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Danışman: Prof. Dr. E. Serra YURTKORU

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to examine the differences in work values among three generations who are on the verge of joining the workforce together. Initially, as a preliminary study, the adaptation of Albrecht, Marty, and Brandon-Jones' Work Values Questionnaire, which is based on Schwartz's values theory, to the Turkish context was carried out. A sample of 525 participants was used for this stage of the research, and the collected data was subjected to factor analysis. The outcome of the analysis was a reliable and valid work values questionnaire, consisting of eleven factors.

In the second stage of the main study, data were collected from white-collar Gen X and Millennials working in the banking sector; in addition, Gen Z, who have not yet entered the working life and continue to study in different universities and departments, were included in the study. At this stage of the study, the correlation between work values and three variables (prosociality, innovative work behavior, and organizational identification) that were hypothesized to affect work values was investigated. After analyzing the differences in work values among generations, the study revealed significant variations in every dimension of work values, but only when comparing different generations. Although the generations differed in some values, they were not entirely distinct in terms of work values; Gen X differed from other generations in certain values, while Millennials differed in others. Moreover, the study found that Gen Z shared similar values with the other two generations, as well as some values where they differed. For instance, Gen Z participants differ from Gen X and Millennials in ambition and traditional values but they were similar to Gen X in authority, autonomy, environmental sustainability, helping and supporting, rule respecting, social justice and variety.

The results of t-test and ANOVA analyses conducted to determine demographic differences, comparisons were made in terms of gender, income level, education level, marital status and tenure, and it was determined that there were significant differences in different dimensions. For instance, women scored significantly higher than men in these values respectively, ambition, environmental sustainability, rule respecting, safety and social justice. Singles scored significantly higher than married participants in autonomy, enjoyment and variety.

Finally, regression analyses were conducted to determine the effect of work values on the concepts of prosociality, innovative work behavior and organizational identification and significant results were obtained. Some of the results indicated that prosociality behaviors were affected by helping and supporting value in every generational group. Innovative work behaviors were affected by variety value in Millennials and Gen Z yet not in Gen X. Rule Respecting value has a significant impact on organizational identification among both Millennials and Gen X.

This study can be considered as an introductory study to study the characteristics of work values with an up-to-date measurement tool. It is thought that comparative analyses of work values in different sectors and awareness of different values attributed by generations will shed light on the development of practices that will contribute to different aspects of work life.

KEYWORDS: Work Values, Generation, Generational Differences, Prosociality, Innovative Work Behavior, Organizational Identification

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı, çalışma hayatında bir arada çalışmaya başlamak üzere olan üç kuşak arasındaki çalışma değerleri farklılıklarını incelemektir. İlk olarak, bir ön çalışmada, Schwartz'ın değerler teorisine dayanan Albrecht, Marty ve Brandon-Jones'un Çalışma Değerleri Anketi'nin Türkiye bağlamına uyarlama çalışması gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırmanın bu aşaması için 525 katılımcıdan oluşan bir örneklem kullanılmış ve toplanan veriler faktör analizine tabi tutulmuştur. Analiz sonucunda on bir faktörden oluşan güvenilir ve geçerli bir çalışma değerleri anketi elde edilmiştir.

Çalışmanın ikinci aşamasında bankacılık sektöründe çalışan beyaz yakalı X kuşağı ve Y kuşağından veri toplanmış; ayrıca henüz çalışma hayatına girmemiş, farklı üniversite ve bölümlerde eğitimlerine devam eden Z kuşağı da çalışmaya dahil edilmiştir. Çalışmanın bu aşamasında çalışma değerleri ile çalışma değerlerini etkilediği varsayılan üç değişken (prososyallik, yenilikçi iş davranışı ve örgütsel özdeşim) arasındaki ilişki araştırılmıştır. Kuşaklar arasındaki çalışma değerleri farklılıkları analiz edildikten sonra, çalışma değerlerinin her boyutunda farklı kuşaklar karşılaştırıldığında önemli farklılıklar olduğunu ortaya konmuştur. Kuşaklar bazı değerlerde farklılık gösterse de çalışma değerleri açısından tamamen farklı değillerdir; X kuşağı bazı değerlerde diğer kuşaklardan ayrılırken, Y kuşağı başka değerlerde diğer kuşaklara göre farklılık göstermektedir. Ayrıca, araştırma Z kuşağının diğer iki kuşakla benzer değerleri paylaştığını ve bazı değerlerde de farklılaştıklarını ortaya koymuştur. Örneğin Z kuşağı hem Y kuşağı hem de X kuşağı katılımcılarından çalışma azmi ve geleneksel değerlerde farklılaşırken, otorite, özerklik, çevresel sürdürülebilirlik, yardım etme ve destekleme, kurallara saygı, sosyal adalet ve çeşitlilik değerlerinde X kuşağı ile benzer eğilimler sergilemiştir.

Demografik farklılıkları belirlemek için yapılan t-testi ve ANOVA analizleri sonucunda cinsiyet, gelir düzeyi, eğitim düzeyi, medeni durum ve çalışma süresi açısından karşılaştırmalar yapılmış ve farklı boyutlarda anlamlı farklılıklar olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Bu analizlerin sonuçlarından bazıları, kadınların erkeklere göre çalışma azmi, çevresel sürdürülebilirlik, kurallara saygı, güvenlik ve çeşitlilik değerlerinde

farklılaştığını ortaya koyarken, bekarların evlilere göre özerklik, zevk alma ve çeşitlilik değerlerinde evlilere göre anlamlı olarak daha yüksek skor aldığını göstermektedir.

Son olarak iş değerlerinin prososyallik, yenilikçi iş davranışı ve örgütsel özdeşim kavramları üzerindeki etkisini belirlemek için regresyon analizleri yapılmış ve anlamlı sonuçlar elde edilmiştir. Buna göre prososyal davranışları tüm kuşak gruplarında etkileyen değerin yardım etme ve destekleme olduğu; yenilikçi iş davranışlarının Y ve Z kuşağında çeşitlilik değerinden etkilendiği ancak X kuşağı için bu değerin söz konusu davranışlar üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olmadığı ve örgütsel özdeşimin analiz edildiği her iki çalışan kuşak grubunda da kurallara saygı değerinden etkilendiği ortaya konmuştur.

Bu araştırma, çalışma değerlerinin özelliklerini güncel bir ölçüm aracı ile incelemek için giriş niteliğinde bir çalışma olarak değerlendirilebilir. Farklı sektörlerdeki çalışma değerlerinin karşılaştırmalı analizlerinin ve kuşakların atfettiği farklı değerlerin farkındalığının, çalışma hayatının farklı yönlerine katkı sağlayacak uygulamaların geliştirilmesine ışık tutacağı düşünülmektedir.

ANAHTAR KELİMELER: Çalışma Değerleri, Kuşaklar, Kuşaklar Arası Farklılıklar, Prososyallik, Yenilikçi İş Davranışları, Örgütsel Özdeşim

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ABBREVIATIONS

WVQ	Work Values Questionnaire
WGT	Work Goals Test
IWB	Innovative Work Behavior
OI	Organizational Identification

INTRODUCTION

Generations have long been an area of focus and research. In scientific publications, it is possible to find a lot of research, especially on Gen X and Millennials. On the other hand, there is no research that evaluates the work values of the three generations together, including Gen Z, which is about to start working life. Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to investigate whether work values differ across three generations; namely Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z.

Studies investigating the difference in values between generations have inconsistent results and generational studies are controversial. Therefore, it is difficult to obtain solid and generalizable findings in generational studies yet studying generations is compelling. Even though, every generation research brings great insights. This study aims to provide insights into the work values of generations and the differences between them, and examples of variables influenced by work values in a sample of Turkey.

The main hypothesis of this study is:

H1: *Work values differ significantly among generations.*

According to this hypothesis, other hypothesis will be:

H1a*: Authority and Ambition value differs significantly among Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z.*

H1b: *Autonomy value differs significantly among Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z.*

H1c: *Enjoyment value differs significantly among Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z.*

H1d: *Helping and Supporting value differs significantly among Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z.*

H1e: *Rule Respecting value differs significantly among Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z.*

H1f: *Safety value differs significantly among Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z.*

H1g: *Social and Environmental Justice value differs significantly among Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z.*

H1h: *Respect for Tradition and Norms value differs significantly among Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z.*

H1i: *Variety value differs significantly among Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z.*

This study will make two important contributions to the literature. First Turkish validity and reliability study of the Work Values Questionnaire (Albrecht et al. 2020), an up-to-date questionnaire based on Schwartz's values theory, will provide a new tool that can be used in future research in Turkey. Second, it will be the first research conducted in the banking sector in which two generations are considered together and their work values are examined. Third, the three generations including Gen Z will be compared for their work values for the first time.

Based on the results of this study, it is hoped that it will inspire new research in this field. It is expected that the results of the research will affect individuals' career choices, career paths, and their relationships with the organization and raise awareness to make better decisions. It is also predicted that what organizations will learn from such studies will provide a perspective on understanding the needs of employees and mutual satisfaction will increase with the development of organizational practices in accordance with values.

Additionally, this study explored the correlation between work values and specific organizational behavior concepts, namely prosocial behavior, innovative work behaviors, and organizational identification. Hence, research questions are how the effect of work values differs in these concepts according to generations.

Q1: *Do work values has varying effects on prosocial behaviors among generations?*

Q2: *Do work values has varying effects on innovative work behaviors among generations?*

Q3: *Do work values has varying effects on organizational identification among generations?*

1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section will provide an overview of the theory and research pertaining to work values as the main focus of this research. In addition to generations and their classification, research on generational differences will be reviewed. Furthermore, theoretical insights on the concepts of prosocial behaviors, innovative work behaviors, and organizational identification will be presented.

1.1. Values

In this section, the concept of value and value classifications will be discussed, and the work values will also be held based on the concept of value.

1.1.1. Definition of Values

The concept of value has been the subject of research in many different disciplines, such as philosophy, psychology, economics, theology, political science, and sociology. All disciplines address this concept from their perspective and differ in conceptualizing. Thus, many definitions of "value" in the literature have been discussed from different perspectives. On the other hand, a common acceptance among definitions of value is that values are essential in guiding our lives.

One of the earliest initiatives to define value was Kluckhohn's. Kluckhohn defined value as "a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of action." (Hills, 2002). Kluckhohn emphasized desirability in his definition, which means values are justified desires. According to him, values determine desirable or undesirable and regulate individuals' relationships with the environment by influencing attitudes (Robbins & Sommerschuh, 2016). Kluckhohn further thought that to explain the uniqueness of cultures; one should refer to the values shared by groups of people. This approach suggests that values are related to behaviors induced by cultural norms.

Rokeach (1979) defined the value concept as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence." From this perspective, it can be said that values

provide a sense of meaning to behaviors. People decide right and wrong based on their values (Rokeach, 1979). This approach regards values as a guide that direct individuals and guide them on where to direct themselves.

Hofstede (2000) defined value as “a broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others” and emphasized the guiding characteristic of values, as many other researchers. According to Hofstede, this definition is mainly in line with the definitions provided by Kluckhohn (1951) and Rokeach (1979), and value is a critical construct in describing the concept he named “mental software” (Hofstede, 2000).

Schwartz defines values as “conceptions of the desirable that guide how social actors (e.g., organizational leaders, policymakers, individual persons) select actions, evaluate people and events and explain their actions and evaluations. They are trans-situational criteria or goals, ordered by importance as guiding principles in life” (Schwartz, 1999).

According to Cieciuch and Schwartz (2017), values can be examined from different perspectives. One perspective is the internal perspective, which involves understanding the content of values, their roles in psychological functioning, and their relationship to the essence of human beings. Cieciuch and Schwartz referred to this as "the internal perspective of values." On the other hand, the external perspective, also known as the cultural perspective, focuses on how values are generated and acquired. Within the external perspective, Cieciuch and Schwartz (2017) distinguish between the first perspective, which views humans as creators of values, and the latter, which sees humans as influenced and partly shaped by the values that form a fundamental part of their culture.

The definition of value in the Turkish language can be translated as “the abstract criterion for determining the importance of something, the equivalent that something is worth, the explanation of preciousness” (http://sozluk.gov.tr).

In sum, philosophy defines values as the quality that shows the measure of the importance of something and makes it meaningful, desirable, valuable, or a subject of interest. In psychology, a value is a very stable and deep belief that a specific style of behavior or life goal is superior to another, and in sociology, this quality determines the importance of objects and events for a society.

1.1.2. Main Features of Values

In his comprehensive study on values, Schwartz (2012) reviewed what different theorists have written on values and proposed six characteristics of values:

(1) Values are beliefs.
(2) Values refer to desirable goals.
(3) Values transcend specific actions and situations.
(4) Values serve as standards or criteria.
(5) Values are ordered by importance.
(6) The relative importance of multiple values guides action.

In summary, value can be considered as rules that affect our behaviors throughout life, guide us towards goals, have different degrees of importance within themselves, have continuity, can change, and are desirable.

1.1.3. Theories of Values

This section will discuss pioneering theories of values studies and the scope of these theories will be briefly outlined. Since the value theory that this dissertation is based on is the theory developed by Schwartz, his value classification and its characteristics will be discussed further.

As a result of the research on values, many different classifications have been made. One of the points where social sciences differ within this subject is the classification of values. All these approaches essentially have two fundamental differences: individual and social values. Individual values play an essential role in personal character development and reflect individuals' character. On the other hand, social values are generalized principles and beliefs that are accepted as appropriate and necessary by the majority of members of a social group or society to ensure and maintain its existence, unity, functioning, and continuity and reflect the shared feelings, thoughts, goals and interests of the same members (Cieciuch, Schwartz & Davidov, 2015).

In social sciences, attempts have been made to classify the value concept within psychology, social psychology, and sociology. These differences in the classification of values

stem from individual and social perspectives. Early efforts in value theorizing started with Spranger in 1914, and Allport and Vernon followed with a similar root in 1931 (Cieciuch, Schwartz & Davidov, 2015). These theorists based their theories on Dilthey's psychological and philosophical writings. Spranger proposed that human personality diversity could be explained by six dominant values that characterize each of the following personality types: Theoretical (truth, intellect, criticism, and individualism), Economic (usefulness, frugality, practicality), Aesthetic (harmony, beauty, form), Religious (a sense of unity with the world, a quest for unity through spiritual development), Social (love, respect, help for people), and Political (power, control over people, not necessarily in the political sphere). Spranger believed that individuals possess a combination of these types, with one being more dominant than the others (Cieciuch, Schwartz & Davidov, 2015).

Allport and Vernon (1931) provided a four-fold rationale for why values should be privileged in studying personality. First, they argued that examining isolated traits, abilities, or other particular constructs provides an incomplete view of personality. It merely presents fragments of a person rather than a comprehensive picture. They asserted that personality is not merely the sum of separate components but an overarching structure that determines those elements. Second, they contended that each person's personality is a unique system that cannot be directly compared with others, and this assumption is essential for a scientific study of personality. Third, they argued that a suitable construct for exploring personality must be able to describe each person as a cohesive system and provide a precise account of the range of human personalities, which led them to conclude that the value construct is best suited for this purpose (Cieciuch, Schwartz & Davidov, 2015).

1.1.3.1. Milton Rokeach and Values

As mentioned earlier in the section defining value, Milton Rokeach defines value as a life purpose and a particular way of behaving. Rather than considering values separately, Rokeach (1979) argued that it is more appropriate to consider the high-order values in many cultures holistically. Based on this view, he claimed that there is a system of values.

Rokeach (1979) emphasized value continuity and argued that individual and social change would be impossible if values were stable and unchangeable. Rokeach considered values in terms of interest and efficacy and considered them "preferred goals" or beliefs that determine preferences in behavior or state of being, significantly influencing subsequent

studies. Accordingly, Rokeach defined 36 values and categorized them into two groups: terminal values and instrumental values (Rokeach, 1973). Terminal values are the individual's preferred goals and represent both personal and social values. Terminal values include freedom, equality, happiness, salvation, and a world at peace (Cieciuch, Schwartz & Davidov, 2015). These values can be person-centered or community-centered, and self-oriented or interpersonal. On the other hand, instrumental values consist of moral and competence values that reflect an individual's preferred behavior patterns. Unlike terminal values, instrumental values focus more on personal behavior than self-actualization and interpersonal skills. Examples of instrumental values are capable, clean, courageous, imaginative, logical, and polite (Debats, 1996). Rokeach (1973) claims that each person has terminal and instrumental values that make up their value system, which is organized in a hierarchy of importance. Rokeach's point of view has been widely accepted in value literature and inspired many researchers to work on it extensively.

1.1.3.2. Geert Hofstede and Values

Hofstede's theory of cultural values was developed to identify and compare cultural differences between societies. Hofstede's theory (2000) posits a direct relationship between individuals' values and their nation's culture. He observed that each nation has its unique cultural life, which is reflected in the values of its people. Values are considered a holistic construct shaped within a culture, and their manifestation may vary across societies. Furthermore, values are considered an integral part of the culture, and their holistic nature may differ depending on the context.

Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory is based on an extensive survey he conducted in the late 1960s and early 1970s at IBM, which examined cultural value differences among different company divisions in 50 countries across three regions. The study involved more than 116,000 IBM employees and aimed to identify common patterns of values among different cultures. The survey results led to the development of Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory, a widely used framework for understanding cultural differences in the workplace and beyond. He identified four cultural dimensions that illustrate these differences (Hofstede, 2000).

Individualism vs. Collectivism. This dimension is categorized into two groups based on whether an individual prioritizes their needs or the needs of their society or group. Individualistic societies place greater importance on personal needs, whereas collectivistic societies prioritize the community's needs over the individual's.

Power Distance. This dimension relates to how the unequal distribution of power in institutions and organizations is accepted in society. High power distance societies place great importance on status, position, and title, making it challenging to approach individuals with such attributes. In contrast, low power distance societies prioritize strong communication, collaborative decision-making, and collective action.

Masculinity vs. Femininity. This dimension refers to the roles that society attributes to gender. For example, feminine cultures emphasize values such as sharing, establishing good relationships, humility, prioritizing human relations over material gain, benevolence, compassion, mercy, kindness, loyal, tolerance, and working for a living. Masculine cultures, on the other hand, value freedom, responsibility, risk-taking, creativity, productivity, self-assertion, displaying success, attaching importance to money, assertiveness, dominance, materialistic tendencies, competition, and living to work.

Uncertainty Avoidance. This dimension focuses on how people view uncertain situations as acceptable. For example, societies with high uncertainty avoidance tend to have a low tolerance for risk-taking and openness to new ideas, often relying on security-building tools like technology, law, and religion. Conversely, in societies with low uncertainty avoidance, there is a greater willingness to accept new ideas, take risks, and be tolerant of diverse behaviors and ideas.

Later in the 1980s, based on the research conducted in the Far East by Canadian psychologist Michael Harris Bond, a fifth dimension, Long-Term versus Short-Term Orientation was added (Hofstede & Bond, 1988), which was followed by a sixth dimension, Indulgence vs. Restraint, in the 2000s after the research of Bulgarian scholar Michael Minkov (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010; Hofstede, 2011).

Short-term vs. Long-term Orientation. This dimension relates to how cultures promote postponing immediate satisfaction or fulfilling their members' material, social, and emotional desires. In long-term-oriented societies, people plan for the future, have savings for investment, and are patient and dynamic. In short-term oriented societies, on the other hand, people are static, focused on the present, and expecting immediate results after each activity.

Indulgence vs. Restraint. This dimension refers to the degree of freedom that societal norms give to citizens in fulfilling their human desires. Indulgence stands for a society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human desires related to enjoying life

and having fun. Restraint stands for a society that controls gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms.

1.1.3.3. Shalom H. Schwartz and Values

Schwartz (1992) tried to define the content of core values that people in different cultures would accept and the structural relationship between these values. In Schwartz's theory, he defined ten motivational values and proposed a structure for conflict dynamics and harmony between them. These dynamics constitute the structure of a relationship between values in different cultural groups, and they are humanitarian. Moreover, it reveals a universal structure in motives.

Schwartz proposes that his values have a universal basis and are grounded in three fundamental human needs. These include the individual's need for personal well-being and growth, social interaction and communication, and the group's need to function and survive to maintain social order and cohesion. Schwartz and Bilsky (1990) found that the ten types of values are universal across cultures, as they are based on the three basic needs. These values are universalism, benevolence, conformity, tradition, security, power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction. Furthermore, Schwartz claims that each value can be defined by describing its core motivational objective (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003):

Universalism. This value is characterized by protecting and recognizing all humanity’s and nature’s welfare.

Benevolence. This value is characterized by protecting, recognizing, and improving the welfare of the people who are acquaintances.

Conformity. This value is characterized by refraining from actions, behaviors, and impulses that could potentially harm or disturb others and violate social norms or expectations.

Tradition. This value is characterized by respecting, committing, and accepting the customs and beliefs imposed by one's culture or religion.

Security. This value is characterized by maintaining social order, stability, and security in relationships and within oneself.

Power. This value is characterized by pursuing social status, power, control, and dominance over people and resources.

Achievement. This value is characterized by attaining personal success by demonstrating competence based on social norms and standards.

Hedonism. This value is characterized by indulgence in personal enjoyment and sensory pleasure.

Stimulation. This value is characterized by seeking novelty, change, and challenges in life to experience the excitement.

Self-direction. This value is characterized by the inclination to think and act independently.

According to this theory, the clusters of values within each type vary across cultures. Therefore, Schwartz categorized values into core values based on cultural differences (Schwartz, 2012).

Schwartz (1992) argues that values are intrinsic to all individuals according to their content and structure and are cognitive reflections of the three universal needs. These are the basic needs of individuals as biological organisms (stimulation, etc.), the needs for successful interpersonal interaction (benevolence, etc.), and the needs for the survival of groups and societies (conformity, etc.).

Schwartz (2005) points out that the most critical characteristics of values are the motivational purposes they express. Each value has a distinct motivational purpose and is also interrelated with other values. As a result, some values are harmonious, while others have opposing qualities. Schwartz described these relationships between values in The Schwartz value circumplex (See Figure 1). According to this diagram, the arrangement of values in a circular pattern represents a motivation continuum and represents the patterns of conflict and harmony among these values (Schwartz, 1994; 2001; 2005). As the circumplex shows, the opposing dimensions of 'self-enhancement vs. self-transcendence and 'openness to change vs. conservation' can describe the unified structure of the ten core values. In the first dimension (self-enhancement vs. self-transcendence), opposing values are power and achievement versus universalism and benevolence. At one end of this dimension, there is an emphasis on self-interest and its preservation, while at the other end, the focus is on the well-being and interests

of others. In the second dimension (openness to change vs. conservation), opposing values are self-direction and stimulation versus security, conformity, and tradition. In this dimension, independence, readiness for new actions, and thoughts are mentioned at one end, while self-restraint, commitment to order, and resistance to change are mentioned at the other end (Schwartz, 2005; Borg, Groenen, Jehn, Bilsky & Schwartz, 2009; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1994). All cultures recognize a set of values that exist on a motivation continuum. These values are universal and present in all societies. Therefore, the researcher's objectives can determine the specific values on the motivational continuum. However, the order of the circular continuum predefines the relationships among the values that the researcher chooses (Cieciuch, Schwartz & Davidov, 2015).

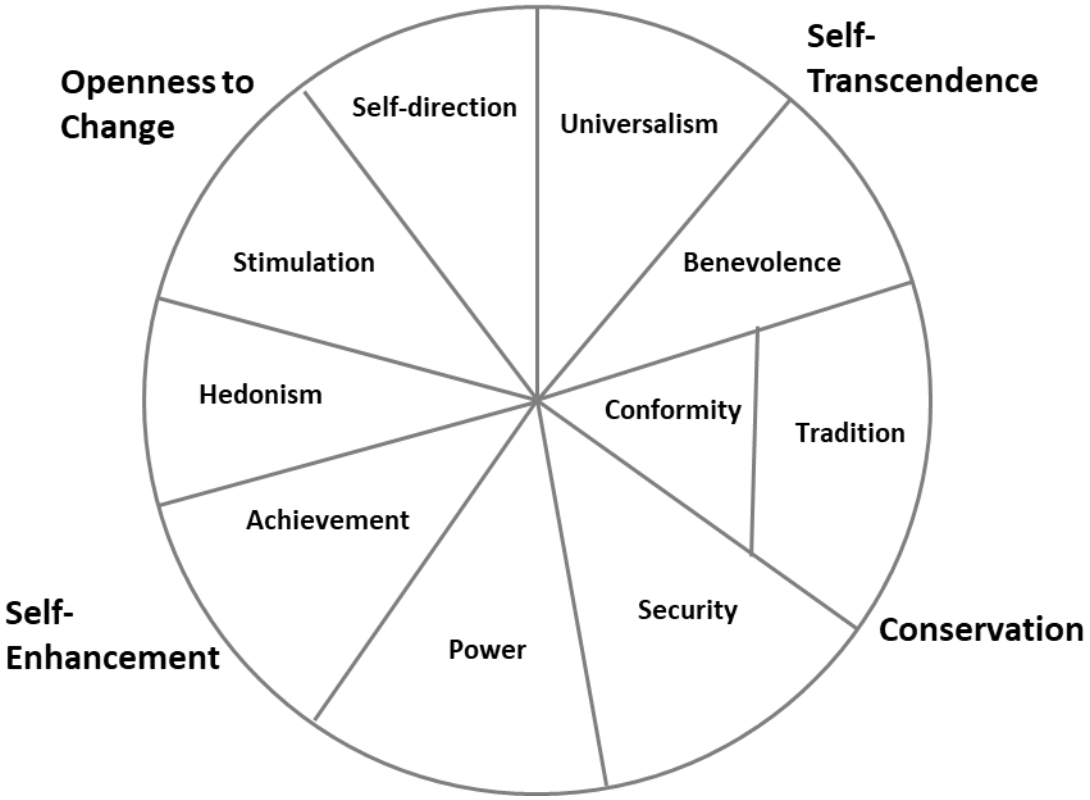

Figure 1. The Schwartz Value Circumplex

Source: Borg, Groenen, Jehn, Bilsky, & Schwartz (2009), p. 23.

The main focus of research on values has been the definition of values in different cultures. At the same time, the question of whether global values can be defined or not is also an important research topic. Schwartz's studies in this area have inspired many researchers, and not only basic values but also work values have emerged from these efforts. In the following chapter, work values will be explained, and some research areas will be defined.

1.2. Work Values

In this section, work values, the basic elements that determine work values, and the relationship between life and work values will be examined.

1.2.1. Definition of Work Values

Most individuals in the workforce aspire to obtain better salaries, positions of respect, positive relationships with colleagues and superiors, and comfortable working conditions. Nevertheless, the significance accorded to these work values differs among individuals. People pursue special incentives that correspond with their varied work values. Work values can be broadly characterized as an individual worker's desired outcomes (Ueda & Ozhono, 2013).

Many researchers provide definitions of work values, similar to the case with the values construct. Duffy (2010) defined work values as "what a person wants out of work in general and also what components of a job are important to his or her work satisfaction." In another definition, work values are "evaluative standards relating to work or the work environment by which individuals discern what is right or assess the importance of preferences" (Dose, 1997).

Work values can be defined as individuals' beliefs about the attributes of jobs that make them worthwhile and fulfilling. They are the qualities of work that individuals perceive as meaningful and satisfying (Kanungo, 1982). Work values are the basic beliefs that guide attitudes and behaviors in the work domain. They are the fundamental principles or standards that individuals use to evaluate their work experiences.

Nord et al (1990) defined work values as end goals that influence individuals' work-related preferences and can be achieved through work activities. From the viewpoint of the theory of basic human values, work goals or values are specific expressions of general values in the work setting (Ros, Schwartz & Surkis, 1999). According to Ros et al. (1999) work values are beliefs, similar to basic values, regarding desirable end-states or behaviors in the context of work. These goals are prioritized based on their importance as guiding principles for evaluating work outcomes and settings, and for selecting from among different work options. However, work values are more specific than basic individual values since they only apply to goals in the work setting.

In summary, most definitions of work values concur with the idea that work values are personal beliefs about what is important or valuable in the workplace. These beliefs guide an individual's decisions and behaviors in their work life and help them set goals that individuals actively work towards accomplishing within their work environment. The theory and research on work values assume that they stem from an individual's entire value system, which guides them across various life domains. However, unlike general life values, work values are more particular to the work domain and can affect the significance of work in an individual's life.

1.2.2. Classification of Work Values

Nord et al. (1990) proposed a classification of work values based on their types. According to their framework, work values can be categorized as either intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic work values relate to end-states that arise from the process of working or engaging in work-related activities, such as a sense of achievement, and depend on the nature of the work itself. On the other hand, extrinsic work values pertain to end-states that result from work, irrespective of the nature of the work, such as financial security or benefits for family members.

Elizur (1994) proposed a similar trichotomous classification of work values based on the modality of their outcomes. The first work value in this classification refers to instrumental outcomes such as working conditions, pay, and benefits. The second work value includes an affective element and refers to social relations with associates, thus named the affective outcome. The third component is called the cognitive work outcome and refers to responsibility, interest, and achievement.

Ros et al. (1999) associated the previously grouped categories of work values with Schwartz's values theory and stated that these work values conceptually parallel three of the higher-order basic human values. Specifically, intrinsic work values directly express openness to change values, such as the pursuit of autonomy, interest, growth, and creativity in work. On the other hand, extrinsic work values express conservation values, such as job security and income, which provide workers with the requirements needed for general security and maintenance of order in their lives. Work values related to social or interpersonal aspects represent a desire for self-transcendence values, whereby work is viewed as a means of promoting positive social connections and making a contribution to society. Ros et al. (1999) suggested that according to the theory of basic individual values, there ought to be a fourth type of work values that corresponds to the self-enhancement higher-order value type. This type of

work values, like self-enhancement, would relate to the pursuit of prestige or power. Empirical studies on work frequently include items pertaining to prestige, authority, influence, power, and achievement.

1.2.3. Antecedents of Work Values

The antecedents of work values include variables such as age, education, gender, occupation, personality, culture, socioeconomics, and genetics. In this section, the antecedents that are related in the scope of this research will be explained.

Age. Although the relationship between work values and age has been addressed in many studies, it is not possible to talk about consistent results. According to Turgut (2017), while some studies mention values that become stronger with age, some studies mention that some values decrease with age. Therefore, it is recommended to use cohort analyses rather than age variables in research on work values. A cohort refers to a group of people who were born around the same time and are expected to share common experiences that differentiate them from other groups. The distinguishing factor for a cohort is only their chronological proximity to events and other factors that may cause differences among groups. Therefore, it is suggested that cohort analyses be used in research on work values instead of age variables (Parry, Urwin & 2010).

Education. There has not been much research on the relationship between the level of education and work values; however, when this variable was considered in some studies, it was observed that the values given importance differed according to the level of education. Some studies conducted in the Turkish sample indicate that the importance attributed to instrumental values decreases as the level of education increases (Turgut & Tevrüz, 2003).

Gender. When we look at the relationship between gender -which is the variable most frequently discussed in the research- and work values, it can be said that gender roles show the effect on the importance ranking of values. Elizur (1994) studied work values and gender differences. The study discovered that men tend to place more significance on power and achievement, whereas women tend to prioritize social and communal values. Additionally, the research found that women are more likely to value work-life balance and flexible work arrangements compared to men. Elizur's conclusion was that societal expectations and gender role socialization contribute to gender differences in work values. However, more recent studies

have also found that there are no significant differences between men and women in terms of work values (Turgut, 2017).

Occupation. One notable aspect of research on the occupational variable is that the association with work values begins with the selection of a career. Studies suggest that the personal values that individuals prioritize are influential in their career choices, and that these values are reinforced through socialization with colleagues during the course of their profession (Turgut, 2017).

Culture. When the historical development of work values is examined, it is observed that studies have evolved as culture, culture-value relationship and value-work value relationship. As much as cultures have similar aspects, they are also differentiated and have completely unique characteristics. It is known that these unique characteristics have an impact on both life values and work values. Elizur (1991), in his study focusing on determining the differences between cultures, successfully identified the points where western and eastern cultures differ. In studies conducted in the Turkish sample, it has been determined that there are points of differentiation compared to Western cultures (Karakitapoğlu et al., 2008; Tevrüz, Turgut, Çinko 2015). Kağıtçıbaşı (2005) proposes the concept of autonomous-relational self as a characteristic feature of Turkish culture. Autonomy is not perceived from an individualistic perspective among Turks. There is an intersection between autonomy and relatedness.

1.2.4. Consequences of Work Values

Since work values are the basic beliefs that guide attitudes and behaviors in the work domain, many studies have proven that they have a direct relationship with the behavior patterns exhibited in work life. Within these studies, variables such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and job performance have been addressed. The relationship between work values and job satisfaction has generally been found to be positively related in studies; it has been reported that different values come to the fore in different studies and affect job satisfaction at different levels (Knoop, 1994; Moniarou-Papaconstantinou & Triantafyllou, 2015; Xiao & Froese, 2008; Busque-Carrier, Ratelle & Le Corff, 2021). In research on the relationship between organizational commitment and work values, there is evidence that work values are related to all three dimensions of organizational commitment, but different studies have reported different value-dimension relationships. On

the other hand, most of the studies on the relationship between work values and performance have shown that work values have a positive effect on performance (Turgut, 2017).

Although relationships with different variables have been investigated in work values research, areas where work values differ, cross-cultural comparisons, and intergenerational comparisons have been more popular research topics. In the following chapter on generations, some of the studies on this topic will be covered.

1.3. Generations

This section will examine the historical development of generations and their classifications in the literature. The classifications commonly used in the literature, namely the Silent Generation, Baby Boomers, Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z, will serve as the basis for the analysis.

1.3.1. Definition of Generations

Turkish Language Society (TDK) considers the word "generation" as a philosophical concept and defines it as a group of people who were born in approximately the same years, shared the same conditions of the same age, thus similar troubles and fates, and were obliged to similar duties. Based on the sociological definition in TDK, a generation refers to a cohort of individuals born within an age range of approximately twenty-five to thirty years, also known as a birth cohort. (http://sozluk.gov.tr).

Karl Mannheim is widely considered the first researcher to provide a clear and systematic definition of generation in academic literature (Edmunds & Turner, 2005). In his essay "The Problem of Generations" (1952), Mannheim introduced the concept of generational location and argued that generations are social groups that share a common historical and social experience. This work has significantly shaped the field of generational studies and laid the foundation for subsequent research on the topic (Edmunds & Turner, 2005; Corsten, 1999; Pilcher, 1994).

Following Karl Mannheim's foundational work on generations, numerous researchers have contributed to the study of generations: Strauss and Howe (1991) proposed a theory of recurring generational cycles in American history, developing distinct archetypes for each

generation. Inglehart (1997) examined value shifts and generational change across different societies, focusing on the impact of economic development and cultural change. Twenge (2006) has conducted extensive research on generational differences in personality, values, and attitudes, particularly focusing on Millennials and subsequent generations. Finally, Arnett (2000) developed the theory of "emerging adulthood," examining the unique developmental stage experienced by young people in modern societies and its implications for generational differences. These researchers have made significant contributions to the study of generations, building upon and expanding Mannheim's original work in various ways (Eyerman & Turner, 1998; Twenge & Campbell, 2012).

In the early literature, various definitions of generations were made. One belongs to American authors and historians Strauss and Howe (1991). These authors define a generation as a cohort of people who share a common age location in history and are shaped by a particular set of historical events, trends, and developments. They argue that each generation has a collective persona shaped by their shared experiences (Strauss & Howe 1991). Another definition is a "social location" where individuals born during a specific time period share a common historical experience and a similar cultural context that shapes their lives and worldview (Pilcher, 1994). At this stage, another researcher, Inglehart (1997), introduces the concept of "value generations." He argues that generations differ based on their value systems, shaped by the socio-economic conditions and historical events they experience during their formative years.

In the 2000s, some authors have put forward different definitions. Twenge (2006) defines generations based on their birth cohorts and argues that each generation has a distinct personality shaped by the cultural environment in which they are raised. Costanza et al. (2012) describe generations as distinct groups of people born and shaped during a specific period, with common characteristics that differentiate them from other generational cohorts. They focus on generational differences in work-related attitudes, values, and behaviors. Kowske et al. (2010) define a generation as a cohort of individuals who experience similar social and historical events during their formative years, leading to the development of a shared perspective on life, work, and society.

When the common points of the definitions are analyzed, it is seen that three elements stand out (Parry & Urwin, 2011; Costanza & Finkelstein, 2015):

(1) Shared experiences: All definitions emphasize that shared experiences and common historical events shape generations during their formative years.

(2) Cohort: Each definition refers to a generation as a cohort or group of individuals born and living during a specific period.

(3) Social and cultural context: The definitions highlight the role of social and cultural contexts in influencing each generation's attitudes, values, and behaviors.

When the elements where the definitions differ are analyzed, it is seen that three elements stand out (Costanza & Finkelstein, 2015; Parry & Urwin, 2011):

(1) Focus. Some definitions, such as Mannheim (1952) and Pilcher (1994), emphasize the sociological aspect of generations and focus on social location and generational consciousness. Others, like Inglehart (1997), concentrate on value systems, while Twenge (2006) and Costanza et al. (2012) focus on generational differences in attitudes and behaviors.

(2) Conceptualization. Some definitions consider generations as social constructs, while others see them as distinct groups with unique characteristics (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

(3) Application: Some definitions apply the concept of generation to specific domains, such as work-related attitudes and values (Costanza et al., 2012; Kowske et al., 2010), while others take a broader approach and examine generations' influence on society and culture at large (Inglehart, 1997; Mannheim, 1952).

Several researchers have focused on generations in the context of work values and organizational behavior. One of them is Smola and Sutton (2002), who define generations as individuals born within a particular time frame and sharing common social and historical experiences, which can have lasting effects throughout their lives. The definition provided by the authors aligns with many of the other definitions of generation discussed earlier in that it emphasizes shared experiences, common values, and the impact of historical and cultural events during formative years. However, their focus on work values and organizational behavior is the primary distinction. In contrast, other definitions may focus on different aspects of generational differences, such as societal values, culture, or attitudes toward life in general. In other words, their definition has shifted the focus of generations from being solely based on age to acknowledging that the effects of global events on society also play a significant role in shaping

generational identity. Furthermore, they argue that these shared experiences lead to generational differences in work values, which can impact organizational behavior.

Subsequently, various researchers have conducted various studies focusing on generations in the context of work values and organizational behavior. Lyons, Duxbury, and Higgins (2007) assess generational differences in basic human values and how these differences influence work values, attitudes, and organizational behavior. Ng, Schweitzer, and Lyons (2010) conduct a field study of the Millennial generation, focusing on their work values, expectations, and potential implications for organizations and human resource management practices. Twenge and colleagues (2010) define generations based on birth years and focus on the differences in work values between them. They specifically investigate leisure, extrinsic, social, and intrinsic work values, examining how these values have changed over time and how they influence organizational behavior. Cogin (2012) investigates generational differences in work values across multiple countries, examining the impact of these differences on human resource management practices and organizational outcomes. Finally, Lester and colleagues (2012) explore the gap between actual and perceived generational differences in work values and attitudes, focusing on the implications for leadership and organizational behavior. As can be seen, these studies examine generational differences in various contexts, such as birth years, basic human values, and global perspectives.

Taking into account all the definitions of generations, generation can be defined as "a group of people who spend a certain period of life or approximately twenty-two years of a thirty-year life span together, who acquire certain common experiences due to the period in which they were born, who experience philosophical, historical, and social events together, and who have specific characteristics by sharing a certain period in their lives" (Rajput, Bhatia & Malhotra, 2019). These shared experiences lead to distinct characteristics and work values that can influence their behavior and interactions within organizations and society. The personality of a generation can influence people's expectations from work, their desired work environment, and their approach to fulfilling those expectations. These desires tend to differ from generation to generation, which can cause difficulties in understanding each other's viewpoints and lead to stress, confusion, and frustration (Gürsoy et al., 2008).

1.3.2. Classification of Generations

The current era is home to five distinct generations: the Silent Generation, Baby Boomers, Gen X, Gen Y, and Gen Z. These generations possess unique characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors molded by diverse historical events and encounters (Ercömert & Güneş, 2021).

The studies in scientific literature primarily took place in Western countries, focusing on the United States. However, in practical settings, there has been a tendency to assume that American generational definitions are universally applicable, or at least applicable to other Westernized nations such as the United Kingdom and Australia (Parry & Urwin, 2011). On the other hand, given the differences in national cultures (Hofstede, 2000), cultures in the Middle East or Asia may differ in the classification of generations. Despite this diverse view, most researchers believe that the country and national culture significantly impact generational classification and that the cultural structure of society shapes generational identity. Nevertheless, global generations have emerged due to the advancement of technology and increased communication and interaction (Edmunds & Turner, 2005).

There are different approaches to the classification of generations. The classification based on this study is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Classification of Generations

Born between years:	**Generation:**
1925-1945	Silent Generation
1946-1964	Baby Boomers
1965-1979	Gen X
1980-1999	Millennials
2000 and later	Gen Z

1.3.2.1. Silent Generation

This generation, called the Silent Generation, encompasses individuals born between 1925 and 1945 (Strauss & Howe, 1991). They have experienced significant historical events,

such as the Great Depression, the Dust Bowl, the Second World War, and the Korean War. This generation was known for being reserved and lacking the freedom to express their beliefs openly. Individuals from the Silent Generation exhibit personal characteristics such as diligence, sacrifice, a seniority-based approach to performance, and rewards in their professional lives (Putnam, 2000). Their strong preference for authority makes them highly sought after in the business world, and they generally adhere to the principles of "work hard" and "work before play." Having experienced the Great Depression and war years, the members of this generation have been motivated to work hard.

Some of the core values often attributed to this generation include:

Hard Work. This is a fundamental aspect of the Silent Generation's beliefs. This generation perceives hard work and a strong work ethic as the key to achieving success and stability (Putnam, 2000). This emphasis on hard work is deeply rooted in their experiences during the Great Depression and World War II, when many people had to work tirelessly to make ends meet and contribute to the war effort (Elder, 1999).

Frugality. The Silent Generation is characterized by their value of frugality, which stems from their experiences during World War II and the Great Depression when resources were limited. (Elder, 1999). This value can be seen in the way that members of this generation approach money and spending, often prioritizing saving and financial security over material possessions (Putnam, 2000).

Respect for Authority. Respect for authority is commonly associated with the Silent Generation. Members of this cohort were raised in a time when obedience to authority figures, such as parents, teachers, and government officials, was highly emphasized (Mannheim, 1952). This value is also linked to the Silent Generation's respect for tradition and established social norms.

Duty and Loyalty. These are two values that are often associated with the Silent Generation. This cohort is known for their strong sense of duty, whether it be to their family, community, or country (Strauss, Howe, 1991). They also place a high value on loyalty, whether it be to their employer or to their friends and family.

Discipline and Self-sacrifice. Discipline and self-sacrifice are values that are often attributed to the Silent Generation. This cohort is known for their disciplined approach to life

and their willingness to prioritize the needs of the collective over personal desires (Pilcher, 1994). This value is rooted in their experiences during times of war and economic hardship, when individuals had to make sacrifices for the greater good.

Stability and Security. Due to the economic and social upheavals of their youth, the Silent Generation values stability and security in various aspects of life, such as employment, family, and community (Twenge, 2014). This generation grew up during a time of economic hardship and instability, which has led them to place a high value on financial security and stability (Koenig, Gogel, 2014). This value is linked to their belief in the significance of making preparations for the future and taking steps to ensure a stable and secure life.

Respect for Tradition. Respect for tradition is another core value of the Silent Generation. This cohort is known for their adherence to traditional values and their belief in the importance of preserving cultural and societal norms (Putnam, 2000). This value is linked to their experiences during a time of social upheaval and rapid change, which has led them to place a high value on stability and continuity.

It is true that the Silent Generation is no longer in the workforce, and as a result, observing their characteristics directly in today's workforce is impossible. However, research has found that the values and beliefs of a generation can have a lasting impact on society and subsequent generations. For example, the emphasis on loyalty, discipline, and duty instilled in the Silent Generation has been found to have a significant impact on subsequent generations, including Baby Boomers, Gen X, and Millennials (Smola, Sutton, 2002). The values of the Silent Generation have also been found to influence societal norms and cultural values, such as the emphasis on family unity and respect for tradition (Twenge, Campbell, 2009).

Furthermore, research has found that the values and behaviors of different generations can have a significant impact on the workplace, even after the generation in question has retired. For example, a study by Mauer and colleagues (2016) found that the work values of the Silent Generation have had a lasting impact on workplace norms and practices, even in organizations where the majority of employees are from younger generations. This suggests that the values and behaviors of the Silent Generation are still relevant and can be observed indirectly through the influence they have had on subsequent generations.

In conclusion, while observing the characteristics of the Silent Generation directly in today's workforce is impossible, their values and beliefs have had a lasting impact on society

and subsequent generations and can still be observed indirectly through their influence on workplace norms and practices.

1.3.2.2. Baby Boomers

Individuals in the Baby Boomer generation were born during a notable birth rate increase following World War II. This generation is often described as reshaping society due to its large numbers. They grew up during the 1950s and 1960s, a time of increased urbanization and welfare, and were part of the unique cultural development of that era (Becton, Harvel, Jones-Farmer, 2014). The formation of this generation has been significantly influenced by events such as the Woodstock festival in 1969, the Vietnam War, the assassination of President Kennedy, the civil rights and women's rights movements, the proliferation of cars, and the development of television. In addition, this generation, which enjoyed a healthier lifestyle after the war, has had access to strong education and job opportunities due to a robust economy (Fishman, 2016).

Some of the core values often attributed to this generation include:

Idealism. Baby Boomers are often characterized as an idealistic generation, motivated by their desire to make the world a better place. This value is rooted in their experiences during the Civil Rights Movement and, the Vietnam War era, other social and political movements of the 1960s. Baby Boomers believed that they could affect positive change through collective action and that they had a responsibility to do so (Kivnick, 1987). As a result, many Baby Boomers have been involved in lifelong social activism and community organizing.

Individualism. Baby Boomers are known for their strong sense of individualism and self-expression. Their experiences during a time of remarkable economic prosperity and social change led to this value's formation. As a result, Baby Boomers have been more likely to pursue careers and lifestyles that reflect their personal interests and values rather than following traditional paths laid out by society (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). This has led to greater diversity in terms of career choices and lifestyle preferences among Baby Boomers.

Work Ethic. Baby Boomers are often characterized as hardworking and ambitious, valuing career success and achievement. This value is linked to their experiences during economic growth and opportunity. Many Baby Boomers entered the workforce during relative prosperity, and their career aspirations were often driven by a desire for financial security and

upward mobility (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004). As a result, Baby Boomers have been more likely to identify with their work and to view their careers as central to their identities.

Health and Wellness. Baby Boomers place a high value on health and wellness, with many members prioritizing healthy lifestyles and preventative healthcare. This value is linked to their experiences as the first generation to benefit from modern healthcare technologies and research. Baby Boomers are more likely to prioritize healthy living and seek healthcare services that promote longevity and quality of life (Callan & Kalleberg, 2011). As a result, there is now more focus on preventive healthcare, including routine check-ups and screenings and lifestyle modifications that promote general well-being.

Optimism. Baby Boomers are often characterized as an optimistic generation, believing in the power of positive thinking and the potential for change. This value is linked to their experiences growing up during a time of social and political upheaval and their belief in the power of collective action to effect change. Baby Boomers are more likely to believe they can make a difference and embrace a can-do attitude when tackling challenges (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). As a result, there is now more focus on involving the community, volunteerism, as well as an overall spirit of optimism and resilience.

1.3.2.3. Gen X

Although the beginning and end dates vary among different authors, in this study, this generation will be referred to as those born between 1965 and 1979, as commonly mentioned in the literature.

This generation was born after the Baby Boomers and faced a rapidly evolving social and economic environment marked by an economic downturn. They grew up in families with two working parents, increasing divorce rates, downsizing, and the emergence of the high-tech and information age (Gürsoy et al., 2008). As a result, Gen X is considered the first generation whose parents work and are alone at home. Typically, Gen X grows up with the assistance of a caregiver, spending their time watching television at home and acquiring knowledge from this medium. Their alone time at home makes them trust their peers more than their family, developing certain attitudes (Love, 2005). Unlike the previous generation's prosperous life, the X generation was born when the Soviet Union collapsed, AIDS emerged, and severe economic crises and uncertainties were experienced (Zemke, Raines & Filipczak, 2013).

Some of the core values often attributed to this generation include:

Pragmatism. Generation X is often characterized as a pragmatic generation, valuing practical solutions to problems. This value is linked to their experiences growing up during a time of economic recession and social change. Many members of this generation learned to adapt to changing circumstances and find practical solutions to challenges. Their resourcefulness and ability to work with limited resources is a notable trait (Mannheim, 1952).

Entrepreneurial Spirit. Generation X is known for its entrepreneurial spirit and willingness to take risks. Their experiences growing up with personal computers and the internet have influenced their emphasis on this value. Many members of this generation have embraced the opportunities the digital age provides, leading to a greater emphasis on innovation and entrepreneurship. They are often self-starters willing to take risks to pursue their goals (Schein, 2010).

Work-Life Balance. Generation X places a high value on work-life balance, with many members prioritizing personal and family time over work commitments. This value is linked to their experiences as the first generation to grow up with working mothers and dual-income families. Many members of this generation have witnessed the impact of overworking and are more likely to prioritize family values and personal fulfillment (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Diversity and Inclusion. Generation X values diversity and inclusion, with many members embracing multiculturalism and social justice. This value is linked to their experiences growing up during a time of increased social and political awareness. Members of this generation have witnessed the struggle for civil rights and the emergence of new cultural identities. They are more likely to embrace diversity and work towards creating inclusive communities (Wilson & Chaddha, 2011).

Skepticism. Generation X is often characterized as skeptical, with a tendency to question authority and challenge the status quo. This value is linked to their experiences growing up during a time of political cynicism and disillusionment. Members of this generation have witnessed the Watergate scandal and other political scandals. They are more likely to challenge authority and question the motives of those in power (Twenge & Campbell, 2009).

1.3.2.4. Millennials

Although the beginning and end dates vary among different authors, in this study, this generation will be referred to as those born between 1980 and 1999, as commonly mentioned in the literature.

The accuracy of the description of the generation born between 1980-2000 as self-assured, proficient in technology, and skilled at utilizing and dominating technology is demonstrated by the fact that they emerged by the end of the 20th century. Their strong connection to technology can be seen as a contributing factor to the influence of technology on their personal and professional lives (Hurts & Good, 2009). The factors that make up the building blocks of the characteristics of Millennials can be demonstrated by globally shaking and deeply affecting events such as the Challenger Space Shuttle disaster in 1986, the fall of the Berlin Wall, the end of the Cold War, terrorist attacks between Iraq and Afghanistan, economic recession, and the 9/11 attacks (Zemke, Raines & Filipczak, 2013).

Some of the core values often attributed to this generation include:

Diversity and Inclusion. Millennials value diversity and inclusion, with many members embracing multiculturalism and social justice. This value is linked to their experiences growing up in a time of increased social and political awareness. Members of this generation are more likely to embrace diversity and work towards creating inclusive communities (Twenge & Campbell, 2018).

Technology and Innovation. Millennials are known for their technological savvy and embrace of innovations. This value is linked to their experiences growing up with the internet and social media. Millennials are more likely to use technology to connect with others and to find new ways to solve problems (Rainie & Wellman, 2012).

Work-Life Balance. Millennials prioritize balancing their work and personal life, with many members prioritizing personal and family time over work commitments. This value is linked to their experiences growing up during economic uncertainty and changing family structures. Members of this generation are more likely to prioritize flexible work arrangements and job satisfaction over traditional career paths (Baruch & Bozionelos, 2011).

Social Responsibility. Millennials value social responsibility, with many members embracing social and environmental causes. This value is linked to their experiences growing up in a time of increasing awareness of global issues. Millennials are more likely to support companies that prioritize social responsibility and engage in socially responsible behaviors (Barnett & Valentine, 2004).

Authenticity. Millennials value authenticity and transparency, with many members rejecting traditional marketing messages and preferring genuine and transparent brands. This value is linked to their experiences growing up with increased access to information and social media. Millennials are more likely to seek out authentic connections with others and value honest communication (Klein & Dawar, 2004).

1.3.2.5. Gen Z

It is more suitable to take the year 2000 as the beginning of this generation due to the widespread use of the internet, smartphones, laptops, freely accessible internet networks, and the emergence of digital media, as well as changes that took place during the 2000s since there is no demographic or sociological basis to accept 1995 as the starting point.

This generation, commonly called the "Digital Generation," is deeply integrated with technology, constantly engaged, and heavily reliant on it. Growing up in a digital world has equipped them to multitask and effectively use electronic devices such as smartphones, iPads, and computers. By following communication mainly through social media, they are able to connect with more people and access more information. Social networking channels allow them to stay informed about social issues, environmental events, economic crises, and contemporary challenges such as terrorism. In addition, they are adept at establishing and comprehending communication between different countries and cultures (Kapil & Roy, 2014).

Some of the core values often attributed to this generation include:

Diversity and Inclusion. Gen Z values diversity and inclusion, with many members embracing multiculturalism and social justice. This value is linked to their experiences growing up in an increasingly global and diverse world. Members of this generation are more likely to embrace diversity, challenge traditional norms, and advocate for social change (Twenge, 2018).

Technological Savvy. Gen Z is known for its technological proficiency and use of digital tools and social media. This value is linked to their experiences growing up with the internet and mobile technology. Gen Z is more likely to use technology to express themselves, stay informed, and connect with others (Nguyen & Huang, 2021).

Social Consciousness. Gen Z values social consciousness, with many members advocating for social and environmental issues. This value is linked to their experiences growing up in a time of increased awareness of global challenges. Members of this generation are more likely to engage in social activism, support companies with a social conscience, and prioritize sustainability (McCabe, 2021).

Entrepreneurial Spirit. Gen Z is known for their entrepreneurial spirit and desire for financial independence. This value is linked to their experiences growing up in a time of economic uncertainty and rapidly changing job markets. Gen Z is more likely to start their businesses, seek alternative career paths, and value flexibility in the workplace (Ferri-Reed, 2021).

Authenticity. Gen Z values authenticity and transparency, with many members rejecting traditional marketing messages and preferring brands that are genuine and transparent. This value is linked to their experiences growing up with increased access to information and social media. Gen Z is more likely to seek out authentic connections with others and to value honest communication (Saunders & Giles, 2019).

1.3.3. Generations and Work Values

The influence of work values on various attitudes and behaviors of employees is well-established. Such impact can significantly shape employees' outlook on work (Chu, 2007), job satisfaction (Gürsoy, Maier & Chi, 2008), motivation (Wong et al., 2008), and overall job performance. Therefore, work values hold a significant position, as defining the work values of each generation can lead to more agile responses to changing work environments and the establishment of more fulfilling relationships between employees and organizations, taking into account the distinct characteristics and inclinations of each generation.

In their research study, Gürsoy, Maier, and Chi (2008) demonstrated noticeable differences between generations (baby boomers, Gen X, and Millennials) in their view on life, attitude towards authority, and approach to work. For example, baby boomers were found to

have a general characteristic of prioritizing work over other aspects of life, respecting authority and hierarchical structures in the workplace. In contrast, Gen X is characterized by a focus on work-life balance, seeking immediate rewards, and preferring to work independently. On the other hand, millennials are often described as team players who tend to challenge rules and established norms (Gürsoy, Maier & Chi, 2008).

Lyons, Duxbury, and Higgins (2007) examined variations in values across different generations and discovered that Gen X exhibited a greater inclination towards openness to change values but a lower inclination towards conservation values. Interestingly, the study revealed that Millennials did not display significant differences from Baby Boomers or Veterans in these dimensions and scored lower in openness to change and higher in conservationism than Gen X.

Wong et al. (2008) found that the motivation for progression was higher in Gen X and Millennials than in Baby Boomers. Additionally, being in an affiliative workplace was found to be a more significant motivator for Millennials than for Baby Boomers, whereas Millennials were less motivated by power compared to Gen X, who were, in turn, less motivated by power than Baby Boomers.

On the other hand, research on intergenerational differences has not always yielded consistent results. Notably, in some studies, no significant results were found between generations (Parry & Urwin, 2011).

Studies in Turkey have examined whether there exist differences in values across generations. However, using different tools and contents in these studies has measured various constructs and led to different conclusions about intergenerational differences. A doctoral dissertation reported that work values vary among academics of different generations (baby boomers, Gen X, and Millennials), indicating that each new generation holds distinct values from the previous one (Solmaz, 2017). In another dissertation, the study revealed differences in work values between Gen X and Millennial generations. However, the study concluded that these differences did not impact affective organizational commitment (İlhan, 2019). A study that included Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z found no noteworthy distinction among the generations regarding their work expectations and perceptions of the significance of work (Demir, 2019). In another study, the relationship between work values and personality traits was examined, and it was stated that the findings were consistent with the characteristics

mentioned in the literature about generations (Kaleli, 2019). Another study on a sample of teachers indicated that Millennial teachers scored higher than Gen X teachers in the dimensions of self-development, social relationships, work opportunities, and extrinsic rewards, sub-dimensions of work values. The research findings also showed a weak positive relationship between the dimension of extrinsic reward and work enjoyment only for Gen X teachers. At the same time, there was a moderate and significant relationship in all other dimensions for both generations (Şenses, 2019).

This study differs from previous research in that it examines the work values of Gen X and Millennials and includes Gen Z work values. Given that these three generations will soon be working together, it is crucial to identify similarities and differences in their work values and understand their potential implications in the workplace. Furthermore, the study conducted a Turkish validation and reliability assessment of a questionnaire based on Schwartz's comprehensive values theory, aiming to provide the literature with a tool that can be utilized in future research on work values.

1.4. Innovative Work Behavior

Innovative work behavior (IWB) is the intentional creation, introduction, and application of new ideas within work roles, groups, and organizations (Janssen, 2000; Fatemeh et al., 2016; Leong & Rasli, 2014; Farr & Ford, 1990). Thus, IWB refers to developing and implementing valuable and novel ideas to produce new and better services, products, or procedures (Kanter, 1988; Van de Ven, 1986; Afsar et al., 2014). Accordingly, some researchers mentioned that IWB occurs when a problem is recognized, and valuable ideas will be introduced, initiated, and implemented to intensify individual or business performance (Farr & Ford, 1990; De Jong & Den Hartog, 2007; Afsar et al., 2014). On the other hand, IWB refers to employees' intentional behavior (West & Farr, 1989) or self-initiated behavior that they engage in to improve role performance or to obtain rewards (Yeoh & Mahmood, 2013). IWB involves searching for new technology, recommending or applying new ways of achieving objectives, and acquiring support and resources to implement new ideas (West & Farr, 1989).

IWB sets itself apart from employee creativity, which is the generation of fresh and beneficial concepts about products, services, procedures, and processes (Amabile, 1988) by encompassing the idea creation and the execution of such ideas. In contrast to creativity, IWB is explicitly designed to deliver some form of advantage. It boasts a more apparent practical

aspect and is anticipated to yield innovative outcomes. Nevertheless, during the initial stage of the innovation process, creativity plays a crucial role in IWB, particularly when identifying problems or performance gaps and generating ideas in response to the need for innovation (West, 2002).

1.4.1. Dimensions of IWB

There is some consensus in innovation literature that the process comprises multiple stages (Kanter, 1988; Wheelwright & Clark, 1995). Previous research on IWB, characterized by three stages: idea generation, coalition building, and implementation (Kanter, 1988; Van der Vegt & Janssen, 2003), has predominantly focused on its initial development. In the initial stage, the intention to generate ideas is established. The second stage involves promoting the ideas and culminates in the final stage, where the ideas are implemented. Although idea generation involves exploring and generating ideas, some researchers suggest that these behaviors rely on different cognitive abilities (Runco & Chand, 1994; Basadur, 2004). Thus, researchers acknowledge that IWB comprises four stages: Opportunity or idea exploration, idea generation, championing, and application (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010).

Idea Exploration. Opportunity exploration or idea exploration is the initial stage of IWB. Individuals or teams seek to identify areas where improvements can be made in products, services, or processes that already exist (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010). This stage involves enhancing existing products, services, or processes or considering alternative approaches (Kanter, 1988; Basadur, 2004). Generating a broad range of potential ideas in this stage necessitates individuals to employ divergent thinking (Basadur, 2004).

The opportunity exploration stage is a crucial phase of the innovation process. Knowledge workers identify new opportunities for organizational improvement by detecting incongruities, problems in existing work methods, and changes in trends (Mumford, Baughman & Palmon, 1997). This stage is also essential in finding solutions to problems or discovering ways to enhance existing services or delivery processes (Farr & Ford, 1990; Kanter, 1988). Innovation occurs when organizations are willing to depart from their established routines and systems to explore these opportunities (Krueger, 2000).

Idea Generation. Idea generation is the second stage in the IWB process, where potential ideas are generated from the opportunities identified in the first stage (De Jong & Den Hartog,

2010). The idea generation process involves generating ideas for new or renewed services, client interfaces, or supporting technologies, as well as efforts to improve service delivery by generating effective problem solutions (Kanter, 1988; Van de Ven, 1988; Amabile, 1988; Mumford, 2000). Thus, idea generation may pertain to the creation of novel products, services, or processes, the exploration of new markets, the enhancement of current work processes, or, in broader terms, the development of solutions to identified issues (Van de Ven, 1986; Amabile, 1988; Kanter, 1988).

Combining and reorganizing information and existing concepts is essential in generating innovative ideas (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2007) and requires skills in creative thinking (Mumford, Baughman & Palmon, 1997). Thus, this stage requires individuals or teams to use convergent and divergent thinking to refine and prioritize the ideas generated in the previous stage (Basadur, 2004). The ideas can come from brainstorming sessions, employee suggestions, customer feedback, or any other relevant source. The crucial factor in idea generation is the fusion and restructuring of information and pre-existing concepts to enhance performance or address problems (Kanter, 1988).

Championing. After an idea is generated, the process of idea championing becomes significant. In this stage, the focus shifts to promoting the idea and gaining support to realize it (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010). Innovation ideas often arise from genuinely committed individuals who believe that their ideas will be accepted by others rather than from knowledge workers who are expressly appointed by the entrepreneur (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2007). These individuals are called idea champions and are dedicated to developing and moving a creative idea forward despite potential organizational barriers (Kleysen & Street, 2001). They may not have a formal role but are committed to pushing the new service forward (Shane, 1994). Thus, according to Howell and colleagues (2005), Championing encompasses actions that involve seeking support and creating alliances, such as persuading and influencing colleagues and advocating and negotiating.

Application. Application is the final stage of the IWB process, where the focus shifts to implementing the idea and assessing its outcomes (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010). Once workers have chosen to develop, test, and commercialize a new service, the idea implementation or application process occurs (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2007), and innovation becomes integrated into the organization's work processes (Kleysen & Street, 2001). Thus, this stage involves putting the idea into practice and monitoring its progress to determine its effectiveness and

potential for improvement (Kanter, 1988). It is crucial for workers to play their role effectively during this stage to identify customer needs, understand competitive offerings, and customize services to be user-friendly (De Brentani, 2001). The importance of workers becomes even more apparent during the launch of new services, as their ability to educate and persuade clients on the benefits of the new approach is critical for adoption (Atuahene-Gima, 1996).

1.5. Prosocial Behavior

Prosocial behavior is any behavior that benefits other people, society, or the environment and is not primarily motivated by personal gain or self-interest (Carlo & Randall, 2002). Accordingly, such behaviors refer to acts intended to benefit others, such as helping, sharing, comforting, or cooperating, and that reflect concern for the welfare of others (Caprara, Steca, Zelli & Capanna, 2005). Prosocial behavior covers a wide range of actions. That demonstrates a genuine interest in the welfare of others and society, such as performing acts of kindness, displaying empathy, being generous, practicing forgiveness, and taking on social responsibility (Aknin, Dunn & Norton, 2012). These actions are intended to benefit others or to promote positive social norms and values (Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin & Schroeder, 2005). Thus, prosocial behavior can be seen as a form of social behavior that is positive, constructive, and intended to promote the welfare of others or society (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987).

The emphasized aspect in the definitions of prosocial behavior is that these actions are intended to benefit others, society, or the environment rather than being primarily motivated by personal gain or self-interest. Thus, self-interest-motivated behaviors, such as cooperation to obtain a shared resource, are generally not considered prosocial. Examples of prosocial behavior include instrumental help, costly help, and emotional support. Eisenberg and Fabes (1998) provide specific examples of these behaviors, such as helping a peer with school assignments, risking one's life to save others, and providing emotional comfort to someone experiencing distress. Manesi (2021) further categorizes prosocial behavior into six categories encompassing various behaviors.

Helping Behaviors. actions intended to assist or support others in need, such as providing emotional support, practical help, or information.

Sharing Behaviors. actions intended to share resources, goods, or information with others, such as donating money or items to charity or sharing knowledge and expertise.

Cooperation Behaviors. actions intended to work together with others towards a common goal, such as collaborating on a project, participating in a team sport, or engaging in collective action.

Civic Engagement Behaviors. actions intended to contribute to the well-being of society, such as volunteering, voting, or advocating for social or political causes.

Respectful Behaviors. actions intended to show respect and consideration for others, such as using polite language, listening actively, or showing empathy and understanding.

Moral Behaviors. Actions intended to uphold moral principles and values, such as honesty, fairness, and justice, and to discourage or prevent harmful behavior.

Numerous studies have attempted to narrow the scope of the discussion on prosocial behavior by examining specific subtypes, such as distinguishing between altruistic and self-interested behavior, examining helping behaviors that are sustained over time versus those that occur as one-time events, investigating the role of personality traits versus situational context, and exploring the origins of empathy and other factors that influence prosocial behavior (Carlo & Randall, 2002). The influential factors on prosocial behavior can be summarized as follows:

Social Norms. Social norms emerge from a society or a social group and guide people's behavior and interactions. They can strongly influence prosocial behavior by creating expectations and pressures to conform to prosocial behaviors, such as helping, sharing, and cooperating (Cialdini, 2003). Cialdini (2003) discussed how the "norm of reciprocity" can lead individuals to feel obligated to return favors and engage in prosocial behavior, even when it may not be convenient or beneficial for them to do so. Levine and Norenzayan (1999) found that the pace of life in a country can influence prosocial behavior, with people living in faster-paced societies exhibiting less prosocial behavior than those in slower-paced societies. Schultz and Zelezny (1999) showed that cultural values can also shape prosocial behavior, with individuals from different cultures exhibiting different levels of concern for the environment.

Empathy and Compassion. Empathy refers to the capacity to perceive and comprehend the emotional states of others, to understand their perspectives, and to "put oneself in their shoes." On the other hand, compassion involves a genuine concern and motivation to reduce the distress or suffering of others, often leading to acts of kindness or support. These emotions can motivate prosocial behavior by creating a sense of emotional connection and concern for

the well-being of others (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987; Batson, 2011). Empathy can promote prosocial behavior by increasing individuals' awareness and concern for others' well-being. Batson (1991) proposed the empathy-altruism hypothesis, which suggests that individuals who experience empathy for others tend to behave altruistically, even when it comes at a personal cost to themselves. Compassion, on the other hand, involves feeling empathy for others' suffering and taking action to alleviate it. Goetz, Keltner, and Simon-Thomas (2010) suggested that compassion can motivate individuals to engage in prosocial behavior by promoting interconnectedness and a sense of responsibility to help others. However, some authors have also noted that empathy and compassion can be selective and biased, leading individuals to behave more prosocial toward those perceived as similar or deserving of help. Decety and Cowell (2014) discussed how empathy could be influenced by factors such as group membership and moral judgments. In addition, some authors have also highlighted the potential downsides of empathy and compassion, such as empathy fatigue or compassion burnout, which can reduce individuals' motivation to engage in prosocial behavior over time. Lamothe et al. (2014) discussed how cultivating self-compassion can help individuals sustain their motivation to engage in prosocial behavior over the long term.

Personality Traits. Prosocial behavior is associated with certain personality traits, such as agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness, and emotional stability (Penner et al., 2005). These traits may influence prosocial behavior by shaping an individual's values, attitudes, and behaviors. For example, several studies have consistently found a positive relationship between agreeableness and prosocial behavior (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Graziano et al., 2007). Similarly, research has shown that conscientiousness positively relates to prosocial behavior, particularly in civic engagement and volunteering (Morgan & Suttles, 2006). Additionally, openness to experience is positively related to prosocial behavior, especially in the context of helping behavior (Kruschke & Kitayama, 2015).

Alternatively, a positive relationship between extraversion and prosocial behavior is found in previous research. Nonetheless, some studies have found no negative relationship (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Graziano et al., 2007). Some researchers have suggested that extroverts may engage in prosocial behavior for more self-serving motives, such as to gain social approval or to enhance their own positive emotions (Carlo & Randall, 2002). Other researchers have argued that the relationship between extraversion and prosocial behavior may depend on the specific type of prosocial behavior being examined (e.g., helping vs. sharing) or

on the context in which it occurs (e.g., with friends vs. strangers) (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Finally, emotional stability is positively related to prosocial behavior, particularly in the context of emotional support and comfort (Suls & Martin, 2005).

Situational Factors. As discussed in the literature, prosocial behavior can be influenced by various situational factors. The presence of others can enhance the likelihood of prosocial behavior by creating social norms that promote such behavior. However, the effect may depend on the perceived similarity or relationship between individuals (Levine & Moreland, 1990). The bystander effect suggests that individuals are less likely to intervene and engage in prosocial behavior when others are present because they assume someone else will help. However, the effect can be reduced when the perceived need for help is high (Fischer et al., 2011). Positive moods and emotions have been found to increase the likelihood of prosocial behavior by enhancing feelings of empathy (Zadro et al., 2017). Negative emotions can also increase the likelihood of prosocial behavior by promoting feelings of compassion (Batson et al., 1987). Individuals may weigh the potential costs and benefits of engaging in prosocial behavior before deciding whether to act, with the perceived costs and benefits depending on various factors (Piliavin & Charng, 1990).

Moral Reasoning. Moral reasoning can also influence prosocial behavior. Research suggests that moral identity, or the extent to which individuals view themselves as moral, is positively related to prosocial behavior (Aquino & Reed, 2002; Aquino et al., 2009). Additionally, research has shown that moral emotions, such as guilt and shame, can influence prosocial behavior by motivating individuals to repair the harm they have caused or prevent harm to others (Tangney et al., 2007; Malti et al., 2011). Other researchers have suggested that prosocial behavior can be influenced by moral disengagement or the extent to which individuals use cognitive strategies to justify or minimize harmful actions toward others (Bandura et al., 1996; Gini & Pozzoli, 2013). Moral disengagement strategies can include distancing oneself from the harmful action, blaming the victim, or minimizing the harmful effects of the action. Research has shown that these strategies have a negative correlation with prosocial behavior and a positive correlation with aggression and other types of antisocial behavior.

Prosocial behavior has been found to have numerous positive outcomes. For example, research has shown that prosocial behavior can increase happiness, well-being, and life satisfaction (Aknin et al., 2013; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). Furthermore, engaging in prosocial behavior has been linked to improved physical health outcomes, including reduced blood

pressure, decreased inflammation, and better cardiovascular health (Post et al., 2013; Poulin et al., 2013). Prosocial behavior can also improve social relationships by increasing feelings of closeness, trust, and intimacy with others (Brown et al., 2003; Layous et al., 2013). Furthermore, involvement in prosocial behavior can foster a stronger sense of direction and significance in life by offering avenues to contribute to the welfare of society and make a positive difference in others' lives (Fredrickson, 2001; Krause et al., 2008). Finally, prosocial behavior has been linked to better academic performance, such as higher grades and test scores (Eisenberg et al., 2015). Together, these findings suggest that engaging in prosocial behavior can have many positive outcomes that benefit individuals and society.

1.6. Organizational Identification

Organizational identification is a widely studied construct in organizational behavior, defined as the extent to which an individual feels a sense of belonging or attachment to an organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Different authors have proposed various definitions of organizational identification, highlighting its subjective nature and the importance of an individual's self-perception as a member of an organization. Lee et al. (2004) conceptualizes organizational identification as the degree to which individuals feel a psychological connection with, a sense of belonging to, and involvement in the organization. Haslam et al. (2011) describe it as a self-categorization process in which individuals define themselves in terms of their membership in the organization and their role in fulfilling its goals. Finally, Dutton et al. (1994) view organizational identification as the degree to which individuals feel that they are a part of the organization, share its values and goals, and are committed to its success.

Ashforth and Mael (1989) argue that organizational identification results from social identity processes, whereby employees see themselves as part of a collective that shares common goals, values, and beliefs. This social identity is fostered by communication, creating a shared sense of employee membership and belongingness. An individual's self-concept is derived from their social identity, which includes their identification with the groups they belong. Therefore, the extent to which an individual identifies with an organization is influenced by their sense of belongingness and shared values with the organization. Organizational identification thus involves the formation of a shared sense of identity and purpose between employees and the organization, which can enhance employee engagement, commitment, and performance (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994; Riketta, 2005)

Organizational identification is influenced by the organization's messages and employees' self-perception. According to Cheney (1982), communication plays a significant role in linking employees' values and goals to those of the organization, reducing uncertainty in their roles. Therefore, effective communication from the organization can help employees accept organizational goals, values, and objectives as their own. In addition, effective communication can facilitate the alignment of employees' values and goals with those of the organization, thus reducing uncertainty about their role. Similarly, Dutton et al. (1994) suggest that organizational identification results from the organization's ability to create a positive image or reputation that resonates with employees' self-concepts. Therefore, effective communication is needed to convey the organization's mission, values, and achievements to employees.

Numerous studies have demonstrated the importance of organizational identification for individuals and organizations. For instance, individuals who identify strongly with their organization tend to report higher levels of job satisfaction (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Riketta, 2005), organizational commitment (Lee et al., 2004), and work engagement (Meyer et al., 2010). Furthermore, highly identified employees are more likely to engage in behaviors that benefit the organization, such as going beyond their job duties, helping coworkers, and promoting the organization to others (Van Dick et al., 2006). However, it is worth noting that organizational identification can have adverse outcomes if the organization's values or actions conflict with an individual's values or beliefs. In such cases, individuals may experience cognitive dissonance or psychological discomfort, reducing identification with the organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

Miller et al. (2000) propose a comprehensive conceptualization of organizational identification that includes three interrelated dimensions: cognitive, affective, and behavioral.

Cognitive. The cognitive dimension of organizational identification includes an individual's beliefs, attitudes, and values related to the organization, such as perceptions of the organization's mission, culture, and reputation. It also includes an individual's identification with the organization's goals and objectives and the degree to which they view themselves as a part of the organization (Miller et al., 2000). Ashforth and Mael (1989) suggest that cognitive processes are critical to the formation of organizational identity and involve comparing an individual's self-concept with the organization's image. Riketta (2005) highlights that the cognitive aspect of identification pertains to an individual's perception of the organization and the extent to which they link themselves with it. They associate themselves. Finally, Mael and

Tetrick (1992) propose that the cognitive dimension of identification involves an individual's beliefs about the organization, its goals, and its values, which affect their behavior and attitudes toward the organization.

Affective. This dimension is characterized by individuals' positive affective experiences with the organization, such as a sense of pride, affection, and belongingness (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Thus, the affective dimension of organizational identification involves an individual's emotional attachment to the organization. It includes positive feelings such as pride, loyalty, and a sense of belongingness to the organization. However, negative emotions such as disappointment or anger can also be part of the affective dimension when they result from a discrepancy between an individual's expectations and their experiences with the organization (Miller et al., 2000). Ashforth and Mael (1989) propose that affective processes are critical to the formation of organizational identification and involve an emotional connection to the organization rooted in the social identity of individuals. Similarly, Dutton et al. (1994) suggest that affective identification involves an individual's emotional attachment to the organization, which reflects their sense of belongingness and commitment to the organization. Finally, Lee et al. (2004) argue that affective identification results from a positive emotional bond that individuals develop with the organization, enhancing their commitment and engagement.

Behavioral. The behavioral dimension of organizational identification refers to an individual's actions to demonstrate their identification with the organization (Miller et al., 2000). Van Dick et al. (2006) propose that behavioral identification involves extra-role behaviors such as helping colleagues, providing suggestions for improving work processes, and promoting the organization to outsiders. Thus, behavioral identification involves the extent to which an individual engages in activities that benefit the organization and demonstrate their commitment to it (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Accordingly, Fuchs et al. (2018) argue that the behavioral dimension of identification includes innovative behavior, which involves employees' willingness to generate and implement new ideas that benefit the organization.

Miller et al. (2000) argue that these dimensions are interdependent and mutually reinforcing, meaning that positive experiences with one dimension can enhance the other dimensions of organizational identification. They also suggest that the strength of an individual's identification with the organization can vary over time and be influenced by organizational changes, life events, and other contextual factors.

2. METHODOLOGY

In this section, the methodology of both preliminary study for adaptation of Work Values Questionnaire and the research study on Work Values will be presented. Primarily the preliminary study will be explained in terms of participants, instruments, and procedure. Then, the details of the Work Values research study will be presented and the sample of this study, scales used in the research, data collection procedures, and hypotheses will be described.

2.1. Preliminary Study

The first aim of this dissertation was to adapt the Work Values Questionnaire (Albrecht et al. 2020), an up-to-date questionnaire based on Schwartz's values theory to Turkish and test for its validity and reliability. Hence a preliminary study was conducted by collecting data solely with this purpose. To test further the convergent and discriminant validity of the Work Values Questionnaire, Work Goals Test (Tevrüz & Turgut, 2004) and Techno-Stress Questionnaire (Türen, Erdem & Kalkın, 2015) were also applied at this study.

2.1.1. Instruments

Work Values Questionnaire (WVQ)

Work Values Questionnaire (WVQ) developed by Albrecht, Marty and Brandon-Jones (2020) was adapted and used to measure work values. In their effort to develop this measure Albrecht, Marty and Brandon-Jones (2020), describe work-related values which are based on Schwartz's theory of values and in addition these values are adapted to fit specifically in work context. Along with this purpose, the version for work-related values questionnaire was created by incorporating ten fundamental values from Schwartz's theory and an additional value related to environmental consciousness.

WVQ includes a total of 52 items prepared on a 7-point Likert scale and consists of 11 dimensions. Although every dimension has five items, only Environmental Sustainability dimension has two items. In order to equate all dimensions, 3 more items were added to this dimension. The items were adapted from the Environmental Personal Values Questionnaire (E-PVQ) which is developed by Bouman, Steg, and Kiers (2018). There are four dimensions in this questionnaire and 'biospheric' dimension is in line with 'environmental sustainability'

dimension of WVQ. One of the items of biospheric dimension in E-PVQ is identical to the one in WVQ which is *'to protect the environment'* and other three items are also added to WVQ to optimize the final version. These items are *'to prevent environmental pollution', 'to respect nature', and 'to be in unity with the nature'.*

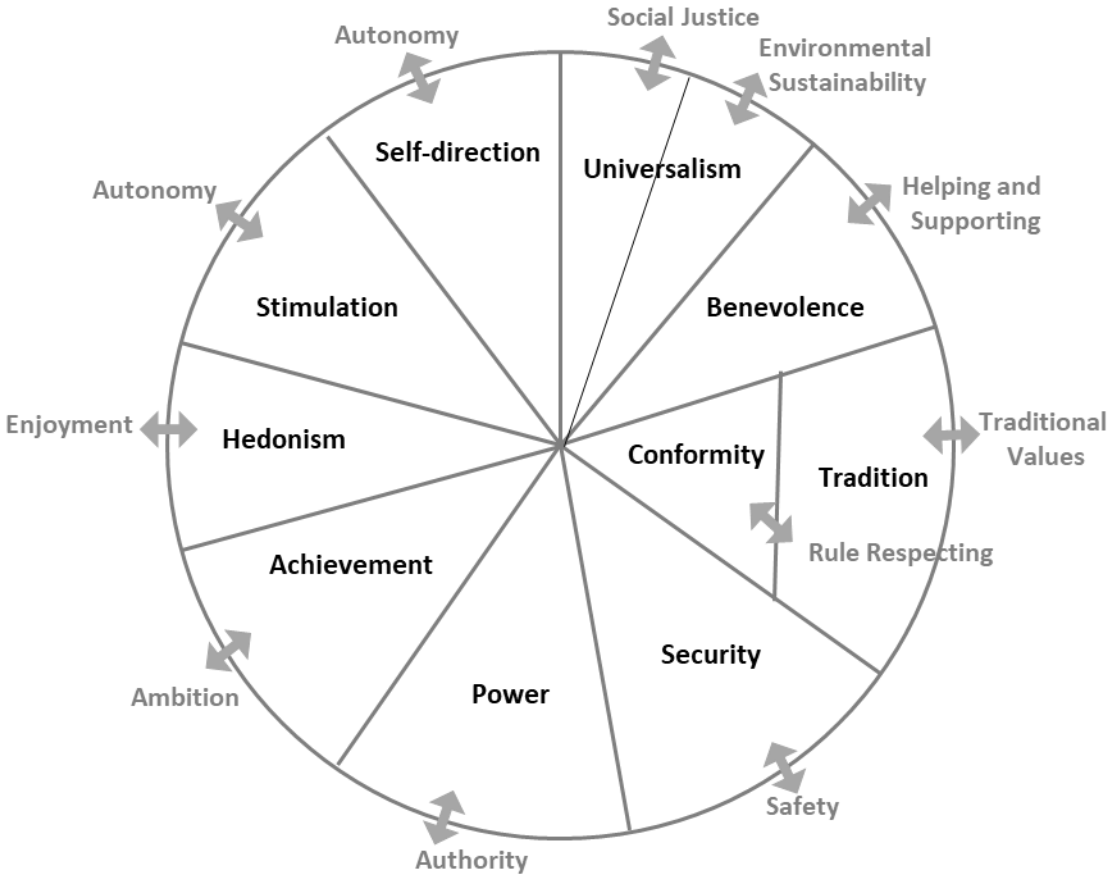

Figure 2. Work Values according to Scwartz's Value Classification

As it can be seen in the Figure 2, Albrecht et al. (2020) generated eleven work values according to Schwartz's Theory of Values and named them in accordance with work context. Although Schwartz's Theory of Values suggests ten values, Albrecht et al (2020) divide 'Universalism' value into two work values; namely 'Social Justice' and 'Environmental Sustainability'. These two work values are both parts of universalism value, hence they are more specific. Social justice work value puts more emphasis on wellbeing of society and making the world a better and fairer place while environmental sustainability is merely about environment and nature.

The responses to the items in the WVQ are scored as 7 points for "extremely important" and 1 point for "extremely unimportant". Accordingly, a high score on the scale indicates that the participant prioritizes the relevant work value, while a low score indicates the opposite.

The original questionnaire was first translated into Turkish. At this stage, a clinical psychologist, a social psychologist and an organizational psychologist were involved. The experts translated the questionnaire individually and then the translations were compared, and the most meaningful translations of the items were selected unanimously.

Work Goals Test (WGT)

Work Goals Test is a 12-dimension test for measuring work goals and values and it is developed by Tevrüz and Turgut (2004). Although the measure has 12 factors, each factor includes more than three items. However, participants are asked to respond each factor, not the items individually. The dimensions are rated on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not important) and 6 (very important). The reliability of Work Goals Test was tested in the original study and found to be 0.96. In this present study, reliability test was assessed, and the Cronbach's alpha value was found to be 0.82. Both values are considered to support reliability.

Techno-Stress Questionnaire

Techno-stress is defined as a form of stress caused by information and computer technologies. Considering its definition and scope, techno-stress concept is not involved in this study. Nonetheless, this questionnaire was added for reliability purposes. The questionnaire was developed by Türen, Erdem and Kalkın (2015). The factor structure of the questionnaire, which consisted of a total of 16 questions and three factors, was found to be similar in this study. In addition, Türen, Erdem and Kalkın found out that Cronbach's alpha value was 0.85 for this questionnaire. As a result of the analyses conducted to determine the internal consistency of the techno-stress scale, the reliability values (Cronbach-alpha 0.82) of the scale and its sub-dimensions were found to be appropriate. Each item was presented to the participants and rated between 1 (definitely disagree) and 5 (definitely agree).

2.1.2. Participants

The sample of this preliminary study consists of only actively working participants which should require to be in workforce for at least one year. The questionnaire was sent via e-mail

and other digital messaging platforms and participants filled out the online form. Participants were recruited voluntarily. Over 900 respondents involved in the data gathering process. Nevertheless, incomplete forms and outliers were eliminated and a total of 525 valid forms established the sample of this preliminary study. The samples consist of actively working individuals from different sectors and various tenures. 45.5% of the sample is female and the average age is 40.81 ranging from 22 to 68. The mean of total work experience (tenure) is 16.7 years, and the longest work experience is 46 years (Table 2).

Table 2. Demographic Features of the Participants

Variables	Groups	n	Percentage
Gender	Female	239	45.5%
	Male	202	38.5%
	Missing	84	16%
Education	High School, Associate Degree	51	9.7%
	Bachelor's Degree	301	57.3%
	Graduate, Postgraduate	170	32.4%
Tenure	Less than 5 years	56	10.7%
	5 – 11 years	139	26.5%
	12 – 19 years	176	33.5%
	20 years and more	154	29.3%

2.1.3. Measurement validation

To assess the validity of the multi-dimensional structure of the scale, confirmatory fit analysis (CFA) was applied. However, since WVQ was not previously used in Turkish context to our knowledge, to identify and understand the underlying structure of the scales an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was planned as an alternative. In addition to follow the general validation procedures a unidimensional model was also included and tested with confirmatory fit analysis. In this line, the four-factor model -based on the Schwartz value circumplex- where the values are grouped into four higher order dimensions was also analyzed.

In summary, to test the validity of the WVQ five models were statistically tested and compared: 1) Unidimensional model was tested with CFA, 2) Original eleven factor was tested with CFA, 3) four factor model was tested with CFA, 4) EFA was used to evaluate how the data will freely load onto factors, and 5) the factors developed by EFA were confirmed with CFA.

This section starts with explaining the EFA model since all the other tests were model derived from the literature. Exploratory Factor Analysis was conducted with principal component and varimax rotation. The KMO sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity scores revealed that data structure was suitable for factor analysis. Items with low loadings (loadings below 0.45) and items that loaded to more than factor were eliminated during the process and analyses was run several times after deleting necessary items. As can be seen in Table 3, EFA result indicates an eight factor model with 40 items (KMO=.94; Bartlett's Test (780) =14365.36; p=.00; cumulative variance extracted % 69.05).

To assess the internal consistency of the constructs in the questionnaire reliability analysis were conducted. The Cronbach's alpha reliability analyses results of all the factors were reliable (reliability scores of factors are .95, .88, .90, .87, .81, .84, .74, and .78 respectively). The factors were named after original names mostly, since some of the original factors merged into one dimension while others remained as the original factors. Comparison of the new factors to the original can be found in Table 4.

Table 3. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Work Values Questionnaire

Factors	L	EV	α
Social and Environmental Justice		17.07%	.95
To protect the environment	.85		
To prevent pollution	.83		
To contribute to environmental sustainability	.83		
To respect nature	.80		
To be in unity with nature	.76		
To make a safer workplace	.73		
To make a positive contribution to safety and security	.67		
To ensure that danger is minimized	.67		
To make the world a better place	.59		
To continue to social justice	.58		
Authority and Ambition		9.70%	.87
To have authority over other people	.85		
To have authority over other people's work programs	.83		
To get promoted	.75		
To be seen to be successful	.71		
To make decisions about who does what	.65		
Helping and Supporting		9.20%	.90
To help the people I come in contact	.73		
To be supportive of other people	.72		
To do work which helps other people	.69		
To improve the lives of people I encounter at work	.68		
To support the people I meet at work	.63		
Enjoyment		8.91%	.87
To enjoy myself	.85		
To enjoy my time at work	.76		
To have fun	.74		
To do things which make me feel good	.71		
To have pleasurable experiences	.67		
Traditional Values		8.18%	.81
To be able to support the traditions of my society at work	.76		
To do work which would be traditionally approved of	.76		
To do work which society would support	.75		
To be able to work according to the values of my family	.66		
To do work which is in keeping with my religious beliefs	.55		
Variety		6.59%	.84
To experience a wide variety of tasks	.79		
To do varied work	.77		
To get a lot of variety in my work	.62		
To experience a variety of challenges	.56		
Rule Respecting		5.68%	.74
To work with colleagues who respect rules even when no one else sees them	.70		
To work in an orderly workplace	.58		
To work in a group where people believe that rules are important	.58		
To work in a group where we all support the organization's policies	.56		
Authority over Resources		3.72%	.78
To have authority over limited resources	.69		
To determine how money is spent	.60		

Note. KMO=.94; Bartlett's Test (780) =14365.36; p=.00; L=Factor loadings; EV=Explained Variance; α=Cronbach's alpha reliability

Table 4. The Comparison of 8-factor Model to the Original Model

8-factor Model after EFA	Original 11-factor Model
Social and Environmental Justice	Social Justice Environmental Sustainability Safety
Authority and Ambition	Authority Ambition
Helping and Supporting	Helping and Supporting
Enjoyment	Enjoyment
Traditional Values	Traditional Values
Variety	Variety
Rule Respecting	Rule Respecting
Authority over Resources	Authority

After the EFA, as stated before, four models including the eight factors derived from EFA were tested with IBM AMOS 25 for the Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA). there are several fit measures that can be used in Structural equation modeling for testing both the confirmatory factor analyses as well as the structural and or path tests and there is no one consensus on which ones to report. In this study as suggested by Kline (2015) the model chi-square, the RMSEA, the CFI and the SRMR are reported.

Table 5. The Model Fit Values for the Competing Models for Work Values Questionnaire

Model	Item #	$\chi^2(df)$	CMIN/df	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA
1 factor	55	10607.55(1377)	7.70	.54	.11	.11
4 factor	55	7160.98(1424)	5.03	.72	.10	.09
8 factor (EFA)	40	2640.76(712)	3.71	.86	.06	.07
8 factor (EFA) II	39	2042.42(669)	3.05	.90	.06	.06
11 factor	55	4090.42(1322)	3.09	.86	.07	.06
11 factor II	49	2982.337(1066)	2.30	.90	.07	.06

Note. CMIN=chi square; CFI= Comparative Fit Index; SRMR=Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual; RMSEA=Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; II= indicates improved models

The model fit measures for the competing models can be seen from Table 5. unidimensional model where all items were loaded to one dimension indicated no fit. Trimming

insignificant items or checking the modification indices did not improve the model, hence the 55-item result is reported in the Table (CMIN/df= 7.70, CFI= .54, SRMR= .11, RMSEA= .11).

The four factor model where the higher order constructs, conservation (traditional values, rule respecting, safety), openness to change (enjoyment, variety and autonomy), self-enhancement (authority and ambition), and self-transcendence (social justice, environmental sustainability and helping and supporting) were used to describe the underlying factor structure as well showed no fit (CMIN/df= 5.03, CFI= .72, SRMR= .10, RMSEA= .09) even though an incremental improvent when compared to the one factor model. Here again deleting insignificant items or checking the modification indices did not improve the model, hence the 55-item result is reported in the Table.

When the 8-factor model derived from the earlier EFA is analyzed, we witnessed quite an improvement in the fit indices, though CFI was still not satisfactory (CMIN/df= 3.71, CFI= .86, SRMR= .06, RMSEA= .07). This finding was interesting since the same data set was used to form the model and test it. When further analyzed it was seen that an improvement could be achieved (CMIN/df= 3.05, CFI= .90, SRMR= .06, RMSEA= .06). The 8 factor (EFA) model II in the Table shows a reasonable fit.

The 11-factor original model indicated a good result compared to other models from the first run, even though CMIN/df and CFI results were no fit (CMIN/df= 3.09, CFI= .86, SRMR= .07, RMSEA= .06). When the model was improved by trimming the insignificant items and adding a couple of covariance to residuals of authority and safety items, the model improved significantly and acceptable model fit was achieved (CMIN/df= 2.30, CFI= .90, SRMR= .07, RMSEA= .06).

Since 11 factor model with 49 items has acceptable fit and it has more items than the 8 factor 39 item model, as well the same factor structure as the original scale, the further analyses was carried out with this model (Table 6).

Table 6. 49 items and 11 factors of Work Values Questionnaire

Factors		L	t
Ambition	(CR=.74; AVE=.60)		
To be seen to be successful		.68	a
To get promoted		.86	13.80**
Authority	(CR=.81; AVE=.51)		
To have authority over other people's work programs		.79	a
To determine how money is spent		.59	12.25**
To have authority over limited resources		.61	12.57**
To make decisions about who does what		.84	18.23**
Autonomy	(CR=.80; AVE=.51)		
To decide what I will do at work		.72	a
To be able to direct my own work		.73	15.00**
To determine how I spend my day		.67	13.84**
To make my own decisions at work		.72	14.76**
Enjoyment	(CR=.88; AVE=.59)		
To do things which make me feel good		.68	a
To enjoy myself		.77	15.71**
To have fun		.71	14.49**
To enjoy my time at work		.84	16.85**
To have pleasurable experiences		.82	16.45**
Environmental Sustainability	(CR=.94; AVE=.77)		
To protect the environment		.85	a
To respect nature		.86	25.77**
To prevent environmental pollution		.92	29.61**
To contribute to environmental sustainability		.93	29.90**
To be in unity with nature		.83	24.09**
Helping and Supporting	(CR=.90; AVE=.63)		
To be supportive of other people		.70	a
To help the people I come in contact		.84	17.93**
To do work which helps other people		.84	17.96**
To support the people I meet at work		.80	17.14**
To improve the lives of people I encounter at work		.80	17.13**
Rule Respecting	(CR=.80; AVE=.45)		
To work in an orderly workplace		.59	a
To work with colleagues who respect rules even when no one else sees them		.69	12.19**
To work in a group where we all support the organization's policies		.62	11.31**
To work in a group where people believe that rules are important		.68	12.03**
To work in a job where I can contribute to the respect for my organization's rules		.76	12.99**
Safety	(CR=.93; AVE=.74)		
To make a safer workplace		.84	a
To contribute to the safety of colleagues		.84	27.04**
To make a positive contribution to safety and security		.88	25.46**
To ensure that danger is minimized		.85	24.09**
To maximize the safety of the workplace		.88	25.81**
Social Justice	(CR=.90; AVE=.65)		
To make the world a fairer place		.83	a
To continue to social justice		.76	20.26**
To make the world a better place		.88	25.01**
To contribute to improving society		.82	22.69**
To support people who are disadvantaged		.74	19.41**

Note. L=Factor loadings; CR= Construct Reliability; AVE=Average variance extracted; a= items fixed to one

Table 6. 49 items and 11 factors of Work Values Questionnaire – cont.

Factors		L	t
Traditional Values	(CR=.83; AVE=.55)		
To do work which would be traditionally approved of		.73	a
To be able to work according to the values of my family		.64	13.47**
To do work which society would support		.82	17.05**
To be able to support the traditions of my society at work		.76	16.02**
Variety	(CR=.83; AVE=.51)		
To experience a variety of challenges		.66	a
To never be bored by repetition		.54	10.84**
To get a lot of variety in my work		.77	14.72**
To do varied work		.77	14.66**
To experience a wide variety of tasks		.79	15.01**

Note. L=Factor loadings; CR= Construct Reliability; AVE=Average variance extracted; a= items fixed to one

Construct reliabilities of all factors, which lied between .74 and .94, indicated reliability of the constructs (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). Average variance extracted (AVE) values which reflect the overall amount of variance accounted for by the latent construct are favored at level of .50 or above, yet .45 is reasonable (Netemeyer, Bearden & Sharma, 2003). As can be seen from the Table 6 all AVE values for the factors were above threshold value, except rule respecting (AVE=.45). To assess the discriminant validity of the scales the Fornell and Larcker (1981) criterion was used. Then we constrained parameter estimate for the two constructs to unity and compared with factor model where parameter is freely estimated (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Findings of reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity all satisfied the psychometric property of the 49 item 11 factor Turkish translation of the Work Values Questionnaire.

The analyses were continued after taking the summated scores of the factors. Table 7 summarizes the mean and standard deviation values of factors and their intercorrelations. According to the sample of the preliminary study, ‘enjoyment’ was the highest reported work values (M=6.33) and ‘traditional values’ has the lowest scores (M=4.62). The standard deviations ranged from 0.79 to 1.58. In general, the highest intercorrelations were found between ‘helping and supporting’ value and ‘social justice’ value ($r = .77$, $p < .01$) and the lowest intercorrelations were found between ‘ambition’ value and ‘environmental sustainability value ($r = .18$, $p < .01$). Results have shown that all work values dimensions are significantly

correlated. In other words, results of the preliminary study showed that dimensions of the work values questionnaire are reliable to be used in the main study and are eligible as a valid measure.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations for the Work Values Questionnaire Factors

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Ambition	9.89	3.16	1										
2. Authority	18.81	4.27	.485**	1									
3. Autonomy	17.51	3.52	.424**	.485**	1								
4. Enjoyment	28.01	4.83	.288**	.270**	.513**	1							
5. Environmental Sustainability	26.11	5.31	.180**	.159**	.341**	.407**	1						
6. Helping and Supporting	26.24	4.72	.268**	.308**	.428**	.450**	.602**	1					
7. Rule Respecting	27.83	5.21	.414**	.407**	.463**	.385**	.540**	.556**	1				
8. Safety	24.30	5.41	.254**	.241**	.358**	.409**	.714**	.611**	.606**	1			
9. Social Justice	20.98	4.23	.253**	.239**	.459**	.503**	.766**	.675**	.560**	.708**	1		
10. Traditional Values	22.08	4.88	.338**	.479**	.324**	.207**	.362**	.414**	.532**	.403**	.333**	1	
11.Variety	25.76	5.19	.257**	.351**	.551**	.573**	.434**	.567**	.461**	.396**	.462**	.284**	1

In addition to the above techniques to test the convergent and discriminant validity using other scales Work Goals Test (WGT) and Techno-Stress Questionnaire were employed. Accordingly, the common aspects of the Work Goals Test (WGT) and the WVQ were analyzed (Table 8).

First, overlapping items of WGT and factors of WVQ were identified. The first dimension of WGT (contribution to society) and social justice dimension of WVQ, the second dimension of WGT (gaining status) and authority dimension of WVQ, the twelfth dimension of WGT (living freely) and enjoyment dimension of WVQ, and the sum of third, fifth and eleventh dimensions of WGT (making a living, religious duty, and establishing order; respectively) and traditional values dimension of WVQ appeared to assess similar constructs. Correlation coefficients can be used to determine the convergence between the scales. In this preliminary study, correlation coefficients were calculated and interpreted. Results demonstrated that all paired dimensions are positively and significantly correlated indicating convergent validity.

Table 8. Results of Alternative Forms Reliability Tests

Dimensions	**Correlation**
"To create valuable products and services that benefit society, drive economic growth in the country, foster a harmonious community, and strive to leave a positive legacy for future generations through our work." **(WGT 1)** and **Social Justice (WVQ)**	.36**
"To gain status, prestige, social acceptance and respect, career, authority and power" **(WGT 2)** and **Authority (WVQ)**	.46**
"To work for the purpose of doing the profession they love by enjoying their work" **(WGT 12)** "To realize one's dreams and pursue personal interests and hobbies work for the purpose of fulfillment, recreation and entertainment" **(WGT 8)** and **Enjoyment (WVQ)**	.51**
"To work in order to secure their future, to ensure their economic freedom and livelihood, to earn money and buy what they want, to own property and achieve better living conditions, to provide for the family and to provide a better life for their children" **(WGT 3)** "To work for Allah's pleasure and to prepare for the hereafter, to fulfill a religious duty" **(WGT5)** "To work in order to establish a home, to start your own business, to lead a regular life and to sustain generations" **(WGT11)** and **Traditional Values (WVQ)**	.34**

Note. N=518. ** $p \leq .01$

The participants were also asked to fill out Techno Stress scale and as a last attempt to verify the discriminant validity of WVQ, the correlation coefficient of these two questionnaires were calculated. Table 9 shows that there is no significant relationship between these two measures. Therefore, it can be stated that these two measures focus on different constructs supporting the discriminant validity of the Turkish translation.

Table 9. Correlation Coefficient for WVQ and Technostress

		Technostress
WVQ	Pearson Correlation	.29
	p	.51

2.2.Research Study

After the preliminary study, to fulfill the main purpose of the dissertation and investigate whether work values differ across three generations another study is conducted. The Turkish version of the WVQ was used as well as new scales to measure three more concepts were hypothesized to affect work values. In this section the instruments and the participants of the second study, namely the research study will be discussed.

2.2.1. Instruments

Work Values Questionnaire (WVQ)

Work Values Questionnaire (WVQ) developed by Albrecht, Marty and Brandon-Jones (2020). In the preliminary study, the WVQ was adapted to Turkish. After the validity and reliability analyses were completed, it was revealed that the WVQ had a 11-factor structure and consisted of 49 items in Turkish population. The responses to the items in the WVQ uses a 7-point Likert scale (1 for ‘extremely unimportant’ and 7 for ‘extremely important’).

Prosociality Scale

The scale developed by Luengo Kanacri et al., (2021) was used to measure prosociality. The scale includes a total of 16 items on a 5-point Likert scale and consists of two dimensions labeled Prosocial Feelings and Prosocial Actions. The responses to the items in the scale are scored as 5 points for "strongly agree" and 1 point for "strongly disagree". Accordingly, a high score indicates that the participant exhibits prosocial behaviors, while a low score indicates the

opposite. This scale was used in other research and prosociality was investigated in terms of its relationship with other concepts like self-control, attitudes and behavioral intention (Shahzalal & Adnan, 2022), self-compassion (Munawar, Farid, Iqbal & Gul, 2023), intolerance to uncertainty (Dixit & Kathuria, 2023), and altruistic behaviors (Wang, Fu, Wu and Wang, 2023).

Innovative Work Behaviors Scale (IWB)

In the study, the scale developed by De Jong and Den Hartog (2010) was used to measure innovative work behaviors. The scale includes a total of 10 items on a 5-point Likert scale and consists of a single dimension. The responses to the statements in the scale were scored as "strongly agree" option with 5 points and "strongly disagree" option with 1 point. Accordingly, a high score indicates that the participant exhibits innovative work behaviors, while a low score indicates the opposite. The scale of innovative work behaviors was used in some research including digitalized leadership and innovative work behaviors (Erhan and Uzunbacak, 2022), empowering leader and innovative work behaviors (Erdem, 2021), perceived organizational support and innovative work behaviors (Eröz and Şıttak, 2019) and trust and innovative work behaviors (Küçük and Günaydın, 2021).

Organizational Identification Questionnaire

The scale developed by Miller, Allen, Casey, and Johnson (2000) was used to measure organizational identification. The scale includes a total of 12 items on a 5-point Likert scale and consists of 3 dimensions (Similarity, Loyalty, and Membership). The responses to the items in the scale are scored as 5 points for “strongly agree” and 1 point for “strongly disagree”. Accordingly, a high score indicates that the participant exhibits strong organizational identification, while a low score indicates the opposite. This scale was used in several research including the research with these concepts: transformational leadership (Sun, Chen and Zhang, 2017), social identity (Meyer et al, 2006; Homburg and Hoyer, 2009), organizational commitment (Gautam, Van Dick and Wagner, 2004), and organizational culture (Schrodt, 2009).

2.2.2. Participants

In this study, two groups of participants were recruited. In the first group, participants from banking industry were included as to create generation X and millennials group. In this group, white collar employees from different banks in Istanbul that are actively working in the

sector for at least one year responded the survey. The questionnaire was sent via e-mail and other digital messaging platforms and participants filled out the online form. Participants were recruited voluntarily, and although more than 1000 people were reached, there were several incomplete forms together with several participants that were not qualified to take part in this study such as baby boomers, retired bankers or grey collars. After eliminating inappropriate data, a total of 306 participants took place in this study. The demographics of this group can be seen in Table 10. According to the descriptives of this group, more than half of the group is female (62.3%), most of the group is married (63.4%) and almost half of it have children (48.4%).

Table 10. Frequency of Demographics of Bank Employees

Variables	**Groups**	**n**	**Percentage**
Gender	Female	114	37.3
	Male	69	22.5
	Missing	123	40.2
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	17.6
	Bachelor's Degree	188	61.4
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	20.9
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	22.2
	5 – 11 years	95	31.0
	12 – 19 years	76	24.8
	20 years and more	67	21.9
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	56.9
	No	132	43.1
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	24.2
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	49.7
	20.000 TL and more	80	26.1
Marital Status	Single	112	36.6
	Married	194	63.4
Having Children	Yes	148	48.4
	No	158	51.6

At the time data was collected, Gen Z was not yet working in the sector. Hence data from gen Z was collected from university students which formed the second group. The number of questionnaires that were collected from Gen Z respondents and were appropriate and usable after cleaning was 219.

3. RESULTS

In this section, the results of data analyses conducted for the main study will be presented. The measures used in the main research will be examined and the hypotheses' results will be shown. In addition, descriptive analyses will be presented along with tested hypotheses. However, prior to start testing the hypotheses reliability and validity of the measures will be presented.

3.1. Measurement validation

3.1.1. Work Values Questionnaire (WVQ)

Since the WVQ is already tested for its psychometric properties, in the main study only CFA was applied. The CFA was run with 55 items 11 factor original model just like in the preliminary study. The results of the CFA can be seen from Table 11. Interestingly, quite a similar result was obtained when compared to the preliminary study. All the items remained are from the same pool of items, except in ambition factor instead of 'to be seen to be successful' this time 'to increase my earning power' was retained. In addition, this time the final CFA model consisted of 45 items and fit indices indicated an acceptable model fit (CMIN/df= 2.05, CFI= .90, SRMR= .05, RMSEA= .06). However, to be sure about the factor structure an EFA was conducted, and similar to previous study an eight-factor result was obtained. Yet the CFA of this model did not indicate better and sufficient fit, therefore those results are not presented (CMIN/df= 2.308, CFI= .88, SRMR= .06, RMSEA= .07).

Table 11. CFA Result of Work Values Questionnaire

Factors		L	t
Ambition	(CR=.56; AVE=.40)		
To get promoted		.73	a
To increase my earning power		.51	8.00
Authority	(CR=.71; AVE=.46)		
To have authority over other people's work programs		.54	a
To have authority over limited resources		.81	8.12
To make decisions about who does what		.65	9.29
Autonomy	(CR=.74; AVE=.49)		
To decide what I will do at work		.75	a
To be able to direct my own work		.69	10.82
To determine how I spend my day		.64	10.15
Enjoyment	(CR=.87; AVE=.57)		
To do things which make me feel good		.59	a
To enjoy myself		.72	11.47
To have fun		.79	10.43
To enjoy my time at work		.83	10.73
To have pleasurable experiences		.81	10.55
Environmental Sustainability	(CR=.93; AVE=.72)		
To protect the environment		.78	a
To respect nature		.89	17.47
To prevent environmental pollution		.91	18.14
To contribute to environmental sustainability		.88	17.23
To be in unity with nature		.80	15.19
Helping and Supporting	(CR=.84; AVE=.51)		
To be supportive of other people		.59	a
To help the people I come in contact		.75	10.05
To do work which helps other people		.77	10.23
To support the people I meet at work		.79	10.37
To improve the lives of people I encounter at work		.66	9.30
Rule Respecting	(CR=.75; AVE=.43)		
To work in an orderly workplace		.56	a
To work with colleagues who respect rules even when no one else sees them		.61	8.13
To work in a group where people believe that rules are important		.67	8.63
To work in a job where I can contribute to the respect for my organization's rules		.76	9.29
Safety	(CR=.92; AVE=.70)		
To make a safer workplace		.81	a
To contribute to the safety of colleagues		.83	16.95
To make a positive contribution to safety and security		.89	18.89
To ensure that danger is minimized		.86	17.85
To maximize the safety of the workplace		.80	16.26
Social Justice	(CR=.92; AVE=.74)		
To make the world a fairer place		.85	a
To continue to social justice		.86	19.24
To make the world a better place		.88	20.33
To contribute to improving society		.86	19.30
Traditional Values	(CR=.80; AVE=.50)		
To do work which would be traditionally approved of		0.69	0.00
To be able to work according to the values of my family		0.69	10.16
To do work which society would support		0.74	10.56
To be able to support the traditions of my society at work		0.71	11.88

Table 11. CFA Result of Work Values Questionnaire – cont.

Factors		L	t
Variety	(CR=.83; AVE=.49)		
To experience a variety of challenges		0.65	0.00
To never be bored by repetition		0.54	8.34
To get a lot of variety in my work		0.76	11.11
To do varied work		0.74	10.89
To experience a wide variety of tasks		0.78	11.33

Note. L=Factor loadings; CR= Construct Reliability; AVE=Average variance extracted; a= items fixed to one; $\chi^2(885)$ =1817.86 CMIN/df= 2.05, CFI= .90, SRMR= .05, RMSEA= .06

Construct reliabilities of factors which lied between .71 and .93, indicated reliability of the constructs, but as can be seen from Table 11, ambition factor shows a low reliability (CR=.56). Since this factor has only two items it can be tolerated with care. Average variance extracted (AVE) values are also either reasonable or acceptable. Therefore we may say that the data that was collected from banking sector indicated a slightly different model with lower values.

3.1.2. Prosociality Scale

First an EFA was performed to determine the dimensions of the scale. Two factors were revealed in the factor analysis (Table 12). Nevertheless, it was observed that one of the items loaded on both factors and the difference between the factor loadings was below 0.10 and the mentioned item was removed from the scale and the analysis was repeated. In the factor analysis performed for the second time, the final version of the scale was reached in which no item had a factor loading below 0.40 and no item loaded on more than one factor (KMO=0.94 Bartlett's Test p=0.00<0.01; cumulative variance %57.4).

On the other hand, the distribution of the items in the original scale was different. In the first factor, three items from the prosocial feelings dimension and two items from the prosocial actions dimension were included, whereas the second factor encompassed three items from the prosocial feelings dimension and three items from the prosocial actions dimension. Examining the content of the items, it was considered appropriate to use a different labeling instead of the dimension labels in the original scale. Accordingly, the first factor includes helping those in need, while the second factor includes helping behavior even when not in need. The reason for this difference is thought to be cultural. Cronbach α values of the scale were calculated as .89 for factor 1 and .84 for factor 2.

Table 12. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results of Prosociality Scale

Factors	L	EV	α
Factor 1 (Helping when there is need)		31.51%	.89
I easily put myself in the shoes of those who are in discomfort	.76		
I try to console those who are sad	.74		
I try to be close to and take care of those who are in need	.72		
I immediately sense my friends' discomfort even when it is not directly communicated with me	.70		
I easily lend money or other things	.67		
I intensely feel what others feel	.66		
I spend time with those friends who feel lonely	.66		
I do what I can to help others avoid getting into trouble	.58		
I am emphatic with those who are in need	.54		
I easily share with friends any good opportunity that comes to me	.52		
Factor 2 (Being ready to help)		25.49%	.84
I am pleased to help my friends/colleagues in their activities	.86		
I share the things that I have with my friends	.82		
I try to help others	.82		
I am willing to make my knowledge and abilities available to others	.62		
I am available for volunteer activities to help those who are in need	.55		

Note. KMO=.94; Bartlett's Test (120) = 4471.499; p=.00; L=Factor loadings; EV=Explained Variance; α=Cronbach's alpha reliability

Confirmatory factor analyses was also conducted. First, the original two factor model was tested (CMIN/df= 8.13, CFI= .84, SRMR= .07, RMSEA= .12). Second, the two factors which were yielded in EFA was tested (CMIN/df= 4.98, CFI= .92, SRMR= .06, RMSEA= .08). It can be seen that the second model was a better fit and this model was used in the regression analysis.

3.1.3. Innovative Work Behaviors Scale (IWB)

Explanatory factor analysis was performed to determine the dimensions of the scale (Table 13). In the factor analysis, a single factor emerged, and it was seen that none of the items had a factor loading below 0.40 (KMO=0.94 Bartlett's Test p=0.00<0.01; cumulative variance explained 58.0 %). The total variance explained is adequate. Cronbach α value of the scale was calculated as .91.

Table 13. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results of IWB Scale

Factors	Loadings
I systematically introduce innovative ideas into work practices	.85
I put effort in the development of new things	.85
I find new approaches to execute tasks	.81
I generate original solutions for problems	.81
I contribute to the implementation of new ideas	.79
I search out new working methods, techniques or instruments	.78
I make important organizational members enthusiastic for innovative ideas	.77
I attempt to convince people to support an innovative idea	.75
I wonder how things can be improved	.70
I pay attention to issues that are not part of his daily work	.44

Note. KMO=.94; Bartlett's Test (45) = 3027.15; p=.00; Explained Variance=58 %; Cronbach's alpha =.91

Confirmatory factor analyses was also conducted for IWB scale. First, the original four-factor model was tested (CMIN/df= 2.16, CFI= .99, SRMR= .02, RMSEA= .05). Second, the unidimensional model which were yielded in EFA was tested (CMIN/df= 5.06, CFI= .95, SRMR= .04, RMSEA= .08). While both models indicated model fit, since the original had higher fit values and it would give opportunity to compare with other studies from literature, the original structure model will be used in the regression analysis. The original dimensions and related items can be seen from Table 14.

Table 14. The Original Model of IWB Scale

Factor	Items
Idea Exploration	I pay attention to issues that are not part of my daily work
	I wonder how things can be improved
Idea Generation	I search out new working methods, techniques or instruments
	I generate original solutions for problems
	I find new approaches to execute tasks
Idea Championing	I attempt to convince people to support an innovative idea
	I make important organizational members enthusiastic for innovative ideas
Idea Implementation	I put effort in the development of new things
	I systematically introduce innovative ideas into work practices
	I contribute to the implementation of new ideas

3.1.4. Organizational Identification Questionnaire

Explanatory factor analysis was performed to determine the dimensions of the scale (Table 15). Although the original scale contained 3 factors, a single factor emerged in the factor analysis, and it was observed that none of the items had a factor loading below 0.40 (KMO=0.96 Bartlett's Test p=0.00<0.01; cumulative variance explained 78.5 %). Cronbach α value of the scale was calculated as .98.

Table 15. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results of OI Scale

Factors	Loadings
I am glad I choose to work for this organization rather than another one	.93
I find it easy to identify myself to this organization	.92
I find that my values and the values of this organization are very similar	.92
I talk up this organization to my friends as a great company to work for	.91
I have warm feelings toward this organization as a place to work	.91
I am proud to be a member of this organization	.90
I would describe this organization as a large family in which most members feel a sense of belonging	.89
This organization's image in the community represents me well	.88
I would be willing to spend the rest of my career with this organization	.87
The record of this organization is an example of what dedicated people can achieve	.85
I feel that this organization cares for me	.85
I really care about the fate of this organization	.80

Note. KMO=.96; Bartlett's Test (55) = 4100.47; p=.00; Explained Variance=78.5 %; Cronbach's alpha =.98

Confirmatory factor analyses was also conducted for organizational identification scale. First, the original four-factor model was tested (CMIN/df= 4.01, CFI= .97, SRMR= .03, RMSEA= .09). Second, the unidimensional model which were yielded in EFA was tested (CMIN/df= 6.08, CFI= .94, SRMR= .03, RMSEA= .13). The original model indicated better fit even though RMSEA value is just a bit higher than acceptable value. The model derived EFA was not fit with RMSEA= .13. Hence original factor structure will be used in the regression analysis. The original dimensions and related items can be seen from Table 16.

Table 16. The Original Model of OI Scale

Factor	Items
Membership	I am proud to be a member of this organization. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great company to work for. I really care about the fate of this organization.
Loyalty	I have warm feelings toward this organization as a place to work. I would be willing to spend the rest of my career with this organization. The record of this organization is an example of what dedicated people can achieve. I would describe this organization as a large family in which most members feel a sense of belonging. I am glad I choose to work for this organization rather than another one. I feel that this organization cares for me.
Similarity	This organization's image in the community represents me well. I find it easy to identify myself to this organization. I find that my values and the values of this organization are very similar.

3.2. Work Values and Generational Differences

After the measurement validations and reliability analyses, the investigation of work values and the differences between work values of generations will be tested and presented in this section.

The responses of the participants to the Work Values Questionnaire are analyzed (Table 17). Accordingly, it can be observed that the dimensions with the highest scores are 'enjoyment' (M=6.33), 'ambition' (M=6.21), 'autonomy' (M=6.18), 'social justice' (M=6.18), and 'environmental sustainability' (M=6.14). Two work values were also having higher means: 'safety' (M=6.02) and 'rule respecting' (M=6.01). These findings suggest that the participants tend to prioritize both experiencing job satisfaction and adhering to established rules and procedures. Furthermore, they tend to prefer working alongside colleagues who share a similar respect for orderliness and regulations. The participants' desire for autonomy in their work and the ability to make independent decisions and manage tasks safely, without any potential risks, were also found to be essential factors. They also care for the society, the world, and the environment. Comparing these high-scored values to 'helping and supporting' (M=5.96), and 'variety' (M=5.73) values, it was observed that these values have slightly low averages. Yet the lowest score among the values is 'traditional values' (M=4.62). Accordingly, the participants

do not consider themselves sufficiently committed to traditions and religious affiliation. While the average score for this dimension on a 7-point Likert scale is still notably high, a comparison with other values implies that factors such as adhering to traditional roles, aligning work with religious beliefs, and upholding family values are relatively less important when compared to other values. Another low scored work value is 'authority' (M=5.00), and it seems that none of the generations give importance to authority as a work value in comparison to other work values.

Table 17. Means, Standard Deviations, and One-Way Analyses of Variance in Work Values

	Overall (n=525)		**Gen X (n=101)**		**Millennials (n=205)**		**Gen Z (n=219)**			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**F**	**η^2**
Ambition	6.21	1.04	6.25	.79	6.54	.80	5.90	1.23	21.89**	.12
Authority	5.00	1.26	5.06	1.21	5.27	1.14	4.72	1.33	10.85**	.08
Autonomy	6.18	.83	6.19	.74	6.31	.77	6.05	.91	5.04	.05
Enjoyment	6.33	.79	6.08	.90	6.39	.78	6.38	.73	6.34*	.05
Env. Sust.	6.14	1.02	6.09	1.00	6.32	.94	5.98	1.08	6.14*	.05
Help. Sup.	5.96	.88	5.87	.85	6.20	.80	5.79	.91	12.79**	.08
Rule Res.	6.01	.89	5.95	.78	6.22	.81	5.84	.96	10.32**	.07
Safety	6.02	1.07	5.87	1.11	6.19	1.02	5.93	1.09	4.19	.04
Social Justice	6.18	1.02	5.95	1.08	6.32	.99	6.15	1.00	4.83	.05
Tra. Values	4.62	1.58	4.88	1.20	5.07	1.49	4.09	1.66	23.81**	.13
Variety	5.73	.91	5.51	.92	5.97	.87	5.60	.89	13.15**	.09

* p<.05 **p<.001

To investigate potential differences in work values across generations (Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z), a one-way ANOVA analysis and post hoc analysis were conducted (Table 18). Additionally, a t-test was utilized to determine any potential differences between the two subgroups of Millennials, namely Gen Y1 and Gen Y2, regarding their responses to work values (Table 19). To comprehensively examine intergenerational differences, including micro-generations, a one-way ANOVA analysis and post hoc analysis were employed across all generations, encompassing Gen X, Gen Y1, Gen Y2, and Gen Z (Table 13). According to the results of the analysis:

The analysis reveals a significant difference between Gen Z and other generations (Gen X and Millennials) in **ambition** value with Gen Z exhibiting notably lower scores in this regard. Yet Gen X and Millennials do not differ in this work value. By conducting a subsequent analysis including micro-generations, Gen Z remain significantly different from all generations.

However, another meaningful difference appeared between Gen X and Gen Y2, while Gen X and Gen Y1 participants did not differ.

Analyzing **authority** value, the results indicate that Gen Z differs significantly from Millennials. The same value was tested between micro-generations and Gen Z participants still had the lowest scores among other generations and revealing a significant difference between Gen Y1 and Gen Y2. Interestingly, the results showed that authority was not an important value for Gen Z and Gen X participants.

Autonomy value was another work value analyzed in this study and results demonstrated that there was a significant difference between Gen Z and Millennials. The micro-generational analyzes however, revealed another aspect: Gen Z was solely differed from Gen Y2 and had no significant difference between Gen X and Gen Y1.

Another work value tested was **enjoyment**. In the first analysis, it was found that Gen X has significantly lower scores compared to Millennials and Gen Z. In the second analysis in which micro-generations were included, Gen X participants' scores were still different from Gen Y2 and Gen Z. However, there was no longer a significant difference between Gen X and Gen Y1. These two generations were found similar.

The results of analysis about the differences in **environmental sustainability** value, the only significant difference was between Millennials and Gen Z. By analyzing the micro-generations, it was found that this difference was due to Gen Y2 since there was no significant difference between Gen Y1 and Gen Z.

Helping and supporting was another work value to be tested and the results of the analyses showed that Millennials were different from both Gen X and Gen Z. Interestingly, the micro-generational analyses demonstrated that this difference was mainly from Gen Y2 since in this analysis no other significant differences were found among the other generations.

Similarly, **rule respecting**, **safety, social justice,** and **variety** work values were found significantly different in Millennials from Gen X and Gen Z, and micro-generational analyses revealed that it was due to Gen Y2.

Traditional values dimension was significantly lower in Gen Z participants in comparison to Gen X and Millennials, and also in comparison to Gen Y1 and Gen Y2.

Table 18. Means, Standard Deviations, and One-Way Analyses of Variance in Work Values Including Gen Y1 and Gen Y2

	Overall (n=525)		Gen X (n=101)		Gen Y1 (n=101)		Gen Y2 (n=104)		Gen Z (n=219)			
	M	SD	M	M	M	SD	SD	M	M	SD	F	η^2
Ambition	6.21	1.04	6.25	0.79	6.42	0.88	6.65	0.70	5.90	1.23	15.53**	.13
Authority	5.00	1.26	5.06	1.21	5.15	1.06	5.40	1.20	4.72	1.33	7.94**	.08
Autonomy	6.18	0.83	6.19	0.74	6.19	0.76	6.42	0.76	6.05	0.91	4.62*	.05
Enjoyment	6.33	0.79	6.08	0.90	6.16	0.92	6.62	0.54	6.38	0.73	10.53**	.10
Environmental Sustainability	6.14	1.02	6.09	1.00	6.22	0.93	6.42	0.94	5.98	1.08	4.75*	.06
Helping and Supporting	5.96	0.88	5.87	0.85	6.03	0.86	6.36	0.69	5.79	0.91	11.20**	.10
Rule Respecting	6.01	0.89	5.95	0.78	6.09	0.84	6.35	0.77	5.84	0.96	8.36**	.08
Safety	6.02	1.07	5.87	1.11	6.05	1.09	6.32	0.93	5.93	1.09	3.90	.05
Social Justice	6.18	1.02	5.95	1.08	6.16	1.03	6.48	0.93	6.15	1.00	5.05*	.06
Traditional	4.62	1.58	4.88	1.20	5.11	1.29	5.03	1.66	4.09	1.66	15.90**	.13
Variety	5.73	0.91	5.51	0.92	5.79	0.93	6.15	0.77	5.60	0.89	11.78**	.10

* $p<.05$ **$p<.01$

Table 19. Mean and Standard Deviation Scores of Work Values Questionnaire for Gen Y1 and Gen Y2 and t-Test Results

	Overall (n=525)		Gen Y1 (n=93)		Gen Y2 (n=112)				
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	***t***	***p***	**Cohen's *d***
Ambition	6.21	1.04	6.21	0.89	6.62	0.71	1.57	.03*	.22
Authority	5.00	1.26	6.19	1.10	5.36	1.17	1.14	.53	.16
Autonomy	6.18	0.83	6.23	0.75	6.39	0.77	1.64	.49	.23
Enjoyment	6.33	0.79	6.03	0.93	6.56	0.58	3.43	.00**	.48
Environmental Sustainability	6.14	1.02	6.08	0.94	6.40	0.94	1.34	.53	.40
Helping	5.96	0.88	6.05	0.88	6.34	0.69	2.82	.02*	.19
Rule Respecting	6.01	0.89	6.16	0.85	6.34	0.76	2.37	.35	.33
Safety	6.02	1.07	5.11	1.09	6.30	0.94	1.71	.23	.24
Social Justice	6.18	1.02	5.78	1.04	6.46	0.93	2.14	.12	.30
Traditional Values	4.62	1.58	6.21	1.32	5.03	1.62	-0.39	.02*	.06
Variety	5.73	0.91	6.19	0.95	6.13	0.76	2.95	.34	.42

* p<.05 **p<.01

3.2.1. Differences in Work Values According to Demographic Characteristics

This section examines whether there were differences in the participants' responses to the work values scale based on their demographic characteristics. To examine if there is significant difference between demographic variables t-test and ANOVA were used. T-test was used for variables with two categories, while One-Way ANOVA was used for variables with more than two categories.

According to the results of t-test conducted to determine whether the participants' responses to the **ambition** dimension of the work values questionnaire vary based on the demographic variables with two categories, no significant differences were found for experience other than banking, marital status and having children (Table 20). On the other hand, gender was the only demographic variable that had a significant difference. According to this result, women tend to give more importance to ambition as a work value in comparison to men.

Table 20. t-test Results for Ambition

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	*t*	*p*	*Cohen's d*
Gender	Female	228	6.25	.71	2.98	.01*	.34
	Male	111	5.90	.89			
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	6.42	.83	-0.65	.52	-.30
	No	132	6.48	.77			
Marital Status	Single	112	6.51	.83	1.10	.28	.91
	Married	194	6.40	.79			
Having Children	Yes	148	6.42	.78	-0.50	.62	-.06
	No	158	6.47	.83			

* p<.05 **p<.01

Upon examining the results of the analyses conducted to determine whether the participants' responses to the **ambition** dimension of the work values questionnaire vary based on the demographic variables with more than two categories, significant differences were found for two variables: tenure and income (Table 21). Accordingly, participants belonging to the lowest income category had higher responses compared to those in other income categories, and participants with low tenure exhibited higher responses than those with high tenure.

Table 21. One-Way ANOVA Results for Ambition

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	η^2
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	6.61	.78	2.62	.02
	Bachelor's Degree	188	6.36	.85		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	6.54	.66		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	6.54	.78	3.02*	.03
	5 – 11 years	95	6.55	.79		
	12 – 19 years	76	6.42	.80		
	20 years and more	67	6.20	.81		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	6.74	.58	7.07*	.05
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	6.35	.90		
	20.000 TL and more	80	6.34	.72		

p<.05 **p<.01

According to the results of t-test conducted to determine whether the participants' responses to the **authority** dimension of the work values questionnaire vary based on the demographic variables with two categories, no significant differences were found for gender, experience other than banking, marital status and having children (Table 22).

Table 22. t-test Results for Authority

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	*t*	*p*	*Cohen's d*
Gender	Female	228	5.00	1.25	.58	.56	.07
	Male	111	4.91	1.21			
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	5.20	1.18	-0.92	.93	-.01
	No	132	5.21	1.15			
Marital Status	Single	112	5.35	1.23	1.64	.05	.19
	Married	194	5.12	1.12			
Having Children	Yes	148	5.18	1.12	-0.40	.62	-.05
	No	158	5.23	1.21			

* p<.05 **p<.01

Upon examining the results of the analyses conducted to determine whether the participants' responses to the **authority** dimension of the work values questionnaire vary based on the demographic variables with more than two categories, significant differences were found for two variables: tenure and income and no significant differences according to education (Table 23). Accordingly, participants belonging to the lowest income category had higher

responses compared to those in other income categories, and participants with low tenure exhibited higher responses than those with high tenure.

Table 23. One-Way ANOVA Results for Authority

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	η^2
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	5.61	.99	4.29	.03
	Bachelor's Degree	188	5.09	1.15		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	5.22	1.28		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	5.27	1.20	3.95*	.04
	5 – 11 years	95	5.48	1.12		
	12 – 19 years	76	5.10	1.05		
	20 years and more	67	4.87	1.24		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	5.62	1.08	7.88**	.05
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	5.17	1.11		
	20.000 TL and more	80	4.89	1.25		

* p<.05 **p<.01

Upon analyzing the results of the t-test used to investigate whether the participants' responses to the **autonomy** dimension of the work values questionnaire varied based on the demographic variables with two categories, no significant differences were found according to gender, experience other than banking, and having children (Table 24). Only marital status was significant, and it revealed that singles prioritize autonomy more than married participants.

Table 24. t-test Results for Autonomy

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	t	p
Gender	Female	228	6.19	.80	2.97	.06
	Male	111	6.02	.85		
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	6.31	.75	1.07	.29
	No	132	6.22	.77		
Marital Status	Single	112	6.40	.75	2.27	.03*
	Married	194	6.20	.76		
Having Children	Yes	148	6.25	.72	-0.50	.62
	No	158	6.29	.79		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

Upon analyzing the results of the ANOVA used to investigate whether the participants' responses to the **autonomy** dimension of the work values questionnaire varied based on the demographic variables with more than two categories, significant differences were found only in terms of their education, and income (Table 25). Accordingly, high school and associate degree graduates exhibited higher responses than bachelor's degree and above graduates, those in the lowest income level category exhibited higher responses than those in other income level categories.

Table 25. One-Way ANOVA Results for Autonomy

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	p
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	6.58	.54	6.14	.00**
	Bachelor's Degree	188	6.18	.80		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	6.28	.75		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	6.33	.84	.43	.73
	5 – 11 years	95	6.30	.75		
	12 – 19 years	76	6.22	.78		
	20 years and more	67	6.21	.67		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	6.53	.72	6.78	0.00**
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	6.23	.78		
	20.000 TL and more	80	6.10	.70		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

To investigate whether the participants' responses to the **enjoyment** dimension of the work values questionnaire varied based on the demographic variables with two categories, t-test was conducted. According to the results, it was found that the participants' responses to this dimension exhibited significant differences in terms of their marital status, and whether they have children (Table 26). Accordingly, single respondents had higher responses than married respondents, and those without children had higher responses than those with children.

Table 26. t-test Results for Enjoyment

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	t	p
Gender	Female	228	6.36	.75	1.94	.05
	Male	111	6.18	.83		
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	6.31	.84	.52	.61
	No	132	6.26	.83		
Marital Status	Single	112	6.48	.63	3.41	.00**
	Married	194	6.18	.92		
Having Children	Yes	148	6.11	.95	-3.61	.00**
	No	158	6.45	.67		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

To investigate whether the participants' responses to the enjoyment dimension of the work values questionnaire varied based on the demographic variables with more than two categories, ANOVA was conducted. According to the results, it was found that the participants' responses to this dimension exhibited significant differences in terms of their education, tenure, and income (Table 27). Accordingly, high school and associate degree graduates had higher responses than bachelor's degree and above graduates, those with less than 5 years of work experience had higher responses than those with 20 or more years of work experience, those with low- income levels had higher responses than others.

Table 27. One-Way ANOVA Results for Enjoyment

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	p
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	6.53	.91	3.61	.03*
	Bachelor's Degree	188	6.20	.85		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	6.35	.68		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	6.48	.66	3.37	.02*
	5 – 11 years	95	6.37	.72		
	12 – 19 years	76	6.21	.96		
	20 years and more	67	6.07	.95		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	6.64	.54	10.30	.00**
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	6.23	.90		
	20.000 TL and more	80	6.07	.84		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

T-test used to investigate whether the participants' responses to the **environmental sustainability** dimension of the work values questionnaire. Results varied based on the

demographic variables with two categories, significant differences were found only in terms of gender (Table 28). It can be observed that women provide higher responses compared to men.

Table 28. t-test Results for Environmental Sustainability

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	t	p
Gender	Female	228	6.20	.97	2.42	.00*
	Male	111	5.89	1.18		
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	6.29	.98	.85	.40
	No	132	6.19	.95		
Marital Status	Single	112	6.31	1.02	.89	.38
	Married	194	6.21	.93		
Having Children	Yes	148	6.22	.93	-.41	.68
	No	158	6.27	1.00		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

ANOVA used to investigate whether the participants' responses to the **environmental sustainability** dimension of the work values questionnaire. Results varied based on the demographic variables with more than two categories, significant differences were found in terms of education, and income levels (Table 29). It can be observed that participants with high school and associate degrees exhibit higher responses compared to those with bachelor's degree and above. Moreover, there is a decreasing trend in responses as we move from low-income level to high income level.

Table 29. One-Way ANOVA Results for Environmental Sustainability

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	p
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	6.58	.68	4.26	.02*
	Bachelor's Degree	188	6.20	1.00		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	6.11	1.03		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	6.41	.80	1.64	.18
	5 – 11 years	95	6.32	.98		
	12 – 19 years	76	6.14	.99		
	20 years and more	67	6.10	1.05		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	6.65	.60	10.30	.00**
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	6.19	1.00		
	20.000 TL and more	80	5.98	1.05		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

In order to analyze whether the participants' responses to the **helping and supporting** dimension of the work values questionnaire differ according to the demographic variables with two categories, t-test results were examined (Table 30). The participants' responses to this dimension differ significantly only according to their marital status and having children. Accordingly, those who are single responded higher than those who are married, those who do not have children responded higher than those who have children.

Table 30. t-test Results for Helping and Supporting

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	t	p
Gender	Female	228	5.95	.81	.71	.48
	Male	111	5.88	.92		
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	6.15	.81	1.39	.17
	No	132	6.02	.85		
Marital Status	Single	112	6.22	.79	2.09	.04*
	Married	194	6.02	.84		
Having Children	Yes	148	5.97	.83	-2.42	.02*
	No	158	6.20	.81		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

In order to analyze whether the participants' responses to the **helping and supporting** dimension of the work values questionnaire differ according to the demographic variables with more than two categories, ANOVA results were examined (Table 31). The participants' responses to this dimension differ significantly according to their education, seniority, and income. Accordingly, high school and associate degree graduates responded higher than bachelor's degree and above graduates, those with less than 12 years of work experience responded higher than those with more seniority, and there is a decreasing trend in responses as we move from low-income level to high income level.

When the t-test results performed to analyze whether the participants' responses to the **rule respecting** dimension of the work values questionnaire differ according to the demographic variables with two categories are examined, the participants' responses to this dimension differ significantly only according to gender (Table 32). As a result, females provided higher responses than males.

Table 31. One-Way ANOVA Results for Helping and Supporting

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	p
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	6.40	.74	4.72	.01**
	Bachelor's Degree	188	6.04	.80		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	5.98	.92		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	6.36	.66	5.40	.00**
	5 – 11 years	95	6.18	.80		
	12 – 19 years	76	5.89	.87		
	20 years and more	67	5.92	.87		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	6.46	.66	14.48	.00**
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	6.08	.80		
	20.000 TL and more	80	5.77	.88		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

Table 32. t-test Results for Rule Respecting

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	*t*	*p*
Gender	Female	228	6.08	.85	2.75	.01*
	Male	111	5.81	.90		
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	6.10	.87	-.71	.48
	No	132	6.17	.73		
Marital Status	Single	112	6.25	.83	1.94	.05
	Married	194	6.06	.80		
Having Children	Yes	148	6.05	.81	-1.72	.09
	No	158	6.21	.81		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

When the One-Way ANOVA results performed to analyze whether the participants' responses to the **rule respecting** dimension of the work values questionnaire differ according to the demographic variables with more than two categories are examined, the responses of the participants to this dimension do not differ significantly except for education and income level (Table 33). According to the results, participants who held high school and associate degrees had higher responses compared to those who were bachelor's degree and above graduates. Additionally, individuals belonging to the lowest income category provided higher responses compared to those in other income categories.

Table 33. One-Way ANOVA Results for Rule Respecting

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	p
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	6.43	.72	5.12	.00**
	Bachelor's Degree	188	6.10	.78		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	5.97	.92		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	6.26	.84	2.38	.07
	5 – 11 years	95	6.23	.74		
	12 – 19 years	76	6.06	.81		
	20 years and more	67	5.95	.87		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	6.52	.62	16.49	.00**
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	6.11	.79		
	20.000 TL and more	80	5.81	.86		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

Upon analyzing the results of the t-test used to investigate whether the participants' responses to the **safety** dimension of the work values questionnaire varied based on the demographic variables with two categories, significant differences were found only in terms of their gender (Table 34). Hence, female participants had higher responses compared to males.

Table 34. t-test Results for Safety

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	t	p
Gender	Female	228	6.10	1.00	2.24	.03*
	Male	111	5.82	1.23		
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	6.14	1.07	1.05	.29
	No	132	6.01	1.05		
Marital Status	Single	112	6.21	1.07	1.64	.10
	Married	194	6.01	1.04		
Having Children	Yes	148	6.02	1.08	-1.04	.30
	No	158	6.14	1.03		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

Upon analyzing the results of the ANOVA used to investigate whether the participants' responses to the **safety** dimension of the work values questionnaire varied based on the demographic variables with more than two categories, significant differences were found in terms of their education, tenure, and income levels (Table 35). Hence, participants who held high school and associate degrees had higher responses compared to those who were bachelor's degree and above graduates. Moreover, participants belonging to the lowest income category provided higher responses compared to those in other income categories. However, participants with more than 20 years of work experience had lower responses than those with less than 12 years of tenure.

Table 35. One-Way ANOVA Results for Safety

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	p
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	6.58	.65	8.13	.00**
	Bachelor's Degree	188	6.02	1.12		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	5.85	1.04		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	6.28	.99	3.52	.02*
	5 – 11 years	95	6.22	.88		
	12 – 19 years	76	6.01	1.07		
	20 years and more	67	5.77	1.27		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	6.60	.62	15.54	.00**
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	6.03	1.04		
	20.000 TL and more	80	5.70	1.22		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

T-test used to investigate whether the participants' responses to the **social justice** dimension of the work values questionnaire. Results varied based on the demographic variables with two categories, significant differences were found in terms of gender and marital status (Table 36). It can be observed that women provide higher responses compared to men and single participants scored higher than married participants.

Table 36. t-test Results for Social Justice

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	t	p
Gender	Female	228	6.35	0.79	3.97	.00**
	Male	111	5.91	1.15		
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	6.24	1.04	.76	.45
	No	132	6.15	1.04		
Marital Status	Single	112	6.36	1.02	2.03	.04*
	Married	194	6.11	1.03		
Having Children	Yes	148	6.09	1.04	-1.78	.08
	No	158	6.30	1.04		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

ANOVA used to investigate whether the participants' responses to the **social justice** dimension of the work values questionnaire. Results varied based on the demographic variables with more than two categories, significant differences were found in terms of education, seniority, and income levels (Table 37). It can be observed that participants with high school and associate degrees exhibit higher responses compared to those with bachelor's degree and

above. Moreover, there is a decreasing trend in responses as we move from low-income level to high income level, and from low seniority to high seniority.

When the t-test results performed to analyze whether the participants' responses to the **traditional values** dimension of the work values questionnaire differ according to the demographic variables with two categories are examined, the participants' responses to this dimension differ significantly only according to gender (Table 38). As a result, females provided higher responses than males.

Table 37. One-Way ANOVA Results for Social Justice

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	p
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	6.62	.74	5.66	.00*
	Bachelor's Degree	188	6.11	1.09		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	6.09	.99		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	6.43	.76	4.08	.01*
	5 – 11 years	95	6.34	.99		
	12 – 19 years	76	6.06	1.14		
	20 years and more	67	5.91	1.14		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	6.68	.59	17.99	.00**
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	6.21	1.01		
	20.000 TL and more	80	5.73	1.19		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

Table 38. t-test Results for Traditional Values

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	*t*	*p*
Gender	Female	228	4.69	1.53	1.40	.16*
	Male	111	4.44	1.52		
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	5.01	1.40	1.06	.29
	No	132	5.00	1.40		
Marital Status	Single	112	5.08	1.50	.70	.49
	Married	194	4.96	1.34		
Having Children	Yes	148	5.03	1.27	.25	.80
	No	158	4.99	1.51		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

When the One-Way ANOVA results performed to analyze whether the participants' responses to the **traditional values** dimension of the work values questionnaire differ according to the demographic variables with more than two categories are examined, the responses of the

participants to this dimension do not differ significantly except for education and income level (Table 39). According to the results, participants who held high school and associate degrees had higher responses compared to those who were bachelor's degree and above graduates. Additionally, individuals belonging to the lowest income category provided higher responses compared to those in other income categories.

Table 39. One-Way ANOVA Results for Traditional Values

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	p
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	5.57	1.14	5.60	.00*
	Bachelor's Degree	188	4.89	1.46		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	4.87	1.30		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	5.01	1.49	.74	.53
	5 – 11 years	95	5.13	1.54		
	12 – 19 years	76	5.02	1.25		
	20 years and more	67	4.80	1.25		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	5.49	1.29	6.73	.00*
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	4.92	1.49		
	20.000 TL and more	80	4.71	1.21		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

According to the results of One-Way ANOVA conducted to determine whether the participants' responses to the **variety** dimension of the work values questionnaire vary based on the demographic variables with two categories, the participants' responses to this dimension differ significantly only according to marital status and having children (Table 40). As a result, individuals who were single provided higher responses than those who were married, and those without children gave higher responses compared to those with children.

Table 40. t-test Results for Variety

Variables	Groups	N	M	SD	t	p
Gender	Female	228	5.73	.83	.99	.35
	Male	111	5.63	.98		
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	5.88	.90	1.25	.22
	No	132	5.75	.92		
Marital Status	Single	112	5.99	.89	2.53	.01*
	Married	194	5.72	.91		
Having Children	Yes	148	5.68	.92	-2.61	.01*
	No	158	5.95	.89		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

According to the results of t-test conducted to determine whether the participants' responses to the **variety** dimension of the work values questionnaire vary based on the demographic variables with more than two categories, the participants' responses to this dimension differ significantly only according to seniority, and income level (Table 41). As a result, participants with less than 11 years of work experience exhibited higher responses than those with more seniority. Moreover, respondents in the highest income category had lower responses than those in other income categories.

Table 41. One-Way ANOVA Results for Variety

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	p
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	6.02	1.02	1.70	.18
	Bachelor's Degree	188	5.79	.88		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	5.73	.88		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	6.09	.80	6.29	.00**
	5 – 11 years	95	5.95	.88		
	12 – 19 years	76	5.71	1.00		
	20 years and more	67	5.48	.85		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	6.10	.83	9.47	.00**
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	5.86	.89		
	20.000 TL and more	80	5.49	.93		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

3.2.2. Prosociality, Innovative Work Behavior, and Organizational Identification Variables and Their Differences According to Generations

The participants' responses to the scales of prosociality, innovative work behavior, and organizational identification were evaluated (Table 42), and it was noted that the participants provided positive responses to all of the scales. Hence, organizational identification had the lowest score among all scales (M=3.99). According to the results, the participants define themselves as individuals who exhibit prosocial behaviors, are empathetic towards people in difficult situations and care about helping others (M=4.23). In addition, they defined themselves as open to innovation and curious, exhibiting innovative work behaviors and eager to improve the work (M=4.11). Finally, these results indicate that most of the participants are proud of the

organization they work for, are inclined to continue their careers in this organization and think that their values and the values of the organization are compatible (M=3.99). As Gen Z is not yet involved in the workforce, the organizational identification scale was not administered to them. Analysis indicates that responses from the sub-dimensions of the prosociality scale do not differ significantly from the overall score. Therefore, participants reported engaging in prosocial behaviors in both the first factor in which items included prosocial behaviors toward people in actual need (M=4.19) and the second factor in which items included being ready to behave in a prosocial way even if there is no one in need (M=4.32).

One-way ANOVA was performed to analyze whether the participants' responses to prosociality, innovative work behavior and organizational identification scales differed according to generations (Gen X, Millennials and Gen Z) (Table 42 and Table 43), and t-test was performed to analyze the difference between micro-generations (Gen Y1 and Gen Y2) (Table 44). One-way ANOVA was used to analyze the differences between all generations (Gen X, Gen Y1, Gen Y2 and Gen Z) by including micro-generations (Table 45). According to the results of the analyses:

The scores of Millennials in the prosociality scale are significantly higher than those of Gen X and Gen Z. Analyzing the results based on micro-generations, it is observed that participants from Gen Y2 have significantly higher scores than participants from Gen X and Gen Z.

In the first dimension of the prosociality scale in which items included prosocial behaviors toward people in actual need, it is found out that Millennials have significantly higher scores than Gen X and Gen Z. When the results are analyzed in detail by adding the micro generations, it is found that Gen Y2 has higher scores than the other generations and significant differences between Gen X and Gen Z.

In the second dimension of the prosociality scale in which items included being ready to behave in a prosocial way even if there is no one in need, it is found out that the Millennials have significantly higher scores than the Gen X and Gen Z. When the results are analyzed in detail by adding the micro generations, it is found that Gen Y2 has higher scores than the other generations and significant differences between Gen X and Gen Z.

The results indicate that Gen Z has a significantly lower score than other generations in the Innovative Work Behavior (IWB) dimension and this pattern persists even when the

analysis is conducted based on micro-generations. After analyzing the subscales of IWB, the results showed that there is no significant difference between generations and micro-generations in idea exploration subscale. However, Gen Z participants have lower scores in idea generation and idea implementation in comparison to Gen X and Millennials. There is also a meaningful difference between Gen Z and Millennials in idea championing subscale in which Gen Z scored lower. When analyzing including the micro-generations, Gen Z still has significantly lower scores in idea generation but regarding idea championing and idea implementation the only significant difference is between Gen Z and Gen Y2.

The analysis of the organizational identification dimension shows that Millennials have significantly higher scores than Gen X in all subscales. Moreover, the results reveal that participants from Gen Y2 exhibit significantly higher scores compared to those in Gen Y1 and Gen X, when examined at the micro-generational level. The analysis of the subscale of organizational identification reveals that Gen Y2 differs from Gen X in membership and similarity subscales, exhibiting higher scores. However, in loyalty subscale, Gen Y2 participants scored higher than both Gen Y1 and Gen X meaningfully.

Table 42. Mean and Standard Deviation Values of Prosociality, Innovative Work Behavior Scales by Generations and Test of ANOVA Results

	Overall (n=525)		Gen X (n=101)		Gen Y (n=205)		Gen Z (n=219)		ANOVA	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F	p
Prosociality Total	4.23	.62	4.15	.52	4.38	.62	4.12	.63	10.48	.00*
Prosociality Factor 1	4.19	.67	4.07	.57	4.31	.68	4.12	.67	6.18	.00**
Prosociality Factor 2	4.32	.67	4.30	.58	4.52	.64	4.13	.69	19.44	.00**
Innovative Work Behavior (IWB)	4.11	.69	4.15	.57	4.25	.71	3.95	0.69	10.35	.00**
IWB Idea Exploration	4.06	.75	4.07	.70	4.09	.76	4.03	.77	.39	.68
IWB Idea Generation	4.08	.78	4.15	.66	4.28	.76	3.86	.79	17.28	.00**
IWB Idea Championing	4.07	.90	4.12	.75	4.19	.95	3.94	.90	4.48	.01*
IWB Idea Implementation	4.19	.79	4.24	.65	4.37	.78	4.01	.81	11.22	.00**

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

Table 43. Mean and Standard Deviation Values of Organizational Identification Scales by Generations and t-Test Results

	Overall (n=525)		Gen X (n=101)		Gen Y (n=205)		t Test	
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	***t***	***p***
OI Membership	4.08	1.02	3.88	.98	4.18	1.03	-2.44	.02*
OI Loyalty	4.02	1.00	3.86	1.06	4.10	1.03	-2.02	.04*
OI Similarity	3.87	1.13	3.68	.52	3.97	1.15	-2.10	.04*
Organizational Identification (OI)	3.99	1.00	3.82	.92	4.08	1.03	-2.18	.03*

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

Table 44. Mean and Standard Deviation Values of Prosociality, Innovative Work Behavior, Organizational Identification Scales by Micro Generations and t Test Results

	Overall (n=525)		Gen Y1 (n=101)		Gen Y2 (n=104)		t Test	
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**SD**	**M**	**t**	**p**
Prosociality Total	4.23	.62	4.28	.60	4.48	.63	2.36	.02*
Prosociality Factor 1	4.19	.67	4.20	.65	4.42	.70	1.91	.03*
Prosociality Factor 2	4.32	.67	4.43	.65	4.61	.61	2.38	.02*
IWB Idea Exploration	4.09	.76	4.08	.69	4.07	.82	.15	.88
IWB Idea Generation	4.28	.76	4.22	.74	4.32	.79	.79	.43
IWB Idea Championing	4.19	.95	4.15	.90	4.21	.98	.47	.64
IWB Idea Implementation	4.37	.78	4.29	.76	4.42	.79	1.27	.21
Innovative Work Behavior	4.11	.69	4.20	.69	4.30	.74	.76	.45
OI Membership	3.97	1.03	4.03	1.06	4.35	.97	2.54	.01*
OI Loyalty	4.10	1.03	3.92	1.04	4.29	.98	3.01	.00*
OI Similarity	3.97	1.15	3.80	1.16	4.15	1.11	2.61	.01*
Organizational Identification	3.99	1.00	3.91	1.04	4.25	1.00	2.90	.00*

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

Table 45. Mean and Standard Deviation Values of Prosociality, Innovative Work Behavior, Organizational Identification Scales by Generations Including Micro Generations and Test of ANOVA Results

	Overall (n=525)		Gen X (n=101)		Gen Y1 (n=101)		Gen Y2 (n=104)		Gen Z (n=219)		ANOVA	
	M	SD	M	M	M	SD	SD	M	M	SD	F	p
Prosociality Total	4.23	.62	4.15	.52	4.28	.60	4.48	.63	4.12	.63	9.02	.00**
Prosociality Factor 1	4.19	.67	4.07	.57	4.20	.65	4.42	.70	4.12	.67	5.99	.00**
Prosociality Factor 2	4.32	.67	4.31	.58	4.43	.65	4.61	.61	4.13	.69	14.48	.00**
IWB Idea Exploration	4.09	.76	4.08	.69	4.08	.69	4.07	.82	3.95	.69	.26	.85
IWB Idea Generation	4.28	.76	4.22	.74	4.22	.74	4.32	.79	4.03	.77	11.93	.00**
IWB Idea Championing	4.19	.95	4.15	.90	4.15	.90	4.21	.98	3.86	.79	3.09	.03*
IWB Idea Implementation	4.37	.78	4.29	.76	4.29	.76	4.42	.79	3.94	.90	8.19	.00**
Innovative Work Behavior	4.11	.69	4.20	.69	4.20	.69	4.30	.74	4.01	.81	7.25	.00**
OI Membership	3.97	1.03	4.03	1.06	4.03	1.06	4.35	.97	--	--	5.16	.01*
OI Loyalty	4.10	1.03	3.92	1.04	3.92	1.04	4.29	.98	--	--	5.46	.01*
OI Similarity	3.97	1.15	3.80	1.16	3.80	1.16	4.15	1.11	--	--	4.55	.01*
Organizational Identification	3.99	1.00	3.91	1.04	3.91	1.04	4.25	1.00	--	--	5.45	0.01*

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

3.2.3. Mean Differences of Prosociality, Innovative Work Behavior, Organizational Identification Scales

According to the t-test results conducted to analyze whether the participants' responses to the prosociality scale differ according to the demographic variables with two categories, the participants' responses to this dimension differ significantly according to gender, marital status, and having children (Table 46). Thus, it can be inferred that females provided higher responses than males, unmarried participants exhibited higher responses than married ones, and individuals without children gave higher responses than those with children.

Table 46. t-Test Results for Prosociality

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	t	p
Gender	Female	228	4.28	.55	3.07	.00*
	Male	111	4.07	.65		
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	4.29	.61	-.30	.77
	No	132	4.32	.59		
Marital Status	Single	112	4.41	.64	2.39	.02*
	Married	194	4.24	.56		
Having Children	Yes	148	4.23	.54	-2.20	.02*
	No	158	4.38	.64		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

According to the ANOVA results conducted to analyze whether the participants' responses to the prosociality scale differ according to the demographic variables with more than two categories, the participants' responses to this dimension differ significantly only according to tenure, and income level (Table 47). Thus, it can be inferred that individuals with less than five years of work experience reported higher scores than those with 20 or more years of work experience, and participants in the highest income level category reported lower scores than those in other income level categories.

Table 47. One-Way ANOVA Results for Prosociality

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	p
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	4.34	.77	.40	.67
	Bachelor's Degree	188	4.31	.54		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	4.25	.60		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	4.43	.67	2.92	.03*
	5 – 11 years	95	4.37	.56		
	12 – 19 years	76	4.21	.63		
	20 years and more	67	4.19	.50		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	4.49	.56	12.26	.00**
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	4.35	.60		
	20.000 TL and more	80	4.05	.54		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

According to the t-test results conducted to analyze whether the participants' responses to the first factor of the prosociality scale differ according to the demographic variables with two categories, the participants' responses to this dimension differ significantly according to gender, marital status and having children (Table 48). As per the findings, women had higher mean scores than men on this dimension. Single participants had higher mean scores than married participants, and those without children had higher mean scores than those with children.

Table 48. t-Test Results for Prosociality Factor 1

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	t	p
Gender	Female	228	4.26	.58	3.25	.00**
	Male	111	4.02	.70		
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	4.21	.67	-.52	.60
	No	132	4.25	.67		
Marital Status	Single	112	4.34	.69	2.22	.03*
	Married	194	4.17	.62		
Having Children	Yes	148	4.14	.60	-2.11	.04*
	No	158	4.32	.69		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

According to the ANOVA results conducted to analyze whether the participants' responses to the first factor of the prosociality scale differ according to the demographic variables with more than two categories, the participants' responses to this dimension differ significantly according to tenure, and income level (Table 49). As per the findings, participants with less than 12 years of work experience had higher mean scores than those with more than 12 years of work experience. Moreover, those in the highest income category had lower mean scores compared to those in other income categories.

Table 49. One-Way ANOVA Results for Prosociality Factor 1

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	p
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	4.29	.79	.65	.53
	Bachelor's Degree	188	4.24	.61		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	4.16	.66		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	4.37	.73	2.25	.08
	5 – 11 years	95	4.28	.63		
	12 – 19 years	76	4.14	.68		
	20 years and more	67	4.13	.56		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	4.40	.65	11.05	.00**
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	4.30	.64		
	20.000 TL and more	80	3.95	.60		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

According to the t-test results conducted to analyze whether the participants' responses to the second factor of the prosociality scale differ according to the demographic variables with two categories, the participants' responses to this dimension differ significantly according to gender, marital status and having children (Table 50). Accordingly, women responded higher than men, those without children responded higher than those with children, and single participants had higher mean scores than married participants.

Table 50. t-Test Results for Prosociality Factor 2

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	t	p
Gender	Female	228	4.33	.62	2.07	.04**
	Male	111	4.17	0.68		
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	4.13	.69	-0.44	.66
	No	132	4.46	.61		
Marital Status	Single	112	4.55	.64	2.20	.03*
	Married	194	4.39	.61		
Having Children	Yes	148	4.41	.61	-2.54	.01*
	No	158	4.49	.64		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

According to the ANOVA results conducted to analyze whether the participants' responses to the second factor of the prosociality scale differ according to the demographic variables with more than two categories, the participants' responses to this dimension differ significantly according to tenure, and income level (Table 41). Accordingly, those with less than 12 years of work experience responded higher than those with more experience, and those in the highest income level category responded lower than those in other income level categories.

According to the t-test results conducted to analyze whether the participants' responses to the innovative work behavior (IWB) scale differ according to the demographic variables with two categories, the participants' responses to this dimension differ significantly only according to their marital status (Table 52). Accordingly, single respondents tend to give higher responses than married respondents.

Table 51. One-Way ANOVA Results for Prosociality Factor 2

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	p
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	4.46	.83	.02	.98
	Bachelor's Degree	188	4.45	.55		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	4.44	.63		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	4.57	.67	3.15	.03*
	5 – 11 years	95	4.54	.55		
	12 – 19 years	76	4.34	.67		
	20 years and more	67	4.33	.59		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	4.68	.48	10.15	.00**
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	4.45	.66		
	20.000 TL and more	80	4.24	.60		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

Table 52. t-Test Results for IWB

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	t	p
Gender	Female	228	4.05	.63	-.47	.64
	Male	111	4.16	.69		
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	4.25	.66	.82	.41
	No	132	4.18	.68		
Marital Status	Single	112	4.33	.69	2.19	.03*
	Married	194	4.15	.65		
Having Children	Yes	148	4.20	.63	-.39	.70
	No	158	4.23	.70		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

According to the ANOVA results conducted to analyze whether the participants' responses to the innovative work behavior (IWB) scale differ according to the demographic variables with more than two categories, the participants' responses to this dimension did not differ significantly according to any of the demographic variables (Table 53).

Table 53. One-Way ANOVA Results for IWB

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	p
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	4.07	.87	1.70	.18
	Bachelor's Degree	188	4.26	.61		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	4.22	.65		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	4.37	.67	2.10	.10
	5 – 11 years	95	4.24	.68		
	12 – 19 years	76	4.15	.71		
	20 years and more	67	4.11	.59		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	4.30	.64	.80	.45
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	4.21	.73		
	20.000 TL and more	80	4.17	.56		

* p<0.05 **p<0.01

The results of the t-test conducted to examine whether participants' responses to the organizational identification scale vary according to the demographic variables with two categories, the participants' responses to this dimension did not differ significantly according to any of the demographic variables (Table 54).

Table 54. t-Test Results for Organizational Identification

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	t	p
Gender	Female	114	3.99	.94	1.22	.23
	Male	69	3.80	1.13		
Experience Other Than Banking	Yes	174	3.94	1.06	-1.10	.27
	No	132	4.06	.92		
Marital Status	Single	112	4.05	1.12	.67	.51
	Married	194	3.96	.93		
Having Children	Yes	148	3.97	.93	-.36	.72
	No	158	4.01	1.07		

* p<0,05 **p<0,01

The results of the ANOVA conducted to examine whether participants' responses to the organizational identification scale vary according to the demographic variables with more than two categories indicate that significant differences were observed only in terms of tenure and income level (Table 55). Thus, those with less than 12 years of work experience are more likely

to give higher responses than those with higher work experience, and those in the lowest income level category are more likely to give higher responses than those in other income level categories.

Table 55. One-Way ANOVA Results for Organizational Identification

Variables	Groups	n	M	SD	F	p
Education	High School, Associate Degree	54	4.15	1.05	2.90	.57
	Bachelor's Degree	188	4.04	.98		
	Graduate, Postgraduate	64	3.74	1.02		
Tenure	Less than 5 years	68	4.19	1.05	4.66	.03*
	5 – 11 years	95	4.19	.94		
	12 – 19 years	76	3.78	1.01		
	20 years and more	67	3.76	.95		
Income	Less than 10.000 TL	74	4.34	.97	6.29	.00**
	10.000 TL – 19.999 TL	152	3.91	1.08		
	20.000 TL and more	80	3.82	.81		

* p<0,05 **p<0,01

3.2.4. Correlation Analyses

In the present study, correlation analyses were performed to investigate the interrelationships among the dimensions of the work values questionnaire and their associations with other scales (Table 56). According to the results of the analysis, it is revealed that the dimensions in the work values questionnaire have a significant positive relationship among themselves and with other scales.

According to the relationships among the dimensions of the work values questionnaire:

The analysis of relationships among the dimensions of the work values questionnaire revealed that the **ambition** dimension has a significant positive correlation with all other dimensions. Most of the correlations are relatively low, measuring less than .40 ($r<.40$). On the other hand, the correlation coefficient between ambition dimension and authority, autonomy, and rule respecting dimensions are at moderate levels ($0.40<r<0.70$).

Authority dimension has a low and positive relationship (0.40<r<0.70) with all other dimensions except autonomy, rule respecting and traditional values. These dimensions are correlated moderately (0.40<r<0.70).

Autonomy dimension has a positive relationship with all dimensions ranging from 0.32 to 0.55. On the other hand, the relationship with ambition and Respect for Tradition and norms dimensions is low (r<0.40). This dimension has higher correlations with enjoyment, helping and supporting, rule respecting, social justice, and variety. The highest correlation autonomy dimension has is the correlation with variety dimension (0.55).

Enjoyment dimension has a positive relationship with all other dimensions. Some of the correlation coefficients are below 0.40 (ambition, authority, rule respecting and traditional values) and some of the correlation coefficients are above 0.40 (autonomy, environmental sustainability, helping and supporting, safety, social justice and variety).

The relationship between **environmental sustainability** dimension and safety and social justice dimensions are very strong (r>0.70). This can be explained by the theoretical model of values since social justice and environmental sustainability dimensions are derived from universalism. Except these dimensions, environmental sustainability dimension has positive correlations, with coefficients ranging from 0.16 to 0.60.

The relationship of the **helping and supporting** dimension with all other dimensions are positive and at moderate levels (0.40<r<0.70) except ambition and authority (r<0.40).

The relationship of **rule respecting** dimension with all dimensions except enjoyment is at moderate levels (0.40<r<0.70); the relationship with enjoyment is lower (r<0.40).

The **safety** dimension exhibits a moderate level of relationship (0.40 < r < 0.70) with most of the other dimensions except ambition, authority, and autonomy (r<0.40).

Social justice dimension exhibits a moderate level of relationship (0.40<r<0.70) with some of the dimensions (autonomy, enjoyment, environmental sustainability, helping and supporting, rule respecting, safety, and variety), while exhibiting lower correlation with others (ambition, authority, autonomy, and traditional values).

Traditional values dimension has a positive relationship with all dimensions ranging from 0.21 to 0.53. The lowest correlations are enjoyment (.21) and variety (.28). On the other hand,

traditional values dimension has a stronger correlation with rule respecting (.53) and authority (.46).

Variety dimension has positive correlations with all other dimensions. Some of the correlations are moderate (enjoyment, helping and supporting and autonomy), while others are relatively low (ambition and traditional values).

According to other scales' relationship with each other and with work values:

It is seen that the results obtained from the **prosociality** scale have a moderate relationship (0,40<r<0,70) with the results obtained from the **IWB** and a relatively lower correlation with **organizational identification** scale (r<0.40). The relationship of Prosociality dimension with work values ranges from .19 to .61. The lowest correlations are with ambition and authority dimensions. On the other hand, prosociality dimension's most powerful relationship is with helping and supporting value (.61), as expected.

Innovative work behaviors (IWB) dimension generally exhibited relatively low correlations (0.40<r<0.70) with all work values except variety. IWB and variety have a stronger relationship (.47) in comparison to other values ranging from .17 to .37.

Organizational identification scale demonstrates positive correlational relationships with work values ranging from .19 to .45. The lowest relationship is with ambition work value, while the strongest relationship is with rule respecting.

Table 56. Correlation Analyses

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Ambition	1													
2. Authority	.485**	1												
3. Autonomy	.424**	.485**	1											
4. Enjoyment	.288**	.270**	.513**	1										
5. Environmental Sustainability	.180**	.159**	.341**	.407**	1									
6. Helping and Supporting	.268**	.308**	.428**	.450**	.602**	1								
7. Rule Respecting	.414**	.407**	.463**	.385**	.540**	.556**	1							
8. Safety	.254**	.241**	.358**	.409**	.714**	.611**	.606**	1						
9. Social Justice	.253**	.239**	.459**	.503**	.766**	.675**	.560**	.708**	1					
10. Traditional Values	.338**	.479**	.324**	.207**	.362**	.414**	.532**	.403**	.333**	1				
11.Variety	.257**	.351**	.551**	.573**	.434**	.567**	.461**	.396**	.462**	.284**	1			
12. Prosociality	.192**	.226**	.322**	.271**	.418**	.608**	.448**	.401**	.481**	.310**	.459**	1		
13. IWB	.171**	.313**	.335**	.281**	.189**	.370**	.240**	.213**	.260**	.191**	.471**	.474**	1	
14. Organizational Identification	.188**	.295**	.205**	.190**	.262**	.311**	.449**	.326**	.227**	.383**	.330**	.390**	.410**	1

**p<0.01

3.3. Regression Analyses for Testing Hypotheses

In the study, multiple regression analysis was performed separately for each variable to determine the effect of work values on prosociality, innovative work behaviors and organizational identification.

3.3.1. Effect of Work Values on Prosocial Behaviors

Effect of Work Values on Total Prosocial Behaviors

As a result of regression analyses conducted to determine the effect of generations' work values on prosocial behaviors, statistically significant models were obtained for all generations (Table 57). Upon examining the models, it was found that among Gen X helping and supporting (β=.19, t=2.53, p<.05) rule respecting (β=.29, t=3.10, p<.05) and social justice (β=.18, t=2.50, p<.05) work values have a positive influence on prosocial behaviors. For Millennials, only helping and supporting (β=.30, t=3.96, p<.01) work value has a positive effect on prosocial behaviors. Finally, among GenZ, both helping and supporting (β=.35, t=6.64, p<.01) and variety (β=.15, t=3.01, p<.05) work values positively impact prosocial behaviors.

Table 57. Regression Model: Effect of Generational Work Values on Prosocial Behaviors

	Gen X		Millennials		Gen Z	
	β	t	β	t	β	t
Ambition	-.12	-1.74	.05	.95	-.01	-.31
Authority	-.03	-.81	.01	.14	-.02	-.54
Autonomy	-.01	-.05	-.04	-.63	.02	.36
Enjoyment	-.10	-1.53	-.07	-1.00	-.10	-1.78
Environmental Sustainability	-.11	-1.37	-.11	-1.37	.04	.80
Helping and Supporting	.19	2.53*	.30	3.96**	.35	6.64**
Rule Respecting	.29	3.10*	.00	.04	.10	1.84
Safety	-.05	-.80	.04	.60	-.05	-1.08
Social Justice	.18	2.50*	.12	1.63	.02	.24
Traditional Values	.00	.07	.02	.49	.01	.16
Variety	.15	2.25	.13	1.85	.14	3.01*

Model for Gen X: R2= .50, Adjusted R2= .44, F=8.15**
Model for Millennials: R2= .35, Adjusted R2= .31, F=9.26**
Model for Gen Z: R2= .45, Adjusted R2= .42, F=15.23**
*p<.05 **p<.01

According to the results of regression analyses conducted on the basis of micro-generations, it is observed that enjoyment (β=-.25, t=-2.88, p<.05) and environmental sustainability (β=-.23, t=-2.31, p<.05) work values have negative effects on prosocial behaviors while helping and supporting (β=.26, t=2.66, p<.05), social justice (β=.23, t=2.43, p<.05) and variety (β=.32, t=3.96, p<.01) work values have a positive effect on prosocial behaviors in Gen Y1 and only helping and supporting (β=.42, t=3.18, p<.05) work value has a positive effect on prosocial behaviors in Gen Y2.

Table 58. Regression Model: Effect of Generations' Work Values on Prosocial Behaviors Based on Micro Generations

	Gen Y1		Gen Y2	
	β	**t**	**β**	**t**
Ambition	.06	-1.74	.05	.53
Authority	-.03	-.81	.03	.44
Autonomy	.05	-.05	-.16	-1.52
Enjoyment	-.24	-1.53*	.11	.78
Environmental Sustainability	-.23	-1.37*	.03	.21
Helping and Supporting	.26	2.53*	.42	3.18*
Rule Respecting	-.08	3.10	.07	.64
Safety	.10	-.80	-.11	-.88
Social Justice	.22	2.50*	.06	.45
Traditional Values	-.04	.07	.05	.90
Variety	.32	2.25**	.01	.14

Model for Millennials Y1: R2= .47, Adjusted R2= .40, F=7.10**
Model for Millennials Y2: R2= .31, Adjusted R2= .23, F=3.72**
*p<.05 **p<.01

Effect of Work Values on Prosociality Factor 1 Dimension

All generations showed statistically significant models as a result of regression analyses conducted to determine the effect of their work values on prosociality factor 1. When the models are analyzed, it is revealed that rule respecting (β=.41, t=2.76, p<.05), social justice (β=.53, t=3.33, p<.05) and variety (β=.20, t=2.12, p<.05) work values in Gen X; only helping and supporting (β=.36, t=3.53, p<.01) work value in Millennials; helping and supporting (β=.41, t=5.18, p<.01) and variety (β=.19, t=2.61, p<.05) work values in Gen Z have a positive effect on the prosociality factor 1.

Table 59. Regression Model: Effect of Generational Work Values on Prosociality Factor 1

	Gen X		Millennials		Gen Z	
	β	**t**	**β**	**t**	**B**	**t**
Ambition	-.20	-1.86	.09	1.27	.01	.05
Authority	-.08	-.73	.02	.19	-.06	-.84
Autonomy	.01	.10	-.03	-.40	.02	.24
Enjoyment	-.23	-1.89	-.13	-1.53	-.09	-1.33
Environmental Sustainability	-.30	-1.78	-.17	-1.43	.08	.88
Helping and Supporting	.19	1.41	.36	3.53**	.41	5.18**
Rule Respecting	.42	2.76*	.01	.12	.15	1.79
Safety	-.12	-.91	.07	.61	-.08	-.92
Social Justice	.53	3.33*	.22	1.78	.06	.60
Traditional Values	-.02	-.17	.06	.74	.03	.44
Variety	.28	2.21*	.13	1.34	.19	2.61*

Model for Gen X: R2= .42, Adjusted R2= .35, F=5.79**

Model for Millennials: R2= .30, Adjusted R2= .27, F=7.68**

Model for Gen Z: R2= .39, Adjusted R2= .36, F=12.13**

*p<.05 **p<.01

Table 60. Regression Model: Effect of Generations' Work Values on Prosociality Factor 1

Based on micro generations

	Gen Y1		Gen Y2	
	β	**T**	**β**	**t**
Ambition	.10	1.06	.08	.82
Authority	-.09	-.80	.09	.68
Autonomy	.11	1.09	-.22	-1.77
Enjoyment	-.51	-3.87**	.12	1.01
Environmental Sustainability	-.45	-2.86*	.14	.71
Helping and Supporting	.36	2.45*	.46	3.23*
Rule Respecting	-.11	-.81	.10	.73
Safety	.22	1.48	-.26	-1.34
Social Justice	.52	3.24*	.02	.11
Traditional Values	-.05	-.40	.13	1.00
Variety	.45	3.03*	-.01	-.07

Model for Millennials Y1: R2= .45, Adjusted R2= .39, F=5.79**

Model for Millennials Y2: R2= .30, Adjusted R2= .22, F=6.71**

*p<.05 **p<.01

The regression analyses carried out based on micro-generations indicate that prosociality factor 1 is negatively influenced by enjoyment (β=-.51, t=-3.87, p<.01) and environmental sustainability (β=-.45, t=-2.86, p<.05), while positively influenced by helping and supporting (β=.36, t=2.45, p<.05), social justice (β=0.52, t=3.24, p<.05), and variety (β=.45, t=3.03, p<.05) work values in GenY1 and only helping and supporting (β=.46, t=3.23, p<.01) work value in Gen Y2.

Effect of Work Values on Prosociality Factor 2 Dimension

The regression analyses conducted to determine the impact of generational work values on prosociality factor 2 resulted in statistically significant models for all generations (Table 61). When the models are examined, it is revealed that helping and supporting (β=.46, t=3.76, p<.01) and rule respecting work values (β=.34, t=2.38, p<.05) in Gen X, helping and supporting (β=.38, t=3.80, p<.01) and variety (β=.23, t=2.44, p<.05) work values in Millennials, and enjoyment (β=-.14, t=-2.11, p<.05), helping and supporting (β=.58, t=7.45, p<.01) and variety (β=.20, t=2.87, p<.05) work values in Gen Z are effective on prosociality factor 2.

Table 61. Regression Model: Effect of Generational Work Values on Prosociality Factor 2

	Gen X		Millennials		Gen Z	
	β	t	β	t	B	t
Ambition	-.07	-.66	.00	-.02	-.06	-.93
Authority	-.06	-.60	.00	-.03	.02	.21
Autonomy	-.05	-.34	-.07	-.96	.04	.50
Enjoyment	-.01	-.05	.04	.42	-.14	-2.11*
Environmental Sustainability	.02	.13	-.10	-.85	.03	.38
Helping and Supporting	.46	3.76**	.38	3.80**	.58	7.45**
Rule Respecting	.34	2.38*	-.01	-.15	.11	1.37
Safety	-.02	-.19	.05	.42	-.09	-1.05
Social Justice	-.06	-.43	.10	.82	-.06	-.56
Traditional Values	.06	.55	-.02	-.20	-.03	-.44
Variety	.15	1.28	.23	2.44*	.20	2.87*

Model for Gen X: R2= .50, Adjusted R2= .44, F=8.03**
Model for Millennials: R2= .33, Adjusted R2= .29, F=8.60**
Model for Gen Z: R2= .41, Adjusted R2= .38, F=12.99**
*p<.05 **p<.01

According to the results of the regression analyses conducted on the basis of micro-generations, it is revealed that helping and supporting (β=.35, t=2.33, p<.05) and variety (β=.50, t=3.26, p<.05) work values have positive effects on prosociality factor 2 in Gen Y1, while only helping and supporting (β=.35, t=2.34, p<.05) work value has a positive effect on prosociality factor 2 in Gen Y2.

Table 62. Regression Model: Effect of Generational Work Values on Prosociality Factor 2 in micro generations

	Gen Y1		Gen Y2	
	β	**T**	**β**	**t**
Ambition	.04	.38	-.02	-.22
Authority	.01	.11	-.02	-.17
Autonomy	-.05	-.50	-.08	-.64
Enjoyment	-.02	-.13	.01	.10
Environmental Sustainability	-.09	-.56	-.19	-.94
Helping and Supporting	.35	2.33*	.35	2.34*
Rule Respecting	-.10	-.77	.04	.28
Safety	.08	.54	.07	.34
Social Justice	.03	.17	.22	1.08
Traditional Values	-.12	-1.04	.07	.49
Variety	.50	3.26*	.07	.56

Model for Millennials Y1: R2= .43, Adjusted R2= .36, F=6.09**
Model for Millennials Y2: R2= .25, Adjusted R2= .16, F=2.74**
*p<.05 **p<.01

3.3.2. Effect of Work Values on Innovative Work Behaviors (IWB)

The regression analyses conducted to examine the impact of work values on innovative work behavior (IWB) resulted in statistically significant models for all generations (Table 63). When the models are examined, it is revealed that authority (β=.22, t=2.05, p<.05) and helping and supporting (β=.35, t=2.53, p<.05) work values have a positive effect on IWB in Gen X and environmental sustainability (β=-.39, t=-2.20, p<.05) work value has a negative effect. Authority (β=.18, t=2.15, p<.05), enjoyment (β=.19, t=2.16, p<.05) and variety (β=.26, t=2.63, p<.05) work values have a positive effect in Millennials, while autonomy (β=-.16, t=-2.02, p<.05) work value has a negative effect. Interestingly, autonomy work value (β=.19, t=2.27, p<.05) has a positive effect on innovative work behaviors for Gen Z along with variety (β=.39,

t=5.08, p<.01) work value. However, enjoyment (β=-.14, t=-1.94, p<.05) work value has a significant negative effect on IWB regarding Gen Z participants.

Table 63. Regression Model. Effect of Generational Work Values on Innovative Work Behavior

	Gen X		**Millennials**		**Gen Z**	
	β	**t**	**β**	**t**	**B**	**t**
Ambition	.13	1.14	.00	.06	-.12	-1.56
Authority	.22	2.05*	.18	2.15*	.11	1.45
Autonomy	-.05	-.34	-.16	-2.02*	.19	2.27*
Enjoyment	.05	.41	.19	2.16*	-.14	-1.94*
Environmental Sustainability	-.39	-2.20*	.00	.01	-.17	-1.84
Helping and Supporting	.35	2.53*	.15	1.48	.11	1.35
Rule Respecting	.15	.94	.03	.30	-.07	-.83
Safety	.14	1.00	-.15	-1.30	.04	.40
Social Justice	-.03	-.21	.03	.23	.15	1.40
Traditional Values	-.22	-1.88	.02	.19	-.02	-.22
Variety	.25	1.94	.26	2.63*	.39	5.08**

Model for Gen X: R2= .37, Adjusted R2= .29, F=4.77**
Model for Millennials: R2= .28, Adjusted R2= .24, F=6.85**
Model for Gen Z: R2= .29, Adjusted R2= .26, F=7.99**
*p<.05 **p<.01

When the regression analyses performed on the basis of micro-generations are analyzed, it is seen that authority (β=.31, t=2.77, p<.05) work value has a positive effect on IWB in Gen Y1; and only variety (β=.31, t=2.50, p<.05) work value has a positive effect on IWB in Gen Y2. On the other hand, autonomy (β=-.32, t=-2.40, p<.05) work value has a negative effect on IWB for Gen Y2.

Table 64. Regression Model: Effect of Generational Work Values on Innovative Work Behavior in micro generations

	Gen Y1		Gen Y2	
	β	**T**	**β**	**t**
Ambition	-.05	-.55	.02	.19
Authority	.31	2.77*	.16	1.09
Autonomy	.01	.10	-.32	-2.40*
Enjoyment	.27	1.94	.13	1.01
Environmental Sustainability	.00	-.02	.07	.36
Helping and Supporting	.16	1.07	.18	1.20
Rule Respecting	-.02	-.16	.10	.75
Safety	-.16	-1.06	-.24	-1.22
Social Justice	.04	.27	.03	.12
Traditional Values	-.10	-.86	.07	.54
Variety	.18	1.15	.31	2.50*

Model for Millennials Y1: R2= .40, Adjusted R2= .33, F=5.47**
Model for Millennials Y2: R2= .24, Adjusted R2= .15, F=2.62*
*p<.05 **p<.01

3.3.3. Effect of Work Values on Organizational Identification (OI)

Regression analyses conducted for Gen X and Millennials to determine the impact of generational work values on organizational identification yielded statistically significant models for both generations (Table 65). When the models are analyzed, it is revealed that only rule respecting work value has a positive effect both on Gen X (β=.42, t=2.47, p<.05) and Millennials (β=.31, t=3.22, p<.05). On the other hand, for Gen X ambition (β=-.24, t=-2.01, p<.05) work value has a negative impact on organizational identification.

Upon analyzing the regression analyses conducted on the basis of micro-generations, it can be observed that for Gen Y1 there is no significant effect of any work values on organizational identification. For Gen Y2, only enjoyment (β=.28, t=2.09, and p<.05) has a positive effect on organizational identification. Hence, autonomy (β=-.28, t=-2.00, and p<.05) and safety (β=-.43, t=-2.02, and p<.05) work values have negative effect on organizational identification for Gen Y2.

Table 65. Regression Model: Effect of Generations' Work Values on Organizational Identification

	Gen X		Millennials	
	β	**T**	**β**	**t**
Ambition	-.24	-2.01*	.09	1.35
Authority	.11	.99	.11	1.24
Autonomy	-.22	-1.35	-.03	-.40
Enjoyment	-.08	-.63	-.01	-.07
Environmental Sustainability	-.09	-.48	.12	1.02
Helping and Supporting	.22	1.50	-.03	-.29
Rule Respecting	.42	2.47*	.31	3.22*
Safety	.01	.08	.02	.14
Social Justice	-.11	-.61	-.11	-.85
Traditional Values	.13	1.05	.10	1.16
Variety	.22	1.58	.09	.94

Model for Gen X: R2= .28, Adjusted R2= .19, F=3.12*
Model for Millennials: R2= .28, Adjusted R2= .23, F=6.66**
*p<.05 **p<.01

Table 66. Regression Model Effect of Generations' Work Values on Organizational Identification in micro generations

	Gen Y1		Gen Y2	
	β	**T**	**β**	**t**
Ambition	-.16	-1.60	.04	.32
Authority	.20	1.71	-.02	-.10
Autonomy	.12	1.09	-.28	-2.00*
Enjoyment	.20	1.37	.28	2.09*
Environmental Sustainability	-.23	-1.30	.15	.71
Helping and Supporting	.24	1.47	.12	.79
Rule Respecting	-.15	-1.04	.05	.31
Safety	-.07	-.43	-.43	-2.02*
Social Justice	.07	.37	.20	.93
Traditional Values	-.12	-.92	.01	.05
Variety	.24	1.47	.15	1.10

Model for Millennials Y1: R2= .33, Adjusted R2= .25, F=3.95**
Model for Millennials Y2: R2= .15, Adjusted R2= .04, F=1.43
*p<.05 **p<.01

4. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the findings obtained from the research results will be interpreted. The research has three main objectives. First, it is aimed to ensure that a work values questionnaire compatible with Schwartz's theory of values, which discusses values universally as a comprehensive theory, is operationalized in the Turkish sample. Today, work values and their domains are being researched with increasing interest. It is aimed to be an alternative to value measurements as a comprehensive measurement tool that can be used in future research. The second purpose of the research is to examine whether generations differ in terms of work values. Considering that we are at the beginning of a period in which three generations will work together in the current business world, it will be possible to identify and understand the differences between generations and to manage a possible conflict between generations in business life. Since there is not much research comparing Gen X, Millennials, and Gen Z in terms of work values, it is aimed to obtain insights that will contribute to practical working life. The last aim is to understand the impact of work values on some concepts such as prosociality, innovative work behaviors and organizational identification. Revealing the impacts of work values may shed a light on using them properly to promote certain organizational behaviors and attitudes.

The initial stage of the research comprised two phases, where a comprehensive and modern work values questionnaire was adapted and subjected to validity and reliability tests in the Turkish context. Then, data were collected from people working in the banking sector in order to examine intergenerational differences. In addition, the effects of work values on different variables such as prosociality, innovative work behavior, and organizational identification were also examined by considering intergenerational differences.

The preliminary study aimed to conduct Turkish adaptation of the work values questionnaire. As a result of this study, a Turkish standardized instrument consisting of 49 items with an 11-factor structure was obtained. Along with the original 11-factor structure of the questionnaire, the fact that this structure was reduced to 8 factors in the exploratory factor analysis can be explained primarily by cultural differences. In this model, some of the dimensions have remained the same and preserve their structure. On the other hand, some dimensions merged, and some items were deleted. Considering that the validity and reliability studies of the original questionnaire were conducted on a sample in Australia, the fact that

Turkey is a country that can be considered in the class of Western cultures is the main factor in this. Although Turkey is considered to be a European country, it also has Middle Eastern and Asian influences, and it has been reported to have different characteristics from Western cultures in published cross-cultural studies (Hofstede, 2000). As stated before, obtaining different results in studies on values outside Western countries is possible. However, when the confirmatory analyses were conducted it is seen that the 11-factor structure is sustained even though some items were trimmed.

Based on the above information, it was determined that the work values questionnaire, validated and tested for reliability, is appropriate for the Turkish population. Although some items are deleted from the original questionnaire due to cultural differences, it is considered functional since most dimensions have the same item distribution as in the original questionnaire. Therefore, the different factors do not contradict Schwartz's value theory. Since, there were factors which remained as they were in the original model and eleven dimensions would better reflect Schwartz's model, it was decided to use the new eleven-factor model in the main study to adhere to the original Work Values Questionnaire.

The preliminary study includes people from different sectors who are currently working. Additional research is needed to validate the factor analysis results and assess their generalizability. Therefore, it is essential to apply the questionnaire to new samples (e.g. in different sectors, or with working Gen Zs) and use confirmatory statistical methods.

4.1. Main Study

In this section, the main subject of the study, work values, will first be examined whether they differ in terms of demographic characteristics. Then, intergenerational differences in work values will be discussed, and the effects of these differences on certain organizational concepts will be discussed.

4.1.1. Demographic Characteristics

Upon analyzing the variations in values based on demographic characteristics, it was observed that income level significantly impacted almost every work values. The study revealed that as the income level increased, the scores for each dimension decreased, and this finding is noteworthy. Previously, Ueda and Ozhono (2012) found that annual income level was

positively correlated with four out of six values. The finding of this study contradicts this finding. The study revealed that the significance attached to work values decreases with an increase in income. It is plausible that those who have not yet achieved a satisfactory income level prioritize values and aspire to enhance their income level in the future by attaching importance to these values. In other words, the lower importance attached to work values by individuals with a high-income level compared to those with a low-income level could be due to a decrease in the expectations of individuals who have attained financial stability in their professional life.

Another demographic characteristic that is as effective as income level is education level. It is seen that high school and associate degree graduates give higher scores than bachelor's degree and postgraduate graduates in almost every work value except ‘ambition’, ‘authority’ and 'variety' dimensions. The work value of variety encompasses task diversity, gaining new experiences, and facing challenges. This value suggests the importance of pushing oneself beyond comfort zones and limits. As a result, curiosity and interest in learning are necessary to overcome potential difficulties. Hence, the positive correlation between this value and education level is noteworthy.

On the other hand, it is interesting to note that the group with lower levels of education attributes more importance to other values, just like the finding on income level. When these two findings are considered together, it is possible that people with low-income and low education levels idealize work values and attribute more importance or express their expectations from working life than people in other groups. Considering that higher education level is associated with prestige, financial gain, and status in the banking sector, it is possible that people with lower education levels may have established a link between education level and success.

In Schwartz's (2005) article predicting the relationship between values and educational level, he stated that educational experience fosters intellectual openness, flexibility, and perspective; therefore, it is critical for self-direction, achievement, and universalism values. However, in the same article, he stated that educational experiences are negatively related to conformity, tradition, and security values. This finding is consistent with the finding obtained in this study. In previous studies conducted in the Turkish sample, it was observed that individuals with lower levels of education attributed more importance to values such as

contributing to society, making a living, establishing order, and performing religious duties than individuals with other levels of education (Turgut & Tevrüz, 2003).

On the other hand, the scores obtained from 'Enjoyment,' 'Helping and Supporting,' and ‘Variety’ dimensions showed significant differences according to marital status and having children. Accordingly, those who were single and those who did not have children had higher scores in the related dimensions. Furthermore, marital status also showed a difference in the ‘Autonomy’ and ‘Social Justice’ dimensions. Accordingly, singles have higher scores in these dimensions. Considering that married people have more responsibilities outside of working life than single people, it is logical that single people attach more importance to the 'autonomy' work value. In addition, according to the general tendencies, the average age of married employees (M=39.3) is higher than single employees (M=32.5). It can be assumed that they are newer in working life and their areas of authority are more limited. This can be interpreted as the fact that in an organization such as banking, where there is a hierarchy and opportunities for advancement, it has become a value that young people attach importance to.

The dimensions affected by tenure were 'Variety,' 'Enjoyment,' 'Helping and Supporting,' 'Safety,' and 'Social Justice,' ‘Authority’ and ‘Ambition’. Accordingly, participants with lower tenure had higher scores in the related work values. While there is no research on the relationship between tenure and work values, some studies explain this relationship with the career stage in which the participants are. Accordingly, the importance attributed to values may vary according to the individual's career stage. The higher scores of employees with less work experience in certain values than other groups with longer tenure can be attributed to the likelihood that more experienced workers have already established their careers and may be more concerned with job security, financial stability, and opportunities for advancement. According to Cennamo and Gardner (2008), younger generations place greater importance on certain work values than older generations, which is attributed to the decreasing significance of certain values as individuals remain in the workforce for a longer period. In a similar finding, Wong et al. (2008) acknowledged the challenges of distinguishing generational effects from other factors. They concluded that the variances they observed were better explained by the career stage rather than generational differences.

The difference according to gender emerged in the dimensions of ‘Social Justice,' ‘Environmental Sustainability,’ ‘Safety,’ ‘Traditional Values’ and 'Rule Respecting.' Accordingly, women scored higher than men in the related study values. Research on gender

has revealed that men and women place importance on different values. Specifically, men place greater importance on values related to career outcomes, such as money, economic rewards, promotion, independence, success, initiative, expertise, and competition. In contrast, women place greater importance on values related to the social aspects of work, such as having supportive coworkers and gaining social approval (Elizur, 1994; Warr, 2008; Konrad, Ritchie, Lieb & Corrgall, 2000). Traditionally, it can be said that men attach more importance to material values, and women attach more importance to emotional and social values (Turgut, 2017). According to Elizur (1994), the significance of power and achievement was higher for men, whereas social and communal values were more important for women. Moreover, the study indicated that women were more inclined towards work-family balance and flexible work arrangements compared to men. Elizur's analysis inferred that gender-based dissimilarities in work values are a reflection of societal expectations and the socialization of gender roles.

4.2. Generational Differences

The analysis of the intergenerational differences in work values revealed that all values significantly differed between generations.

4.2.1. Dimensions in which Gen Z Differs from The Other Generations and Those in which Gen X and Millennials Share Similarities

The research finding demonstrated that Gen Z has lower scores on values than other generations in ambition, authority, autonomy, ' environmental sustainability, helping and supporting, rule respecting, and traditional values. Notably, Millennials scored higher than in almost every work value. However, by analyzing micro-generations it can be seen that Gen X and Gen Y1 (the older participants of Millennials) have very similar scores. Initially, Millennials were characterized by certain values, but over time, these values have diminished, and they have become more similar to Generation X. However, since the participants of the study from Generation Z are still students and at the beginning of their professional lives, it is possible that they may exhibit similar characteristics to other generations regarding these values in the future. In other words, the Y2 generation can be seen as the cohort of Gen Z who have started their professional careers. Another finding that supports this finding was also determined

in Smola and Sutton's study. Smola and Sutton (2002) conducted a longitudinal study to investigate the potential differences in work values between generations and whether these values change over time. Their findings provide strong evidence on this topic. According to the study, work values are more influenced by generational experiences rather than age and maturation, indicating that workers' attitudes toward work change over time. Therefore, the study supports the notion that there are differences in work values between different generations. Therefore, since Gen Z is not in work life, it may be normal for them to have low scores in these values.

On the other hand, since the employee sample of this research is from the banking sector, it is also possible that the values in this study (especially authority, ambition, autonomy, rule respecting, safety, and traditional values) are considered to be prominent values, especially in the banking sector. Furthermore, these values may have been higher for Millennials and Gen X as the sector is seen as valued in terms of power and status in society. Another explanation is that employees in this sector attach importance to these values in their lives in addition to their work values and prefer to work in this sector because it is compatible with their values. For this reason, it is recommended to examine the life values of employees working in the banking sector, research the importance given to work values by employees working in other sectors and investigate the generalization of the results.

4.2.2. Dimensions in which Gen X Differs from others

The only dimension in which Gen X differed from other generations was the 'Enjoyment' work value. Gen X has lower scores in this dimension than Millennials and Gen Z. Since Gen X is associated with a sense of responsibility, it can be seen as usual that this dimension is low. On the other hand, it can be argued that their desire for enjoyment may not be as prominent as other generations, as they are nearing the end of their working lives. On the contrary, being fun-focused is more characteristic of Millennials (Ercömert & Güneş, 2021). Although there is no published research in this direction for Gen Z, the results of this study indicate that the value of 'enjoyment' is also essential for Gen Z. The relationship between Gen Z and enjoyment can be examined in more detail with different studies to be conducted on this subject.

Analyzing enjoyment dimension with the inclusion of micro generations, the significant difference between Gen X and Gen Y2, and between Gen X and Gen Z remained. However,

there was no significant difference between Gen X and Gen Y1 which once more proves that the older Millennials are similar to Gen X.

4.2.3. Dimensions In Which Millennials Differ from Others and Gen X and Gen Z Are Similar

Millennials have significantly higher scores than other generations in the dimensions of 'Social Justice,' 'Helping and Supporting,' 'Safety,' ‘Rule Respecting,’ and 'Variety.' It is noteworthy that GenZ and X have similar scores in these dimensions. It is seen that the prominent work values of Millennials are values that include interaction with others and supporting others, except for variety. Millennials, who are known for their collaborative approach, consider the values of Helping and Supporting, as well as Safety, to be significant. (Ercömert & Güneş, 2021). At the same time, it can be considered normal that the Variety dimension is high in Millennials, a generation with a strong desire to learn new things (Ercömert & Güneş, 2021). Since social responsibility is defined as one of the prominent characteristics of Millennials, it is an expected result that Millennials attribute more importance to this value in this study (Barnett & Valentine, 2004). On the other hand, although 'social justice' is a value that is more identified with Gen Z, this study does not support this finding. On the contrary, Millennials have come to the forefront in this study. However, upon analyzing micro-generations, it can be observed that the Y2 generation is the factor that distinguishes Millennials and enables them to stand out in the Variety dimension. Therefore, the fact that this value is high in Generation Y, which is close to Generation Z, explains this situation. Furthermore, it is important to note that Gen Z has not yet entered the workforce. It could be argued that the prominence of this value in the Y2 generation, which is already in the workforce and shares similarities with Gen Z, may further highlight the importance of this value when Gen Z starts their professional careers.

When the intergenerational differences are analyzed in the detail of micro-generations, it is seen that Gen Y2 obtained higher results than Gen Y1 in those dimensions mentioned above. It is observed that the values that are considered as characteristics of Millennials are more dominant in Gen Y2. At the same time, Gen Y1 has similar results to Gen X. Accordingly, it can be said that Gen Y1 is more similar to Gen X. In contrast, Gen Y2 continues to maintain the characteristics of Millennials. The fact that there is no difference between Gen Y1 and Gen Y2 in the 'Rule Respecting' dimension may be due to the fact that the research was conducted

in the banking sector, and this value is considered as one of the basic values for banking. In other words, it can be said that the Gen Y2 may have embraced this value because they work in the banking sector.

4.2.4. Dimensions In Which Gen Z Differ from Others a

There are some work values that Gen Z differ from all other generations, including the micro generations. These work values are ambition and traditional values, and Gen Z scored the lowest. This finding is important since these values are not priority in Gen Z participants' work life. In recent years, Gen Z started their career and every other day their number is growing. Knowing the priorities of Gen Z and understanding the differences between their work values might help managers and HR professionals to maintain a healthier relationship with these young people.

As mentioned earlier, Gen Z possesses lower scores in most of the work values except for 'Enjoyment' in which they scored relatively close to the highest score by Millennials. An important finding in this research is that Gen Z and Gen X were similar in these work values: Authority, autonomy, rule respecting, safety, social justice, variety and helping and supporting. This is interesting since the characteristics and the affecting global and local events in these generations are quite different. On the other hand, members of Gen X can be considered as parents to most of Gen Z. One way to explain this similarity can emerged from the relationship between of parent and child because Gen Z exhibited significantly different scores in these dimensions in comparison to Millennials.

4.3. Impact Analysis

In the study, a series of regression analyses were conducted to examine the effects of work values on innovative work behavior (IWB), organizational identification and prosociality across generations.

4.3.1. Innovative Work Behavior (IWB)

Upon analyzing the work values that influence the IWB dimension, it becomes apparent that no value has a shared impact on all generations. When the results are analyzed based on generations, it is revealed that 'Helping and Supporting' and 'Authority' values positively affect

IWB in Gen X, and ‘Environmental Sustainability’ negatively affects IWB. Accordingly, Gen X exhibits IWB behaviors when the focus on being useful to the outside world decreases, and the focus on helping colleagues increases. Also, if they have power and authority, it is more likely for them to engage in IWB. On the other hand, ‘Authority’ also a significant work value for Millennials, along with 'Variety' and ‘Enjoyment’ values which positively affected IWB for them. Accordingly, Millennials exhibit IWB behaviors when there is difficulty and variety in their work and when their expectations are in this direction. Also, if they enjoy doing whatever they work on, it is more likely to exhibit innovative behaviors. For Millennials, ‘Autonomy’ work value effected IWB negatively. This was interesting since the same work value have a positive effect for Gen Z. Having autonomy in their work, distracts Millennials from IWB while it is an attraction for Gen Z. Other than ‘Autonomy’, 'Variety' also has a positive effect on IWB, and 'Enjoyment' work value has a negative effect on IWB. Accordingly, Gen Z exhibits IWB when there is variety in their work, when they work with different tasks, when they have the opportunity to make decisions about their work, on the other hand, they exhibit IWB when they have to do IWB out of obligation.

It is seen that 'Variety' dimension is effective on Millennials, Gen Y2, and Gen Z IWB. Considering that people who attach importance to the work value 'Variety' attach importance to diversity in their working life, are open to different and challenging experiences, want to do different jobs, and expand this with different responsibilities, it is an expected result that this work value affects IWB. Another common effect of generational values on IWB is related to the 'Enjoyment' values. 'Enjoyment' value is an effective factor on IWB in Gen Y1 and Gen Z, but there is a negative effect in Gen Z and a positive effect in Gen Y1. Hence, even if a value is shared, its impact varies among generations. The data suggests an inverse relationship between enjoyment and IWB behavior in Gen Z, meaning that as enjoyment decreases, IWB behavior increases. However, for Gen Y1, there is a positive relationship between enjoyment and IWB, indicating that as enjoyment increases, so does IWB. This is because Gen Y1 wants to feel good at work, enjoy and have fun, and enjoy doing innovative things. In contrast, it can be observed that the Gen Z cohort exhibits a relatively low level of interest in the work mentioned above values, viewing IWB behavior as a duty rather than a source of enjoyment or amusement. It is perceived that a sense of obligation drives their engagement in such behaviors.

The influence of work values on IWB varies across generations. Specifically, the "Environmental Sustainability" dimension has a negative impact on IWB only in Gen X. In

contrast, the "Autonomy" dimension has a positive impact on IWB only in Gen Z, and the "Authority" dimension has a positive impact only in Gen Y1. This implies that the values that drive each generation to exhibit IWB differ significantly. For example, Gen X tends to exhibit IWB behaviors when they do not associate with the value of social and environmental responsibility, whereas Gen Z exhibits these behaviors when their autonomy value is high, and Gen Y1 exhibits these behaviors when they have authority. Further research is needed to fully understand these findings, but it can be concluded that significant differences exist in the work values that drive each generation to exhibit IWB.

4.3.2. Organizational Identification (OI)

According to the results obtained when the study values effective on Organizational Identification (OI) are examined based on generations, it is seen that ‘Ambition' dimension is negatively effective on OI in Generation X. Both generations organizational identification is positively affected by 'Rule Respecting' value. When analyzed based on micro generations, it is seen that ‘Enjoyment’ is positively effective on OI in the Y2 generation and ‘Autonomy' and ‘Safety' are negatively impacted Gen Y2. Accordingly, it is possible to say that the work values effective on OI in Gen X, Gen Y1, and Gen Y2 are almost entirely different. Gen X and Millennials OI is effected by Rule Respecting work value. This value was discussed before as a core concept in banking. That’s why, the impact of this work value on OI is not surprising. On the other hand, Ambition has a negative effect for Gen X which can be interpreted as having goals and ambition toward their careers, Gen X has lower identification with their current organization. This may lead to attitudes like intention to leave. On contrary, if Gen X has no career goals, it is more likely to identify themselves with the organization they work for.

Another negative effect was due to Autonomy value for Gen Y2. The more they are empowered, they are less likely to identify with their organizations. It is possible that, having empower and autonomy nourishes self-confidence and the perception of being an individual separate from their organization. The last work value negatively effected OI for Gen Y2 was Safety. When Gen Y2 participants prioritize safety, they are less likely to engage in identification with their organization.

4.3.3. Prosociality

When the effective work values on prosociality are analyzed based on generations, it is seen that 'Helping and Supporting' is an effective value for all generations. On the other hand, ‘Rule Respecting’ and ‘Social Justice’ was effective factors only for Gen X, and 'Variety' was an effective factor in prosociality only for Gen Y1 and Gen Z generations.

It is a highly expected result that 'Helping and Supporting' work value is effective in all dimensions of prosocial behaviors and is significant in all generations. Since people who attach importance to 'Helping and Supporting' value prioritize helping and supporting others, it is expected that they should exhibit prosocial behaviors related to this value.

Regarding the difference between generations, Gen X participants seemed to engage in prosocial behaviors when they think it is a common rule and/or they want to contribute to social justice. Since prosocial behaviors include helping others and considering the well-being of others, it is obvious that these work values have a positive impact on prosociality.

Variety was another work value that has positive impact on prosociality which means the more challenging tasks and various experiences lead Gen Y1 and Gen Z participants to act more prosocial at work. This may be due to the perception of helping others as a challenge or a contribution to relieve boredom.

4.4. Limitations

The first limitation of both studies is the size of the sample. Since work values are influenced by life values (Schwartz, 2005; Albrecht et al., 2020) and life values are influenced by culture (Hofstede, 2000), the trends of work values in the Turkish population can be determined with the participation of people living in different provinces and having different working experiences. The fact that the participants in the study mostly lived in big cities may not have provided results that would cover the whole of Turkey in terms of work values. In order to replicate the results obtained in this study or to reveal the differences, it is recommended to conduct similar studies with a larger sample.

The second limitation is that the main study is based on the banking sector. It is an expected result that work values such as Respect for Tradition and Norms, Rule Respecting,

Authority and Ambition are at the forefront in this sector. On the other hand, since there is a possibility that work values may be similar or different in different sectors, studies can be designed to define the work values of different sectors and to compare the sectors.

Finally, since the data was collected in a period when Gen Z was not yet active in working life, it is recommended to re-examine the work values of this generation after they enter working life. Based on the results of this study, it would be valuable to observe whether a generation with expectations from working life will change their values after they actually start to experience working life. On the other hand, these future studies will also be valuable in terms of providing new findings for an area that is also discussed in the literature and where there are conflicting interpretations about whether values change or not. Since all of the Gen Z generations in this study are university students studying in different departments and drawing different career paths, it is thought that there may be differences in the values of Gen Z, especially those who will start working in the banking sector.

4.5. Implications

The results of the research reveal that businesses should take into account that the work values of employees belonging to different generations differ from each other while structuring HR policies for different functions. In this direction, it is possible to say that HR practices that will be structured in accordance with the expectations of different generations will produce more effective results. In other words, the implementation of HR practices that take into account the differences in values between generations instead of uniform HR practices will make it easier for businesses to exhibit the desired behaviors of their employees.

In today's business life, teamwork is becoming increasingly widespread, and businesses use teamwork as an important evaluation criterion in the individuals they hire or in their promotion or development processes. It is clear that an individual should exhibit prosocial behaviors in order to be an effective team player. Research results show that work values are effective on prosociality and that there are differences between generations. Accordingly, it is recommended that organizations should focus on the relevant values when hiring individuals from different generations or promoting them to higher positions. Utilizing the differences in prosocial behaviors between generations in relevant HR practices will increase the impact of these practices on business results.

Similarly, recently, organizations expect employees to generate more new ideas and suggest improvements to processes or products. At this point, it is important for businesses that individuals exhibit IWB behaviors. Since the research reveals that different values between generations are effective on IWB behaviors, it is recommended that businesses should design practices that will highlight the relevant values in order to ensure that employees from different generations exhibit IWB behaviors.

On the other hand, another factor that businesses attach importance to in talent management is organizational identification. Organizations make a significant effort and allocate resources to this issue, especially in order to retain the individuals they see as talent. Research results are important in terms of revealing important values in terms of organizational identification and showing the differences between generations. Accordingly, it is possible to say that businesses will get effective results in this regard if they structure their HR practices by taking into account the value differences between generations in order to increase the retention of their employees.

4.6. Future Research

As mentioned before, repeating this study by collecting data from different provinces across Turkey would provide a stronger insight into work values. In addition, in order to understand whether sectoral trends affect work values, it would be good to conduct research in different sectors and to understand which values are prominent in different sectors by comparing the sectors with each other.

Apart from these two research topics, white-collar employees working in the banking sector participated in this study. Therefore, it would be appropriate to conduct an assessment of blue or gray-collar positions in different sectors. Furthermore, better conceptualizing work values, defining work values in different aspects, and making clear definitions of work values in Turkey will contribute to the scientific literature in this field. They will provide a better understanding of the effects of work values on work life.

This study examined intergenerational differences, and some significant findings were obtained. The reproducibility of these results should be clarified with the results of future studies. Although it is difficult to obtain consistent results in research on generational differences in general, increasing the research results to be obtained on this subject in Turkey

with well-structured studies will contribute to a global comparison. Especially in these periods when Gen Z has started to take part in business life, it would be appropriate to examine work values with a sample of Gen Z employees.

Finally, this study examined the relationship between work values and some organizational concepts. Examining the relationship with different concepts will increase the knowledge of this subject and its implications in organizational life. For example, based on the organizational identification issue discussed in this study, the relationship between concepts such as employee promotion, employer branding, and work values; examining the relationship between work values and job performance and motivation; and investigating the interaction between leadership styles and work values, it will be possible to suggest practices that can strengthen the mutual relations of both employees and organizations based on the research findings to be obtained.

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APPENDIX 1: ORIGINAL WORK VALUES QUESTIONNAIRE

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Authority (Schwartz—Power) 1. To have authority over other people 2. To have authority over limited resources 3. To determine how money is spent 4. To have authority over other people's work programs 5. To make decisions about who does what
Ambition (Schwartz—Achievement) 6. To advance my career 7. To increase my earning power 8. To be seen to be successful 9. To get promoted 10. To be ambitious
Enjoyment (Schwartz—Hedonism) 11. To have pleasurable experiences 12. To enjoy my time at work 13. To have fun 14. To do things which make me feel good 15. To enjoy myself
Variety (Schwartz—Stimulation) 16. To do varied work 17. To experience a wide variety of tasks 18. To get a lot of variety in my work 19. To experience a variety of challenges 20. To never be bored by repetition
Autonomy (Schwartz—Self-direction) 21. To make my own decisions at work 22. To decide what I will do at work 23. To determine how I spend my day 24. To be able to direct my own work 25. To decide my own priorities at work

ORIGINAL WORK VALUES QUESTIONNAIRE - continued

Social Justice (Schwartz—Universalism) 26. To make the world a better place 27. To make the world a fairer place 28. To continue to social justice 29. To support people who are disadvantaged 30. To contribute to improving society
Environmental sustainability (Schwartz—Universalism) 31. To protect the environment 32. To contribute to environmental sustainability
Helping and supporting (Schwartz—Benevolence) 33. To help the people I come in contact 34. To support the people I meet at work 35. To do work which helps other people 36. To be supportive of other people 37. To improve the lives of people I encounter at work
Rule respecting (Schwartz—Conformity) 38. To work in an orderly work place 39. To work in a group where people believe that rules are important 40. To work in a group where we all support the organization's policies 41. To work in a job where I can contribute to the respect for my organization's rules 42. To work with colleagues who respect rules even when no one else sees them
Traditional Values (Schwartz—Tradition) 43. To be able to support the traditions of my society at work 44. To be able to work according to the values of my family 45. To do work which is in keeping with my religious beliefs 46. To do work which society would support 47. To do work which would be traditionally approved of
Safety (Schwartz—Security) 48. To contribute to the safety of colleagues 49. To ensure that danger is minimized 50. To maximize the safety of the work place 51. To make a positive contribution to safety and security 52. To make a safer workplace

APPENDIX 2: QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN PRELIMINARY STUDY

WORK GOALS TEST (ÇALIŞMA AMAÇLARI TESTİ)

"İnsanlar niçin çalışır?" sorusuna verilen cevaplar çeşitlidir. Çalışma amaçları kişilere göre değişmektedir. Aşağıda, daha önceki çalışmalardan elde edilmiş 12 çalışma amacı yer almaktadır. Hepsini dikkatle okuduktan sonra, her biri için şu soruya yanıt verin:

"Siz en çok hangisine ulaşmak için çalışırsınız?" Yani bu çalışma amaçlarının her biri sizin için ne derece önemlidir? Yandaki sütundaki, "Hiç önemli değil"den "Fazlasıyla önemli"ye uzanan ölçek üzerinde değerlendirin.

1 Hiç Önemli Değil	2 Çok Az Önemli	3 Biraz Önemli	4 Oldukça Önemli	5 Çok Önemli	6 Fazlasıyla Önemli

"Toplum için faydalı şeyler üretmek, ülke gelişmesine ve ekonomisine katkıda bulunmak, huzurlu bir toplum oluşturmak, hizmet vermek ve gelecek nesillere yararlı şeyler bırakmak" amacıyla çalışmak

"Statü, prestij sahibi olmak, toplumda kabul görüp saygı kazanmak, kariyer sahibi olmak, otorite ve güç kazanmak" amacıyla çalışmak

"Geleceğini güvenceye almak, ekonomik özgürlüğünü ve geçimini sağlamak, para kazanıp istediklerini alabilmek, mal mülk sahibi olmak ve daha iyi yaşam koşullarına ulaşmak, aileyi geçindirmek ve çocuklarına daha iyi bir hayat temin etmek" amacıyla çalışmak

"Bilgilenmek, yeni şeyler öğrenmek ve kendini geliştirmek, hayatı tanımak, kapasitelerini kullanmak ve iyi bir şeyler üretmek" amacıyla çalışmak

"Allah'ın rızasını almak ve ahiretini hazırlamak, dini bir görevi yerine getirmiş olmak" amacıyla çalışmak

"Kendine yabancılaşmamak, kötü yola sapmamak, hayata bağlanabilmek, işe yaramak, huzurlu ve sağlıklı olmak" amacıyla çalışmak

"Vakit geçirmek, bedenini ve zihnini meşgul etmek, zamanını değerlendirmek" amacıyla çalışmak

"Hayallerini gerçekleştirmek, kişisel zevk ve hobilerini tatmin etmek, gezip eğlenmek" amacıyla çalışmak

"Hayatına hareket katmak, sosyal ilişkiler geliştirmek, yeteneklerini kullanmak ve insanlara yardım etmek" amacıyla çalışmak

"Hayatına yön vermek, hayatta bir şeyler yapabilmiş olmak ve manevi doyum elde etmek" amacıyla çalışmak

"Kendine bir yuva kurmak, kendi işini kurmak, düzenli bir hayat sürmek ve nesilleri sürdürebilmek" amacıyla çalışmak

"İşinden zevk alarak, sevdiği mesleği yapmak" amacıyla çalışmak

APPENDIX 3: QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN PRELIMINARY STUDY

WORK VALUES QUESTIONNAIRE (ÇALIŞMA DEĞERLERİ ANKETİ) – 55 ITEMS

Aşağıda çalışma hayatında bireysel önemi olan değerlerin bir listesini bulacaksınız. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyarak her birinin çalışma hayatında sizin için ne kadar önemli olduğunu işaretleyiniz. 1 Kesinlikle Önemli Değil – 7 Son Derece Önemli
İşimde kendi önceliklerime karar vermek
Başkalarına destek olmak
Dini inançlarıma uyumlu bir iş yapmak
Kendimi iyi hissedeceğim şeyler yapmak
Keyfini çıkarmak
Kariyerimi ilerletmek
Farklı zorlukları deneyimlemek
Çevreyi korumak
İşyerini daha güvenli hale getirmek
Eğlenmek
Çalışma arkadaşlarımın güvenliğine katkıda bulunmak
Başarılı olarak görülmek
İnsanlar üzerinde yetki sahibi olmak
Diğerlerinin çalışma programları üzerinde yetki sahibi olmak
İş güvenliğine olumlu katkıda bulunmak
Tehlikenin en aza indirildiğinden emin olmak
Terfi almak
Temas ettiğim insanlara yardım etmek
Dünyayı daha adil bir yer haline getirmek
Düzenli bir iş yerinde çalışmak
Kimse görmese dahi kurallara saygı duyan
çalışma arkadaşları ile birlikte çalışmak
İşte ne yapacağıma karar vermek
İşimde geçirdiğim zamandan keyif almak
Kurumun politikalarını hepimizin desteklediği bir grupta çalışmak
Doğaya saygı duymak
Kendi işimi yönetebilmek

WORK VALUES QUESTIONNAIRE - continued

Kazanma gücümü artırmak
Tekrardan sıkılmamak
Sosyal adaleti sürdürmek
Başkalarına yardım eden işler yapmak
Dezavantajlı insanları desteklemek
Keyifli deneyimler yaşamak
Dünyayı daha iyi bir yer haline getirmek
İşte tanıştığım insanları desteklemek
Geleneksel olarak onaylanan bir iş yapmak
İşimde çeşitlilik elde etmek
Paranın nasıl harcanacağını belirlemek
Kısıtlı kaynaklar üzerinde yetki sahibi olmak
Toplumun gelişmesine katkıda bulunmak
İşimde karşılaştığım insanların yaşamlarını iyileştirmek
Ailemin değerlerine uyumlu çalışabilmek
Çevre kirliliğini önlemek
Değişik işler yapmak
Azimli olmak
Günümü nasıl geçireceğimi belirlemek
Çevresel sürdürülebilirliğe katkıda bulunmak
Toplumun destekleyeceği bir iş yapmak
Doğayla bütünlük içinde olmak
Kuralların önemli olduğuna inanan insanların olduğu bir grupta çalışmak
İşimde kendi kararlarımı vermek
Geniş çeşitliliğe sahip işleri deneyimlemek
İşte, toplumsal geleneklerimi destekleyebilmek
Kurumun kurallarına saygı duyulmasına katkıda
bulunabileceğim bir işte çalışmak
Kimin ne yapacağına karar vermek
İşyerinin güvenliğini en yüksek seviyeye çıkarmak

APPENDIX 4: QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN PRELIMINARY STUDY

TECHNO-STRESS QUESTIONNAIRE

Aşağıdaki farklı ifadelere yer verilmiştir. Bu ifadelere katılma düzeylerinizi belirten seçeneği işaretleyiniz.
Çalıştığım yerde kullanılan teknolojinin, beni daha fazla iş yapmaya zorlaması beni strese sokuyor.
Çalıştığım yerde kullanılan teknolojinin, beni çok sıkı zaman çizelgelerine bağlaması beni strese sokuyor.
Çalıştığım yerde kullanılan teknolojiye ayak uydurabilmek için çalışma alışkanlıklarımı değiştirmek beni strese sokuyor.
Çalıştığım yerde kullanılan teknolojinin, beni çok daha hızlı iş yapmaya zorlaması beni strese sokuyor.
Çalıştığım yerde iş yüküm çok fazladır çünkü kullandığım teknoloji gittikçe karmaşıklaşıyor.
Kullandığımız teknolojik cihazların yazılımları belirli periyotlarla değiştirilir.
Kullandığımız teknolojik cihazlara sıklıkla güncellemeler yapılır.
Kullandığımız teknolojik cihazların donanımları belirli periyodlarla değiştirilir.
Çalıştığım yerde sürekli yeni teknolojileri kullanırız.
Yeni bir teknolojiyi öğrenmek ve kullanmak için çok uzun zamana ihtiyacım olur.
Teknolojik bilgi seviyemi yenilemek için yeterli zamanı şimdiye kadar bulamadım.
Genellikle kullandığım teknolojiyi anlamayı çok karmaşık bulurum.
İşimi tam olarak yapabilmek için kullandığım teknoloji hakkında yeterli bilgiye sahip değilim.
Çalıştığım yerde kullandığım teknoloji konusunda bana göre daha bilgili iş arkadaşlarım vardır.

APPENDIX 5: QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN PRELIMINARY STUDY

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

Cinsiyet :
Doğum Yılınız:
İş Deneyiminiz Var mı?:
Toplam İş Deneyimi Süreniz:
Eğitim Durumu (En Son Bitirdiğiniz Okul):

APPENDIX 6: QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN MAIN STUDY WORK VALUES QUESTIONNAIRE (ÇALIŞMA DEĞERLERİ ANKETİ) – 51 ITEMS

Aşağıda çalışma hayatında bireysel önemi olan değerlerin bir listesini bulacaksınız. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyarak her birinin çalışma hayatında sizin için ne kadar önemli olduğunu işaretleyiniz. 1 Kesinlikle Önemli Değil – 7 Son Derece Önemli
İşimde kendi önceliklerime karar vermek
Başkalarına destek olmak
Dini inançlarıma uyumlu bir iş yapmak
Kendimi iyi hissedeceğim şeyler yapmak
Keyfini çıkarmak
Farklı zorlukları deneyimlemek
Çevreyi korumak
İşyerini daha güvenli hale getirmek
Eğlenmek
Çalışma arkadaşlarımın güvenliğine katkıda bulunmak
Başarılı olarak görülmek
İnsanlar üzerinde yetki sahibi olmak
Diğerlerinin çalışma programları üzerinde yetki sahibi olmak
İş güvenliğine olumlu katkıda bulunmak
Tehlikenin en aza indirildiğinden emin olmak
Terfi almak
Temas ettiğim insanlara yardım etmek
Dünyayı daha adil bir yer haline getirmek
Düzenli bir iş yerinde çalışmak
Kimse görmese dahi kurallara saygı duyan
çalışma arkadaşları ile birlikte çalışmak
İşte ne yapacağıma karar vermek
İşimde geçirdiğim zamandan keyif almak
Kurumun politikalarını hepimizin desteklediği bir grupta çalışmak

WORK VALUES QUESTIONNAIRE - continued

Doğaya saygı duymak
Kendi işimi yönetebilmek
Kazanma gücümü artırmak
Tekrardan sıkılmamak
Sosyal adaleti sürdürmek
Başkalarına yardım eden işler yapmak
Keyifli deneyimler yaşamak
Dünyayı daha iyi bir yer haline getirmek
İşte tanıştığım insanları desteklemek
Geleneksel olarak onaylanan bir iş yapmak
İşimde çeşitlilik elde etmek
Paranın nasıl harcanacağını belirlemek
Kısıtlı kaynaklar üzerinde yetki sahibi olmak
Toplumun gelişmesine katkıda bulunmak
İşimde karşılaştığım insanların yaşamlarını iyileştirmek
Ailemin değerlerine uyumlu çalışabilmek
Çevre kirliliğini önlemek
Değişik işler yapmak
Günümü nasıl geçireceğimi belirlemek
Çevresel sürdürülebilirliğe katkıda bulunmak
Toplumun destekleyeceği bir iş yapmak
Doğayla bütünlük içinde olmak
Kuralların önemli olduğuna inanan insanların olduğu bir grupta çalışmak
Geniş çeşitliliğe sahip işleri deneyimlemek
İşte, toplumsal geleneklerimi destekleyebilmek
Kurumun kurallarına saygı duyulmasına katkıda
bulunabileceğim bir işte çalışmak
Kimin ne yapacağına karar vermek
İşyerinin güvenliğini en yüksek seviyeye çıkarmak

APPENDIX 7: QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN MAIN STUDY

PROSOCIALITY SCALE

1	İş arkadaşlarıma işlerinde yardım etmekten keyif alırım.
2	Arkadaşlarımla sahip olduğum şeyleri paylaşırım.
3	Başkalarına yardım etmeye çalışırım.
4	İhtiyacı olanlara yardım etmek için gönüllü etkinliklerde yer alırım.
5	Yardım muhtaç olanlara empati duyuyorum.
6	İhtiyacı olanlara derhal yardım ederim.
7	Başkalarının başı derde girmesin diye elimden geleni yaparım.
8	Başkalarının duygularını ben de yoğun biçimde hissederim.
9	Bilgi ve becerilerimi başkaları için kullanmaya istekliyim.
10	Üzgün insanları teselli etmeye çalışırım.
11	Para ya da başka şeyleri kolaylıkla ödünç veririm.
12	Sıkıntıda olan insanların yerine kendimi kolaylıkla koyarım.
13	Yardıma muhtaç olanlara yakın olmaya ve onlarla ilgilenmeye çalışırım.
14	Karşıma çıkan iyi fırsatları arkadaşlarımla kolaylıkla paylaşırım.
15	Yalnız hisseden arkadaşlarımla zaman geçiririm.
16	Doğrudan benimle paylaşmasa da arkadaşımın sıkıntısını hemen anlarım.

APPENDIX 8: QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN MAIN STUDY

INNOVATIVE WORK BEHAVIORS SCALE

1	Rutin iş yüküme dahil olmayan konulara da önem veririm.
2	Kurumdaki süreçlerin nasıl geliştirileceği hakkında kafa yorarım.
3	Problemler için orijinal çözümler üretirim.
4	İşlerimi yaparken kullanabileceğim yeni çalışma yöntemleri, teknikleri ve araçları için araştırma yaparım.
5	Görevlerimi etkili bir şekilde yerine getirmek için yeni yaklaşımlar bulurum/geliştiririm.
6	Kurumda etkili olan kişileri yenilikçi fikir geliştirme konusunda cesaretlendiririm.
7	Diğer çalışanları yenilikçi bir fikri desteklemeleri için cesaretlendiririm.
8	Sistematik bir şekilde yenilikçi fikirleri kurumumda uygulamaya çalışırım.
9	Yeni fikirlerin uygulanmasına katkı sağlarım.
10	Yeni şeyler geliştirmek için çaba sarf ederim.

APPENDIX 9: QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN MAIN STUDY

ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

1	Bu kurumun bir çalışanı olmaktan gurur duyuyorum.
2	Arkadaşlarıma kurumumdan söz ederken çalışmak için harika bir yer olduğunu söylüyorum.
3	Kurumumun geleceğini gerçekten önemsiyorum.
4	Bir işyeri olarak kurumuma olumlu duygular besliyorum.
5	Kariyer yaşantımın kalanını kurumumda geçirmek isterim.
6	Kurumumun geçmişte yaptıkları adanmış insanların neler yapabileceğine örnektir.
7	Kurumumu, çoğu üyesinin aidiyet hissettiği büyük bir aile olarak tanımlayabilirim.
8	Başka bir kurumda çalışmaktansa bu kurumda çalışmayı tercih ettiğime memnunum.
9	Kurumumun beni önemsediğini hissediyorum.
10	Kurumumun toplumdaki imajı beni iyi yansıtıyor.
11	Kendimi kurumumla kolayca özdeşleştiriyorum.
12	Benim ve kurumumun değerlerinin birbirine çok benzediğini düşünüyorum.

APPENDIX 10: QUESTIONNAIRES USED IN MAIN STUDY

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

Çalışanlar İçin	**Öğrenciler İçin**
Cinsiyet	Cinsiyet
Doğum Yılı	Doğum Yılı
Kaç yıldır çalışma hayatında	Çalışma Deneyimi olup olmadığı
Gelir düzeyi	Hangi sektörde çalışmayı planladığı
Medeni durum	
Çocuk sahibi olup olmadığı	
Bankada hangi bölümde çalıştığı	
Daha önce farklı sektörlerde çalışıp çalışmadığı	
Çalıştıysa hangi sektör	