

**THE IMPACTS OF EUROPEAN UNION ON TURKISH
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE: A COMPARATIVE STUDY BETWEEN
TURKISH NATIONAL AGENCY AND STATE PLANNING
ORGANIZATION**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY**

BY

A. BEYAZIT NİYAZOĞLU

**IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE
IN
POLITICAL SCIENCES AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

DECEMBER 2006

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Science

Prof. Dr. Sencer Ayata
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of
Master of Science

Prof. Dr. Feride Acar
Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully
adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yılmaz Üstüner
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. Şinasi Aksoy	(METU, ADM)	_____
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yılmaz Üstüner	(METU, ADM)	_____
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ahmet A. Dikmen	(Ankara Univ., SBF)	_____

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last Name : A. Beyazıt Niyazoğlu

Signature :

ABSTRACT

THE IMPACTS OF EUROPEAN UNION ON TURKISH ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE: A COMPARATIVE STUDY BETWEEN TURKISH NATIONAL AGENCY AND STATE PLANNING ORGANIZATION

Niyazoğlu, A. Beyazıt

M. Sc., Department of Political Science and Public Administration

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yılmaz Üstüner

December, 2006, 129 pages

The rapid developments occurred in the process of Turkey's participation movements into European Union brought also with themselves the first signs of the potential impacts which the European Union will cause to come into existence on the Turkish bureaucracy. The purpose of this study is to ascertain the role the European Union plays as an environmental factor in the formation of organizational culture.

In order to realize the purpose of this thesis, a comparative survey was administered between the State Planning Organization (SPO) and the Turkish National Agency which was established as a department in SPO in 2002 and attained its autonomous body within the framework of legal arrangements and which is in a direct interaction with the European Commission in respect of working environment. The study has reached the conclusion that the Turkish National Agency has higher level of cultural characteristics than SPO in the framework of organizational culture. The reached findings support that the Turkish National Agency, although a state/public institution, is under the impact of EU which bring in differentiation. In addition, questionnaire results were compared with Turkish cultural characteristics in Hofstede's national cultural analysis and it was seen that some aspects of Turkish National Agency were also reflected those characteristics. As a result, the Turkish National Agency developed a "hybrid" structure under the impact of EU and Turkish bureaucracy, and this structure, which is the first sample of its own kind, will be a significant example for similar institutions which will possibly come into being in future.

Key Words: Organizational Culture, European Union, National Culture

ÖZ

AVRUPA BİRLİĞİNİN TÜRK ÖRGÜT KÜLTÜRÜ ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİLERİ: TÜRK ULUSAL AJANSI VE DEVLET PLANLAMA TEŞKİLATININ KARŞILATIRMALI ANALİZİ

Niyazoğlu, A. Beyazıt

Yüksek Lisans, Siyaset Bilimi ve Kamu Yönetimi Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Doçent. Dr. Yılmaz Üstüner

Aralık 2006, 129 sayfa

Türkiyenin Avrupa Birliği'ne katılımı sürecinde son yıllarda yaşanan hızlı gelişim, Avrupa Birliği'nin Türk bürokrasisi üzerinde oluşturacağı potansiyel etkilerin ilk izlerini de beraberinde getirmiştir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, örgütsel kültürün şekillenmesinde, bir çevresel etki faktörü olarak, Avrupa Birliği'nin oynadığı rolü ortaya çıkarmaktır.

Tezin amacını gerçekleştirmek üzere, 2002 yılında Devlet Planlama Teşkilatı'na bağlı bir Daire Başkanlığı olarak kurulan, daha sonra yasal düzenlemeler kapsamında ayrı bir tüzel kişiliğe kavuşan ve çalışma alanı itibari ile Avrupa Komisyonu ile doğrudan etkileşim halinde olan Türk Ulusal Ajansı ile Devlet Planlama Teşkilatı arasında karşılaştırmalı bir anket çalışması düzenlenmiştir. Çalışma, Türk Ulusal Ajansı'nın örgütsel kültür bağlamında Devlet Planlama Teşkilatı'na göre daha güçlü kültürel özellikler gösterdiği sonucuna ulaşmıştır. Elde edilen bulgular, Ulusal Ajansın bir Türk kamu kurumu olmasına rağmen Avrupa Birliği etkisinde kaldığı ve bu etkileşimin örgütsel kültürde farklılaşmaya neden olduğu varsayımını desteklemektedir. Ayrıca anket sonuçları, Hofstede'in karşılaştırmalı ulusal kültür analizindeki Türk kültürel özellikleri ile karşılaştırılmış olup, Ulusal Ajansın bazı yönleri ile bu özellikleri de yansıttığı sonucuna varılmıştır. Sonuç olarak, Ulusal Ajans Avrupa Birliği ve Türk bürokrasisinin etkisinde kalarak "melez" bir yapı oluşturmuştur ve alanında ilk olan bu yapı ileride ortaya çıkması muhtemel benzer kurumlara örnek teşkil edecektir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Örgüt Kültürü, Avrupa Birliği, Ulusal Kültür

To My Wife and Son

Banu & Yiğit

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My master thesis comes to an end and it is time to say thank to the key people involved.

First and foremost I would like to express gratitude to my supervisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yılmaz Üstüner who guided me on my scientific journey and never ceased to accept nothing but highest academic standards. I would like to thank the examining committee members Prof. Dr. Şinasi Aksoy and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ahmet A. Dikmen for their comments and suggestions during the thesis defense.

Special thanks to my friends Abdullah Şahin and Hakan Karaca for their help and ongoing encouragement in the process of writing my thesis. In addition to that I should thank my friend Dr. Sıtkı Yıldız for his valuable effort in the analysis of test results.

I am thankful for the love and support of my family throughout the years, particularly my parents, Ayşe – Cemal Niyazoğlu.

Finally, I whole-heartedly acknowledge and thank to my wife and son, Banu and Yiğit, for their consideration and understanding, especially the times when I was preoccupied. For their humor and warmth, ongoing encouragement and love, I extend my deepest thanks.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
ÖZ.....	v
DEDICATION.....	vi
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	viii
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xiii
LIST OF ABBREVIATION.....	xiv
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. ON STUDYING CULTURE	7
2.1. The Concept of Organizational Culture	7
2.1.1. Understanding the Term “Organizational Culture”	8
2.1.2. The Development of Culture Concept.....	9
2.2. Elements of Culture.....	13
2.3. Cultural Socialization.....	16
3. FORMATION OF CULTURE.....	18
3.1. Leadership and Culture	20
3.2. Impact of Internal Environment.....	21
3.3. Impact of Current Management.....	22
3.4. Impact of External Environment	22
3.5. Impact of National Cultures	25
3.5.1. Hofstede’s National Culture Research	26
3.5.1.1. Power Distance	26
3.5.1.2. Individualism / Collectivism	27
3.5.1.3. Masculinity / Femininity.....	29
3.5.1.4. Uncertainty Avoidance.....	30
3.5.2. Turkish Culture in Hofstede’s Research.....	32
3.5.3. Other Cross-Cultural Researches.....	34

3.5.4. National Versus Organizational Culture	35
4. DOMESTIC INFLUENCES OF EUROPEAN UNION AND DECENTRALIZED AGENCIES	37
4.1. The Concept of Europeanization and Its Domestic Influences.....	38
4.1.1. The Concept of Europeanization	38
4.1.2. European Integration and Europeanization	39
4.1.3. The Domestic Impact of Europe	39
4.1.3.1. Europeanization as an Impact on Domestic Institutions	41
4.1.3.1.1. Resource Dependency	42
4.1.3.1.2. Socialization	43
4.1.3.1.3. Institutional Adaptation.....	44
4.1.3.2 The Degree of Change	45
4.1.3.2.1. Negative or No Change	45
4.1.3.2.2. Positive Change.....	46
4.2. Decentralized Agencies of EU.....	47
4.2.1. The Legal Basis	48
4.2.2. The Classification of Decentralized Agencies	49
4.2.3. Organizational Structure.....	50
5. MEASURING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE	51
5.1 Quantitative and Qualitative Analyses	52
5.2 Different Perspectives	54
5.3 Some Organizational Culture Surveys.....	55
5.3.1. The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI).....	56
5.3.2. Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI).....	56
5.3.3. Organizational Beliefs Questionnaire (OBQ)	57
5.3.4. Denison Corporate Culture Survey	58
6. COMPARATIVE SURVEY ON TWO PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.....	59
6.1. Turkish National Agency	59
6.2. State Planning Organization.....	61
6.3.The Purpose and Overall Design of the Study.....	61
6.4. Data Collection Techniques and Procedures.....	63
6.5. Participants of the Study	64
6.6. Data Analysis Procedure.....	68

6.7. Research Findings	69
6.7.1. Descriptive Statistics of Findings	69
6.7.2. Crosstabs of Findings.....	74
6.7.3. Independent Sample Tests and Anova Tests According to the Participants' Demographic Information'	94
6.7.3.1. T Test Results According to Organizations	94
6.7.3.2. One-way ANOVA According to the Participants' Sex.....	95
6.7.3.3. One-way ANOVA According to the Participants' Age.....	95
6.7.3.4. One-way ANOVA According to the Participants 'Education'.....	96
6.7.3.5. One-way ANOVA According to the Participants 'Position'.....	97
6.7.3.6. Oneway According to the Participants' Working Year in Organization.....	98
6.7.3.7. One-way ANOVA According to the Participants' Total Working Years'.....	98
7. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION	99
7.1. Summary of the Results and Discussion	99
7.2. Conclusion and Recommendation.....	103
REFERENCES	108
APPENDICES.....	115
A. THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE	115
B. T TEST AND ANOVA TEST TABLES.....	120

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 1	The Classification of Artifacts	15
Table 2	Ten Differences Between Small and Large Power Distance Societies	27
Table 3	Ten Differences Between Collectivist and Individualist Societies.....	28
Table 4	Ten Differences Between Feminine and Masculine Societies.....	29
Table 5	Ten Differences Between Weak and Strong Uncertainty Avoidance Societies	31
Table 6	The impact of Europanization.....	40
Table 7	Ten Values and Beliefs that Support Organizational Excellence	57
Table 8	Gender Distribution of the Participants	65
Table 9	Level of Education of the Participants	65
Table 10	Age Distribution of the Participants.....	66
Table 11	Positional Distribution of the Participants.....	66
Table 12	Professional Experience Distribution of the Participants.....	67
Table 13	Working Experience Distribution of the Participants	67
Table 14	Descriptive Statistics of the 'Working Environment'	69
Table 15	Descriptive Statistics of the 'Task Characteristics'	70
Table 16	Descriptive Statistics of the 'Organizational Identity'	71
Table 17	Descriptive Statistics of the 'Decision Making'	72
Table 18	Descriptive Statistics of the 'Informal Structure'	73
Table 19	Crosstabs Analysis - Working Environment - 1	74
Table 20	Crosstabs Analysis - Working Environment - 2.....	75
Table 21	Crosstabs Analysis - Working Environment - 3.....	76
Table 22	Crosstabs Analysis - Working Environment - 4.....	77
Table 23	Crosstabs Analysis - Task Characteristics - 1	78
Table 24	Crosstabs Analysis - Task Characteristics - 2	79
Table 25	Crosstabs Analysis - Task Characteristics - 3	80
Table 26	Crosstabs Analysis - Task Characteristics - 4	81
Table 27	Crosstabs Analysis - Organizational Identity - 1	82
Table 28	Crosstabs Analysis - Organizational Identity - 2	83

Table 29	Crosstabs Analysis - Organizational Identity - 3	84
Table 30	Crosstabs Analysis - Organizational Identity - 4	85
Table 31	Crosstabs Analysis - Decision Making - 1.....	86
Table 32	Crosstabs Analysis - Decision Making - 2.....	87
Table 33	Crosstabs Analysis - Decision Making - 3.....	88
Table 34	Crosstabs Analysis - Decision Making - 4.....	89
Table 35	Crosstabs Analysis - Informal Structure - 1	90
Table 36	Crosstabs Analysis - Informal Structure - 2	91
Table 37	Crosstabs Analysis - Informal Structure - 3	92
Table 38	Crosstabs Analysis - Informal Structure - 4	93

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

Figure 1	Schein's Three Levels of Culture.....	14
Figure 2	A Socialization Model.....	17
Figure 3	System Interface and Hierarchy of Efforts Required for Change in an Organization	19
Figure 4	Task and General Environment.....	23
Figure 5	Power Distance - Individualism Dimension.....	33
Figure 6	Uncertainty Avoidance - Masculinity Dimensions	33
Figure 7	The Domestic Impact of Europe as a Process of Socialization.....	44
Figure 8	The Domestic Impact of Europe as a Process of Institutional Adaptation	45
Figure 9	The Degree of Domestic Change.....	46
Figure 10	The Codes of Analysis	68

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EEC:	European Economic Community
EU:	European Union
EURATOM:	European Atomic Energy Community
GLOBE:	Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program
MSM:	Management Systems Model
NA:	The Center for European Education and Youth Programs (Turkish National Agency)
OBQ:	Organizational Beliefs Questionnaire
OCAI:	Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument
OCI:	Organizational Culture Inventory
SPO:	State Planning Organization
SVI:	Schwartz Value Inventory
TR-NA:	The Center for European Education and Youth Programs (Turkish National Agency)

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In the Middle Ages the countries in Europe were not in good terms with each other because of religious believes which were replaced with economic reasons in the following centuries. They were on short and long term wars and there was no peace in Europe. The Second World War might me accepted as the peak of disharmony among the European nations. The most significant necessity was to establish a sustainable peace in Europe to live as human beings in harmony. The philosophical fathers of European Union searched for solutions to the problem of bloody wars. At the very beginning of European Community, the ideas of those scholars were taken into consideration and a lot of relationships and cooperations were set up to create a sustainable social cohesion and peace in Europe.

The first integration and relationship was on economic field. To be successful in economic field, it was necessary to build an education infrastructure which would create the Europe of knowledge, the most competitive economic power in the world. During the years many a discussion was held such as Bologna Process, Lisbon Strategy, Copenhagen Criteria, Maastricht Treaty etc. The ultimate goal of the establishment of European Community was to establish the “peace” all across Europe.

European countries gathered and set up cooperations and joint activities. At the very short time many institutions came into existence and became influential in European life styles across the continent. Besides, the influences were so big and important that the neighboring countries and the world were under the impact of European life styles, norms, values; in short culture. The culture created in Europe affected many countries and the European values became international to some extend.

In the meantime, Turkey initiated its efforts to become a member of Europe in late 1950s. The governments and governmental institutions were in process of applying European standards in their systems. After the Customs Union Agreement in 1995 and particularly after the Helsinki Summit (1999) in which Turkey gained

the candidacy statute, the government and NGOs were working fast towards the entrance into Europe. Many governmental and non-governmental institutions established EU departments. For instance, in every section of Ministry of National Education “European Tables” were set up. Also in most universities there were European Departments and lessons concerning Europe. European studies were of critical importance for Turkey.

In the year of 2002 Turkey initiated its efforts towards European education and that is why the government set up a Directorate named, The Centre for EU Education and Youth Programs (Turkish National Agency). With the hard work in the preparatory period, Turkey became a full participant into the European Education and Youth Programs in 2004 through a Memorandum of Understanding.

The newly established Directorate was a Turkish institution applying European standards and criteria in its life. To put it another way, that centre was a new Turco-European institution, promising new enlightenments for the other Turkish institutions. Turkish National Agency, the bridge between Turkey and Europe, became successful in leading its tasks and began to influence all other Turkish institutions in terms of European dimensions in different fields, especially in education and culture. According to progress reports prepared by EU governmental people the Turkish National Agency was the most important successful institution ready to enter EU.¹ This situation had a very deep impact on the ideas of governmental people and on Turkish institutions how to lead and work with European standards and values.

As it is a known fact, every institution has its basic culture on its own. This culture is created through the years and affects everything within the organizational atmosphere. From this point of view, the Turkish National Agency (TR-NA), established within the State Planning Organization (SPO), set up its own Turco-European culture being different from other Turkish institutions and also different from SPO which gave birth the TR-NA.

¹ ...Good progress has been made in the area of education, training and youth. Turkey has been participating successfully in the Community Programmes Leonardo da Vinci, Socrates, and Youth, and measures have been taken to encourage a nation-wide coverage of the programmes. In view of the considerable past increase in the number of applications, and Turkey's intention to substantially enhance participation in the future Lifelong Learning and Youth in Action programmes... (in “Turkey 2006 Progress Report”, p.63)

Turkish National Agency formed its specific organizational culture and started to have an essential impact on other institutions across Turkey. The people in the educational fields began to think differently towards European projects and thus the concept of Europeanization gained its fundamentals in the thoughts of people in education field. At the same time, through the actions of TR-NA European policymakers, educators and all education related people had a chance to come directly face to face with Turkish culture and lifestyles and the wrong ideas they had about Turkey and Turkish people faded very soon. So this is a mutual impact between Europe and Turkey.

The influence of EU is a broad term covering political, economical, cultural, administrative etc. aspects. Taking into consideration such an extensive field, it might be ambiguous to reach specific outcomes. Therefore, it is decided to focus on a more concentrated perspective which is organizational culture. The concept of organizational culture refers to the share beliefs, understandings, values, norms, in short the character of organization. It is argued that if there is an environmental influence into the organization, this can be observed clearly at most in cultural formation or change of culture.

To begin with, the purpose of this thesis is to scrutinize the development of organizational culture and the impact on organizational culture by outside / environmental factors. In this context, the cultural development within the Turkish National Agency by the impact of EU will be examined and compared with the existing SPO culture. In addition, the differences between SPO and TR-NA will be shown scientifically to be considered and used by the related circles. This research study will reach some significant conclusions about the organizational culture development within the TR-NA attached to SPO with the impact of European work standards and the differentiation of this newly-developed culture from the SPO with EU working conditions. The aim of the researcher is to show this differentiation of organizational culture from SPO under the effect of European dimension in applications.

The course of differentiation might gain a major function whether it has a positive or negative characteristic. Therefore, the second purpose of this study is to explore the character of differentiation which might be realized as a higher level of organizational culture in TR-NA or vice versa.

In this framework, this research study is significant from many aspects. First of all, with working on organizational culture comparison of two public authorities, this study will fill up a gap in the area mentioned above. In fact, although there are many comparative researches on this topic, both in national and international academic fields, the comparison of public authorities is not a common fact.

Particularly, the compared organizations of the research are significant. Indeed, one of the compared institutions, National Agency, was established under the auspice of SPO as a Directorate and two years later, TR-NA moved to its new building and became a unique Directorate in its field among all other institutions. Taking this fact into account, SPO thought that its new Directorate would be a similar, SPOlike institution, but in fact TR-NA became a different, more Europeanized and more international unit. As a result, SPO being the most strategic, cine-qua-non planning organization for Turkey gave birth to a unique institution.

One another and probably the most important issue is that National Agency is the first public institution formed in Turkish bureaucracy working directly with European Union. In this respect, it constitutes a milestone and can be accepted as a pioneer institution in Turkish bureaucracy on the way of Europe. During the period of negotiation between Turkey and European Union, there will be more unique institutions to be established or departments which work in cooperation with European Union will be opened. Therefore, this de facto development will probably cause crucial changes in Turkish bureaucracy, first of all a change in understanding; then a change in structure, culture etc.

At this point, the results of the study will be significant whether they reveal that National Agency forms a different organizational culture than SPO which is a typical bureaucratic institution in Turkish public administration.

On the other hand, the study has several limitations. As it is noted above that there are three sides of the study; National Agency at the center and the potential related institutions, SPO and European Commission on the other side. A comparative research analysis has been conducted between National Agency and SPO but the third side of the research, European Commission was neglected. A research including the reflections of organizational culture of European Commission will constitute a definitive comparative analysis; the fact that

implementation of quantitative survey would be difficult in consideration of distances between target institutions and time needed. On the other hand, European Commission is a giant institution with its approximately 24.000 staff and 48 different general directorates, so the implementation of a quantitative survey should contain a relatively higher amount of sample size to reflect the cultural structure of the Commission.

Another limitation is related with the samples; the population of the research consist, the whole TR-NA and SPO; but the samples consists only 30 participants which is more than one third of the whole population of National Agency, while there are 45 participants which is 5% of the total population of SPO. In order to reduce the effects of this limitation, those 45 participants were chosen from different departments of SPO, both from main units and support units.

Although the qualitative survey techniques were implemented, like interviews, observations etc, in order to prevent data confusion, these analysis were not included directly in the research results. Instead, these analyses play a secondary role to support the quantitative survey results.

This thesis contains seven chapters. The first chapter provides a background of the subject and the purposes, significance and limitations of the study.

The second chapter reviews the literature of organizational culture concept. In this chapter, the different meanings of organizational culture are discussed in details. To understand better the concept, the development of organizational culture theory has been investigated. In addition, the elements of culture and cultural socialization components have been studied since they are directly related to the topic.

The theoretical fundamentals of this study are based on two basics; one being the factors active in formation of organizational culture, the other being the domestic impact of Europeanization on its all related institutions and establishments. The third and fourth chapters deal with the explanation of the above mention theoretical fundamentals on a broad term.

In the third chapter, the important and distinctive factors establishing the organizational culture are studied completely. Indeed, five factors that have potential influential power on formation of organizational culture are scrutinized. Those are leadership, internal environment, external environment, current

management and national culture. The effects of external environment and national culture have a distinctive character in this study; therefore they are evaluated particularly and in more detailed.

The fourth chapter studies two different main topics. One of them defines the term “Europeanization” and domestic impact of it broadly. Under this topic, types, ways and outcomes of impact are evaluated with different perspectives. The other topic deals with the decentralized agencies of EU in general. In this section, the general characteristics of decentralized agencies in which Turkish National Agency belongs are evaluated.

The measurement of organizational culture is the subject of fifth chapter. In this chapter, the quantitative and qualitative analysis techniques are reviewed. Their distinctive characteristics, advantageous and disadvantageous of both methods are compared in different perspectives.

Sixth chapter describes the design of the research and outlines the framework of the study, the research questions, the research methodology, the research plans and the data gathering and analysis. Additionally the compared institutions, TR-NA and SPO are reviewed. Finally, the results of the survey are evaluated by using statistical methods.

Last chapter consists of two sections, summary of the results and conclusion of the study in which the results of the survey are evaluated and achieved conclusions are presented.

CHAPTER 2

ON STUDYING CULTURE

2.1. The Concept of Organizational Culture

Culture, the character of organization, is one of the major issues in organization theory and in academic research, as well as in management practices. In spite of the fact that this concept is relatively a new one in organizational theory, various studies have been performed in this field. Studies of organizational culture share a common goal: “to uncover and interpret aspects of organizational life so that we can better understand the perceptions, beliefs, and actions of organizational members” (Martin et al, 1997:3). Schein (1992) listed four ultimate reasons to answer the question “why do we need to understand culture?”

- 1- Cultural Analysis illuminates sub-cultural dynamics within organizations.
- 2- Cultural analysis is necessary if we are to understand how new technologies influence and are influenced by organizations.
- 3- Cultural Analysis is necessary for management across national and ethnic boundaries.
- 4- Organizational learning, development, and planned change cannot be understood without considering culture as a primary source of resistance to change. (Schein, 1992:XIII- XIV)

Organizational culture provides its members an understanding to work through the basic problems of survival in and adaptation to the external environment as well as to develop and maintain internal processes. (Schein, 1985, Martin, 2002). Schein (1999) states that organizational culture is the property of a group and that “it is a powerful, latent, and often unconscious set of forces that determine both our individual and collective behavior, ways of perceiving, thought patterns, and values” (Schein, 1999:14).

Sathe (1993) suggests that culture plays a “subtle but pervasive role in organizational life” (Sathe, 1983:5) and with a better understanding of organizational culture, organizational leaders can effectively operate within it, deviate from it, and when necessary, change it. As a supportive idea, Cameron and Quinn indicate that most “organizational scholars and observers now recognize

that organizational culture has a powerful effect on the performance and long-term effectiveness of organizations” (Cameron and Quinn, 1999:4).

2.1.1. Understanding the Term “Organizational Culture”

The term “culture” has no fixed or generally agreed meaning (Borowsky, 1994). Culture is not easily defined, nor is there a consensus among scholars, philosophers and politicians as to what exactly the concept should include. Alvesson (2002) indicates that culture is a tricky concept as it is easily used to cover everything and consequently nothing.

Historically, the word derives from the Latin word ‘colere’, which could be translated as ‘to build’, ‘to care for’, ‘to plant’ or ‘to cultivate’. Thus ‘culture’ usually referred to something that is derived from, or created by the intervention of humans – ‘culture’ is cultivated (Dahl, 2004:1).

Culture, as Elridge and Crombie (1974) suggest, refers to the unique configuration of norms, values, beliefs, ways of behaving and so on, that characterize the manner in which groups and individuals combine to get things done. Culture defines how those in the organization should behave in a given set of circumstances. Geertz’s (1973) definition can be accepted as the broadest one which defines culture as the creation of meaning through which human being interpret their experiences and guide their actions (Geertz, 1973)

Despite the fact that it is relatively a new discipline, the concept of organizational culture is the most controversial sub-topic of the organizational theory (Reichers and Schneider, 1990). The predominant reason underlying the spirited nature of the debate surrounding the concept of organizational culture is the absence of a generally agreed upon “precise definition of the concept and its separation from other related concepts” (Cameron and Ettington, 1988:357).

According to the organizational theorists, culture “is to the organization what personality is to the individual – a hidden, yet unifying theme that provides meaning, direction, and mobilization” (Shafritz and Ott, 1992:481).

Schein (1985) defines organizational culture as:

...a pattern of basic assumptions, invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (1985: 9).

Particularly, Schein believes that the concept of organizational culture can help to explain why organizations grow, change, fail, and “perhaps most importantly of all – do things that don’t seem to make any sense” (Schein, 1985:1).

Spender (1983) states that organizational culture is a belief system shared by an organization’s members. Deal and Kennedy (1982) define the term in a short way as the way we do things around here in their famous book *Corporate Culture*. Being one of the pioneer authors in this concept Ouchi (1981) deals with symbolic aspects of the concept and define the term a set of symbols, ceremonies, and myths that communicate the underlying values and beliefs of that organization to its employees.

The contemporary definition of organizational culture includes what is valued, the dominant leadership style, the language and symbols, the procedures and routines, and the definitions of success that characterizes an organization. Organizational culture represents the values, underlying assumptions, expectations, collective memories, and definitions present in an organization (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The definition of Van Fleet (1991) by taking together the three common threads that run through these various definitions allowed us to create a definition which most authors would probably agree: “Organizational culture is the set of values, often taken for granted, that help people in an organization understand which actions are considered acceptable and which are considered unacceptable” (Van Fleet, 1991:378).

2.1.2. The Development of Culture Concept

The first formal writing on the subject of organizational culture can be traced to Pettigrew’s article, “On Studying Organizational Cultures,” published in *Administrative Science Quarterly* in 1979. In this article, he introduced the anthropological concept of culture and showed the use of related concepts such as, symbolism, myth, ritual etc (Reichers and Schneider, 1990).

It is the fact that the roots of organizational culture can be found in the human relations movement that began at the Western Electric Hawthorne Plant in the 1920s and 1930s as reported by Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939). The researches held by Elton Mayo and his colleagues revealed the importance of human factor in management and opened a new scope in the organization theory.

Additionally, the significant contribution of Barnard (1938) must be taken into consideration in this field. He attempted to circumscribe the concept of organizational culture with his discussions of “informal organizations” by stating that:

Informal organization, although comprising the processes of society which are unconscious, has two important classes of effects: (a) it establishes certain attitudes, understandings, customs, habits, institutions; and (b) it creates the condition under which formal organization may arise...The most general direct effects of informal organization are customs, mores, folklore, institutions, social norms and ideals – a field of importance in general sociology and especially in social psychology and in social anthropology (Barnard, 1938:116).

The Rockefeller's (1973) definition of “organizational logic” is a forerunner of a new concept; that is organizational culture. Rockefeller (1973) states that organizations possess a logic of their own, which grows over the years and is strengthened by the weight of tradition and inertia.

Awareness studies on human relations that began in 1920s and the several researches and studies that subjected human factor in organizational analysis up to early 1980s have constitutes the infrastructure of the concept organizational culture and the article of Pettigrew only has played an intiger role which caused a literature booming in a short period of time. As Alvesson (1980) stated that the studies of organizational culture have been conducted since 1940s but they were sparse and scattered until the “corporate culture boom” of the early 1980s. Since the early 1980s, when the culture perspective originally burst onto the organizational studies scene, the literature has evolved through many interesting stages.

An important point which should be considered in the development of organizational culture concept is that, the success and increasing market share of Japanese companies in 1970s took the attention of organizational theorists. Among many researches on this topic, the book of Pascal and Athos “The art of Japanese Management” (1981) that revealed the cultural aspects of the Japanese companies and the book of William Ouchi that offers a hybrid model of management style

lightened the concept. Ouchi (1981) in his study compares the Japanese and American management styles and offers a new model called Z Type model of management which is a hybrid one.

The book of Deal and Kennedy (1982) "Organizational Cultures" is accepted as the first book solely focuses on the subject organizational culture. In their famous book they stated that strong or weak whatever it can be but each organization has a different culture, which is shaped by its technologies, markets, interests, and competition. Focusing on the power of organizational culture on its members' performance they signified the relationship between the strong culture and business success. Additionally, the book of Peter and Waterman (1982) "In Search of Excellence" made valuable contributions to understand the concept and to provide to grow it up.

Being a member of anthropological school in organizational theory, Smircich (1983) analyzed the different perspectives of organizational culture and concluded that culture is a controllable tool in the hand of management to increase the success rate of organization. Defining culture as a set of shared symbols and meanings, she opened a new dimension in organizational culture literature that is "symbolic approach".

Parallel to Smircich's argument, Allaire and Firsirotu (1984) defined culture as a system of shared symbols and meanings. Also they argued that culture is the product of a various different influences; such as the values and characteristics of ambient society, the history of organization and past leadership, and other factors like industry and technology.

Although the early organizational culture studies focused on creating strong cultures to increase organizational effectiveness, several more comprehensive studies were made and many other aspects of the organizational culture have been revealed in the following years.

In this respect it is doubtless to say, Edgar Schein (1985) is the one of the most distinctive milestone in the development of the culture concept, with his functionalist perspective that opens a new dimension in the concept. He deals with the subjects of the creation, functions, interactions and change of culture. He argues that assumptions and beliefs forms the core of culture and culture is the sum of the shared experiences arising from an organization's attempts to resolve

fundamental problems of adapting to the external world and achieving internal integration and consistency. This constructs a collective pool of knowledge that determines what is appropriate behavior, directs understanding and gives guidance on how to resolve problems.

He suggests that culture has three levels; artifacts, expoused values and basic underlying assumptions. These levels might be shown in an iceberg model in which artifacts located at the top of the iceberg includes some visible components that one can easily observe when he/she walks around the organization. The second level includes the mission, strategies, philosophies, goals, values etc. Finally, the third level which is hidden beneath the surface is the basic underlying assumptions and it is the most difficult to understand due to the fact that it is unconscious and includes perceptions, thoughts, feelings, taken for granted beliefs etc.

In 1987, organizational culture literature gained a new concept, strong culture and weak culture by Robbins (1987). He argues that strong cultures characterized by wide variety of shared values that are more effective on the personnel's performance than that of weak culture which are described as relatively less shared values.

One of the most important implications is that as Barratt (1990) observed, values, beliefs and attitudes are learned, can be managed and changed, and is potentially manipulable by management. O'Reilly (1989) is one of those who clearly believe this is the case. He argues that it is possible to change or manage a culture by choosing the attitudes and behaviors that are required, identifying the norms or expectations that promote or impede them, and then taking action to create the desired effect.

In reviewing the literature on organizational culture the contribution of Martin (2002) should be considered in a way that he identified three theoretical perspectives which are used by organizational culture researchers. These are integration, differentiation and fragmentation perspectives. She stated that one of these perspectives is used while studying on organizational culture; however, she preferred to use all three perspectives simultaneously. Her argument at this point is that a three perspective study generates a multi-voice narrative describing a

broader range of cultural insight. Another advantageous she stated is that this approach helps to researchers figure out cultural change.

In summary, it is a significant fact that although the concept of organizational culture is a relatively new one in organizational theory, many studies and researches have been conducted in this field and consequently many theories which contribute to open new dimensions in organizational theory have been suggested. In this respect it is doubtless to say that the practical outcomes of these researches and theories contribute to reveal organization and its member's relations with many dimensions.

2.2. Elements of Culture

Parallel to development of the concept, organizational culture, various theorists attempted to define and classify the elements of culture. Pettigrew (1979) explains those elements as symbols, rituals, language, beliefs and myths. Trice and Beyer (1993) divide the elements of culture into two categories; first of which is the values and norms and second the process of transformation of those values and norms to the members of organization. Others extended these classifications as stories, heroes, ceremonies etc.

Among them the model of Schein (1985) is the most systematic approach to explain elements of culture. According to him, culture exists on three levels: Artifacts, values and assumptions. Figure 1 depicts Schein's three level of culture perspective.

Assumptions (basic assumptions or underlying assumptions) deals with the fundamental aspects of culture and represents "what members believe to be reality and thereby influence what they perceive and how they think and feel" (Hatch, 1997:210). Assumptions are taken for granted, truth, and not open to discussion. They can be symbolized as the part of an iceberg beneath the surface level. "The assumptions of the culture are likely to influence the organizational structure and indeed the process, particularly the communication process that take place within that structure" (Swales, 1995:264).

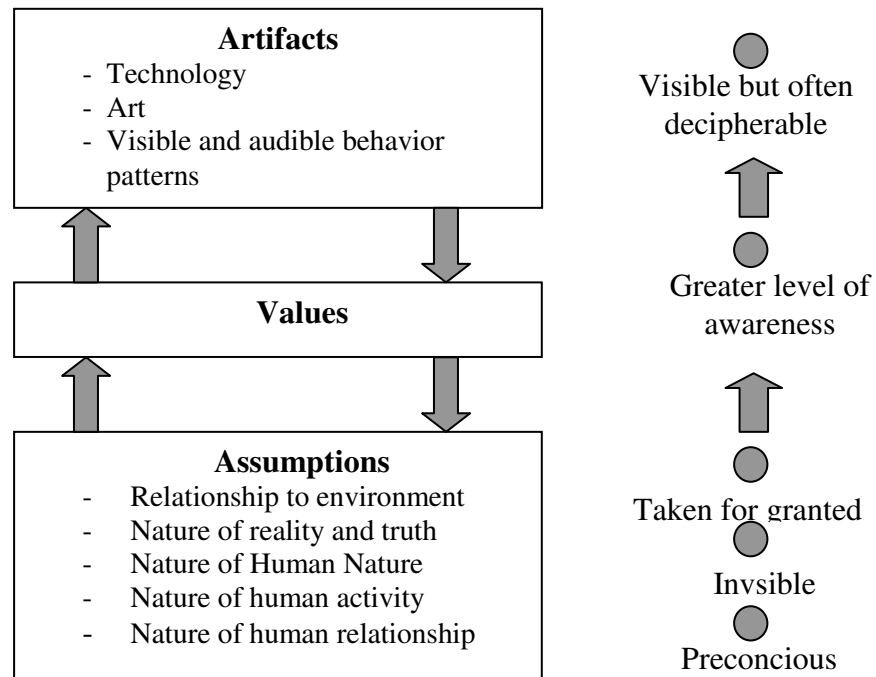


Figure: 1 Schein's Three Levels of Culture

Source: Hampden-Turner, 1990, p.13

Shein (1985) defines seven factors which should be resolved by every culture; so that the basic assumptions of that culture can be defined. Those are, relationship to environment, nature of reality and truth, nature of human nature, nature of human activity, nature of human relationship, nature of time and homogeneity vs. diversity. "He argues that the core assumptions that resolve these issues find their way into many aspects of organization" (Hatch, 1997:214).

Values are the standards, goals and social principles of organization; represent what is important for the organization. "They are connected to moral and ethical codes." (Swales, 1995:263) They define the basic consideration of members, such as, "freedom, democracy, tradition, wealth, or loyalty" (Hatch, 1997:214), honesty, integrity, being fair with people (Swales, 1995:263) etc. Values might be located at the surface level in above symbolic approach.

Beliefs which are difficult to distinguished from values might be classified in this category. Hatch (1997) contributes Shein's "value concept" by adding "norms" which are closely related to values, in this category. Norms in general are the unwritten rules which establish the type of behavior primarily organization and other

individuals might expect from the member of organization. As Hatch (1997) argues that values define what is valued, on the other hand norms draw the boundaries what is considered to be normal or abnormal.

Table: 1 The Classification of Artifacts

<i>General Category</i>	<i>Specific Examples</i>
Physical Manifestation	• Art/design/logo • Buildings/décor • Dress/ appearance • Material objects • Physical layout
Behavioral Manifestation	• Ceremonies/rituals • Communication patterns • Traditions/customs • Rewards/punishments
Verbal Manifestation	• Anecdotes/jokes • Jargon/names/nicknames • Explanations • Stories/myths/history • Heroes/villains • Metaphors

Source: Hatch, 1997, p.216

Artifacts, the tangible elements of culture, are the evidence of what is culture's core. They represent the visible, tangible and audible part of culture with stories, myths, logos, ceremonies, jargons etc (See Table 1). Swales (1995) includes rules systems and procedures as artifacts. Dyer (cited by Hatch-1997) classifies artifacts as physical manifestation, behavioral manifestation and verbal manifestation.

Artifacts might be symbolized as the visible part of an iceberg with reflecting the characteristics of beneath surface part.

2.3. Cultural Socialization

Socialization in general is the process by which human beings learn to adopt the behavior patterns of the community in which they live. Organizational socialization in particular is the reflection of this process into the organization. Socialization can be described as the adaptation of new members of an organization. In this process, new employees learn the norms and goals of organization with the way of doing things in that organization and become fully productive.

De Cenzo and Robbins (2005) listed the general characteristics of organization that:

- Socialization strongly influences employee performance and organizational stability, and provides information on how to do the job and ensuring organizational fit,
- New members suffer from anxiety, which motivates them to learn the values and norms of the organization,
- Socialization is influenced by subtle and less subtle statements and behaviors exhibited by colleagues, management, employees, clients and others,
- Individuals adjust to new situations in remarkably similar ways,
- All new employees go through a settling-in period.

According to Tosi et al (1994) organizational norms and expectations reflect a psychological agreement which realized through socialization process. Indeed, these norms and expectation might be learned either by the structured orientation studies organized by management or by imitating senior members. The second method might bear a risk of deviated socialization which contradicts with organizational norms and goals.

Robbins (2005) conceptualized the process of socialization into three stages, prearrival, encounter and metamorphosis. The Figure 2 depicts the process of socialization.

The *prearrival stage* refers a period of learning that occurs before a new employee joins the organization, “so that he or she arrives with an established set of values, attitudes and expectations” (Robbins, 2005:237). School education and

various vocational training programs might be the examples of such socialization which prepare person working environment. In this framework, this stage provides organization to hire right type of individual that is those who will fit in.

The *encounter stage* starts with the entry of new member who confronts the possible dichotomy between his/her expectation and reality. If the expectation and realities are more or less integrated, this stage merely provides an affirmation of the perceptions gained earlier. If not, there are two ways to be followed by the new member; either might replace the earlier assumptions with another set that organization deem desirable or might resign at this early stage.

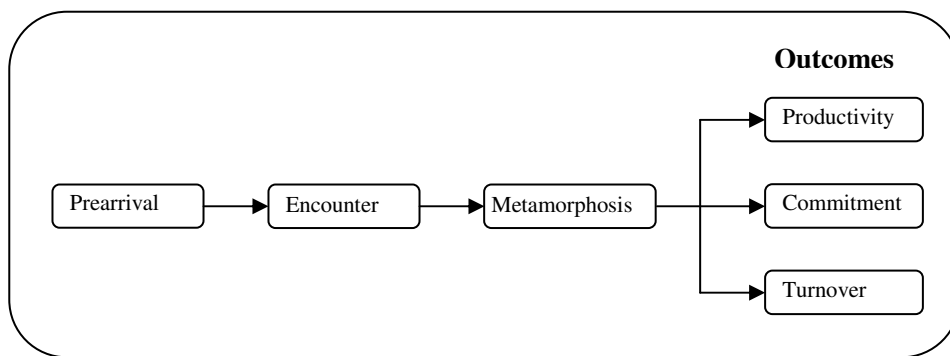


Figure: 2 A Socialization Model

Source: Robbins, 2005, p.237

The third and final stage is *metamorphosis stage*; in other words the stage where the real change and adaptation is realized. The new member solves the problems and inconveniences and adopt himself/herself norms and values of organization. As it is shown in Figure 2 a successful socialization will have a positive impact on the new members and indirectly on productivity, commitment and turnover of organization.

CHAPTER 3

FORMATION OF CULTURE

One of the most mysterious aspects of organizational culture is how it originates (Schein, 1992). It is a general acceptance that every organization has cultural characteristics which make it distinctive from one another, either consciously formed or not. The questions what determines particular cultures and how they link to organizational structure are engaged many researchers. While most of them argue that it is the leadership function which primarily impact on organizational culture, the others draw attention on the other factors, such as, internal and external environmental factors, national culture, technology etc.

Several researchers focus on the questions, how organizational culture is formed and what is the factors impact on it.

Cavaleri and Obloj (1993) developed a system model, called Management Systems Model (MSM) which has five systematic tools.

1. Strategy
2. Structure
3. Procedures (technology/process)
4. Culture
5. Leadership

The system originates from a basic assumption that organizations are open systems with several interactive relationships among internal and external factors and among internal factors themselves. This model suggests that “each systemic tool should be applied in a harmonized and thoughtful manner to yield the best possible result as each particular tool or factor, when applied, would yield a different systemic result” (Sundarasaradula and Hasan in http://epress.anu.edu.au/info_systems/part-ch11.pdf:140).

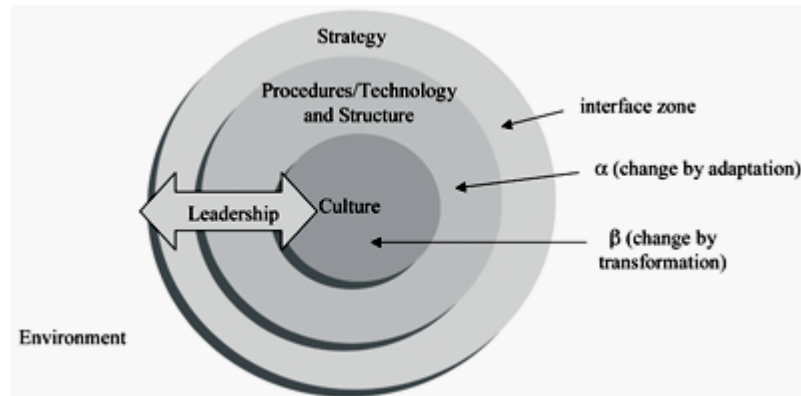


Figure: 3 System Interface and Hierarchy of Efforts Required for Change in an Organization

Source: http://epress.anu.edu.au/info_systems/part-ch11.pdf (05.10.2006)

Leadership and strategy are general tools for inflicting changes or destabilization on organizations; on the other hand culture, procedures or technology and structure are systemic tools which play critical roles to impose stability and regulation in the organization. (See Figure 3) Cavaleri and Obloj (1993) suggest that for successful operation of an organization in a specific environment, there should be an interface between its subsystems and the environment. Organizational strategy constitutes such an interface.

In order to find a solution of the question “how this system works?” Cavaleri and Obloj (1993) define four stages:

Parallel to organizational strategies and goals which are determined at initial stage; values begin to develop as instinctive force in formation of culture. The interactive relationship between founders and employees is significant at this stage; in other words, the fact that goals and strategies of organization are adopted by employees, is depend on the founder’s (leader) power to influence his/her subordinates.

It is assumed that there is parallel way of thinking between founders and employees; therefore values and norms are strengthen with success in the second stage.

The third stage is the stage of idealization of values. Artifacts like rites, rituals, heroes, slangs etc. appears in this stage.

Swales (1995) determines that the culture of a specific organization is a result of the impact of:

1. The founders (Leaders)
2. The internal environment
3. The current management
4. The external environment
5. The national culture

Comparing with others, this classification might have been accepted the broadest context covering almost all aspects of the issue. Therefore the subject “major impacts in formation of culture” will be analyzed by using this classification.

3.1. Leadership and Culture

The role of leadership in creating culture is almost an indisputable reality in organizational theory. One of the most prominent author that suggest this reality is Schein (1992) who stated that organizations do not form accidentally; instead they are goal oriented and created because one or more individuals perceive that a coordinated and concerned action of a number of people can accomplish. Schein (1992) stated that the process of culture formation is a process of creating a small group. Despite small differences, every organization involve the below four steps:

1. A single person (founder) has an idea for a new enterprise.
2. The founder brings in one or more other people and creates a core group that shares a common goal and vision with the founder.
3. The founding group begins to act in concert to create an organization by raising funds, obtaining patents, incorporating, locating work space, and so on.
4. Others are brought into the organization, and a common history begins to be built. If the group remains fairly stable and has significant shared learning experiences, it will gradually develop assumptions about itself, its environment, and how to do things to survive and grow (Schein, 1992:212).

He simulates leadership and culture as two sides of a coin and states that first leaders influence the subordinates and create culture, and then they determine the criteria for leadership and select their leaders according to those criteria. Defining the impact of leader in formation of culture Davis (1984) suggests that “If the leader is a great person, then inspiring ideas will permeate the corporation’s culture. If the

leader is mundane, then the guiding beliefs may well be uninspired” (Davis, 1984:8).

3.2. Impact of Internal Environment

Beside the impact of leadership, there are some internal factors which might be effective in formation of organizational culture. Swales (1995) defines those factors as:

1. Organizational size
2. Degree of differentiation
3. Extend of formalization
4. The degree of freedom allowed to subordinates to show initiative
5. Criteria for appraisal and reward
6. Use of technology
7. Information and control system

On the other hand Martin (Cited by Du Toit, 2002) suggests a subsystem approach in order to define the internal environment concept. He states that organizations are complex social systems which contain various subsystems which might influence values, norms, assumptions, in short, the culture of organization. Those subsystems compose the internal environment of organization that has an interactive and continuous relationship with external environment. In this framework he classifies those subsystems into five categories:

Goal Subsystem is the reason of existence of an organization, containing mission and strategy of that organization.

Technical Subsystem might be defined as the utilization of specialized knowledge, equipments, machines etc.

Structural Subsystem is formed with the line of task expectation, system of workflow, communication lower, reporting lines and work rules.

Psychosocial Subsystem is related to the interpersonal and group relationship, motivation and climate of organization.

Management Subsystem is the center of other four subsystems and cut across them. It originates from the organizational roots and has a power to influence other

subsystems by setting the organizational goals, developing strategies, designing the structure of organization, establishing control mechanism etc.

Martin (1989) states that the result of interactions between these subsystems and reciprocal influences create the unique culture of organization.

3.3. Impact of Current Management

As most scholars state that the impact of leadership has a primary effect on formation of culture; however, the performance of a single leader is not sufficient to create and maintenance culture. Kotter (1996) suggest that leadership and management are two distinctive complementary systems of behavior. Each has its own function and characteristic activities. Managerial practices of an organization play a key role to create and develop culture. The executive figures establish norms that filter down through the organization and create an atmosphere what Robbins (2005) gives some explanation as whether risk taking is desirable, how much freedom managers should give their subordinates, what is appropriate dress, what action will pay off in terms of pay raises, promotion and other rewards.

Interestingly, although Swales (1995) counts the impact of current management in his classification, he focused on the impact of current management to change the existing culture, rather than to create it. He states that organizations go through stages in its life cycle that make new demands; it will grow and change from a simple entrepreneurial structure to something more complex. This changes and demands force current managers to impact on the culture.

3.4. Impact of External Environment

Because organizations operate as open systems, a relationship between external and internal forces always exists. Scott (1987) states that no institution can exist in isolation. No organization is self-sufficient; all depend for survival on the types of relations they establish with the larger systems of which they are part. In this framework external environment is defined in general as all the elements

that exist outside the boundary of the organization and have the potential to affect all or part of the organization.

Hall (1991) divides an organization's environmental factors into two categories: task environment and general environment.

The *task environment* mainly includes sectors with which the organization interacts directly and that have a direct impact on the organization's ability to achieve goals. Scott (1987) defines task environment as those features of the environment relevant to the organization viewed as a production system in particular, the sources of inputs, markets for outputs, competitors, and regulators. Swales (1995) entitles this term as "specific environment" and broadens its aspect including customers, distributors, government and shareholders etc.

On the other hand, the *general environment* includes those factors that may not have a direct impact on the daily operations of a firm but will indirectly influence it. The general environment consists of five major elements described by Tushman and Anderson (1986). These are:

1. *The Technological Element*: The technological element tends to evolve through periods of incremental change punctuated by technological breakthroughs.



Figure: 4 Task and General Environment

Source: Adapted from <http://faculty.salisbury.edu/~whdecker/buad320/chapter2.ppt>

2. *The Economic Element:* The economic element includes the current systems of producing, distributing, and consuming wealth.
3. *The Legal-Political Element:* The legal-political element includes the legal and governmental systems within which an organization must function. Organizations are governed by laws that address the manner in which they function, and organizations must operate within the legal framework of the countries in which they conduct their operations. Political pressures and processes also influence the legal system and may also influence the extent of government regulation of various laws.
4. *The Social-Cultural Element:* The socio-cultural element includes the norms, values, beliefs and behaviors associated with the demographic characteristics of a given area or region. Socio-cultural considerations are subject to change. So organizations must be aware of this aspect of the external environment.
5. *The International Element:* The international element is concerned with developments in countries outside the firm's home country that may potentially affect the organization.

This approach can be conceptualized as two layer (See Figure:3), the closer one to the organization, task environment with direct impact on it; and the outer layer, general environment with indirect impact on it. In summary, the impact of task environment is significant in formation of organizational culture; while, general environment has a secondary role. All values, beliefs, norms and artifacts are stabilized in the last stage in which organizational history is created and cultural elements are adopted widely.

Tosi et al (1994) classifies the main factors which impact on formation of culture:

Broad External Influences: Those factors, such as historical events and natural environment, have little or no control on organizations.

Societal Values and National Culture: Those factors are the dominant beliefs and values of the broader society, such as, values about individual freedom, beliefs about the goodness of humanity, orientation toward action, power distance norms etc.

Organization Specific Elements: Those factors are technological environment, employee characteristics, fragmented occupational subcultures, nature of the

industry, leaders, organization's own history etc. which originates from organization or its sector environment.

Trice and Beyer (1993) describe the environmental influences of the cultural evolutionary process by stating that the "some of the ideologies in organizations are imported from at least six levels of their environments: transnational systems, nations, regions and communities, industries, occupations, and other organizations" (Trice and Beyer, 1993:75-76).

Sargut (1994) emphasizes that organizations are open systems and inevitably there is considerable influence of organizational environment in formation of culture. Inputs of organization such as, human resources, technology, knowledge, bring in environmental traces. Inner process of these inputs provides cultural progress which turns environment as an output; then turns again organization as a new impulse. Therefore a circular interaction occurs.

In order to generate a negative entropy, organizations develop a selective filter against environmental influences which cause differentiation in culture of those organizations influencing in the same cultural environment.

3.5. Impact of National Cultures

Organization's culture is also influenced by the wider national culture in which it operates. The most undefined understanding of organizational culture comes from the idea that organizations are manifestation of larger cultural systems; (Hatch, 1997) that is national cultures. Parallel to the development of organizational culture theory, researches were held on the subject of national culture and cross national analysis in order to reveal the influences of national culture on the members of organizations.

National culture can be defined as values, beliefs, assumptions and in brief the way of understanding life that the members of nation learned in their early life. In this sense, these cultural characteristics shape the managerial understandings of that nation and impact on how an organization operates. Various sociologists, anthropologists and social psychologists focus on this issue and research major dimensions of national cultural variation and their influences on organizational culture.

Among them, Dutch researcher Geerts Hofstede (1980) who analyzed the work values of 116.000 sales service IBM employees in 50 countries can be accepted as the most prominent author in this field of organization theory.

3.5.1. Hofstede's National Culture Research

The study of Hofstede was the first major quantitative study designed to look at differences and similarities of values across cultures. The questionnaire included approximately 126 attitudinal questions concerning various aspects of feelings, satisfaction with work environment, perceptions of superior, personal goals and beliefs, as well as demographics.

The argument of Hofstede in his study was that belonging of participant to the same company, eliminated the influences of organizational culture and therefore the differences in values would reveal differences in national cultures.

Hofstede's book might be accepted the first systematic attempt at studying work-related values that are universally understood on a large international scale. Hofstede (1980) derived, via a combination of exploratory factor analysis and theoretical considerations, the following four values: Power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, and masculinity-femininity (Aguinis and Henle, 2003).

3.5.1.1. Power Distance

The founder father of the concept "power distance" is described by Hofstede (1980) as: "the extent to which social inequalities is accepted by a society" (Hofstede 1980:122). Power distance societies accept an unequal distribution of power and consider it as normal. Hofstede (1980) classified nations into two groups as, nations having large power distance or small power distance. Hierarchy, inequality, uneven income distribution, power, and corruption are typical characteristics of large power distance; while the small power distance nations have opposite characteristics.

The existence of power distance in a society influences the organizations by increasing authority and centralization degree. Indeed, the reflection of power

distance in organizational framework indicates a hierarchical, centralized structure with inequality between a superior and his/her subordinate. The common characteristics of large power distance organization are that the communication channels are not well equipped, subordinates have difficulty to declare his/her opinion, superiors make decision and there is no need to take the opinion of subordinates. (Aguinis and Henle, 2003). The comparative results of “large” and “small” power distance societies summarize the concept in Table 2.

Table: 2 Ten Differences Between Small and Large Power Distance Societies

Small Power Distance	Large Power Distance
Use of power should be legitimate and is subject to criteria of good and evil	Power is a basic fact of society antedating good or evil: its legitimacy is irrelevant
Parents treat children as equals	Parents teach children obedience
Older people are neither respected nor feared	Older people are both respected and feared
Student-centered education	Teacher-centered education
Hierarchy means inequality of roles, established for convenience	Hierarchy means existential inequality
Subordinates expect to be consulted	Subordinates expect to be told what to do
Pluralist governments based on majority vote and changed peacefully	Autocratic governments based on co-optation and changed by revolution
Corruption rare; scandals end political careers	Corruption frequent; scandals are covered up
Income distribution in society rather even	Income distribution in society very uneven
Religions stressing equality of believers	Religions with a hierarchy of priests

Source: <http://www.ac.wvu.edu/~culture/hofstede.htm>

East European, Latin, Asian and African countries have large power distance characteristics while Germanic and English-speaking Western countries have opposite characteristics. (See Figure 4)

3.5.1.2. Individualism / Collectivism

Hofstede and Bond (1988) define the concept as “it is the extent to which group interests prevailed over those of individuals or vice-versa (Hofstede and Bond,

1988:10). In a brief explanation “I” consciousness is a basic characteristic of individualist society; while “we” consciousness in collectivist society.

Individualism refers to the type of relationship between the individual and the collectivities which prevail in a given society and was derived from questions addressing work goals (e.g., have a job which leaves sufficient time for my personal or family life, have considerable freedom to adapt my own approach to the job). (Aguinis, H., & Henle, C.A. (2003).

Collectivism is the tendency of people to belong to groups or collectives and to look after each other in exchange for loyalty degree to which cultures encourage individual concerns as opposed to collectivist concerns. Table 3 depicts the ten differences between “individualist” and “collectivist” societies.

Individualism is common in developed and Western countries, while collectivism in less developed and Eastern countries; Japan takes a middle position on this dimension. (See Figure 4)

Table: 3 Ten Differences Between Collectivist and Individualist Societies

Individualism	Collectivism
Everyone is supposed to take care of him- or herself and his or her immediate family only	People are born into extended families or clans which protect them in exchange for loyalty
"I" - consciousness	"We" -consciousness
Right of privacy	Stress on belonging
Speaking one's mind is healthy	Harmony should always be maintained
Others classified as individuals	Others classified as in-group or out-group
Personal opinion expected: one person one vote	Opinions and votes predetermined by in-group
Transgression of norms leads to guilt feelings	Transgression of norms leads to shame feelings
Languages in which the word "I" is indispensable	Languages in which the word "I" is avoided
Purpose of education is learning how to learn	Purpose of education is learning how to do
Task prevails over relationship	Relationship prevails over task

Source: <http://www.ac.wvu.edu/~culture/hofstede.htm>

3.5.1.3. Masculinity / Femininity

Hofstede (1980) explains the concept as “it is how much a society is characterized by their assertiveness, competition and materialism (masculinity) versus their caring and nurturance (femininity)” (Hofstede 1980:184).

Masculinity-femininity refers to the degree of endorsement of “masculine” (i.e., advancement and earnings as more important) as opposed to “feminine” (i.e., interpersonal aspects, rendering service, and the physical environment as more important) goals. (Aguinis and Henle, 2003). Masculinity is the term used by Hofstede (1980) to describe a situation in which the dominant values in society are success, money, competition, performance etc. In contrary dominant values in femininity society are carrying for others and the quality of life. (See Table 4)

In a bipolar perspective, the assertive and competitive pole might be called “masculine” and the modest, caring pole “feminine”. Table 4 lists a selection of differences between societies that validation research showed to be associated with this dimension.

Table: 4 Ten Differences Between Feminine and Masculine Societies

Femininity	Masculinity
Minimum emotional and social role differentiation between the genders	Maximum emotional and social role differentiation between the genders
Men and women should be modest and caring	Men should be and women may be assertive and ambitious
Balance between family and work	Work prevails over family
Sympathy for the weak	Admiration for the strong
Both fathers and mothers deal with facts and feelings	Fathers deal with facts, mothers with feelings
Both boys and girls may cry but neither should fight	Girls cry, boys don't; boys should fight back, girls shouldn't fight
Mothers decide on number of children	Fathers decide on family size
Many women in elected political positions	Few women in elected political positions
Religion focuses on fellow human beings	Religion focuses on God or gods
Matter-of-fact attitudes about sexuality; sex is a way of relating	Moralistic attitudes about sexuality; sex is a way of performing

Source: <http://www.ac.wvu.edu/~culture/hofstede.htm>

Japan, German speaking countries, and some Latin countries have high masculinity characteristic. It is moderate in English speaking Western countries. On the other hand, it is low in Nordic countries, Netherlands and France, Spain, Portugal, Chile, Korea and Thailand. (See Figure 5)

3.5.1.4. Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance refers to the degree of tolerance for uncertainty and it was derived from questions addressing (a) rule orientation, (b) employment stability, and (c) stress. (Aguinis and Henle, 2003). "It is the extent to which members of a culture are threatened by uncertain, unknown, or unstructured situations. This dimension reflects the way different societies deal with the uncertainty of the future" (Hofstede and Bond, 1988:11). Hofstede (1980) states that high uncertainty avoidance nations tend to control the dynamics of society by creating laws, rules, and institutions; developing technology; nominating experts; or adopting religious dogma.

Uncertainty Avoidance is an understanding into which people feel threatened by uncertain situations and have created beliefs and institutions that try to avoid these. Countries with high uncertainty avoidance tend to have a high need for security and strong belief in experts and their knowledge. Additionally, structuring of organizational activities, more written rules, less risk-taking by managers, lower labor turnover, and less ambitious employees are typical organizational characteristics of such countries. Societies with low uncertainty avoidance accept the risks of uncertain situations; but not to create beliefs or institutions in order to try to avoid them. In such societies, organization setting with less structuring of activities, fewer written rules, more risk-taking by managers, higher labor turnover, and more ambitious employees are common.

Table 5 lists a selection of differences between societies that validation research showed to be associated with the Uncertainty Avoidance dimension. Uncertainty avoidance scores are higher in East and Central European countries, in Latin countries, in Japan and in German speaking countries, lower in English speaking, Nordic and Chinese culture countries. (See Figure 5)

Table: 5 Ten Differences Between Weak and Strong Uncertainty Avoidance Societies

Weak Uncertainty Avoidance	Strong Uncertainty Avoidance
The uncertainty inherent in life is accepted and each day is taken as it comes	The uncertainty inherent in life is felt as a continuous threat that must be fought
Ease, lower stress, self-control, low anxiety	Higher stress, emotionality, anxiety, neuroticism
Higher scores on subjective health and well-being	Lower scores on subjective health and well-being
Tolerance of deviant persons and ideas: what is different is curious	Intolerance of deviant persons and ideas: what is different is dangerous
Comfortable with ambiguity and chaos	Need for clarity and structure
Teachers may say 'I don't know'	Teachers supposed to have all the answers
Changing jobs no problem	Staying in jobs even if disliked
Dislike of rules - written or unwritten	Emotional need for rules – even if not obeyed
In politics, citizens feel and are seen as competent towards authorities	In politics, citizens feel and are seen as incompetent towards authorities
In religion, philosophy and science: relativism and empiricism	In religion, philosophy and science: belief in ultimate truths and grand theories

Source: <http://www.ac.wvu.edu/~culture/hofstede.htm>

One another dimension, called Confucian Dynamism (Time Orientation) was not stated in the original research on IBM and was added later to distinguish between a long-term and short-term orientation toward life and work. As many of the short term and long term orientation were accepted similar to Confucian teaching such name was given to this dimension. (Hofstede and Bond, 1988). "Values associated with Long Term Orientation are thrift and perseverance; values associated with Short Term Orientation are respect for tradition, fulfilling social obligations, and protecting one's 'face'." (<http://www.ac.wvu.edu/~culture/hofstede.htm>). Since this dimension is not an original study of Hofstede, it is not investigated in detail and only general description of this approach is given.

3.5.2. Turkish Culture in Hofstede's Research

According to Hofstede's research, Turkish culture shows a high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance characteristics (Figure 5 and 6) These facts reveal themselves as more bureaucratic structures in both public and private sectors with more inequality between superiors and their subordinates. Additionally, obedient people who try to avoid uncertain situations or people who make a great effort to be a civil servant are common facts in Turkish society. Other typical characteristics of uncertainty avoidance which are identical with Turkish management style are more written rules in work life and being closed to innovative or deviant ideas.

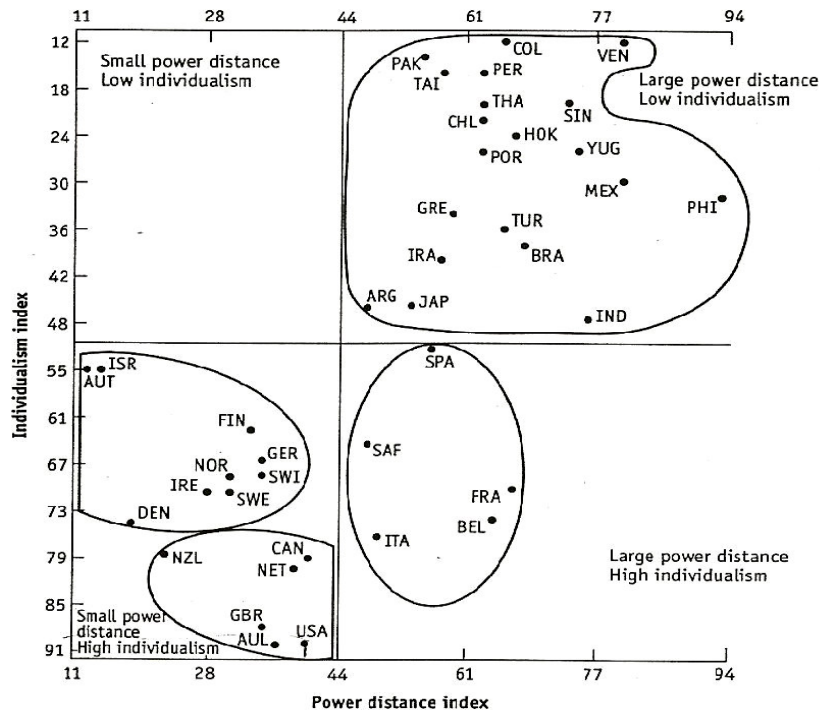


Figure: 5 Power Distance - Individualism Dimension

Source: Hatch, 1997, p.208

High power distance is an inevitable result of high uncertainty avoidance. Sargut (1994) explains this reality as the situations when being unsuccessful in avoiding uncertainty or when increasing uncertainty paralyze the society; people take refuge in God, generals or civil politician "fathers" to avoid uncertainty.

The patriarchal and authoritative family structure constitutes a fundamental prototype of further power distance characteristics. In addition to that, strict school rules, strict superior and subordinates relations in military service, and religious and nationalist incentives contribute to develop a high power distance society. Therefore, as a reflection of this facts, authoritative, bureaucratic and centralist organizations with obedient members form the general characteristics of typical Turkish organization.

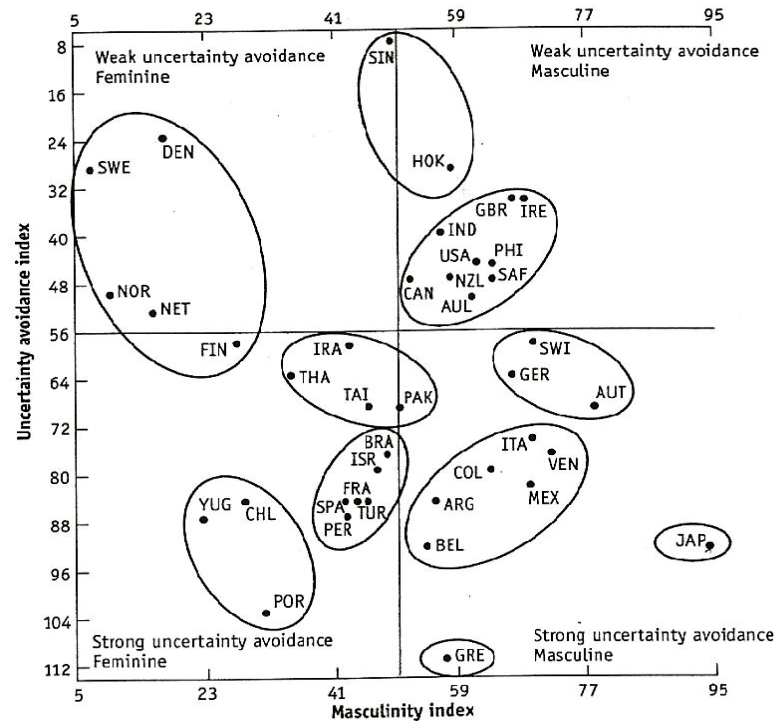


Figure: 6 Uncertainty Avoidance - Masculinity Dimensions

Source: Hatch, 1997, p.208

The collectivist and femininity characteristics of Turkish culture are significant. (Figure 5 and 6) The reality under this fact is the group dependency character of Turkish society. The importance of “family” and “friendship” concepts, religious and nationalist reflections, and also traditions create a collectivist and femininity culture in Turkey. Various family companies and common friend partnership are typical examples of those characteristics.

The fact that results of Hofstede's study reflects the late 1970's Turkish society, and the relative changes in family, relationship, communication etc influence the cultural characteristics. However, those changes are not powerful enough to change the principle understandings that Hofstede drove thirty years ago.

3.5.3. Other Cross-Cultural Researches

Beside Hofstede's research on national culture, several researchers study on this subject, some with challenging to Hofstede's research and some with unique studies.

Smith, Dugan, and Trompenaars (1996) performed a value survey to 8,841 managers and employees in 43 countries. The study was organized to measure a three dimension of value, universalism-particularism, achievement-ascription, and individualism-collectivism. The three dimensions of this challenging study were related to with the Hofstede's four dimensions and with the dimensions of Chinese Culture Connection.

The research of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) focused on cultural dimensions of business executives. They identified seven dimensions of value two of which resemble with the dimensions of Hofstede. Those are:

- Universalism versus particularism
- Communitarianism versus individualism
- Neutral versus emotional
- Diffuse versus specific cultures
- Achievement versus ascription
- Human-Time relationship and
- Human-Nature relationship (Dahl, 2004:14)

Schwartz (1994) developed a new method in finding cultural differences among nations and called it "SVI" (Schwartz Value Inventory).

From data collected in 63 countries, with more than 60,000 individuals taking part, Schwartz derived a total of 10 distinct value types (power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity and security) at an individual-level analysis. (Dahl, 2004:17)

In contrast with Hofstede's inductive approach, Schwartz's main goal was to identify a theory-based structure of values that would generalize across cultures. The 10 value types are grouped along two dimensions. The first one opposes openness to change (self-direction and stimulation) to conservation (conformity, tradition, and security). The second one opposes self-transcendence (universalism and benevolence) to self-enhancement (achievement and power). (Schwartz, 1992).

The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Program (GLOBE) which was conceived by US management scholar Robert J. House in 1991, is a network of 170 social scientists and management scholars from 61 cultures throughout the world. The GLOBE developed measures to assess Hofstede's (1980) four values as well as humane orientation, performance orientation, and long- versus short-term orientation (House et al., 1997). The nine dimensions were covered by 78 survey questions, half of which asking respondents to describe their existing culture and the other half asking what it should be.

A particular strength of the GLOBE research design is the combination of quantitative and qualitative data. Elimination of common method and common source variance is also strength of the design strategy. (House et al., 1997).

3.5.4. National Versus Organizational Culture

The general characteristic of above all researches and many others is having an outcome that national culture has a greater impact on individuals than organizational cultures. However, if such an assumption is true, then all organizations in the same national territory should have similar organizational culture characteristics which are disproved by many researched stating significant differences among organizations.

According to Schein (1985), every organization in the course of its evolution develops its own culture as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and integration. Mentioning the case of transnational institutions, he comes to the conclusion that these emerging organizational cultures are even powerful enough to affect and partly override national culture elements.

Mwaura et al. (1998) adopt an interim position and conceive of the influence of national culture on organizational culture as contingent upon the relative strength of the national and organizational cultures.

CHAPTER 4

DOMESTIC INFLUENCES OF EUROPEAN UNION AND DECENTRALIZED AGENCIES

After the Second World War with great loss, several European leaders realized that the only way to provide long life peace between their countries was to unite them economically and politically. The first attempt to realize such an idea was the Declaration of Robert Schuman who was the French Foreign Minister in 1950. In this declaration he proposed integrating the coal and steel industries of Western Europe. One year later, the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) were set up, with six members: Belgium, West Germany, Luxembourg, France, Italy and the Netherlands. This was a supranational body called “High Authority” and as the founding father of this idea, Jean Monnet became its first President. This body is accepted as the nuclear body of today’s European Union. The attempts of unification of Europe were resulted a second and a more comprehensive development which was the Treaties of Rome, creating the European Atomic Energy Community (EURATOM) and the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1957. Initially, there were three institutions which were the Commission, the Parliament and the Council of Ministers, independent from each other; however they were merged into a single body that is European Economic Community in 1967.

The initial idea which focus on the cooperation in steel and coal sectors were widened such an extensive area that almost all aspects of nation states covered by the Community’s workspace. Inevitably these developments necessitated a new approach to meet the de facto changes and to establish a legal ground for the future developments. The Treaty of Maastricht (1992) introduced new forms of co-operation between the member state governments from political to technological and cultural aspects. This development can be accepted as the rebirth of the Community with a new name, European Union. This is the fact that the Treaty of Maastricht (1992) introduced new forms of co-operation between the member state

governments. In other words, other than economic issues, political, judicial, military, cultural etc issues were started to manage by the Community.

4.1. The Concept of Europeanization and Its Domestic Influences

4.1.1. The Concept of Europeanization

The decades long debates concern with explaining the concept of European integration, left its place to the concept of Europeanization which have been considered widely by the scholars after the Treaty of Maastricht.

The research in the field of European Studies adopted a “bottom-up” perspective in analyzing the relationship between the European Union and its Member States. However, in the 1990s, the concept of Europeanization became increasingly interest in the impact of European processes and institutions on the Member States, that is “top-down” perspective.

Many scholars suppose Europeanization as independent variable which impacts upon domestic processes, policies, and institutions and describe it as “the emergence and the development at the European level of distinct structures of governance, that is, of political, legal, and social institutions associated with political problem-solving that formalizes interactions among the actors.” (Börzel and Risse, 2000:3). On the other hand, some scholars suppose the concept as the processes and mechanisms by which European institution-building may cause change at the domestic level and describe it as “an incremental process re-orienting the direction and shape of politics to the degree that EC political and economic dynamics become part of the organizational logic of national politics and policy-making”. (Börzel and Risse, 2000:3).

Olsen (2002) defines the term with focusing on “change” and listing five areas: (i) changes in external boundaries, (ii) development of European-level institutions, (iii) central penetration of national systems of governance, (iv) exportation of forms of political organization and (v) political unification. In other words, in his perspective Olsen (2002) systematizes the realization of Europeanization into five steps that described above.

The common characteristics of above definitions are that all consider a “top-down” influence; from center to the periphery.

4.1.2. European Integration and Europeanization

Initially the concept of Europeanization and European integration concept were considered to be analogous. In the course of time, the distinctive characteristics of two concepts started to argue in theoretical grounds.

Elen and Eleanor (2005) state that some scholars argue critical distinction between two concepts. Hellen Wallace (Cited by Elen and Eleanor, 2005) suggests that European integration is a broader concept which is an encompassing process towards a single Europe. Parallel to her assumption, Vivien Schmidt (Cited by Elen and Eleanor, 2005) charts an explicit distinction between European integration, which she sees operating at the top level, and Europeanization which takes place at the bottom. She defines Europeanization as the domestic impact of European integration.

Parallel to above statements it might be suggest that European integration is a broader concept referring a system of economic and political integration of Europe; while Europeanization is a subsystem of European integrity.

4.1.3. The Domestic Impact of Europe

The domestic impact of Europeanization can be conceptualized as a process of change at the domestic level in which the member states adapt their processes, policies, and institutions to new practices, norms, rules, and procedures that emanate from the emergence of a European system of governance (Olsen 2002)

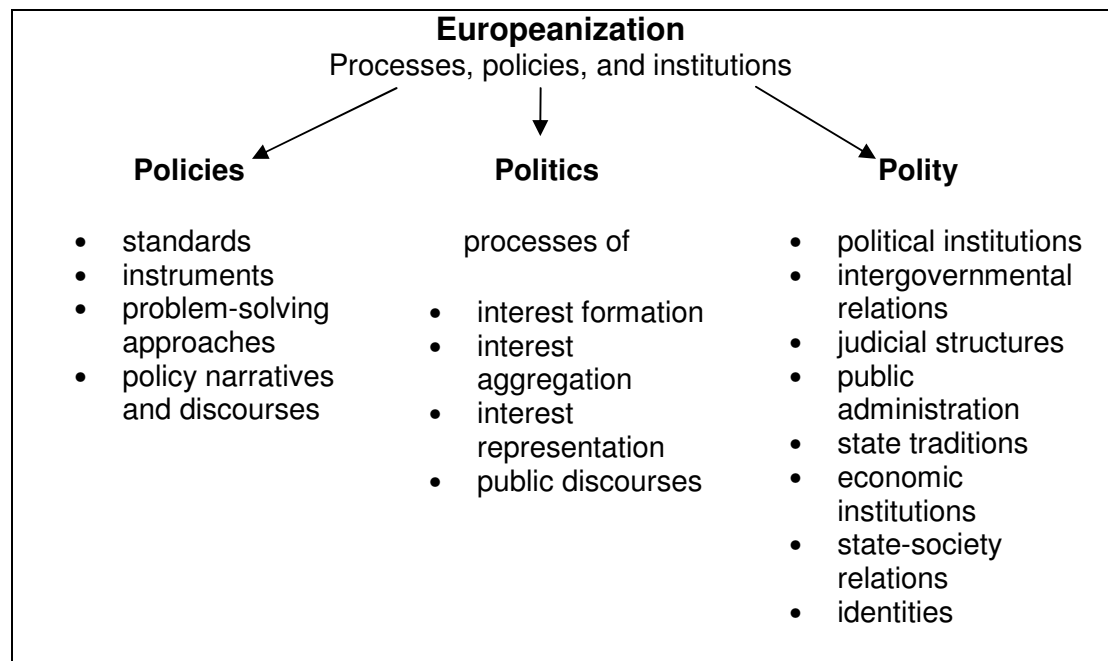
Börzel and Risse (2000) systematize three dimensions along which the domestic impact of Europeanization can be analyzed and processes of domestic change be traced. (See Table 6)

Policies, constitutes the framework of workspace with a variety of issues, such as foreign affairs, agriculture, commercial, communication, defense policies etc. Börzel and Risse (2000) state that the European Union produces around 500 policy decisions per year with over 5.000 Directives and Regulations. The

implementation of those policies necessitates members states adopt their domestic policies, processes and institutions to the center's.

The term *politics* represents the source of the policies, in that the policies made at the European level, are the consequences for domestic processes of societal interest formation, aggregation, and representation. Hartcourt and Radaelli (1999) contend that European policy-making causes an increasing politicization at the domestic level. Many studies implemented on the issue that how domestic interest are reflected as a common policy of the union, but a definite channel is hardly found.

Table: 6 The impact of Europeanization



Source: Börzel and Risse, 2000, p.4

Polity might be defined as the outcome of policies and politics which influence domestic institutions both formal and informal. It is a non-controversial fact that Europeanization influence member state's policies and institutions; but how it matters and to what degree is on debate.

4.1.3.1. Europeanization as an Impact on Domestic Institutions

The literature has identified several mechanisms which systematize EU influences on the member states.

Knill and Lehmkuhl (1999) suggest a three different terms, *institutional compliance* which means EU prescribes a significant model and imposed on the member states; *altering domestic opportunity structures* which means a redistribution of resources between domestic actors and *altering the beliefs and expectations of domestic actors* which aims to change the assumptions and the beliefs of domestic actors.

Hooghe (1995) suggests a two-way impact model called “*sub-national mobilization*” at the European level. A *direct* one which provides increased resources through redistribution; and an *indirect* one which shapes intra-regional interactions and thus promoting local institutional capacity through the creation of intra, inter and trans-regional networks that support local development initiatives.

Olsen (2002) proposes two basic frames through which domestic adaptation process might be analyzed: experiential learning and competitive selection.

Experiential learning can be described as the institutional adaptation through which experiences and interpretations of relevant actors of environment. Environmental actors might dictate prescriptions or allow considerable local autonomy. Local institutions evaluate and adopt the successful environmental actors, while avoid the unsuccessful ones.

In models of *competitive selection*, environmental imperatives are seen as driving the change process, and there is a need to understand mechanism of variation, selection and retention. “Institutions and actors are fixed and their survival and growth rates depend on their performance, comparative advantages and how well they “match” their changing functional and normative environments. Only the most efficient institutions survive. The others disappear.” (Olsen, 2002:14)

Olsen (2002) argues that experiential learning and competitive selection not to always be perfect, automatic, continuous and precise. There might be no single optimal institutional response to changes in the environment and the adaptation rate might be inconsistent with the rate of change in the environment to which the institution is adapting.

It is doubtless to say the analysis of Börzell (2003) is the most comprehensive one in this field of study. She suggests three approaches: resource dependency, institutional adaptation and socialization.

Before analyzing those three approaches, she determines a prerequisite which she called “misfit”, while others called “mismatch”. There should be some misfits between European and domestic policies, process and institution; so that member states feel the need to change or adopt.

There are two types of misfits: policy misfit and institutional misfit. At first, policy misfit is the inconvenient between European and domestic policies in which European policies can challenge national policy goals, regulatory standards. Secondly, there are institutional misfits which challenge domestic rules, procedures and collective understanding. Börzel and Risse (2000) summarize the role of misfit as “the lower the compatibility between European and domestic processes, policies, and institutions, the higher the adaptational pressure” (Börzel and Risse, 2000:7)

4.1.3.1.1. Resource Dependency

This approach is at most a product of rationalist individualism which assumes that actors are rational, purposeful and goal oriented. The main argument of this approach is that the actors are rational and target to maximize their utilities. From this perspective, Europe creates an opportunity area which offers some actors available resources to exert influence, while severely constraining the ability of others to pursue their goals. (Heritier et al., 2001). In order to exploit new opportunities and avoid constrains, two mediating factors are used by the domestic actors: *multiple veto players* and *facilitating formal institutions* (Börzell, 2003). These two mediating refer to the effective channels of pressure with the direction of domestic interest; former by veto power, latter by formal institutions.

Since, resource dependency concept is not directly related to the study which seeks to analyze the top-down influence, explaining the general meaning of it would be decided satisfactory for the readers.

4.1.3.1.2. Socialization

Socialization approach is a product of two dominant perspectives: The first one is neo-nationalist perspective which suggests the “logic of appropriateness” approach that contrasts the rationalist “logic of consequentialism”. According to this approach the collectively shared understandings which constitute behavior in a given rule structure play a key role in shaping the institutions characteristics. Rather than maximizing their subjective desires, actors seek to “do the right thing”, that is, to fulfill social expectations in a given situation” (Börzell, 2003:10)

The other perspective, sociological institutionalism, suggests that European institutions which provide new rules, norms, practices and structures of meaning are more than an opportunity area. Domestic actors are socialized into European norms and rules of appropriateness through processes of persuasion and social learning and redefine their interests and identities accordingly (Checkel, 1999).

Socialization process starts with misfit of norms, ideas, structures of meaning, or practices. The more misfits need to result the more adaptation or vice versa.

Börzell (2003) states two mediating factors by which actors internalize new norms and develop new identities: norm entrepreneurs and cooperative informal institutions.

Norm Entrepreneurs, or change agents, convince the domestic actors to redefine their identities by a process of social learning (Börzel and Risse, 2000). As Haas (cited by Börzel and Risse, 2000) states that there are two types of change agent: *Epistemic communities* which legitimate new norms and ideas by providing scientific knowledge about cause-and-effect relationships and *principled issue networks* which form collectively shared norms and identities to convince other actors to reconsider their goals and preferences.

On the other hand *cooperative informal institutions* constitute collective understandings of appropriate behavior pattern by providing consensus oriented culture (Börzel and Risse, 2000). Figure 7 depicts the process of impact by socialization.

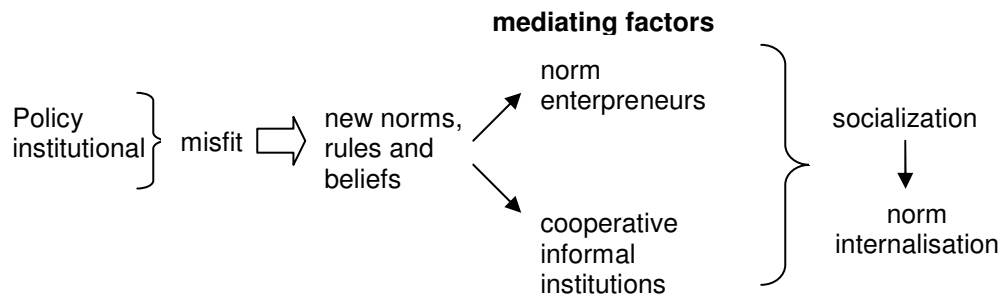


Figure: 7 The Domestic Impact of Europe as a Process of Socialization

Source: Börzell, 2003, p.12

4.1.3.1.3. Institutional Adaptation

Institutional adaptation which is one of the outcomes of Europeanization can be defined as the “long-term substitution of existing practices and structures with new ones” (Olsen 1997:159). It covers the adaptation or change of norms, rules, practices, and structures. As Olsen (1997) states that this adaptation is not an outcome of sudden replacement of new rules, norms etc. Rather it is a long-term process through which new rules and norms are institutionalized.

This process points to “four diffusion mechanism, which results in domestic change in the member states” (Börzel, 2003, p.13)

In *coercion* mechanism, EU impose a system, model or policy to the member states which have to comply with.

In *mimetic imitation and normative pressure* mechanism, EU suggests a model or a system. In order to avoid uncertainty (mimesis) the member states attempt to imitate this model which has been successfully implemented by the other states (normative pressure).

In *competitive selection* mechanism, EU does neither impose nor recommend a model. In order to avoid comparative detriments the member states compete for the most efficient domestic arrangements.

In *framing* mechanism, EU attempts to change the understandings and expectations of domestic actors. Figure 8 depicts the process of impact by institutional adaptation.

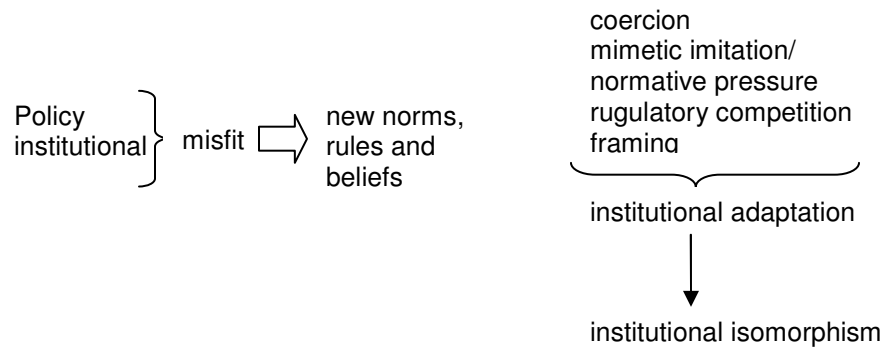


Figure: 8 The Domestic Impact of Europe as a Process of Institutional Adaptation

Source: Börzell, 2003, p.14

The common characteristics of mimetic imitation, normative pressure and framing mechanisms is having a positive impose to change the rules, norms, practices etc of the member states. On the other hand in competitive selection the member states try to adapt themselves to the new conditions which might be created by EU. The adaptation of Turkish industry in post Customs Union period might be an example of competitive selection.

4.1.3.2. The Degree of Change

The ways of impact were examined in detail above; however there would be another issue which should be discussed; this is “the degree of change”. The literature broadly distinguishes between five different outcomes regarding the degree of change (Héritier et al., 2001) (see figure 9) Since the one of those five outcomes has a negative, one of them has no change and three of them have positive outcomes, it will be helpful to divide them into two category: Negative or no change and positive change.

4.1.3.2.1. Negative or No Change

In such cases as a result of impact there would be no change or negative change in domestic policies, process and institutions.

Inertia: Inertia can be defined as absence of change. This does not mean that EU and domestic policies, process and institutions are compliant with each other. Rather, this means a resistance to adopt itself to the European requirements and as a result of that a non-compliance condition which cause a more strength pressure upon the member stat to adopt itself (Börzel, 2001).

Retrenchment: In some cases, resistance to change may have a negative effect upon the domestic forces. In such case, the misfit between EU and domestic forces increase rather than decrease. Kerver (2001) gives an example of such retrenchment case from Italy which not only resisted the changes necessary to liberalize its transport market. Instead of liberalization, the Italian government has increased intervention (Kerver, 2001).

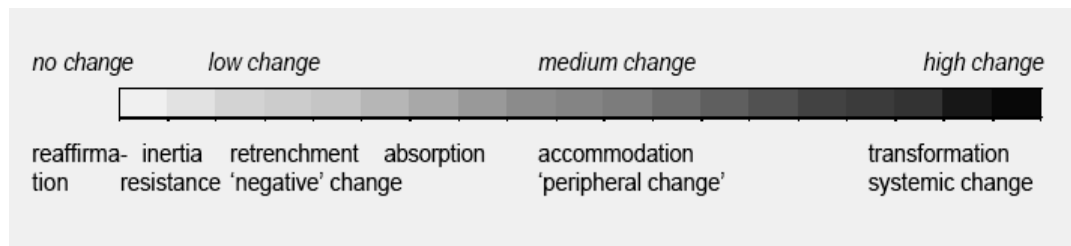


Figure: 9 The Degree of Domestic Change

Source: Börzell, 2003, p.16

4.1.3.2.2. Positive Change

In positive change, the degree of change will realize from a low degree of change to a real transformation.

Absorption: Adsorption refers to a low degree of change in domestic institutions and policies. In such cases, the member state incorporate European requirements in a low degree which not cause a modification in domestic structures.

Accommodation: The result of change might be an adaptation of existing policies, process and institution, in order to reduce the European pressure and reduce the misfit. In such case, the degree of domestic change is modest and there would not be a change in the core features and underlying assumptions. Héritier

(2001) suggest a way of doing this is by 'patching up' new policies and institutions onto existing ones without changing the latter (Héritier 2001).

Transformation: Transformation refers a real change in domestic structures; in that the member state replace existing policies, processes, and institutions by new one which compliant with what EU requires. In such case, by replacing the old structures, core features and the underlying assumptions are fundamentally changed. Olsen (1997) suggests that transformation should only occur under exceptional circumstances, such as performance crises or powerful norm entrepreneurs supported by some coercive pressures in the form of sanctions (Olsen, 1997).

4.2. Decentralized Agencies of EU

Enlargement of the borders and increasing number of duties created a perspective of decentralization. This perspective realized itself with the decentralized agencies. Bergström and Rotkirch (2003) define decentralized agencies as bodies with a legal personality of their own which have been established in order to accomplish specific technical, scientific or managerial tasks.

The first generation agencies were founded in the seventies. It is the fact that this attempt was a limited one with founding of two agencies called The Centre for the Development of Vocational Training and European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Triga, 2005).

The Treaty of Maastricht (1992) introduced a new dimension into the Community with the expansion of new policies which enforced to establish widespread agencies in many aspects. Dehousse (2002) suggests that the mushrooming of specialized European agencies is one of the most interesting developments in the functioning of EU bureaucracy in the post-Maastricht years. "Kelemen in his recent work describes the creation of the agencies as an outcome of the puzzling inter-institutional relations developed in the European Union" (Triga, 2005:139). Bergström and Rotkirch (2003) suggest that the establishment of decentralized agencies seems to be a continuing trend and it is quite likely that agencies will play a central role in the future.

Bergström and Rotkirch (2003) define decentralized agencies as bodies with a legal personality of their own which have been established in order to accomplish specific technical, scientific or managerial tasks.

The explanation of Geradin (2004) contributes to understand the general characteristics of the agencies:

1. Agencies generally have a limited mandate, which is laid down by the establishing legislation and consists of tasks of a technical, scientific and managerial nature.
2. Most have very limited powers, usually relating to information and coordination, and may not issue binding decisions;
3. All operate under the direction of an executive director;
4. They have an administrative or management board, usually made up of representative from the Member States;
5. They generally function through committees or committees form some part of their structure;
6. They are decentralized in the sense both that they are withdrawn from the centralized responsibility of the Commission and they are located in various parts of the EU; and
7. Most are created under Article 308, the generalized “necessary and proper” provision of the Treaty, sometimes in conjunction with more specific authority.

Although not all agencies have all these characteristics, identification of these actual or potential characteristics creates some coherence.

4.2.1. The Legal Basis

The existing decentralized agencies have been established with regulations adopted by the Council with the legal basis in Article 308 of the EC Treaty. The legal basis defines decentralized agencies as a body of EU in principle beyond control of the Member State in which it is located.

According to Article 308 of the EC Treaty: “If action by the Community should prove necessary to attain, in the course of the operation of the common market, one of the objectives of the Community and this Treaty has not provided the necessary powers, the Council shall, acting unanimously on a proposal from the

Commission and after consulting the European Parliament, take the appropriate measures.” (<http://europa.eu.int/eur-lex/en/treaties/selected/livre257.html>)

As Bergström and Rotkirch (2003) states that all decentralized agencies have legal personality, which means that they shall benefit from the widest powers granted to legal persons in the laws of all Member States.

4.2.2. The Classification of Decentralized Agencies

Several researchers proposed various systems of classification. Dehousse (2002) grouped agencies into three broad categories:

1. *Information agencies*, whose main function is to gather information and to liaise between national authorities and EU administrations;
2. *Implementation agencies* entrusted with the duty of implementing the EU regimes in highly specialized areas such as trademarks or plant variety rights.
3. *Management agencies*, which assist the Commission in the management of EU programs.

On the other hand, Yataganas (2006) divided existing agencies into four functional categories:

1. *Regulatory Model*: agencies serving the operation of the internal market
2. *Monitoring Model*: agencies providing information through a network of partners
3. *Cooperation Model*: agencies promoting social dialogue
4. *Executive Model*: agencies operating as subcontractors to the European public service

Turkish National Agency is in the group either what Dehousse called “management agencies” or what Yataganas called “executive model”. It is the fact that both definitions have a common characteristic referring the execution of EU programs.

4.2.3. Organizational Structure

The common organizational characteristics of most of the decentralized agencies are similar to each other having a director (sometimes president or executive manager) and supervisory committee (sometimes management board or executive committee) at the top and main and supporting units at the lower levels. Chiti (2000) states that as for the structure of the European agencies, these bodies are administrations characterized by a mixed composition, in the sense that their internal structure is such that all their internal offices (mainly, the committee and the management board) are designed as instances of coordination between national and supranational authorities (the Commission and the competent national authorities). Therefore, they should be regarded as highly institutionalized forms of co-operation between national and supranational authorities. As a whole, the system should be considered to be the functional integration between the various bodies that results from the combination of these two elements (the establishment of the European agency and of this wide range of organizational relationships).

CHAPTER 5

MEASURING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Although the concept of organizational culture has been prominent in organizational and management literature since 1970's, scholars still disagree on the best way to measure it.

Two dominant methodological approaches, quantitative and qualitative research methods, are used generally in organizational culture analysis. In most studies, qualitative or quantitative methods are used as an alternative to each other. However, the combination of both methodologies is used in some studies. This fact is indicated by Schemel (1995), stating that as they have different strong dimensions, these two methodologies should be considered as complimentary, other than being alternative.

The most significant discussion on the concept of organizational culture and its measure might be related to its disciplinary roots. There is a continuous debate that whether culture is something that organization “is” or something that organization “has”.

The anthropological tradition emphasizes that organization is culture, while the sociological tradition proposes that organization “has” culture. This main diversity in reality constitutes the infrastructure of the further studies and draws their boundaries as anthropological or sociological.

Scholars who employ a quantitative sociological foundation believe organization has culture and tend to operationalize it as a thing or research variable. Particularly, different from qualitative anthropological tradition, this tradition perceives organizational culture as a dependent variable.

On the other hand, scholars who employ a qualitative anthropological foundation believe that organizations are cultures and tend to stuffy the organization's meaning systems, rather than its culture.

Additionally, sociological tradition views organizational culture as an independent variable; on the other hand anthropological approach accepts that it is a dependent variable.

5.1. Quantitative and Qualitative Analyses

Creswell (1994) defines quantitative study as “is an inquiry into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, and analyzed with statistical procedures, in order to determine whether the predictive generalizations of the theory hold true”.

Quantitative techniques emphasize the principles of rational empiricism that underscore the positivist approach to learning and knowledge generation. The underlying premise is that all natural and social reality is comprised of unified and coherent patterns that can be measured and evaluated through sensory experience (Frederickson, 1994). Parallel to Frederickson argument Hofstede et al, (1990) argue that organizational culture can be measured through quantitative analysis “on the basis of answers of organizational members to written questions” (1990:287). They state that “we do not want to deny that organizational cultures are gestalts, wholes, whose flavor can only be completely experienced by insiders and which demand empathy in order to be appreciated by outsiders” (1990: 313).

On the other hand, the qualitative method of analysis necessitates researchers to be involved actively in study and to interact with participants of the study. This type of analysis can be realized either through a long-term ethnographic type relationship or through actual collaboration.

Schemel (1995) states three main purposes of the qualitative surveys

- 1- To explore the perceptions and reveal them;
- 2- To achieve results by using various data gathering methods;
- 3- To generate a holistic model.

The qualitative researcher attempts to understand and discover meaning through an inductive logic where research categories emerge from the information provided by the informants instead of through an a priori process established by the researcher (Creswell, 1994).

Merriam (1988) enumerated six principles that form the basis of the qualitative research approach. These principles are:

1. The primary concern of the researcher is process rather than results or products.
2. Qualitative researchers are interested in meaning – how people make sense of their lives, experiences, and their structures of the world.

3. The qualitative researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis. Data are mediated through this human instrument, rather than through inventories, questionnaires, or machines.

4. Qualitative research involves fieldwork. The researcher physically goes to the people, setting, site, or institution to observe or record behavior in its natural setting.

5. Qualitative research is descriptive in that the researcher is interested in process, meaning, and understanding gained through words or pictures.

6. The process of qualitative research is inductive in that the researcher builds abstractions, concepts, hypotheses, and theories from details.

Quantitative methods (prestructured questionnaire) enable to research large samples at a low cost in a short period of time. However, as the technique use interviews, face to face relations and observations which cause time and money consumption, qualitative research enable to analyze relatively smaller sample size.

Since, results of the quantitative survey is homogeneous, comparison can be made between responses obtained from respondents within and across different research settings. Parallel to this advantageous, the results can be generalized to the population that the sample is drawn. It is the fact that, comparison and generalization of the results is relatively difficult in qualitative researches.

Quantitative method is deductive; while qualitative is inductive. Indeed, in prior method, research examines the validity of pre-determined assumption or hypothesis; on the other hand the results of the qualitative survey enable to constitute a theory or assumption.

A deductive mode of inquiry is conducted from an “outsider’s” perspective in which researchers play the role of detached onlookers. While, an inductive one is conducted from an “insider’s” perspective in which the researcher interacts with members of research setting and becomes experimentally involved.

Measuring instrument plays a mediator role between researcher and respondent in quantitative survey. However, measuring instrument is the researcher himself/herself in qualitative analyses. The active involvement of the researcher can cause contribution of the bias in analysis of the data.

5.2. Different Perspectives

Many cultural researchers argue that the quantitative method is an insufficient or ineffective way to study a complex phenomenon like organizational culture. Rousseau (1990) states that the quantitative assessment of organizational culture is at best controversial and at worst totally wide of the mark. Parallel to Rousseau's opinion, Schein (1992) indicates that an attempt to measure and quantify the elusive concept of organizational culture, can only evaluate culture at surface level. In other words, deep basic underlying assumptions can not be measured by quantitative analysis. He states that culture ultimately covers all aspects of groups' internal and external life; therefore a very large number of questions should be designed to cover all cultural aspects of group.

Cameron and Ettington (1988) indicate the impossibility of designing an objective quantitative survey technique to analyze organization culture. Alternatively, they suggest a hybrid model which is originally a survey containing questions with written descriptions or scenarios that construct reflections of cultural attributes, instead of Likert-type. Thereby enabling the respondent to reply in such a manner that organizational culture as reflected by its core values and orientations can be measured.

Rousseau (1990) also indicates that organizational culture is a reflection of the "social construction of reality unique to members of a social unit, and that this uniqueness makes it impossible for standardized measures to tap cultural processes" (1990: 161). Martin (2002) provides a concise summarization of the methodological debate between quantitative and qualitative analysis as well as a strong argument why quantitative techniques have dominated cultural research (Trice and Beyer, 1993) by stating that:

When culture is treated as a variable and used to predict other variables, such as organizational performance, it fits easily into the mainstream organizational assumptions about the superiority of quantitative methods and the importance of doing research with functional implications, such as improving productivity and performance. Culture-as-variable research is easily congruent with the managerial interest and with Habermas's characterization of technical research. In contrast, culture-as-metaphor, posits that culture is not a variable. Instead, it is a metaphor for examining everyday organizational life. Culture-as-metaphor highlights aspects of organizational functioning that have been ignored by the field's emphasis on variables, such as organizational size and structure, that can be measured relatively easily using quantitative methods (2002:310).

The statement that qualitative techniques are more comprehensive to analyze cultural elements including basing assumptions is a commonly admitted reality. However, there is a continuous debate on the implementation of qualitative techniques. Deal and Kennedy (1982) suggest that qualitative analysis enables the researcher to use organizational members who are able to “go much deeper in diagnosing culture, and with much greater precision. But there are pitfalls to achieving an accurate reading of one’s own company’s culture...Objectivity is of the first importance” (1982:133).

Schein (1992) indicates the difficulty of implementation of such techniques, as they carry out some handicaps. He states that an “outsider” cannot fully understand the semantic nuances of how organizational rules apply in various situations or how they are translated into behavior. On the contrary, the “insider” is incapable of communicating to the researcher those unconscious values and assumptions that lie at the heart of an organization’s culture. Schein shows the way of solution that through a series of joint action between the researcher and organizational members the final determination of the organizational culture of a subject organization can be deciphered and the underlying pattern of relationships can accurately be evaluated while avoiding subjectivity bias of the researcher and the insider’s lack of awareness (Schein, 1992).

Advocate of the qualitative analysis approach, i.e. Schein, Geertz, Martin and Rousseau suggest that organizational culture has a highly subjective nature. Therefore ethnographic analysis is the best way to understand such a comprehensive phenomenon. An ethnographic research design attempts to develop a “holistic picture of the subject of study with emphasis on portraying the everyday experiences of individuals by observing and interviewing them and relevant others” (Creswell, 1994:163).

5.3. Some Organizational Culture Surveys

The appropriate methodological process to use for the analysis of organizational culture is contentious debate. Two main handicaps arise from the literature concerning quantitative and qualitative analysis. First, quantitative

analysis methods such as questionnaires and survey instruments provide only a superficial level of cultural understanding. Second, qualitative approaches lack the breadth of analysis to conduct comparative studies among multiple cultures because of the excessive time and energy expended on only one organization's culture.

In order to find solutions of these problems, scholars developed some survey methods proposing to eliminate handicapped of both quantitative and qualitative methods.

5.3.1. The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)

In reference to their methodological technique, Cameron and Quinn (1999) state that their OCAI, adequately addresses both of these methodological handicaps. Mainly OCAI is a quantitative instrument; but it also employs qualitative aspects by relying on a process of dialogue among individuals charged with initiating and managing the cultural change. "This usually involves managers near the top of the organization to uncover, or bring to the surface, aspects of the organization's culture that otherwise may not be identifiable or articulated by organization members" (Cameron and Quinn, 1999:72).

Specifically, OCAI respondents are asked to answer questions representing six content dimensions, which Cameron and Quinn state represent "fundamental cultural values and implicit assumptions about the way the organization functions" (1999:137). These six dimensions are: dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, and management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphases, and criteria for success.

5.3.2. Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI)

This survey method was developed by Cooke and Lafferty (1986) in order to analyze organizational behavior and meeting expectation of co-workers into three general types of organizational culture, constructive, passive/defensive and aggressive defensive. There are 12 sub-scales which reflect the behavioral norms

based on the intersection of two dimensions; concern for people and concern for task. The basic sub-scales are: Humanistic-Helpful, Affiliation, Achievement, Self-Actualization, Approval, Conventionality, Dependence, Avoidance, Opposition, Power, Competitive and Perfectionist.

OCI uses quantitative method with containing 120 items, each of which rated on a 1-5 scale. This survey method has been completed by over two million respondents from thousand of organizations throughout the world.

5.3.3. Organizational Beliefs Questionnaire (OBQ)

The OBQ was developed by Marshall Shaskin (1996) to measure the overall "excellence culture" of an organization. 50-item questionnaire designed to assess an organization's culture by examining the values and beliefs shared by most people in that organization.

It is not an individual assessment, but an assessment of shared beliefs. QBQ measures ten values and beliefs which support organizational excellence.

Table: 7 Ten Values and Beliefs that Support Organizational Excellence

1	Work can be fun
2	Seek constant improvement
3	Accept specific and difficult goals
4	Accept responsibility for your actions
5	Care about one another
6	Quality is crucially important
7	Work together to get the job done
8	Have concern for measures of our success
9	Hands-on management
10	A strong set of values and beliefs guide our actions

Source: <http://www.leadingandfollowing.com/OBQ.htm>

5.3.4. Denison Corporate Culture Survey

Another assessment method containing 60 statements that yield scores on 12 cultural attributes is developed by Denison (2000). It measures organizational culture on four major characteristics: Mission, Consistency, Adaptability and Involvement. Two of the traits, involvement and adaptability, are indicators of flexibility, openness, and responsiveness, and were strong predictors of growth. The other two traits, consistency and mission, are indicators of integration, direction, and vision, and were better predictors of profitability. Each of the four traits was also significant predictors of other effectiveness criteria such as quality, employee satisfaction, and overall performance. (Denison and Mishra, 1995)

The survey is significant with its contribution to identify cultural strengths and weaknesses of an organization.

It is doubtless to say there are several more studies and models developed for analyzing organizational culture in many aspects. In this study, four significant models which contribute in modeling the survey techniques are investigated. It is the fact that, to develop a unique survey, the total framework of a single study is not taken as a model; instead, fundamental approaches survey methods, question characteristics of all four survey methods are taken as introductive and contributive factors only.

CHAPTER 6

COMPARATIVE SURVEY ON TWO PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

In this chapter, the research methodology and the design of the study are introduced. More specifically, first of all a general outlook of compared institution is presented; then, the purpose and the overall design of the study are explained at the beginning of the chapter. This is then followed by the explanation of data collection techniques and processes, demographic features of the research participants, and data analysis procedures.

6.1. Turkish National Agency

Turkey was accepted as a candidate state for the European Union in Helsinki Summit in November 1999. A national plan was prepared in March 2001 in order to attend the Education and Youth Programs of the Community.

A Framework Agreement which established the general principles for the participation of Turkey in Community programs, leaving the Commission and the competent authorities of Turkey to determine the specific terms and conditions, including financial contribution, with regard to such participation in each particular program between the European Community and Turkey, was signed on 26th February 2002. This agreement has been entered into force upon the approval of Turkish Parliament on 21 June 2002.

Following the legal procedures, establishment of a legal entity was necessitated. At first instance, European Education and Youth Programs Head Office which was established under the body of State Planning Organization Undersecretary, started to participate in Socrates (General Education), Leonardo Da Vinci (Vocational Training) and Youth Programs in Community Programs. The initial body was composed about twenty civil servants from various public authorities, at most from SPO and Ministry of National Education. This nuclear body has taken comprehensive courses in Brussels in the field of general outline of the Community programs and particularly Education and Youth Programs.

Meanwhile, considering the inefficiency of this unit in the long run, works on establishment of a unique body was started. The legal body was established with the law numbered 4968 which was published in the official gazette on the date of 31st July 2003. With this law:

- The name of the legal entity is specified as “Directorate of the Centre for European Union Education and Youth Programs”
- The Centre has financial and administrative autonomous with having public corporate body.
- Additionally, establishment of Steering and Monitoring Committee which is the highest decision making unit and Advisory Board; duties, personnel policies, financial and economic rules were specified

The organizational framework was established upon the directives of European Commission and by adapting the prototypes of similar national agencies which works on education and youth activities of the Commission.

Organizational chart is composed of three General Coordinatorship which refers Socrates (General Education), Leonardo Da Vinci (Vocational Training) and Youth Programs and under these bodies there are program coordinatorships, such as Comenius (School Education), Erasmus (Higher Education), Mobility, Action 1 etc. Beside main program units, there are supporting units which are established to execute the administrative and financial activities of the Centre. Those are, Human Resources and Administration, Budget and Financing, Public Relations, Information Technology units.

Currently, 83 permanent staffs (in 2006) work in National Agency, at a rank of director of the Centre, general coordinators, program coordinators, experts and officers.

The main duty of National Agency is to present Community Programs to the Turkish Society, particularly to the potential participants which are schools, universities, non-governmental organizations, foundations etc. and provide them to participate in the Community Programs. For this purpose, National Agency organizes several regional meetings to present the programs and to introduce the project and personnel applications. National Agency plays a mediator role between European Commission and potential Turkish participants. The grants that are

distributed to the Turkish grand holders come from pre-accession funds of European Union.

6.2. State Planning Organization

The State Planning Organization was an outcome of the planned development attempts in post 1960 period. This legal body was established in 1960 with the law numbered 91. The duties of SPO might be summarized as to prepare, adopt and monitor short term and long term development plans of Turkey. This body has also some advisory duties in respect of social, economic and cultural development.

The State Planning Organization works under the rule of Prime Ministry through a Ministry of State without portfolio. The organizational structure has three main units; one is the undersecretariat which constitutes the spine of the organization and the other two are, High Planning Council and Economic and Social Council whose secretariat are executed by the undersecretariat.

The undersecretariat has main service units, advisory and audit units and support units. The main service units, composed of seven general directorates, are responsible for the main activities of the organization. The advisory and audit units composed of legal advisory unit and undersecretariat advisors. Finally the support units composed of human resources, administrative and financial issues and publishing and representation departments.

There are about 900 (in 2006) employees working for organization and 400 of them are career staffs who execute the main functions of the organization.

6.3. The Purpose and Overall Design of the Study

The main purposes of the study were signified in the first chapter of the thesis. In the framework of these purposes, the following 3 hypotheses will be tested to construct a better understanding of the concept.

Hypothesis 1: Organizational culture of two comparative institutions are different from each other, in respect of working environment, task characteristics, decision making, organizational identity and informal structure elements. Achieving

such a result is an initial but the most significant outcome of the study that supports the main idea arguing the influence EU.

Hypothesis 2: NA has high level cultural characteristics than SPO. A high level cultural characteristic or strong culture refer to consciously and well established, commonly shared values, norms, beliefs etc. which might be the most effective factor to be successful. The more positive feelings in results will show the higher level of culture.

Hypothesis 3: Being a Turkish public institution it is an unavoidable result that besides European influence, the Turkish national culture should be effective in shaping the culture of NA. The two ways of influences results in what might be referred as a “hybrid” or a “Turco-European” culture.

Additionally, the inner dynamics (demographic differences) will be investigated and tested to reach an outcome whether these dynamics have influential in cultural socialization and adaptation of culture. Particularly, a special consideration will be given to the working period results to test the cultural socialization. It is argued that working period is an effective factor in cultural socialization and the longer the period of working in the same organization the higher the level of cultural adaptation will be reached. This is **Hypothesis 4**.

The present study is a case study which demonstrates how a problem or a phenomenon is viewed by the participants of that same event. The purpose of interpretation in such a study is both to describe and evaluate the phenomenon through analysis of personal views, perceptions and values of the participants. Involving naturalistic research techniques case study models are appropriate for generating hypotheses rather than testing them.

In this particular study, the research participants were chosen using the randomly sampling strategy. The participants of this study were selected among the employees of State Planning Organization and National Agency from various public authorities in Ankara.

Quantitative research methods and procedures were employed in this research because the evaluation of study results focused on a particular issue in a particular place. Qualitative research techniques were also used in this study, in order to test and intensify the results of quantitative survey analysis. In such a research setting,

a qualitative process is observed to depict the perceptions and the events in their natural settings and from a holistic perspective (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2000). As can be inferred from this definition, qualitative research aims to describe reality from the perspective of the individuals involved in the event.

6.4. Data Collection Techniques and Procedures

Various data collection techniques including individual questionnaire, official document analysis and observations were utilized in the present study. While preparing the questionnaire questions opinions of specialists in this subject were taken into account by the researcher. The questionnaire is consisting of 6 demographic and 20 quantitative questions. The quantitative questions were divided into five groups each of which contains four questions.

- 1- Working Environment
- 2- Task Characteristics
- 3- Decision Making
- 4- Organizational Identity
- 5- Informal Structure

The aim of organizing above group is to prevent data disorder and obtain more significant results. It is the fact that those groups were not reflected the questionnaire form that given to respondents. The underlying assumption to do that is to prevent confusion and bias.

Additionally, with establishing available area under the questions, free opinions of respondents can be obtained.

Questionnaire as a data collecting technique enables the researcher to understand another person's perspective. As a matter of fact, a researcher is not able to observe everything at the same time. We cannot observe feelings, thoughts, intentions, behaviors that took place at some previous point in time, situations that preclude the presence of an observer and the meanings people attach to what goes on in the world.

Accordingly, the researcher decided to use a questionnaire technique in order to obtain first-hand information concerning the organizational culture of personals working in State Planning Organization and National Agency in Ankara.

Both directors of this two institution provided generous assistance in the participant selection process. And, at the same time, the researcher used random data collection technique. After being selected, participants were informed of the purpose of this research, and each was guaranteed that their responses would remain confidential. This was done for both ethical reasons and to honor the requests of some participants. During the face to face questionnaire process, the researcher applied no pressure for answers; the participant was free to decline an answer to questions that troubled them.

A total of seventy five (75) personnel participated in this study. In order to reach more accurate results, participants were selected among the different sections of both institutions. Indeed, there are operational units and supportive units as well that have a potential of different work characteristics. Therefore, the more extensive distribution of participants should be resulted in more reliable outcomes. The questionnaire generally took place at the participant's work place. Each participant was asked a total of twenty six questions included in Appendix A. The questionnaire was conducted in May - June 2006.

6.5. Participants of the Study

The questions were formulated to inquiry demographic information about the participants and their views of organizational culture.

The demographic questions that located at the end of the questionnaire to reduce the prejudice, included sex, age position, level of education, and job experience.

A total number of seventy five personnel, 45 of whom form SPO and 30 of whom from National Agency, from different branches of job contributed to this study. The demographic distributions of the participants are listed as below.

Table: 8 Gender Distribution of the Participants

<i>SEX</i>	<i>SPO</i>		<i>NA</i>		<i>Total</i>	
	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Male</i>	26	57,8	23	76,7	49	65,3
<i>Female</i>	19	42,2	7	23,3	26	34,7
<i>Total</i>	45	100,0	30	100,0	75	100,0

Referring to Table 8, seventy five personnel (65,3% male and 34,7% female) were participated in the study. The study results indicate that 57,8% male and 42,2% female from State Planning Organization and 76,7% male and 23,3% female from National Agency were participated.

Table: 9 Level of Education of the Participants

<i>EDUCATION</i>	<i>SPO</i>		<i>NA</i>		<i>Total</i>	
	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>High school</i>	4	8,9	-	-	4	5,3
<i>Undergraduate</i>	2	4,4	3	10,0	5	6,7
<i>Graduate</i>	22	48,9	16	53,3	38	50,7
<i>Master</i>	14	31,1	6	20,0	20	26,7
<i>PhD</i>	3	6,7	5	16,7	8	10,7
<i>Total</i>	45	100,0	30	100,0	75	100,0

According to the research results shown in Table 9, the half of the employee (i.e., 50.7 %) is graduated. 26.7 % of them have master degree. Only 5.3% of the personnel had high school education and 10.7% of them have PhD degree at all. According to participants' organization, in general we can say that the personals of National Agency are more educated than State Planning Organization. There is no participant that graduated from high school in National Agency. The educational results show that both institutions have highly educated members.

Table: 10 Age Distribution of the Participants

AGE	SPO		NA		Total	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
<i>20-29 years old</i>	6	13,3	4	13,3	10	13,3
<i>30-39 years old</i>	16	35,6	16	53,3	32	42,7
<i>40-49 years old</i>	14	31,1	10	33,3	24	32,0
<i>+50 years old</i>	9	20,0	-	-	9	12,0
<i>Total</i>	45	100,0	30	100,0	75	100,0

Referring to Table 10, similar to both institutions, participants mostly located in the same age group; 30-39 years old, followed by the group 40-49 years old. Significantly, without any participant belongs the age group +50 years old NA has relative young members.

Table: 11 Positional Distribution of the Participants

POSITION	SPO		NA		Total	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
<i>Manager</i>	11	24,4	10	33,3	21	28,0
<i>Expert</i>	18	40,0	10	33,3	28	37,3
<i>Officer</i>	16	35,6	10	33,3	26	34,7
<i>Total</i>	45	100,0	30	100,0	75	100,0

According to the research results shown in Table 11, NA has a coincidental positional distribution, 33,3%. Different from NA, experts takes the first rank with 40,0%; while managers were the last with 24,4% participants in SPO.

Professional experience distribution analysis reveals two important outcomes; one is the fact that NA is a new institution which has no member working more than 5 years. The second outcome is the significant older participants of SPO with more than half of the participants working more than ten years in SPO.

Table: 12 Professional Experience Distribution of the Participants

WORKING YEARS	SPO		NA		Total	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
-2 years	5	11,1	11	36,7	16	21,3
2-3 years	8	17,8	18	60,0	26	34,7
4-5 years	2	4,4	1	3,3	3	4,0
6-7 years	2	4,4	-	-	2	2,7
8-9 years	3	6,7	-	-	3	4,0
+10 years	25	55,6	-	-	25	33,3
Total	45	100,0	30	100,0	75	100,0

This result is significant to provide an available environment to compare a young organization with an old one.

Parallel to above analysis, the total working years of participants show considerable differences. Indeed, while the 70,0% of participant of NA belongs into the groups 6-15 years, more than half of the participants' of (57,7%) SPO have more than 16 years working experience.

Table: 13 Working Experience Distribution of the Participants

WORKING EXPERIENCE	SPO		NA		Total	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
1-5 years	2	4,4	2	6,7	4	5,3
6-10 years	8	17,8	12	40,0	20	26,7
11-15 years	9	20,0	9	30,0	18	24,0
16-20 years	11	24,4	5	16,7	16	21,3
+20 years	15	33,3	2	6,7	17	22,7
Total	45	100,0	30	100,0	75	100,0

The comparative results of Table 12 and 13 show that while working experience of all participants from NA (100,0%) is lower than 5 years, only 2 participants (6,6%) have a total working experience lower than 5 years. This significant result

indicates that almost all members of NA had a job before the current one. Therefore, they were transferred from a different cultural environment and these transfers have a potential to bring the traces of those cultures.

6.6. Data Analysis Procedure

In this research, “organizational culture” of the two institutions were evaluated under five subcategories.

The research data gathered through questionnaires, observations and official documents were content analyzed. In order to analyze the quantitative data, the raw data from questionnaires and observations were grouped according to 5 categories: (1) Working Environment, (2) Task Characteristics, (3) Organizational Identity, (4) Decision Making and (5) Informal Structure. Then the raw data was systematized according to different stages of interpretation and different data gathering techniques.

Findings were obtained from data sheets by using the SPSS Statistics Analysis Program and, frequency and crosstab tables were formed by taking the percentages values. These findings were evaluated and the chi square tests were shown under the Crosstabs. Depending on the data statistical analyses were prepared and by using these analyses suggestions and conclusion were generated. Additionally, relating with the dependent and independent variables, the results of the mean, standard deviation, t-test and Anova test were performed with the evaluations.

While taking the sum and means of the variables, ‘Totally agree’ choice was coded as +2, ‘Generally agree’ choice +1, ‘No opinion’ choice 0, ‘Generally disagree’ choice -1 and ‘Totally disagree’ choice -2. Therefore, means were ranked from -2 to +2. Means referred “agree” by closing the value +2, closing the value -2, referred “disagree” and closing the value 0 referred “no opinion” The codes are shown in the figure below.

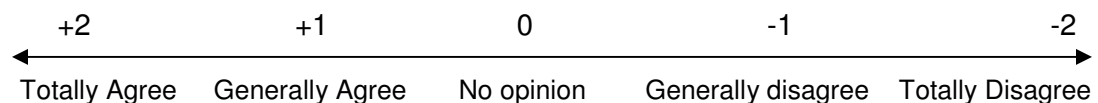


Figure: 10 The Codes of Analysis

6.7. Research Findings

Findings obtained from the analysis of data will be indicated in this section of the survey. Findings will be presented by using descriptive statistics, crosstabs, variance analyzes and t test analyzes. Chi square tests will be shown in relatively smaller tables located under the related tables.

6.7.1. Descriptive Statistics of Findings

The opinions of the participants about organizational culture were gathered by 5 different groups each of which contains 4 different questions. The sum, means and standard deviations of the results will be shown in general.

The numerical distribution of total scores and means obtained by the scanning inventory of participants from both institutions are shown in the tables between 14-18. The maximum total score is 60 for NA and 90 for SPO. The closer standard deviation value to the means, the more homogeneous is the group results.

Table: 14 Descriptive Statistics of the 'Working Environment'

WORKING ENVIRONMENT		NA	SPO	Both
1-There is a dynamic, innovative and capability developing working environment in the organization.	Sum	27	4	31
	Mean	,90	,09	,41
	Std. Dev.	,885	1,164	1,128
2-Goal achievement is essential in the organization. For this reason, there is a result oriented and competitive working condition. This cause a stressful working environment.	Sum	6	-7	-1
	Mean	,20	-,16	-,01
	Std. Dev.	1,270	1,021	1,133
3-The multitude of rules makes the activities harder.	Sum	7	-11	-4
	Mean	,23	-,24	-,05
	Std. Dev.	1,194	1,300	1,272
4-There is a trusty environment in the organization.	Sum	30	16	46
	Mean	1,00	,36	,61
	Std. Dev.	,910	1,151	1,102
Valid N		30	45	75

The general work characteristics were grouped in the title of “Working Environment”. In this group, the opinions of the respondents about their working conditions were analyzed. The results shows that means of all four variables of NA (,20 - 1,00) are higher than that of SPO (-,24 - ,36). This result clearly indicates that personnel of NA carry more positive feelings about the working environment of their organization.

However, in a more detail analysis on each question, two of which are contains negative elements. The results indicates that NA has a more stressful working environment (,20 versus -,16) and numerous rules which makes activities harder (,23 versus -,24). The above means of both institutions are close “0” which means no opinion and might not be evaluated as there is a significant stressful working environment or there are numerous rules in both institutions.

Taking into account standard deviation, generally NA presents more homogeneous structure by closer values of standard deviation to the means. (See Table 14)

Table: 15 Descriptive Statistics of the ‘Task Characteristics’

TASK CHARACTERISTICS		NA	SPO	Both
1-My duties are arranged and assigned to me. However, these rules are flexible and I can take initiative in practice.	Sum	33	-8	25
	Mean	1,10	-,18	,33
	Std. Dev.	,759	1,211	1,223
2-While planning the duties, superiors take my opinions.	Sum	30	1	31
	Mean	1,00	,02	,41
	Std. Dev.	,871	1,118	1,128
3-Delegation of authority is essential; superiors delegate authority to subordinates in order to provide works executed faster and more efficient.	Sum	33	-4	29
	Mean	1,10	-,09	,39
	Std. Dev.	,995	1,221	1,272
4-Cooperation and teamwork are encouraged.	Sum	25	7	32
	Mean	,83	,16	,43
	Std. Dev.	,913	1,065	1,055
Valid N		30	30	45

In “Task Characteristics” group the researcher aimed to reveal the general features of duties, the participation of subordinates in duty planning procedure, the degree of delegation of authority and finally the existence of cooperation and teamwork. The results show significant differences between NA (,83 – 1,10) and SPO (-,18 - ,16). While the results of SPO are closer to “0”, NA results is about “1” which refers “agree” opinion of respondents. NA members have more flexible duty rules, and there are more cooperation, more delegation of authority, and more participation in duty planning. (See Table 15)

Similar to working environment results, standard deviation results presents that NA has more homogeneous data than SPO.

Table: 16 Descriptive Statistics of the ‘Organizational Identity’

ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTITY		NA	SPO	Both
1-Employees feel themselves as an essential part of the organization.	Sum	32	7	39
	Mean	1,07	,16	,52
	Std. Dev.	,944	1,147	1,155
2-Employees know well the goals of the organization and work in this direction.	Sum	42	14	56
	Mean	1,40	,31	,75
	Std. Dev.	,621	1,294	1,198
3-Organizational goals are prior to personal goals.	Sum	32	13	45
	Mean	1,07	,29	,60
	Std. Dev.	,868	1,079	1,065
4-Organizational and personal values are consistent with each other.	Sum	21	3	24
	Mean	,70	,07	,32
	Std. Dev.	,877	1,095	1,055
Valid N		30	45	75

Organizational Identity is one of the significant indicators of organizational culture. In this section, the interaction of members and organization were analyzed by asking questions about values, goals, state of belonging and consistency of those phenomenons in the perspective of members and organization.

The analysis of “Organizational Identity” variables revealed that the total scores and means of NA results (,70 – 1,40) are higher than that of SPO (,07 - ,31) which

indicates that NA opinions are closer to “agree” than SPO results which is closer to “no opinion”.

With higher standard deviations SPO results show less homogeneous answers. (See Table 16)

Table: 17 Descriptive Statistics of the ‘Decision Making’

DECISION MAKING		NA	SPO	Both
1-Superiors make decisions; there is no need for the opinions of subordinates.	Sum	-31	-8	-39
	Mean	-1,03	-,18	-,52
	Std. Dev.	,850	1,403	1,277
2-Superiors make decisions; However, the opinion of subordinates are taken while decision making.	Sum	32	-5	27
	Mean	1,07	-,11	,36
	Std. Dev.	,740	1,265	1,226
3-Superiors and subordinates make decision together.	Sum	26	-5	21
	Mean	,87	-,11	,28
	Std. Dev.	,681	1,247	1,157
4-Knowledge and experience is essential in decision making. Experienced people actively perform in decision making.	Sum	32	7	39
	Mean	1,07	,16	,52
	Std. Dev.	,907	1,331	1,256
Valid N		30	45	75

Decision making is a concealed factor which reveals the inner dynamics of organizations in respects of superior and subordinates relations. The reason why this characteristic was belonged into the study is that the vertical structure or power distance characteristic of organization might be revealed by asking questions about decision making procedures.

In this section, before analyzing the results, the characteristics of the questions should be taken into consideration. The first question is deliberately established in the opposite direction of the other. The aim of this action is to increase the accuracy of the result. Taking into account three questions NA results (,87 – 1,07) are higher than that of SPO (,28 - ,52). The result of first question is -1,03 for NA which means “disagree” and -,52 for SPO which is between “no opinion and “disagree”. As an overall evaluation, NA members make decision together or at

least subordinates opinions are taken while decision making. This result indicates a more fair decision making mechanism for NA than SPO. (See Table 17)

Closer means results to standard deviation, NA shows more homogeneous answers.

Table: 18 Descriptive Statistics of the 'Informal Structure'

INFORMAL STRUCTURE		NA	SPO	Both
1-My organization is a successful and prestigious one.	Sum	50	32	82
	Mean	1,67	,71	1,09
	Std. Dev.	,479	1,199	1,080
2-The interactive relations are developed. For this reason, our organization likes an extended family.	Sum	25	16	41
	Mean	,83	,36	,55
	Std. Dev.	,834	1,384	1,211
3-Beside formal communication, informal communication is also developed.	Sum	30	21	51
	Mean	1,00	,47	,68
	Std. Dev.	,983	1,217	1,153
4-Various informal meetings, meals etc that arranged by the organization stimulate personnel motivation positively.	Sum	24	-4	20
	Mean	,80	-,09	,27
	Std. Dev.	1,186	1,258	1,298
Valid N		30	45	75

Informal communications and interactive relations between the members of organization, informal meetings and the prestige of organization were investigated in the title of "Informal Structure".

Similar to four other groups, "Informal Structure" results shows a higher means for NA (.80 – 1,67) than that of SPO (.27 – 1,07). One important result of the analysis is the significantly high mean of first question (1,67). This result is significant, since almost all members of NA "strongly agree" that their institution is a prestigious one. It is necessary to indicate that SPO members also "agree" such a feeling.

With relatively closer standard deviations to the means NA results are more homogeneous than that of SPO.

6.7.2. Crosstabs of Findings

In this section, data obtained from questionnaire results were analyzed with cross tables. The opinions of participants about organizational culture classified in columns, percentages and chi square test results are shown tables between 19-38. Whether there is a relationship between dependent and independent variables at the significance level of $P < 0,05$ were measured by Chi square test. In other words, this goodness-of-fit test compares the observed and expected frequencies in each category to test either that all categories contain the same proportion of values or that each category contains a user-specified proportion of values.

In crosstabs analysis, each question was evaluated separately to achieve more accurate results. In order to simplify the evaluation procedure, a method was followed in evaluation of the result that, the percentages of “generally agree” and “totally agree” or “generally disagree” and “totally disagree” results were considered depending on the question’s characteristic.

Table: 19 Crosstabs Analysis – Working Environment - 1

There is a dynamic, innovative and capability developing working environment in the organization.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	3	6	9
	Column %	6,7%	20,0%	12,0%
Generally agree	Count	19	19	38
	Column %	42,2%	63,3%	50,7%
No opinion	Count	6	1	7
	Column %	13,3%	3,3%	9,3%
Generally disagree	Count	13	4	17
	Column %	28,9%	13,3%	22,7%
Totally disagree	Count	4		4
	Column %	8,9%		5,3%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	10,767	4	,029

The results of the Table 19 show that while SPO has a sum of 48,9% “agree” opinion, NA has a sum of 83,3%; indicating that NA personnel feel their organization as a dynamic, innovative and capability developing one. (See Table 19)

Observations in NA indicates that being a new institution, carrying new activities which are unfamiliar to the members, dynamic characteristics of programs, dealing with various potential participants of the programs constitute a dynamic working environment for the members who feel that this organization is the right place to developed their capabilities.

The Chi-Square test results confirmed the significant differences with a score (,029) below the significance level of $P < 0,05$.

Table: 20 Crosstabs Analysis – Working Environment - 2

Goal achievement is essential in the organization. For this reason, there is a result oriented and competitive working condition. This cause a stressful working environment.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	3	4	7
	Column %	6,7%	13,3%	9,3%
Generally agree	Count	9	11	20
	Column %	20,0%	36,7%	26,7%
No opinion	Count	13	6	19
	Column %	28,9%	20,0%	25,3%
Generally disagree	Count	18	5	23
	Column %	40,0%	16,7%	30,7%
Totally disagree	Count	2	4	6
	Column %	4,4%	13,3%	8,0%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	8,267	4	,082

It is the fact that goal achievement is one of the most important factors to be a successful organization. However, higher goal achievement can cause competitive working conditions and inevitably stressful working environment. The results of such factors show that NA has a higher goal achievement character with more stressful working environment (50,0%) than that of SPO (26,7%). (See Table 20)

In the qualitative analysis this results confirmed in a way that each NA program has an annual grant budget which should be fully provided to the participants in order to achieve annual targets. Therefore, goal achievement is essential which cause a low degree of stressful working environment. Additionally, depending on this factor, a slight competition between programs can be observed.

Despite the differences stated above, the Chi-Square test result does not state a statistically significant difference with a score of ,082.

Table: 21 Crosstabs Analysis – Working Environment - 3

The multitude of rules makes the activities harder.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	4	5	9
	Column %	8,9%	16,7%	12,0%
Generally agree	Count	12	7	19
	Column %	26,7%	23,3%	25,3%
No opinion	Count	7	11	18
	Column %	15,6%	36,7%	24,0%
Generally disagree	Count	13	4	17
	Column %	28,9%	13,3%	22,7%
Totally disagree	Count	9	3	12
	Column %	20,0%	10,0%	16,0%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	7,376	4	,117

Plenitude of rules is a significant phenomenon that the members of a public institution complaint about. This question reflects a negative aspect of an

organization. Therefore, the sum of “generally disagree” and “totally disagree” results were considered while evaluating these results. According to the results, 48,9% of the respondents from SPO “disagree” that multitudes of rules makes their activities harder; while this percentage is 23,3 for NA. The negative score of TR-NA can be explained by the strictly designed program rules by the European Commission. The procedures of each program is prepared in written documents (implementing rules, program handbooks, directives etc) by the Commission and in all activities related to program are executed according to these rules. In addition to that being a public institution in Turkey, NA is under obligation of domestic rules which can sometimes conflict with the rules of the Commission. In a particular analysis, these contradictions are observed in financial issues. For example, VAT and stamped tax applications, subsistence and travel expenses etc. Similar to the previous question, the Chi-Square test result does not state a significant difference between variables (,117).

Table: 22 Crosstabs Analysis– Working Environment - 4

There is a trusty environment in the organization		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	7	10	17
	Column %	15,6%	33,3%	22,7%
Generally agree	Count	17	12	29
	Column %	37,8%	40,0%	38,7%
No opinion	Count	8	6	14
	Column %	17,8%	20,0%	18,7%
Generally disagree	Count	11	2	13
	Column %	24,4%	6,7%	17,3%
Totally disagree	Count	2		2
	Column %	4,4%		2,7%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	7,196	4	,126

The concept “trusty working environment” might cover a scope of mutual trust between the members of organization in general and between superior and subordinates in particular.

The results of Table 22 shows that 73,3% of NA respondents feel that their organization has a trusty environment, while 53,4% SPO respondents have such feeling. Despite high goal achievement and competitive characteristics, a relatively higher trusty characteristic of the organization is significant.

However, the Chi-Square result does not support the above difference with a score of ,126 which is higher than the significance level of $P < 0,05$. It is the fact that above analysis takes into account the positive feelings (agree opinion); Chi-Square test deals with the whole scores which might reflect more accurate results. Therefore, there is no statistically significant difference in respect of trusty working environment.

Table: 23 Crosstabs Analysis – Task Characteristics - 1

My duties are arranged and assigned to me. However, these rules are flexible and I can take initiative in practice.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	2	9	11
	Column %	4,4%	30,0%	14,7%
Generally agree	Count	15	16	31
	Column %	33,3%	53,3%	41,3%
No opinion	Count	9	4	13
	Column %	20,0%	13,3%	17,3%
Generally disagree	Count	11	1	12
	Column %	24,4%	3,3%	16,0%
Totally disagree	Count	8		8
	Column %	17,8%		10,7%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	20,566	4	,001

Duty arrangement and initiative taking results show a significant difference between NA (83,3%) and SPO (37,7%). These results might be evaluated as a flexible duty characteristic of NA versus inflexible of SPO.

The duties and authorizations of each position in NA were arranged by Regulation on Working Principles and Procedures of The Centre For European Union Education And Youth Programs and related regulations of European Commission which are not flexible enough to allow one to take initiative. Taking initiative in practice can be explained as using this tool in a condition where there is no rule structuring the duty.

The Chi-Square test result indicates the significant difference with a score of ,001.

Table: 24 Crosstabs Analysis – Task Characteristics - 2

While planning the duties, superiors take my opinions.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	3	8	11
	Column %	6,7%	26,7%	14,7%
Generally agree	Count	16	16	32
	Column %	35,6%	53,3%	42,7%
No opinion	Count	8	5	13
	Column %	17,8%	16,7%	17,3%
Generally disagree	Count	15		15
	Column %	33,3%		20,0%
Totally disagree	Count	3	1	4
	Column %	6,7%	3,3%	5,3%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	16,630	4	,002

The question was performed to examine the participation of subordinates in duty planning procedure. The higher the scores obtained indicate the lower the power distance between superior and subordinates.

Parallel to previous analysis, the results show a significant difference in “agree scores” between NA (80,0%) and SPO (42,3%). This might be evaluated as the higher participation in duty planning in NA than that of SPO. (See Table 24)

The Chi-Square test result (,002) confirms the significant difference among variables.

Table: 25 Crosstabs Analysis – Task Characteristics - 3

Delegation of authority is essential; superiors delegate authority to subordinates in order to provide works executed faster and more efficient.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	5	12	17
	Column %	11,1%	40,0%	22,7%
Generally agree	Count	10	12	22
	Column %	22,2%	40,0%	29,3%
No opinion	Count	12	4	16
	Column %	26,7%	13,3%	21,3%
Generally disagree	Count	12	1	13
	Column %	26,7%	3,3%	17,3%
Totally disagree	Count	6	1	7
	Column %	13,3%	3,3%	9,3%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	17,649	4	,001

Delegation of authority is an important factor indicating authority dispersion of organization. Superiors tend to hold power in their hands in authoritative organization, such as bureaucratic institutions or military organizations; while superiors try to delegate powers in their hands to subordinates with responsibilities in others.

The results of delegation of authority show that 80% of NA respondents believe that delegation of authority is essential in their organization; this result is 33,3% in SPO. (See Table 25) This significant difference is affirmed by the Chi-Square test result with a score of ,001.

In a qualitative analysis it is determined that Director of NA delegates much of his duties to the General Directors with a written document and respectively, General Coordinators to Coordinators and experts. One exceptional case is the complaints of the officers that have not enough power in execution.

Table: 26 Crosstabs Analysis – Task Characteristics - 4

Cooperation and teamwork are encouraged.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	3	6	9
	Column %	6,7%	20,0%	12,0%
Generally agree	Count	18	17	35
	Column %	40,0%	56,7%	46,7%
No opinion	Count	9	3	12
	Column %	20,0%	10,0%	16,0%
Generally disagree	Count	13	4	17
	Column %	28,9%	13,3%	22,7%
Totally disagree	Count	2		2
	Column %	4,4%		2,7%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	8,118	4	,087

Cooperation and teamwork are two outcomes of strong cultural characteristics. The results of Table 26 show that 76,7% of NA respondents believe that

cooperation and teamwork are encouraged in their organization. This result is 46,9 in SPO.

Despite the general findings as cooperation and teamwork is encouraged, in a more detail analysis, this fact shows some deviance. This is the fact that Na is a small organization which deals with more than programs and sub-program activities. For example, in Comenius program there are five sub-programs which are different from each other. Therefore, one or more persons are responsible for these activities that cause more personal working conditions other than teamwork. However, this outcome is not an obstacle for inner group cooperation.

The Chi-Square test result (,087) is higher than $P < ,05$ significant level, indicating there is no statistically significant difference between variables. Therefore this test result does not confirm above results which indicates difference between two institutions.

Table: 27 Crosstabs Analysis – Organizaitonal Identity - 1

Employees feel themselves as an essential part of the organization.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	5	12	17
	Column %	11,1%	40,0%	22,7%
Generally agree	Count	5	10	25
	Column %	33,3%	33,3%	33,3%
No opinion	Count	10	6	16
	Column %	22,2%	20,0%	21,3%
Generally disagree	Count	12	2	14
	Column %	26,7%	6,7%	18,7%
Totally disagree	Count	3		3
	Column %	6,7%		4,0%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	12,526	4	,014

Feeling an essential part of organization which signifies the underlying emotion of the member about his/her organization is one of the most essential indicators of organizational identity and indirectly culture. Therefore, the significant difference between NA (73,3%) and SPO (44,4%) indicates that NA members have higher level of organizational identity than that of SPO in respect of state of belonging.

The Chi-Square test result (,014) states the significant difference between variables.

Table: 28 Crosstabs Analysis – Organizational Identity - 2

Employees knows well the goals of the organization and work in this direction		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	8	14	22
	Column %	17,8%	46,7%	29,3%
Generally agree	Count	18	14	32
	Column %	40,0%	46,7%	42,7%
No opinion	Count	3	2	5
	Column %	6,7%	6,7%	6,7%
Generally disagree	Count	12		12
	Column %	26,7%		16,0%
Totally disagree	Count	4		4
	Column %	8,9%		5,3%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	15,975	4	,003

The question “Employees knows well the goals of the organization and work in this direction” is a complementary question of the previous one which refers to the state of belonging.

The results show that almost all members of NA (93,4%) works for success of their organization; while this percentage is 57,8 in SPO. (See Table 28) Such a high result is very significant stating a concentrated group of people get together to

achieve success. The annual realization of pre-accession of EU education and Youth funds show high and accelerating rates of 91% in 2004, 99% in 2005 and 100% in 2006 (estimated).²

The Chi-Square test result indicates the significant difference with a score of ,003.

Table: 29 Crosstabs Analysis – Organizational Identity - 3

Organizational goals are prior to personal goals.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	7	10	17
	Column %	15,6%	33,3%	22,7%
Generally agree	Count	12	14	26
	Column %	26,7%	46,7%	34,7%
No opinion	Count	14	4	18
	Column %	31,1%	13,3%	24,0%
Generally disagree	Count	11	2	13
	Column %	24,4%	6,7%	17,3%
Totally disagree	Count	1		1
	Column %	2,2%		1,3%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	10,906	4	,028

In this question the priority of organizational goals is examined. The table 29 indicates that 80% of the respondents from NA feel that organizational goals are more important than personal goals; the result of SPO respondents is 42,3%. This result might be evaluated as there is a significant difference between two organizations in respects of priority of organizational goals which stimulates goal achievement and success.

² Results were obtained from Budget and Financing Unit of NA

The Chi-Square test result is ,028, indicating a significant difference between variables.

Table: 30 Crosstabs Analysis - Organizational Identity - 4

Organizational and personal values are consistent with each other.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	4	5	9
	Column %	8,9%	16,7%	12,0%
Generally agree	Count	14	14	28
	Column %	31,1%	46,7%	37,3%
No opinion	Count	10	8	18
	Column %	22,2%	26,7%	24,0%
Generally disagree	Count	15	3	18
	Column %	33,3%	10,0%	24,0%
Totally disagree	Count	2		2
	Column %	4,4%		2,7%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	7,639	4	,106

The last question of organizational identity is about consistency of organizational and personal values. The concept of value is an important element of organizational culture and the higher consistency level of organizational and personal values indicates a higher level of organizational culture. The results show that 19 respondents out of 30 (63,4%) from NA believe that organizational and personal values are consistent with each other; while 18 respondents out of 45 (40%) have such a feeling.

On the other hand, the Chi-Square test result does not confirm the above differences, taking into account general frequency distribution. The result of this test is ,106 stating higher score than $P < ,05$ significant level. In other words,

according to Chi-Square test result there is no statistically significant difference between variables in respect of consistency between personal and organizational goals.

Table: 31 Crosstabs Analysis – Decision Making - 1

Superiors make decisions; there is no need for the opinions of subordinates.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	6		6
	Column %	13,3%		8,0%
Generally agree	Count	13	1	14
	Column %	28,9%	3,3%	18,7%
No opinion	Count	2	7	9
	Column %	4,4%	23,3%	12,0%
Generally disagree	Count	15	12	27
	Column %	33,3%	40,0%	36,0%
Totally disagree	Count	9	10	19
	Column %	20,0%	33,3%	25,3%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	17,135	4	,002

This question, indicating ineffectiveness of subordinate in decision making procedure, has negative characteristic. Therefore the sum of “disagree” results was considered as an evaluation tool.

The result shows a significant difference between NA (73,3%) and SPO (53,3%). (See Table 31) It is the fact that most of the main decisions are taken by weekly directorship meetings in which director of centre, general directors, and support unit coordinators and when necessary program coordinators participate. At the lower ranks, particular decision are taken in instant meetings in which all unit members participate and can declare their opinions freely.

The Chi-Square result confirms the above results indicating significant differences between variables.

Table: 32 Crosstabs Analysis - Decision Making - 2

Superiors make decisions; However, the opinion of subordinates are taken while decision making.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	3	8	11
	Column %	6,7%	26,7%	14,7%
Generally agree	Count	17	17	34
	Column %	37,8%	56,7%	45,3%
No opinion	Count	4	4	8
	Column %	8,9%	13,3%	10,7%
Generally disagree	Count	14	1	15
	Column %	31,1%	3,3%	20,0%
Totally disagree	Count	7		7
	Column %	15,6%		9,3%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	18,270	4	,001

The question “Superiors make decisions; However, the opinion of subordinates are taken while decision making” has a positive character stating participation of subordinates in decision making.

The results of Table 32 show that 25 respondents out of 30 from NA (83,4%) believe the effectiveness of subordinates in decision making procedure; while this proportion is %44,5 for SPO with 20 respondents out of 45. This finding might be evaluated as most of the NA members believe that superiors take their opinion in decision making procedure.

The Chi-Square result (,001) indicates such significant difference between two institutions.

Table: 33 Crosstabs Analysis – Decision Making - 3

Superiors and subordinates make decision together.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	2	4	6
	Column %	4,4%	13,3%	8,0%
Generally agree	Count	18	19	37
	Column %	40,0%	63,3%	49,3%
No opinion	Count	6	6	12
	Column %	13,3%	20,0%	16,0%
Generally disagree	Count	11	1	12
	Column %	24,4%	3,3%	16,0%
Totally disagree	Count	8		8
	Column %	17,8%		10,7%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	14,611	4	,006

The first three questions in “Decision Making” group were arranged in an order from negative to positive. Therefore the third question has more positive character stating a collective decision making procedure. This phenomenon is an exceptional case in public administration in which decision making is a right of superiors.

For the question “superiors and subordinates make decision together” NA results show a slight decrease (76,6%) when comparing the previous question results. SPO result is %44,4 for this question. In spite of this slight decrease it can be concluded that the scores are relatively high stating significant difference between two institutions.

The Chi-Square finding (.006) confirms this significant difference.

Table: 34 Crosstabs Analysis - Decision Making - 4

Knowledge and experience is essential in decision making. Experienced people actively perform in decision making.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	9	11	20
	Column %	20,0%	36,7%	26,7%
Generally agree	Count	11	12	23
	Column %	24,4%	40,0%	30,7%
No opinion	Count	8	5	13
	Column %	17,8%	16,7%	17,3%
Generally disagree	Count	12	2	14
	Column %	26,7%	6,7%	18,7%
Totally disagree	Count	5		5
	Column %	11,1%		6,7%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	10,499	4	,033

This question was asked to examine the capability of persons who performed in decision making procedure. The active role of experienced and knowing persons in decision making results in more appropriate and accurate decision.

The results of the question about the influences of knowledge and experience factor in decision making show that NA has significantly higher rate (76,7%) than that of SPO (44,4%).

The Chi-Square test result (,033) indicates the significant difference stating above.

Table: 35 Crosstabs Analysis – Informal Structure - 1

My organization is a successful and prestigious one.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	15	20	35
	Column %	33,3%	66,7%	46,7%
Generally agree	Count	12	10	22
	Column %	26,7%	33,3%	29,3%
No opinion	Count	10		10
	Column %	22,2%		13,3%
Generally disagree	Count	6		6
	Column %	13,3%		8,0%
Totally disagree	Count	2		6
	Column %	4,4%		2,7%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	16,558	4	,002

The analysis shows a very significant result that all respondents from NA believe that their organization is a prestigious and successful one with a percentage of “totally agree” 66,7 and “generally agree” 33,3.

The scores of SPO is also significant stating 60% of participants “agree” on that their organization is prestigious and successful one. However, when these results are compared with the NA’s, the NA results are significantly higher than that of SPO.

It is the fact that the success of the NA is evaluated by the members as the usage rate of the program funds. In other words the more usage of the fund indicates the higher level of success of the unit. Therefore, with about full (about 100%) of usage of program funds, members of NA accept themselves achieve the goals and get successful.

The Chi-Square finding (,002) supports above significant differences between two institutions.

Table: 36 Crosstabs Analysis - Informal Structure - 2

The interactive relations are developed. For this reason, our organization likes an extended family.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	11	6	17
	Column %	24,4%	20,0%	22,7%
Generally agree	Count	14	15	29
	Column %	31,1%	50,0%	38,7%
No opinion	Count	6	7	13
	Column %	13,3%	23,3%	17,3%
Generally disagree	Count	8	2	10
	Column %	17,8%	6,7%	13,3%
Totally disagree	Count	6		6
	Column %	13,3%		8,0%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	8,523	4	,074

An interactive relation among the members of organization is an indicator of well established sincere working environment which stimulates a higher level of organizational culture. The results of the Table 36 show a slight difference between NA (70,0%) and SPO (55,5%). According to these results it can be evaluated that both institutions have positive opinions about interactive relations and feel themselves as a member of extended family.

As it is stated above, despite relatively higher scores of NA, these results are not satisfactorily different that one can suggest statistically significant difference between two institutions. This evaluation is confirmed by Chi-Square result with a score of ,074. Therefore it might be evaluated that there is no significant difference between variables.

Table: 37 Crosstabs Analysis - Informal Structure - 3

Beside formal communication, informal communication is also developed.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	12	9	21
	Column %	26,7%	30,0%	28,0%
Generally agree	Count	11	16	27
	Column %	24,4%	53,3%	36,0%
No opinion	Count	9	2	11
	Column %	20,0%	6,7%	14,7%
Generally disagree	Count	12	2	14
	Column %	26,7%	6,7%	18,7%
Totally disagree	Count	1	1	2
	Column %	2,2%	3,3%	2,7%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	10,367	4	,035

The aim of this question is to examine the existence of informal communication which is a combining element stimulates the members of organization coming close to each other.

The results of informal communication show that NA (83,3%) has more developed informal communication than SPO (51,1%). These findings might be evaluated that there is significant difference between two organizations in respect of informal communication.

The Chi-Square test confirms the significant difference between variables with a score of ,035.

Table: 38 Crosstabs Analysis - Informal Structure - 4

Various informal meetings, meals etc that arranged by the organization stimulate personnel motivation positively.		SPO	NA	Total
Totally agree	Count	4	11	15
	Column %	8,9%	36,7%	20,0%
Generally agree	Count	13	7	20
	Column %	28,9%	23,3%	26,7%
No opinion	Count	11	9	20
	Column %	24,4%	30,0%	26,7%
Generally disagree	Count	9	1	10
	Column %	20,0%	3,3%	13,3%
Totally disagree	Count	8	2	10
	Column %	17,8%	6,7%	13,3%
Total	Count	45	30	75
	Column %	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Test			
Pearson Chi-Square	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
	12,778	4	,012

Informal meetings are another factor stimulates togetherness in organization. For informal meetings the results show a significant difference between NA (60,0%) and SPO (37,8%). (See Table 38)

It is the fact that NA personnel organize various informal meetings, meals with the participation of the most of the members. Sometimes they organize picnics with participation of the families of the members. One important distinctive characteristic of these meeting is that the workers of cleaning and security services which held by contractor companies also participate these informal meetings.

The Ch-square test finding (,012) confirm that there is significant difference between two institutions.

In summary of Crosstabs analysis it can be evaluated that NA respondents are significantly higher positive feelings about their organizations, with sum of all "agree" results are higher than 50,0% and with most of them 70,0%. However this is not the fact that SPO respondents have negative feelings about their

organization. Most of the results are higher than 50,0% showing positive feelings about their organization.

The Chi-Square findings confirm these significant differences in most cases, 14 out of 20 questions.

6.7.3. Independent Sample Tests and Anova Tests According to the Participants' Demographic Information'

In this section, the differences between age, sex, position, education, working years in the current organization, total working years and opinions about organizational culture are analyzed according to 5 different question groups.

For this purpose, t test and one-way Anova techniques were used. When considerable difference were found in the one-way Anova analysis, in order to find the source of difference Scheffe test were used.

Since the results of the analyses cover long are in the text, tables were decided to be listed in Appendix B.

6.7.3.1. T Test Results According to Organizations

T-test was implemented for the aim of examining the significant differences between variables. In other words, this test uses a different technique to show the significant differences.

The results of t test analysis show that there are significant differences in 17 questions out of 20 with having test results below $p > 0,05$ significance level. The significant difference was not found only in the questions related to goal achievement (,185), hard working conditions (,112) and highly developed interactive relations (,094). (See Appendix B, Table 1-5)

These test results confirm the crosstabs and descriptive results which show the significant differences in detail. In other words, these results might be accepted as an overall evaluation of above results which confirms them in general.

6.7.3.2. One-way ANOVA According to the Participants' Sex

The test results show that there is no significant difference between variables for both institutions. In other words, there is no significant difference between male and female respondents.

6.7.3.3. One-way ANOVA According to the Participants' Age

The test results show the below differences for age groups.

In NA "Task Characteristics" analysis a significant difference was found for the question "My duties are arranged and assigned to me. However, these rules are flexible and I can take initiative in practice", originating between the means of '30-39 years old' and '20-29 years old'. While prior group has a 87,5% agree response, the latter one has 50,0% rate. (See Appendix B, Table 8)

Another significant difference was found for the question "Delegation of authority is essential; superiors delegate authority to subordinates in order to provide works executed faster and more efficient." originating between the means of '20-29 years old'-'30-39 years old' and '20-29 years old'-'40-49 years old'. The percentage results are, 25,0% for the group 20-29 years old; 81,2% for the group '30-39 years old and 100,0% for the groups 40-49 years old. (See Appendix B, Table 8)

In SPO "Working Environment" group a difference was found in the question "There is a trusty environment in the organization" originating between the means of '30-39 years old' and '40-49 years old'. The prior group's agree responses have a rate of 17,0%, while the later group's 37,0%. These results might be evaluated as relatively younger employees have trust problem with their organization, SPO. (See Appendix B, Table 6)

In SPO "Task Characteristics" analysis a difference was found in the question "Cooperation and teamwork is encouraged" The significant difference is originating between the means of '40-49 years old' and '30-39 years old'. The rates are 38,0% fort he group '40-49 years old' and 14,0% fort he group '30-39 years old'. Parallel to trust problem, middle age group believe that cooperation and teamwork is not encouraged in SPO. (See Appendix B, Table 7)

In SPO “Informal Structure” analysis a significant difference was found in the responses of the question “My organization is a successful and prestigious one” between the age group ‘40-49 years old’ (41,0%) and ‘50-59 years old’ (15,0%). Additionally, another significant difference is for the question “The interactive relations are developed. For this reason, our organization likes an extended family” with a rate of 40,0% for the group ‘40-49 years old’ and 16,0% for the group ‘30-39 years old’. (See Appendix B, Table 9)

6.7.3.4. One-way ANOVA According to the Participants ‘Education’

The test results show the below differences for education levels:

In NA “Task Characteristics” analysis a significant difference was found for the question “My duties are arranged and assigned to me. However, these rules are flexible and I can take initiative in practice”, originating between the means of high school’ and ‘graduate’ groups. Since there is no respondent who has a ‘high school’ education, this significant difference is analyzed. Additionally in NA “Decision Making” analysis a significant difference was found for the question “Superiors and subordinates make decision together”, originating between the means of “high school’ and ‘master’ groups. Since there is no respondent who has a ‘high school’ education, this significant difference is analyzed. (See Appendix B, Table 13)

In SPO “Task Characteristics” analysis a significant difference was found for the question “My duties are arranged and assigned to me. However, these rules are flexible and I can take initiative in practice” with a significantly high rate of 63,63% for the group “graduate” and 0,0% rate of “high school” group. (See Appendix B, Table 10)

In SPO “Organizational Identity” analysis a significant difference was found in the response of the question “Organizational goals are prior to personal goals” originating from the groups “master” with 21,42% and “undergraduate” with 100,0% which means all undergraduate respondents agree on that organizational goals priority. (See Appendix B, Table 11)

In SPO “Decision Making” analysis a significant difference was found in the question “Superiors and subordinates make decision together” between the groups “high school” “undergraduate” with a rate of 0,0% and “master” with 71,42%.

In SPO “Informal Structure” there is a significant difference between the groups “Phd” (0,0%) and “undergraduate” (100,0%) for the response of the question “The interactive relations are developed. For this reason, our organization likes an extended family”. (See Appendix B, Table 12)

6.7.3.5. One-way ANOVA According to the Participants 'Position'

The test results show the below differences for position:

In NA “Working Environment” analysis a significant difference was found for the question “There is a trusty environment in the organization.”, originating between the means of ‘officer’ and ‘manger’ groups. While all respondents whose position is ‘officer’ believe that their organization has a trusty environment, managers rate is 40,0%. This result is significant, because, problems about trust is generally occurs in lower ranks. However as a contradictory result NA managers have trust problem. (See Appendix B, Table 15)

In NA “Task Characteristics” analysis a significant difference was found for the question “Delegation of authority is essential; superiors delegate authority to subordinates in order to provide works executed faster and more efficient”, originating between the means of ‘expert’ and ‘manger’ groups. While all respondents whose position is ‘manager’ believe that delegation authority is essential, expert rate is 60,0%. Another significant difference was found for the question “Cooperation and teamwork is encouraged.”, originating between the means of ‘expert’ and ‘manger’ groups. While 90,0%of the respondents whose position is ‘manager’ believe cooperation and teamwork is encouraged, 50,0% of expert respondents have such feeling. (See Appendix B, Table 16)

In NA “Organizational Identity” analysis a significant difference was found for the question “Organizational goals are prior to personal goals”, originating between the means of ‘officer’ and ‘manger’ groups. While all respondents whose position is ‘officer’ believe that their organization has a trusty environment, managers rate is 50,0%. This result is significant, because, it is anticipated that priority of

organizational goals should be more important for upper levels. However as a contradictory result NA officers have such feeling. (See Appendix B, Table 17)

In NA “Organizational Identity” analysis a significant difference was found for the question “My organization is a successful and prestigious one”, originating between the means of ‘expert’ and ‘manager - officer’ groups. In order to analyze the source of these differences, the percentages of “totally agree” answers were considered. The results are, 30,0% for experts, 80,0% for officers and 90,0% for managers. The officers’ response result is significantly higher than that of experts’. (See Appendix B, Table18)

In SPO “Decision Making” analysis a significant difference was found for the question “Superiors and subordinates make decision together” between the groups “officer – 25,0%” and “expert – 55,5%” which means lower ranks do not believe that collective decision making. (See Appendix B, Table 19)

6.7.3.6. One-way ANOVA According to the Participants’ Working Year in Organization

The test results show that there is no significant difference between variables for both institutions. In other words, working year is not a significant factor influence the feelings of the respondent.

6.7.3.7. One-way ANOVA According to the Participants’ Total Working Years’

In NA the results of Total Working Years” analysis, only one significant difference was found for the question “Various informal meetings, meals etc that arranged by the organization stimulate personnel motivation positively”, originating between the means of ‘1-5 years’ and ‘16-20’ groups. While no respondent who has lower than 5 years total work experience believe the stimulating factor of informal meetings, 63,3% of the senior members who have a 16-20 years working experience carry such feeling. (See Appendix B, Table 20)

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

7.1. Summary of the Results and Discussion

The results of the survey were evaluated in the previous chapter in detail. In this section these results are summarized to provide a framework of conclusion.

In the survey study 6 demographic and 20 quantitative questions in 5 categories were asked to the participants from both institutions. With regards to demographic questions the researcher aimed to identify human resources characteristics of both organizations and to indicate the differences between two organizations. The survey results show that the *demographic characteristics* of both institutions different from each other in some respects:

1. NA has more educated employees than SPO,
2. NA has relatively younger employees than SPO,
3. Being a new institution NA has no employee working more than 5 years, while SPO members have relatively longer working experience when it is compared with NA.
4. Although NA members have relatively less total working experience than SPO, there is no significant difference between two institutions. This condition can be explained that most of the NA personnel had worked previously for other public institutions or private companies from which these personnel transferred to NA. As it was noted above, these transfers can have a potential outcome to bring with the traces of the previous organizational culture.

In evaluation of above results it might be said that the personnel of National Agency were transferred from various public institutions with selective criteria which aimed to hire highly capable persons. In this respect selection of more educated and younger personnel who seek higher carriers are common results of this fact.

In the main part of the research the organizational culture were examined under five categories. (1) Working Environment, (2) Task Characteristics, (3)

Organizational Identity, (4) Decision Making and (5) Informal Structure, each having four questions. The results of these categories will be evaluated below:

Working Environment: According to the results of descriptive and crosstabs analyses NA members have more positive feelings about the general working conditions than that of SPOs. However, in a more detailed analysis the research does not indicate statistically significant difference between two organizations in the questions of goal achievement and multitude of rules which cause a stressful working environment (See related Chi-Square and T-Test Analyses). Interestingly the results of Chi-Square (,126) and T-Test (,010) are inconsistent with each other in the question related to trusty working environment. It is the fact that the T-Test is a more comprehensive one compares the mean values in random samples, while Chi-Square deals with the frequency distribution. Therefore, the results of the T-Test are considered as having primary importance for this study and concluded that there are significant differences between variables in respect of trusty working environment.

On the other hand, there results of NA in respect of the goal oriented working condition causes a stressful environment and plenitude of rules makes the activities harder, it might be evaluated that Turkish National Agency has limited amount of human resources and has no excuse not to achieve annual targets. In another respect the working environment is surrounded by EU procedures and Turkish legal arrangements as well. With regards the contradictory characters of those procedures in many respects, the members of NA are in a difficulty to implement their duties despite those contradictions. Interestingly, achieving the annual targets in such an environment might be explained as the great effort of the members with having high level of organizational culture.

Task Characteristics: In this category, the task characteristics of both institutions were analyzed in duty panning, delegation of authority, cooperation and teamwork perspectives. The results of descriptive and crosstabs analyses indicates that NA has higher scores than SPO. In order to evaluate these results as indicating statistically significant difference, the T-Test and the Chi-Square tests results are examined. The T-Test results confirm that there are significant differences; however, one of the results of Chi-Square in respect of cooperation and teamwork indicates that there is no difference between variables. As the

results of T-Test are supported by descriptive and crosstabs analyses, these results are considered and concluded that there is significant difference between two variables in respect of cooperation and teamwork.

Organizational Identity: In this category, the state of belonging, organizational and personal goals and value conformity were examined. The questions in this group are substantial to reveal the interactive relationship between organization and its members. The results show that NA personnel have significantly positive feelings about their organizational values and goals than that of SPOs. Additionally, the conformity of values should be considered as showing higher scores in descriptive and crosstabs analyses. T-Tests results confirm above stated significant differences between two institutions; however, despite the fact that the Chi-Square test result confirms the differences in three questions, this test result does not indicate a significant difference for the question of value conformity.

Decision Making: Decision making is a significant factor which indicates the superior and subordinates relations of organization. The participating of subordinates in decision making might be evaluated as less authoritative and less bureaucratic structure which is not common in Turkish public administration. The results show that subordinates participate in decision making and have a power to influence superior in decision making process in NA, while the participation and influence are relatively low in SPO. The Chi-Square and T-Test results indicate such significant differences.

Informal Structure: The informal structure represents the invisible part of an organization which plays a prominent role to shape organizational culture. In this category, the prestige, informal communication, interactive relations and collective out-work activities of organizations were questioned. The descriptive and crosstabs analyses indicate higher scores of NA than SPO. The Chi-Square and T-Test analyses confirm these results stating significant differences between variables. However, an exception should be considered in the question related about interactive relations. Both test techniques indicate that there is no significant difference between two organizations in respect of interactive relation.

Regarding the first hypothesis which argues the differentiation of comparative institutions in respect of organizational culture, the T-Test results indicate significant differences in 17 out of 20 questions; while this ratio is 14 out of 20

questions in the Chi-Square test. Despite the exceptional deviations it might be concluded that both test techniques state significant differences between two organizations in general. These results support the argument of first hypothesis which states that NA has different organizational culture than SPO.

With regards the second hypothesis which argues that NA has higher level organizational culture than SPO, in almost all categories NA results show significantly higher scores (in average about %70) than SPO (in average slightly higher than %50). In other words, NA members have more positive feeling about their organization than SPO. This might be evaluated that NA has stronger cultural characteristics. On the other hand, despite the fact that it has relatively lower scores than NA, the results of SPO is so satisfactorily high that its members have positive feelings about their organization. Therefore the results support the second hypothesis of the research.

The third hypothesis of the study argues that National Agency is a Turkish bureaucratic institution and has a potential to be exposed to the influences of Turkish bureaucratic style as well. In order to realize the accuracy of this hypothesis, it is decided to compare the research results with Hofstede's (1980) national culture parameters in respect of Turkish nation. The results show that NA has Turkish characteristics in some respects and show differentiation in other respects.

Task characteristics and decision making results of NA clearly show lower power distance and uncertainty avoidance. Indeed, higher delegation authority, higher participation of subordinates in duty planning procedure, higher cooperation and teamwork, higher participation of subordinates in decision making significantly parallel to lower power distance and uncertainty avoidance which are not common characteristics of Turkish bureaucracy.

On the other hand, NA results show both masculine and feminine characteristics. Goal oriented working environment and hard work characteristics are typical masculinity indicators; while, trusty working environment, highly developed interactive relations and informal communications, priority of organization's values and shared outwork activities refer feminine characteristics which is peculiar to Turkish nation.

A highly developed informal structure, high level of cooperation and teamwork are indicators of collectivity characteristic which are common in Turkish society.

In brief evaluation it might be stated that NA has lower power distance and uncertainty avoidance and masculinity characteristics which are related to Turkish national characteristics. On the other hand, NA has femininity and collectivity characteristics which are common in Turkish national characteristics. Therefore, the results indicate that NA presents Turkish characteristics in some respect and European characteristics in another respect. This is what might be called a Turco-European organizational culture that TR-NA created its own. Interestingly, the emblem of NA refers such and hybrid culture with its tulip shape representing Turkish characteristics and with its blue, red and yellow colors representing EU Education and Youth Programs.³

As it is noted above that there are some differences in the results according to age, sex, education level, position, working period in the current organization and total working experience. However those differences are not enough to conclude that a variable has significantly different outcomes than the others. One another important outcome of the result is that the working period is not an effective factor in cultural adaptation. In other words, the last hypothesis stating the longer period of working in the same organization results in a higher level of culture, is disproved.

7.2. Conclusion and Recommendation

The attempt to establish sustainable peace throughout Europe, had an initial outcome of economic cooperation among six nations, has transformed in time such a large extend that almost all issues related to the members states have been covered by this entity which is called European Union. Parallel to these developments, the initial name “Economic Community” has transformed with “Union” which implies the idea of uniqueness. In its sixty years life, the number of members has increased 25 with covering almost whole Europe. This means that 25 different nations with different cultures in a unity. In order to provide a sustainable harmony and cooperation among those nations EU has developed various policies,

³ EU Education and Youth Programs use bird shaped emblem with blue, red and yellow colours.

practices and institutions through which it attempts to impact on the member states. This is what many scholars called “Europeanization”.

On the other hand, there are political and bureaucratic institutions which have been established a centralized administrative structure in EU, such as the Commission, the Parliament, the Council and the Central Bank etc. This centralized approach satisfactorily worked at initial stage; however, the increasing number of diversification in relations inevitably results in the emergency of decentralized units which are called decentralized “agency” throughout the EU territory. By using such administrative local units, the workload of center has been reduced and activities have been implemented more efficiently. There are various agencies some of which administratively depend on EU, while some which are autonomous or depend on national governments. What is common for all those agencies that the EU, mostly the Commission, determines the policies, procedures and practices that cover almost all working environment of those bodies. In other words, EU constitutes what is called a “task environment” or “specific environment” to those organizations.

This study has focused on the above mentioned issue that EU has an impact power upon the decentralized agencies and provides them to adopt themselves to the policies, procedures and practices that it has determined. Since the term impact has a broad meaning covering almost all administrative, financial, procedural, cultural issues, it was unrealistic to investigate all these factors in a single study. Therefore, this study has focused on a more specific perspective which is organizational cultural adaptation perspective.

As many scholars agree on that organizational culture has under the influence of various factors, such as leadership, internal and external environment, current management and national culture. It is suggested in this study that among other factors, the influence of external environment has more strength on shaping the culture of organization. However this suggestion does not reject the influence of other factors. Particularly, the influence of national culture is suggested as a secondary role in shaping culture of an organization. Therefore, the influence of both factors investigated in detail in the theoretical background of this study.

The term external environment is a broad one covering, professional, technological, international, legal, social elements. This study has focused on the

professional environment of organization, what Hall (1991) called as the “task environment” and Tosi et al (1994) called “specific elements of organization”.

It is suggested in this study that EU constitutes an environment for the decentralized units in terms of policies, procedures and practices. As a result of those applications either the organizational culture of the existing local units has changed or if it is a newly established one the culture of that organization has formed under the influence of those applications.

In order to support this suggestion, a survey study has been implemented in a newly established legal entity, which is called Turkish National Agency. The reason of taking such an institution is that TR-NA is directly working with European Commission and thus is an ideal sample of to be exposed to the influence of the Commission. On the other hand this legal entity is a Turkish bureaucratic institution as well, with having a potential to be exposed to the influence of Turkish bureaucratic style. The circumstances might be explained as the domestic influence versus EU influence.

In this respect the survey study should have been a comparative study with three participants; Turkish National Agency, a typical Turkish bureaucratic institution and European Commission or a national agency from another country. Since Turkish National Agency was established as a department in it, the State Planning Organization has been taken as a comparative element of the study. With this preference, the possible differences might be revealed clearly. However, due to the reasons explained in the first chapter, the third part of the study, European Commission or a national agency from another country was neglected.

In the survey study, the differences between two institutions were analyzed in organizational culture perspective. The results showed significant difference with significant high scores of National Agency. The reason for this was the impact of EU on TR-NA. As a result of EU effect TR-NA developed a European-like organizational culture and its staff adopted themselves to this culture at the end of job shadowings, training sessions, mutual meetings and unlimited mobility actions and projects. Therefore the results support the main argument of the study that EU, as constituting its task environment, has been successful to shape the culture of National Agency.

TR-NA is directly working with the EU Commission and it has no excuse for being late in its tasks. It should compete with other member states NAs and should finish its duties on time without any mistake. This situation made NA very sensitive in work force and NA had to form a Europeanized working environment in a very short time. Although it depends on Turkish financial and educational authorities in some respects, it carries out its responsibilities in line with the European procedures and applications. In short it is possible to say that NA is just like a European institution in Turkey, so this gives NA a European character in its system. Since NA has a sound European-like organization culture, it became different from other Turkish in terms of organizational culture.

The study does not argue that formation of organizational culture is absolutely an outcome of European Union influence. Rather, it is argued that European influence is the predominant factor in shaping the cultural characteristics. In other words, other factors, such as leadership, current management, internal factors and particularly national culture might be effective in creating culture. To sum up all these results, it might be suggested that Turkish National Agency has created a hybrid model of culture which can be called Turco-European culture.

State Planning Organization is the crucial institution in Turkey in terms of planning the future of the state. It has a sound and definitive organizational culture. It also has a very good and successful work history. This extraordinary institution created a new, small size institution having different colors in its system. The NA is the product of SPO; but it surpassed its owner in organizational culture development and application. The reasons why this happened were shown as questionnaire and analysis in the related chapter of the thesis.

Turkey has been trying to become EU member for more than fifty years. Many Turkish public institutions have units related EU matters. Every institution is trying to adopt itself into European systems, but one of the most successful institutions is TR-NA. In its system it is possible to see the traces and applications of European systems; particularly in education and culture. Indeed, NA uses operational handbooks, directives etc. in conformity with the European ones. These documents are the same all across Europe and should be used in the same way and at the same time in the whole Europe. To put it another way TR-NA uses European legal documents to lead its responsibilities and duties. In terms of Europeanization, as

discussed in the thesis, NA stands for a good example for the other Turkish institutions which are on the way of Europe. As stated in this thesis NA model will be a real application and example for institutions. As a result NA reflects the different aspects of Europeanization in institution formation.

Since NA directly working with the Commission in Brussels, the official communications, legislations, and documents have affected NA in its becoming a Europeanized institution. These outside / environmental factors; in other words, the top-down factors, were very effective on Turkish NA.

In Europe no country is an island on its own and every country needs cooperation with each other to create a European dimension. Europe is a unity in diversity and it is a melting pot for working environments. In all Europe every country is leading the procedures with the same system and this creates Europeanness. Turkey is not far away from the Europe and through its NA it is using this common Europeanness working environment and organizational culture.

As a conclusion, it is possible to say that whenever there is relationship and cooperation within Europe and among European countries there will be cultural, social, organizational transfer back and forth. The nations will contribute to the richness of a common Europe with their culture and values.

Another conclusion is that the bureaucratic institutions of Turkey have a potential to change in time with the impact of Europe. The case of National Agency is small and dynamic one which can be successful to adopt itself the European values. Additionally, the case is a “formation” rather than a “change” which is more difficult to prior one. Therefore, considering the giant bureaucratic institutions most of which taking their roots from Ottoman era, it is not wrong to say that this transformation will be difficult and will take long time.

Since it is the first comparative study in this field and contains valuable research results, this study will enlighten and encourage more comprehensive potential future studies.

REFERENCES

- Aguinis, H. and Henle, C.A., 2003, "The Search for Universals in Cross-cultural Organizational Behavior", in *Organizational Behavior: The State of the Science* (2nd ed.), (ed) J. Greenberg, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates
- Allaire, Y. and Firsirotu, M.E., 1984, "Theories of Organizational Culture", *Organization Studies*, vol. 5(3), p.193-226
- Alvesson M., 2002, "Understanding Organizational Culture", London: Sage Publications
- Ashkanasy, N.M., Wilderom, C.P.M., and Peterson, M.F., 2000, "Handbook of Organizational Culture and Climate", Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications
- Barnard, C.I., 1938, "The Functions of the Executive", Cambridge: Harvard University Press
- Barratt, E.S., 1990, "Human Resource Management: Organizational Culture", *Management Update*, Vol.2(1), pp.21-32
- Bergström, C.F. and Rotkirch, M., 2003, "Decentralized Agencies and the IGC: A Question of Accountability", *Swedish Institute for European Policy Studies*, Stockholm, 2003, pp.1-52
- Borowsky, R., 1994, "Assessing Cultural Anthropology", New York: McGraw-Hill
- Börzell, T. A., 2003, "How the European Union Interacts with its Member States" *IHS Political Science Series*, No. 93
- Börzell, T.A. and Risse, T., 2000, "When Europe Hits Home: Europeanization and Domestic Change", *European Integration online Papers (EIoP)*, vol. 4(15) in <http://eiop.or.at/eiop/texte/2000-015a.htm> (20.11.2006)
- Cameron, K.S. and Ettington, D.R., 1988, "The Conceptual Foundations of Organizational Culture" in *Higher Education: Handbook of Theory and Research*, (ed.) Smart, J.C., New York, Agathon,
- Cameron, K.S. and Quinn, R.E., 1999, "Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework", New York: Addison-Wesley
- Cavaleri, S. and Obloj, K., 1993, "Management Systems: A Global Perspective" Wadsworth Publishing Company.: Belmont Ca
- Checkel, J.T., 1999, "International Institutions and Socialization" *Arena Working Paper*, vol.5

Chiti, E., 2000, "The Emergence of a Community Administration: The Case of European Agencies", *Common Market Law Review*, vol. 37(2), pp. 309-343.

Commission of the European Community, 2006, Turkey 2006 Progress Report, Sec 2006 – 1390, Brussels

Cooke, R.A., Lafferty, J.C., 1986, "Organizational Culture Inventory (Form III)" Plymouth, MI:Human Synergistics

Creswell, J.W., 1994, "Research Design: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches", Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications

Dahl, S., 2004, "Intercultural Research: The Current State of Knowledge" London: Middlesex University

Davis, S. M., 1984, "Managing Corporate Culture", Ballinger Publishing Company, USA

Deal, T.E. and Kennedy, A.A., 1982, "Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life", Harmondsworth: Penguin Books

De Cenzo D.A. and Robbins, S.P., 2005, "Human Resource Management", 8th Ed, John Wiley & Sons, New York,

Dehousse, R., 2002, Misfits: EU Law and the Transformation of European Governance, in *Good Governance in Europe's Integrated Market*, (eds) Joerges, C. and Dehousse, R. (eds), Oxford:OUP

Denison D.R., 1996, "What is the Difference between Organizational Culture and Organizational Climate? A Native's Point of View on a Decade of Paradigm Wars", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 21, No. 3,

Denison, D. R., 2000, "Organizational Culture: Can it be a Key Lever for Driving Organizational Change" in *International Handbook of Organizational Culture and Climate*, (eds) Cooper, C.L., Cartwright, S. and Earley, P.C., (pp. 347-376). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons

Denison, D. R. and Mishra, A. K. "Toward a Theory of Organizational Culture and Effectiveness.", *Organization Science*, Vol 6, No2, March-April 1995.

Du Toit, V. F., 2002, "*The Discriminant Validity of A Culture Assessment Instrument: A Comparison of Company Cultures*", Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences, Rand Afrikaans University

Ellen, B. P. and Eleanor, E. Z., 2005, "Europeanization, European Integration, and Globalization", *The Whitehead Journal of Diplomacy and International Relations*, Winter/Spring 2005, 209-217.

Elridge, J.E.T. and Crombie, A.D., 1974, "A Sociology of Organization", London: George Allen and Unwin

Frederickson, H.G., 1994, "Research and Knowledge in Administrative Ethics" in *Handbook of Administrative Ethics*, (ed) Cooper, T.L., New York: Marcel Dekker

Geertz, C., 1973, "The Interpretation of Cultures", New York: Basic Books

Geradin, D., 2004, "The Development of European Regulatory Agencies: What the EU Should Learn from American Experience", *Columbia Journal of European Law*, vol.11

Hartcourt, A.J., and Radaelli, C., 1999, "Limits to EU Technocratic Regulation", *European Journal of Political Research*, vol. 35 (1), pp.107-122.

Hall, R. 1991, "Organizations: Structures, Processes, and Outcomes" Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall

Héritier, A, Kerwer, D., Knill, C., Lehmkuhl, D., Teutsch, M. and Douillet, A.C., 2001, "Differential Europe. The European Union Impact on National Policymaking", Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.

Hampden-Turner, C., 1990, "Creating Corporate Culture: From Discord to Harmony" New York: Addison Wesley

Harrison, J.R., Carroll, G.R., Keeping The Faith: A Model Of Cultural Transmission In Formal Organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Dec, 1991

Hatch, M.J., 1997, "Organization Theory: Modern, Symbolic, and Postmodern Perspectives", Oxford: Oxford University Press

Hofstede, G., 1980, "Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values", Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications

Hofstede, G. and Bond, M.H., 1988, "The Confucian Connection: From Cultural Roots to Economic Growth", *Organizational Dynamics*, vol. 16(4), pp. 4-21

Hofstede, G., Neuijen, B., Ohayv, D.B., and Sanders, G., 1990, "Measuring Organizational Cultures: A Qualitative and Quantitative Study Across Twenty Cases", *Administrative Science Quarterly* vol.35, pp. 286-316.

Hooghe, L., 1995, "Subnational Mobilization in the European Union" *West European Politics*, vol. 18(3), pp. 175-198.

House, R. J., Wright, N. S., and Aditya, R. N., 1997, "Cross-Cultural Research On Organizational Leadership: A Critical Analysis And A Proposed Theory", in *New Perspectives in International Industrial Organizational Psychology* (eds) P. C. Earley & M. Erez, (pp. 535-625), San Francisco: New Lexington

Kedia, B.L. and Bhagat, R.S., 1988, "Cultural Constrains On Transfer Of Technology Across Nations: Implications For Research in International And Comparative Management", *Academy of Management Review*, vol.13 (4), pp. 559-571

Kerwer, D., and Michael T., 2001, "Elusive Europeanisation. Liberalising Road Haulage in the European Union" *Journal of European Public Policy* vol. 8 (1), pp. 124–143.

Kotter, J.P., 1996, "Leadership Challenges: What Leaders Really Do" in *Motivation and Leadership at Work*, 6th ed., (eds.) R.M. Steers, L.W. Porter and G.A. Bigley, Mcgraw Hill, New York

Lachman, R., Nedd, A. and Hinings, B., 1994, "Analysing Cross-national Management and Organizations: A Theoretical Framework", *Management Science*, vol. 40 (1), pp.40-55.

Martin, G.F. and McCausland, J.D., 2002, "The Role of Strategic Leaders for the Future Army Profession." in *The Future of the Army Profession*, (ed.) Snider, D.M. and Watkins, G.L., Boston: McGraw-Hill Primis Custom Publishing

Martin, J., 2002, "*Organizational Culture: Mapping the Terrain*", Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications

Martin, J., Su, S.K., and Beckman, C., 1997, "Enacting Shared Values - Myth or Reality? A Context-Specific Values Audit", *Research Paper Number 1469*, Stanford, Stanford University Graduate School of Business

Merriam, S.B., 1988, "Case Study Research in Education: A Qualitative Approach", San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Mwaura, G., Sutton, J. and D. Roberts, 1998, "Corporate And National Culture – An Irreconcilable Dilemma For The Hospitality Manager?" *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, vol.10(6), pp. 212-220.

Olsen, J.P., 1997, "European Challenges to the Nation State" in *Political Institutions and Public Policy*, (eds) Steunenberg B. and Vught, F., Kluwer Academic Publishers, pp.157–188.

Olsen, J. P., 2002, "The Many Faces of Europeanization", *Journal of Common Market Studies*, vol. 40, pp. 921-952

O'Reilly, C., 1989, "Corporations, Culture and Commitment", *California Management Review*, Vol. 31(4), pp.9-23

Ouchi, W.G., 1981, "Theory Z", Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley

Pascal, R. T. and A. G. Athos, 1981, "The Art of Japanese Management", Harmondsworth: Penguin Books

Peters, T.J. and Waterman, R.H., 1982, "In Search of Excellence", New York: Harper and Row

Pettigrew, A., 1979, "On studying organizational culture" *Administrative Science Quarterly*, vol. 24(4), pp. 570-581

Reichers, A.E. and Schneider, B., 1990, "Climate and Culture: An Evolution of Constructs." in *Organizational Climate and Culture* (ed) Schneider, B., San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Robbins, S.P., 1987, "Organization Theory: Structure, Design, and Applications", New York: Prentice-Hall

Robbins, S.P., 2005, "Essentials of Organizational Behavior", 8th ed., Pearson/Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, N.J.

Rockefeller, J.D., 1973, "The Second American Revolution", New York: Harper-Row

Roethlisberger, F. and Dickson, W., 1939, "Management and the Worker", Cambridge: Harvard University Press

Rousseau, D.M., 1990, "Assesing Organizational Culture: The Case For Multiple Mtehods" in *Organizational Climate and Culture*, (ed) B. Schneider, (pp.153-192), San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.

Sackmann, Sonja A., 1991, "Uncovering Culture in Organizations", *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, Sep91, vol.27(3), pp. 295-302

Sargut, A., S., 1994, "Kültürlerarası Farklılaşma ve Yönetim", Ankara: İmge Kitabevi

Sashkin, M., 1996, "Organizational Beliefs Questionnaire: Pillars Of Excellence" Amherst, MA: Human Resource Development Press

Sathe, V., 1983, "Implications of Corporate Culture: A Manager's Guide to Action", *Organizational Dynamics*, Vo. 12 (2), pp.5-23

Schein, E.H., 1985, "*Organizational Culture and Leadership: A Dynamic View*", San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Schein, E.H., 1992, "Organizational Culture and Leadership", Second Edition, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Schein, E.H., 1999, "*The Corporate Culture Survival Guide*", San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers

Schemel, R., A, 1995, "Qualitative Research Primer: The Paradigm, Some Basic Techniques and Methods", Turkish Psychological Association, Ankara

Schwartz, S. H., 1992, "Universals in the Content and Structure of Values: Theoretical Advances and Empirical Tests in 20 Countries. Advances in Experimental Social Psychology", M. Zanna. San Diego, Academic Press.

Shafritz, J.M. and Ott, J.S., 1992, "Chapter VIII: Organizational Culture and Symbolic Management Organization Theory." in *Classics of Organization Theory*, (eds.) Shafritz, J.M. and Ott, J.S., Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co.

Spender, J.C., 1983, "Myths, Recipes and Knowledge-bases in Organizational Analysis" (Unpublished Manuscript, Graduate School of Management, University of California at Los Angeles)

Scott, W. R., 1987, "Organizations: Rational, Natural and Open Systems" Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall

Smircich, L., 1983, "Concepts of Culture and Organizational Analysis." *Administrative Science Quarterly*, vol. 28, pp. 339-358

Smith P. B., Dugan, S., Trompenaars, F., 1996, "National Culture And The Values Of Organizational Employees: A Multi-Dimensional Analysis Across 43 Nations", *Journal of Cross- Cultural Psychology*, vol.27, pp.231-64.

Sundarasaradula, D., Hasan, H., "A Unified Open Systems Model For Explaining Organisational Change" in http://epress.anu.edu.au/info_systems/part-ch11.pdf (05.10.2006)

Swales, C., 1995, "Organisation Structures and Processes" Oxford, Blackwell Publishers Ltd

Tosi, H.L., Rizzo, J.R., and Carrol, S.J., 1994, "Managing Organizational Behavior" Oxford: Blackwell.

Trice, H.M. and Beyer, J.M., 1993, "The Cultures of Work Organizations", Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall

Triga, V., 2005, "Understanding Europe Beyond Brussels: Representing Decentralizations in the Discourse of European Union", in: *Organization Culture in the Institutions of European Union*, (eds) Gravier, M., and Triga, V. EUI Working Paper, SPS No:2005/4

Tushman, M. L. And Anderson, P., 1986, Technological Discontinuities And Organization Environments", *Administrative Science Quarterly*, vol.31, pp. 439-465

Van Fleet, D. D., 1991, "Organizational Culture. Behavior in Organizations", Houghton Mifflin Company

Yataganas, X. A., "Delegation of Regulatory Authority in the European Union", Jean Monnet Working Paper 3/01, in
<http://www.jeanmonnetpgrogram.org/papers/01/010301.html> (17.10.2006)

Yıldırım, A. and Şimşek, H., 2000, "Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri (2nd ed.) Ankara:Seçkin Yayınevi

INTERNET SOURCES

<http://europa.eu.int/eur-lex/en/treaties/selected/livre257.html> (12.10.2006)

<http://faculty.salisbury.edu/~whdecker/buad320/chapter2.ppt> (11.10.2006)

<http://www.leadingandfollowing.com/OBQ.htm> (25.08.2006)

<http://www.ac.wvu.edu/~culture/hofstede.htm> (21.08.2006)

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

KURUMSAL KÜLTÜR ANALİZ ANKETİ

Bu anket, çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumun, kurumsal kültürünü incelemek amacıyla oluşturulmuştur. Sorular, kurumunuzun mevcut durumunu incelemeye yönelik olarak hazırlanmıştır. Anket sonuçları, hazırlanmakta olan bir yüksek lisans tezi için kullanılacaktır. Bilgiler gizli tutulacak; hiçbir nedenle başka kişilere verilmeyecek ve sonuçlar kişisel değil ortalama değerler olarak sunulacaktır.

Anket formunu doldurarak, çalışmamıza yapacağınız katkılardan dolayı teşekkür ederiz.

Çalışmakta olduğunuz kurum ile ilgili aşağıdaki sorulara 5 tam puan üzerinden puan veriniz.

- ☐ 5 *Tamamıyla Katılıyorum*
- ☐ 4 *Genelde Katılıyorum*
- ☐ 3 *Herhangi Bir Fikrim Yok*
- ☐ 2 *Genelde Katılmıyorum*
- ☐ 1 *Tamamıyla Katılmıyorum*

Lütfen, her sırada sadece bir kutuyu işaretleyiniz ve tüm soruları yanıtlayınız. Yanıtını tam olarak bilmediğiniz sorulara yaklaşık yanıtlar verebilirsiniz.

Puanlama dışında görüşleriniz var ise, lütfen bu görüşlerinizi soruların alt kısmında bulunan alana yazınız.

(I) 1 - Kurumda, dinamik, yeniliklere açık ve yetenekleri geliştirici bir çalışma ortamı vardır.

☐₁ ☐₂ ☐₃ ☐₄ ☐₅

.....

(II) 2 - Görevlerim ayrıntılı bir şekilde düzenlenerek bana bildirilmiştir; ancak, bu kurallar esnektir ve ben görevlerimi yerine getirirken inisiyatif kullanırım.

☐₁ ☐₂ ☐₃ ☐₄ ☐₅

.....

(IV) 3 - Kararlar amirler tarafından alınır; ancak karar almada astların da fikirleri alınır.

☐₁ ☐₂ ☐₃ ☐₄ ☐₅

.....

(V) 4 -Çalışmakta olduğum kurum, prestijli ve başarılı bir kurumdur.

☐₁ ☐₂ ☐₃ ☐₄ ☐₅

.....

(V) 5 -Kurumda resmi iletişim yanında gayri resmi (enformal) iletişim de gelişmiştir.

☐₁ ☐₂ ☐₃ ☐₄ ☐₅

.....
.....

(III) 6 - Çalışanlar kurumun amaçlarını bilirler ve bu yönde çalışırlar.

☐₁ ☐₂ ☐₃ ☐₄ ☐₅

.....
.....

(II) 7 - Yetki devri vardır; işlerin daha çabuk ve verimli bir şekilde yürütülmesi için üstler yetkilerini astlara devreder.

☐₁ ☐₂ ☐₃ ☐₄ ☐₅

.....
.....

(I) 8 - Kurumda başarı esastır. Bu yüzden, sonuç almaya yönelik ve rekabetçi bir çalışma ortamı vardır. Bu durum stresli bir çalışma ortamı yaratmaktadır.

☐₁ ☐₂ ☐₃ ☐₄ ☐₅

.....
.....

(II) 9- Görevler planlanırken amirlerim benim de fikirlerimi alırlar.

☐₁ ☐₂ ☐₃ ☐₄ ☐₅

.....
.....

(V) 10 - Kurumda personel arası ilişkiler gelişmiştir. Bu nedenle kurumumuz büyük bir aileye benzer.

☐₁ ☐₂ ☐₃ ☐₄ ☐₅

.....
.....

(IV) 11 - Astlar ve üstler birlikte karar verirler.

☐₁ ☐₂ ☐₃ ☐₄ ☐₅

.....
.....

(III) 12 - Kurumsal amaçlar bireysel amaçların önündedir.

☐₁ ☐₂ ☐₃ ☐₄ ☐₅

.....
.....

(I) 13 - Kurumda güven ortamı vardır.

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

.....
.....

(IV) 14 - Karar almada bilgi ve tecrübe önemlidir. Bilgi sahibi kişiler karar almada etkin rol oynar.

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

.....
.....

(III) 15 - Çalışanlar kendilerini kurumun önemli bir parçası olarak görürler.

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

.....
.....

(I) 16 - Kuralların çokluğu işleri zorlaştırmaktadır.

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

.....
.....

(V) 17 -Kurum tarafından düzenlenen çeşitli iş dışı toplantılar, yemekler vb personel motivasyonunu olumlu yönde etkilemektedir.

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

.....
.....

(IV) 18 - Kararlar amirler tarafından alınır; karar almada astların etkisi yoktur.

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

.....
.....

(II) 19 - Görevlerin yerine getirilmesinde işbirliği ve ekip çalışması teşvik edilir.

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

.....
.....

(III) 20 - Kişisel ve kurumsal değerler uyumludur.

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

.....
.....

1 - Göreviniz

☐ Yönetici ☐ Uzman ☐ Memur

2 – Cinsiyetiniz

☐ Erkek ☐ Kadın

3 - Eğitim durumunuz

☐ Lise ☐ Ön Lisans ☐ Lisans ☐ Yüksek Lisans ☐ Doktora

4 – Yaşınız

☐ -20 ☐ 20-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50+

5 - Kurumunuzdaki çalışma süreniz (Yıl)

☐ -2 ☐ 2-3 ☐ 4-5 ☐ 6-7 ☐ 8-9 ☐ 10+

6 - İş hayatınızdaki toplam çalışma süreniz (Yıl)

☐ -5 ☐ 6-10 ☐ 11-15 ☐ 16-20 ☐ 20+

APPENDIX B T TEST AND ANOVA TEST TABLES

Table: 1 t test between 'working environment' and SPO & NA

WORKING ENVIRONMENT		t-test for Equality of Means		
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
There is a dynamic, innovative and capability developing working environment in the organization.	Eq. var. assumed	-3,240	73	,002
	Eq. var. not ass.	-3,421	71,661	,001
Goal achievement is essential in the organization. For this reason, there is a result oriented and competitive working condition. This cause a stressful working environment.	Eq. var. assumed	-1,339	73	,185
	Eq. var. not ass.	-1,281	52,910	,206
The multitude of rules makes the activities harder.	Eq. var. assumed	-1,610	73	,112
	Eq. var. not ass.	-1,638	65,821	,106
There is a trusty environment in the organization.	Eq. var. assumed	-2,575	73	,012
	Eq. var. not ass.	-2,698	70,793	,009

Table: 2 t test between 'task characteristics' and SPO & NA

TASK CHARACTERISTICS		t-test for Equality of Means		
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
My duties are arranged and assigned to me. However, these rules are flexible and I can take initiative in practice.	Eq. var. assumed	-5,138	73	,001
	Eq. var. not ass.	-5,614	72,782	,001
While planning the duties, superiors take my opinions.	Eq. var. assumed	-4,040	73	,001
	Eq. var. not ass.	-4,245	71,128	,001
Delegation of authority is essential; superiors delegate authority to subordinates in order to provide works executed faster and more efficient.	Eq. var. assumed	-4,437	73	,001
	Eq. var. not ass.	-4,623	69,989	,001
Cooperation and teamwork is encouraged.	Eq. var. assumed	-2,855	73	,006
	Eq. var. not ass.	-2,944	68,394	,004

Table: 3 t test between 'organizational identity' and SPO & NA

ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTITY		t-test for Equality of Means		
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Employees feel themselves as an essential part of the organization.	Eq. var. assumed	-3,608	73	,001
	Eq. var. not ass.	-3,752	69,678	,001
Employees know well the goals of the organization and work in this direction.	Eq. var. assumed	-4,285	73	,001
	Eq. var. not ass.	-4,866	67,467	,001
Organizational goals are prior to personal goals.	Eq. var. assumed	-3,297	73	,002
	Eq. var. not ass.	-3,444	70,326	,001
Organizational and personal values are consistent with each other.	Eq. var. assumed	-2,649	73	,010
	Eq. var. not ass.	-2,769	70,463	,007

Table: 4 t test between 'decision making' and SPO & NA

DECISION MAKING		t-test for Equality of Means		
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Superiors make decisions; there is no need for the opinions of subordinates.	Eq. var. assumed	2,991	73	,004
	Eq. var. not ass.	3,285	72,468	,002
Superiors make decisions; However, the opinion of subordinates are taken while decision making.	Eq. var. assumed	-4,595	73	,001
	Eq. var. not ass.	-5,077	71,976	,001
Superiors and subordinates make decision together.	Eq. var. assumed	-3,916	73	,001
	Eq. var. not ass.	-4,371	70,714	,001
Knowledge and experience is essential in decision making. Experienced people actively perform in decision making.	Eq. var. assumed	-3,274	73	,002
	Eq. var. not ass.	-3,526	72,944	,001

Table: 5 t test between 'informal structure' and SPO & NA

DECISION MAKING		t-test for Equality of Means		
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
My organization is a successful and prestigious one.	Eq. var. assumed	-4,143	73	,001
	Eq. var. not ass.	-4,802	62,211	,001
The interactive relations are developed. For this reason, our organization likes an extended family.	Eq. var. assumed	-1,694	73	,094
	Eq. var. not ass.	-1,863	72,394	,067
Beside formal communication, informal communication is also developed.	Eq. var. assumed	-2,003	73	,049
	Eq. var. not ass.	-2,090	70,239	,040
Various informal meetings, meals etc that arranged by the organization stimulate personnel motivation positively.	Eq. var. assumed	-3,066	73	,003
	Eq. var. not ass.	-3,103	64,793	,003

Table: 6 Anova test (SPO) between 'working environment' and 'age'

ANOVA (AGE) State Planning Organization						
WORKING ENVIRONMENT		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
There is a dynamic, innovative and capability developing working environment in the organization.	Bet. Gr.	5,104	3	1,701	1,279	,294
	Wit. Gr.	54,541	41	1,330		
	Total	59,644	44			
Goal achievement is essential in the organization. For this reason, there is a result oriented and competitive working condition. This cause a stressful working environment.	Bet. Gr.	2,085	3	,695	,650	,587
	Wit. Gr.	43,826	41	1,069		
	Total	45,911	44			
The multitude of rules makes the activities harder.	Bet. Gr.	4,318	3	1,439	,843	,478
	Wit. Gr.	69,993	41	1,707		
	Total	74,311	44			
There is a trusty environment in the organization.	Bet. Gr.	13,982	3	4,661	4,311	,010
	Wit. Gr.	44,329	41	1,081		
	Total	58,311	44			

Table: 7 Anova test (SPO) between 'task characteristics' and 'age'

ANOVA (AGE) State Planning Organization						
TASK CHARACTERISTICS		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
My duties are arranged and assigned to me. However, these rules are flexible and I can take initiative in practice.	Bet. Gr.	1,010	3	,337	,217	,884
	Wit. Gr.	63,567	41	1,550		
	Total	64,578	44			
While planning the duties, superiors take my opinions.	Bet. Gr.	6,556	3	2,185	1,850	,153
	Wit. Gr.	48,422	41	1,181		
	Total	54,978	44			
Delegation of authority is essential; superiors delegate authority to subordinates in order to provide works executed faster and more efficient.	Bet. Gr.	8,723	3	2,908	2,094	,116
	Wit. Gr.	56,922	41	1,388		
	Total	65,644	44			
Cooperation and teamwork is encouraged.	Bet. Gr.	12,545	3	4,182	4,588	,007
	Wit. Gr.	37,366	41	,911		
	Total	49,911	44			

Table: 8 Anova test (NA) between 'task characteristics' and 'age'

ANOVA (AGE) National Agency						
TASK CHARACTERISTICS		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
My duties are arranged and assigned to me. However, these rules are flexible and I can take initiative in practice.	Bet. Gr.	3,350	2	1,675	3,388	,049
	Wit. Gr.	13,350	27	,494		
	Total	16,700	29			
While planning the duties, superiors take my opinions.	Bet. Gr.	2,813	2	1,406	1,979	,158
	Wit. Gr.	19,188	27	,711		
	Total	22,000	29			
Delegation of authority is essential; superiors delegate authority to subordinates in order to provide works executed faster and more efficient.	Bet. Gr.	9,013	2	4,506	6,180	,006
	Wit. Gr.	19,688	27	,729		
	Total	28,700	29			
Cooperation and teamwork is encouraged.	Bet. Gr.	,379	2	,190	,215	,808
	Wit. Gr.	23,787	27	,881		
	Total	24,167	29			

Table: 9 Anova test (SPO) between 'informal structure' and 'age'

ANOVA (AGE) State Planning Organization						
INFORMAL STRUCTURE		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
My organization is a successful and prestigious one.	Bet. Gr.	18,728	3	6,243	5,749	,002
	Wit. Gr.	44,517	41	1,086		
	Total	63,244	44			
The interactive relations are developed. For this reason, our organization likes an extended family.	Bet. Gr.	36,485	3	12,162	10,426	,001
	Wit. Gr.	47,826	41	1,166		
	Total	84,311	44			
Beside formal communication, informal communication is also developed.	Bet. Gr.	2,394	3	,798	,521	,670
	Wit. Gr.	62,806	41	1,532		
	Total	65,200	44			
Various informal meetings, meals etc that arranged by the organization stimulate personnel motivation positively.	Bet. Gr.	2,389	3	,796	,486	,694
	Wit. Gr.	67,255	41	1,640		
	Total	69,644	44			

Table: 10 Anova test (SPO) between 'task characteristics' and 'education'

ANOVA (EDUCATION) State Planning Organization						
TASK CHARACTERISTICS		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
My duties are arranged and assigned to me. However, these rules are flexible and I can take initiative in practice.	Bet. Gr.	21,031	4	5,258	4,830	,003
	Wit. Gr.	43,547	40	1,089		
	Total	64,578	44			
While planning the duties, superiors take my opinions.	Bet. Gr.	8,802	4	2,201	1,906	,128
	Wit. Gr.	46,175	40	1,154		
	Total	54,978	44			
Delegation of authority is essential; superiors delegate authority to subordinates in order to provide works executed faster and more efficient.	Bet. Gr.	2,680	4	,670	,426	,789
	Wit. Gr.	62,964	40	1,574		
	Total	65,644	44			
Cooperation and teamwork is encouraged.	Bet. Gr.	5,524	4	1,381	1,244	,308
	Wit. Gr.	44,387	40	1,110		
	Total	49,911	44			

Table: 11 Anova test (SPO) between 'organizational identity' and 'education'

ANOVA (EDUCATION) State Planning Organization						
ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTITY		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Employees feel themselves as an essential part of the organization.	Bet. Gr.	8,293	4	2,073	1,671	,176
	Wit. Gr.	49,618	40	1,240		
	Total	57,911	44			
Employees know well the goals of the organization and work in this direction.	Bet. Gr.	6,955	4	1,739	1,043	,397
	Wit. Gr.	66,689	40	1,667		
	Total	73,644	44			
Organizational goals are prior to personal goals.	Bet. Gr.	11,195	4	2,799	2,795	,039
	Wit. Gr.	40,050	40	1,001		
	Total	51,244	44			
Organizational and personal values are consistent with each other.	Bet. Gr.	5,417	4	1,354	1,143	,350
	Wit. Gr.	47,383	40	1,185		
	Total	52,800	44			

Table: 12 Anova test (SPO) between 'decision making' and 'education'

ANOVA (EDUCATION) State Planning Organization						
DECISION MAKING		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Superiors make decisions; there is no need for the opinions of subordinates.	Bet. Gr.	6,016	4	1,504	,747	,566
	Wit. Gr.	80,562	40	2,014		
	Total	86,578	44			
Superiors make decisions; However, the opinion of subordinates are taken while decision making.	Bet. Gr.	2,645	4	,661	,390	,814
	Wit. Gr.	67,800	40	1,695		
	Total	70,444	44			
Superiors and subordinates make decision together.	Bet. Gr.	20,349	4	5,087	4,231	,006
	Wit. Gr.	48,095	40	1,202		
	Total	68,444	44			
Knowledge and experience is essential in decision making. Experienced people actively perform in decision making.	Bet. Gr.	3,274	4	,818	,439	,780
	Wit. Gr.	74,637	40	1,866		
	Total	77,911	44			

Table: 13 Anova test (NA) between 'decision making' and 'education'

ANOVA (EDUCATION) National Agency						
DECISION MAKING		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Superiors make decisions; there is no need for the opinions of subordinates.	Bet. Gr.	2,267	3	,756	1,051	,387
	Wit. Gr.	18,700	26	,719		
	Total	20,967	29			
Superiors make decisions; However, the opinion of subordinates are taken while decision making.	Bet. Gr.	2,129	3	,710	1,343	,282
	Wit. Gr.	13,737	26	,528		
	Total	15,867	29			
Superiors and subordinates make decision together.	Bet. Gr.	5,017	3	1,672	5,145	,006
	Wit. Gr.	8,450	26	,325		
	Total	13,467	29			
Knowledge and experience is essential in decision making. Experienced people actively perform in decision making.	Bet. Gr.	3,296	3	1,099	1,389	,268
	Wit. Gr.	20,571	26	,791		
	Total	23,867	29			

Table: 14 Anova test (SPO) between 'informal structure' and 'education'

ANOVA (EDUCATION) State Planning Organization						
INFORMAL STRUCTURE		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
My organization is a successful and prestigious one.	Bet. Gr.	8,695	4	2,174	1,594	,195
	Wit. Gr.	54,550	40	1,364		
	Total	63,244	44			
The interactive relations are developed. For this reason, our organization likes an extended family.	Bet. Gr.	20,589	4	5,147	3,231	,022
	Wit. Gr.	63,722	40	1,593		
	Total	84,311	44			
Beside formal communication, informal communication is also developed.	Bet. Gr.	11,400	4	2,850	2,119	,096
	Wit. Gr.	53,800	40	1,345		
	Total	65,200	44			
Various informal meetings, meals etc that arranged by the organization stimulate personnel motivation positively.	Bet. Gr.	5,273	4	1,318	,819	,521
	Wit. Gr.	64,371	40	1,609		
	Total	69,644	44			

Table: 15 Anova test (NA) between 'working environment' and 'position'

ANOVA (POSITION) National Agency						
WORKING ENVIRONMENT		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
There is a dynamic, innovative and capability developing working environment in the organization.	Bet. Gr.	1,400	2	,700	,887	,423
	Wit. Gr.	21,300	27	,789		
	Total	22,700	29			
Goal achievement is essential in the organization. For this reason, there is a result oriented and competitive working condition. This cause a stressful working environment.	Bet. Gr.	5,000	2	2,500	1,615	,218
	Wit. Gr.	41,800	27	1,548		
	Total	46,800	29			
The multitude of rules makes the activities harder.	Bet. Gr.	5,267	2	2,633	1,970	,159
	Wit. Gr.	36,100	27	1,337		
	Total	41,367	29			
There is a trusty environment in the organization.	Bet. Gr.	5,600	2	2,800	4,109	,028
	Wit. Gr.	18,400	27	,681		
	Total	24,000	29			

Table: 16 Anova test (NA) between 'task characteristics' and 'position'

ANOVA (POSITION) National Agency						
TASK CHARACTERISTICS		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
My duties are arranged and assigned to me. However, these rules are flexible and I can take initiative in practice.	Bet. Gr.	1,400	2	,700	1,235	,307
	Wit. Gr.	15,300	27	,567		
	Total	16,700	29			
While planning the duties, superiors take my opinions.	Bet. Gr.	1,400	2	,700	,917	,412
	Wit. Gr.	20,600	27	,763		
	Total	22,000	29			
Delegation of authority is essential; superiors delegate authority to subordinates in order to provide works executed faster and more efficient.	Bet. Gr.	8,600	2	4,300	5,776	,008
	Wit. Gr.	20,100	27	,744		
	Total	28,700	29			
Cooperation and teamwork is encouraged.	Bet. Gr.	6,067	2	3,033	4,525	,020
	Wit. Gr.	18,100	27	,670		
	Total	24,167	29			

Table: 17 Anova test (NA) between 'organizational identity' and 'position'

ANOVA (POSITION) National Agency						
ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTITY		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Employees feel themselves as an essential part of the organization.	Bet. Gr.	2,867	2	1,433	1,683	,205
	Wit. Gr.	23,000	27	,852		
	Total	25,867	29			
Employees know well the goals of the organization and work in this direction.	Bet. Gr.	1,400	2	,700	1,929	,165
	Wit. Gr.	9,800	27	,363		
	Total	11,200	29			
Organizational goals are prior to personal goals.	Bet. Gr.	5,067	2	2,533	4,071	,028
	Wit. Gr.	16,800	27	,622		
	Total	21,867	29			
Organizational and personal values are consistent with each other.	Bet. Gr.	,200	2	,100	,122	,885
	Wit. Gr.	22,100	27	,819		
	Total	22,300	29			

Table: 18 Anova test (NA) between 'informal structure' and 'position'

ANOVA (POSITION) National Agency						
INFORMAL STRUCTURE		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
My organization is a successful and prestigious one.	Bet. Gr.	2,067	2	1,033	6,065	,007
	Wit. Gr.	4,600	27	,170		
	Total	6,667	29			
The interactive relations are developed. For this reason, our organization likes an extended family.	Bet. Gr.	2,067	2	1,033	1,541	,232
	Wit. Gr.	18,100	27	,670		
	Total	20,167	29			
Beside formal communication, informal communication is also developed.	Bet. Gr.	2,600	2	1,300	1,382	,268
	Wit. Gr.	25,400	27	,941		
	Total	28,000	29			
Various informal meetings, meals etc that arranged by the organization stimulate personnel motivation positively.	Bet. Gr.	1,400	2	,700	,480	,624
	Wit. Gr.	39,400	27	1,459		
	Total	40,800	29			

Table: 19 Anova test (SPO) between 'decision making' and 'position'

ANOVA (POSITION) State Planning Organization						
DECISION MAKING		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Superiors make decisions; there is no need for the opinions of subordinates.	Bet. Gr.	3,782	2	1,891	,959	,391
	Wit. Gr.	82,795	42	1,971		
	Total	86,578	44			
Superiors make decisions; However, the opinion of subordinates are taken while decision making.	Bet. Gr.	3,649	2	1,824	1,147	,327
	Wit. Gr.	66,795	42	1,590		
	Total	70,444	44			
Superiors and subordinates make decision together.	Bet. Gr.	10,399	2	5,199	3,762	,031
	Wit. Gr.	58,045	42	1,382		
	Total	68,444	44			
Knowledge and experience is essential in decision making. Experienced people actively perform in decision making.	Bet. Gr.	,671	2	,336	,182	,834
	Wit. Gr.	77,240	42	1,839		
	Total	77,911	44			

Table: 20 Anova test (NA) between 'informal structure' and 'total working experience'

ANOVA (THE TOTAL WORKING YEARS) National Agency						
INFORMAL STRUCTURE		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
My organization is a successful and prestigious one.	Bet. Gr.	1,161	4	,290	1,318	,291
	Wit. Gr.	5,506	25	,220		
	Total	6,667	29			
The interactive relations are developed. For this reason, our organization likes an extended family.	Bet. Gr.	3,561	4	,890	1,340	,283
	Wit. Gr.	16,606	25	,664		
	Total	20,167	29			
Beside formal communication, informal communication is also developed.	Bet. Gr.	4,744	4	1,186	1,275	,306
	Wit. Gr.	23,256	25	,930		
	Total	28,000	29			
Various informal meetings, meals etc that arranged by the organization stimulate personnel motivation positively.	Bet. Gr.	12,544	4	3,136	2,775	,049
	Wit. Gr.	28,256	25	1,130		
	Total	40,800	29			