arkadaşlarımla birbirleri ile anlaşmaları açısından					
67	Yaptığım iyi bir iş karşılığında takdir edilmem açısından					
68	Yaptığım iş karşılığında duyduğum başarı hissi açısından					

APPENDIX B – QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THE STUDY (ENGLISH VERSION)

Dear participant,

This questionnaire was prepared to be used for a master's thesis carried out at Marmara University. The aim of the study is searching the relationship between corporate culture and job satisfaction. The value of this survey will become stronger by your sincerity and attention in answering the questions. It is not needed to write your names and surnames because our goal is to reach a general conclusion. Your responses will be kept strictly confidential and will never be used for any other special purpose. The researcher will only evaluate the questionnaires and these questionnaires will shed light on to the researcher to reach general conclusions. Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.

At first please answer the questions below.

Your gender

1- Female

2- Male

Your age

.....

Your marital status

1- Single

2- Married

Educational degree

1- Primary education

2- High school

3- Associate

4- Bachelor

5- Master

6- Doctorate

Working time in this company

.....

Your title in the company

1- Assistant Supervisor

2- Supervisor

or Officer

3- Assistant Manager

4- Manager

or Department Head

5- Other

The statements below are measuring “**corporate culture**”. Please state at what degree you agree with these statements depending on the measurement tool below by placing “**X**” under the response option you preferred. Mark only one response option for one statement.

		Totally disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree
1	All employees have favourable conditions for decision making and for giving various ideas, suggestions, notes and so on.					
2	There are created good conditions for the interesting work, therefore employees get used to their work willingly.					
3	Rituals and traditions of enterprise unite employees to work further effectively.					
4	Managers consult subordinates (they collaborate).					
5	Teamwork is used more often than individual work, especially when solving important questions or projects.					
6	When problems, difficulties or questions arise, employees solve them more individually than by consulting other ones.					
7	New or other important information reaches employees in due time.					
8	Employee is often lacking information, which is necessary to make decision or to work.					
9	Employees (also managers) often misunderstand each other (improper transmission of information).					
10	Managers do not provide feedback to the employees.					
11	It is permanently invested into knowledge and skills of employees (different courses are offered and so on).					
12	Managers improve themselves permanently.					
13	Employees teach each other, share skills and knowledge.					
14	Various investigation / analysis (e.g. of product characteristics, consumers and personnel needs) are made permanently.					
15	It is enough invested into improvement of product / service quality.					
16	Employees look after clients and satisfaction of their needs permanently.					
17	Dissatisfaction of clients is always removed.					
18	It is offered to the client, what enterprise thinks is better, but not this, what client desires.					
19	Enterprise inquire customers opinion about products / services and improvement of them and takes that into account.					
20	Enterprise responds always to the changes in external environment.					
21	Work is performed straggly, if enterprise meets serious problems.					
22	Many problems are ignored (employees / managers do not respond to them / they are not solved).					
23	Employees keep up affairs and news in domestic market, abroad and strive to improve the work.					
24	It is difficult for employees to adapt to novelties and changes in enterprise.					
25	Enterprise has a long-term strategy, plans and goals.					
26	Goals and plans are achieved purposefully.					
27	Your enterprise is as leader showing direction, other enterprises “follow” it.					

		Totally disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree
28	Work is planned so, that everybody knows what and how to do his / her job.					
29	Vision of enterprise becomes reality little by little.					
30	Reward system is correct (employee is getting salary / wage according to the results and efforts).					
31	It is always rewarded (in monetary or other form) for the good works, ideas, innovations and so on.					
32	Existing punishment system is correct.					
33	Employees are more often awarded than punished.					
34	Managers care about welfare of employees (e.g. they are provided with free services, things and so on).					
35	Existing rules and norms are more directive (i.e. show direction) than restrictive.					
36	Employees have too much freedom, they think that manager must show direction.					
37	Managers control subordinates too much.					
38	Managers more often ask than command.					
39	Managers' teaching and deeds are always at variance.					
40	Manager always strives to help and advise employee.					
41	Communication between employees is friendly (more informal than formal).					
42	Employees are unified as family.					
43	Employees always agree about most important things, when solving questions, problems or conflicts.					
44	Employees often do not approve of changes and resist or behave indifferently.					
45	Employees agree about most rules, norms, values (they think these things are right).					
46	It is very hard to work with person from other department / group.					
47	Departments (groups) have difficulties when carrying out common activity, sharing information and so on.					
48	Different departments (groups) have many common things (goals, tasks, celebrations and so on).					

The statements below are measuring “**job satisfaction**”. Please state at what degree you are satisfied with the dimensions of your present job as pointed out below by placing “**X**”. Mark only one response option for one statement.

		Totally dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Satisfied	Totally satisfied
49	Being able to keep busy all the time.					
50	The chance to work alone on the job.					
51	The chance to do different things from time to time.					
52	The chance to be ‘somebody’ in the community.					
53	The way my boss handles his / her workers.					
54	The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.					
55	Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience.					
56	The way my job provides for steady employment.					
57	The chance to do things for other people.					
58	The chance to tell people what to do.					
59	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.					
60	The way company policies are put into practice.					
61	My pay and the amount of work I do.					
62	The chances for advancement on this job.					
63	The freedom to use my own judgment.					
64	The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.					
65	The working conditions.					
66	The way my co-workers get along with each other.					
67	The praise I get for doing a good job.					
68	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.					

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