

T.C. İstanbul Commerce University

Social Sciences Institute

Business Administration Department

**The Effect of Organizational Culture On
Leader-Member Exchange: A Cross-Cultural Study
Among Turkey and France**

Master Thesis

Tamar Çırak

Student No: 100009176

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Pınar Başar

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The thesis I have prepared is an original study and prepared in accordance with YÖK and Istanbul Commerce University Graduate Regulations. In addition, while conducting this study, I have fully complied with the rules of scientific ethics; I declare that I have shown all the sources that I have benefited from and that there are no detailed quotes from any source. All matters contained in this thesis are my personal views and do not reflect the official opinion of Istanbul Commerce University.



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ABSTRACT

The borders shrinking with the developing technology have brought the constructions with different cultures into more interaction. In this process, besides the fact that people from different cultures correctly perceive and process the messages given in communication, managing this situation has also gained importance. Leadership models applied to a group were influenced by the culture of that group, causing it to be born in a new field of study.

The aim of the study is to test the effect of cultural differences and values on leader member exchange. The concept of leadership, exchange of leader members, the effect of cultural differences on leader member interaction and data on Turkish and French cultures are discussed. For this purpose, the literature review section explains the leadership and culture concepts. The sample group consisting of Turkish and French employees were tested with, Leader-Member Exchange 7 Questionnaire (LMX7) developed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (Cultural Dimensions and Values Survey Module (VSM 2008) developed by Hofstede.

This study has shown that the cultural values of Turkish and French society have a major impact on the leader-member interaction. Regression analysis was made between Leader member interaction of culture dimensions. As a result of the regression analysis, a meaningful relationship was found between Collectivism, Power distance, Uncertainty Avoidance and Long-term orientation among Turkish employees, however there was no statistically significant relationship between Masculinity and femininity dimension and Leader member interaction. As a result of the regression analysis, while there was a significant relationship between the power distance, Masculinity Femininity, Uncertainty Avoidance and Long term orientation dimensions of the LM workers and LMX, there was no statistically significant result for the size of Collectivism.

According to the findings, although not very large differences in terms of culture among white-collar workers in Turkey and France, Hofstede's Values Survey has no significant effect on the Leader Member Exchange Model variables.

Keywords: Culture, leadership, value, cultural dimensions, leader member Exchange

ÖZET

Gelişen teknoloji ile küçülen sınırlar, farklı kültürlerle sahip inşaları daha çok etkileşim haline sokmuştur. Bu süreçte farklı kültürlerden gelen insanların iletişimde verilen mesajları doğru algılaması ve işleminin yanın sıra bu durumu yönetmek ayrıca önem kazanmıştır. Bir gruba uygulanan liderlik modelleri, o grubun kültüründen etkilenecek yeni bir çalışma alanına doğmasına sebep olmuştur.

Çalışmanın amacı kültürel farklılıkların ve değerlerin lider üye değişimi üzerindeki etkisini test etmektir. Liderlik kavramı, lider üye değişimi, kültürel farklılıkların lider üye etkileşimine etkisi ve Türk ve Fransız kültürleri üzerindeki verileri tartışılmaktadır.

Bu amaçla, kaynak taramasında liderlik ve kültür kavramaları açıklanmaktadır. Türk ve Fransız çalışanlardan oluşan örneğin Graen ve Uhl-Bien tarafından geliştirilen Lider- Üye Değişim 7 Anketi (LMX7) ve Hofstede tarafından geliştirilen Kültürel Boyutlar ve Değerler Anket Modülü (VSM 2008) ile test edilmektedir.

Bu çalışma Türk ve Fransız toplumunun kültürler değerlerinin lider üye etkileşimine büyük bir ölçüde etkilerinin olduğunu göstermiştir. Kültür boyutlarının Lider üye etkileşimi arasında regresyon analizi yapılmış. Yapılan regresyon analizi sonucunda Türk çalışanlar arasında Bireycilik, Güç Mesafesi ve Uzun Vadeye Dönüklük arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur fakat buna karşın Erillik ve Dişilik boyutu ile Lider Üye Etkileşimi arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki yoktur. Yapılan regresyon analizi sonucunda Fransız çalışanların Güç Mesafesi, Erillik ve Dişilik, Belirsizlikten Kaçınma ve Uzun Vadeye dönüklük boyutları ile LMX arasında anlamlı bir ilişki varken, Bireysellik boyutu için istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir sonuç elde edilememiştir.

Bulguya göre, Türkiye ve Fransa'daki beyaz yakalı çalışanlar arasında kültür açısından çok büyük farklıklar olmamakla beraber, Hofstede'nin Değerler Anketi Modeli değişkenlerinin Lider Üye Değişimi üzerinde önemli bir etkisi yoktur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kültür, liderlik, değer, kültürel boyutlar, lider üye Değişimi

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LIST OF MAJOR ABBREVIATIONS

IDV: Individualism-Collectivism

LMX: Leader Member Exchange

MAS: Masculinity-Femininity

PDI: Power Distance

UAI: Avoidance of Uncertainty



1.INTRODUCTION

Developing technology, facilitating communication, and changing trade boundaries have led to more interaction between people in different civilizations and cultures. In short, the world is getting a worldwide village in intense interaction in terms of politics, economy, culture, and social structures. As the boundaries of business began to disappear and the relations of people from different cultures became much closer. Consequently, of this situation where it is easier for people from diverse cultures to work together, interact and communicate, the interaction of the leader with his followers has become more important and the interaction stemming from cultural differences has taken a new direction.

Today's businesses accommodate people from numerous different cultures and must work with individuals with different cultural backgrounds within the framework of their activities in international markets. These changes show that businesses have become multicultural. The increase in cultural interaction has brought culture and cultural differences to the forefront and increased its importance.

Many of the theories and approaches related to leadership have focused on what behaviour the leader should exhibit in his followers under various situations. However, in the theory of leader member exchange, which is one of the most attractive theories to examine the relationship between the leadership process and the results of this process, leaders or managers develop relations of different quality as a result of the mutual interaction with their subordinates. In this theory, it is assumed that the leader does not treat all his followers in the within the same way. While employees analyse and interpret the given messages in their own culture, a message that is perceived as normal in one culture may have different meanings in another culture. The interaction of employees with different cultures has caused some time problems. It is also a challenging process for the leader to choose when he leaves the culture in which the leader grows or owns and uses his leadership qualities in another culture.

This study points to get it the significance of the impact of culture on leading member exchange. For this reason, in the literature review section, research has been conducted in the fields of leadership, leader member interaction and culture. The main structure of the study is the determination of the differences between the two societies and the effect of culture on the leading member interaction among the employees in French and Turkish societies with different cultures.

1.1. Aim of The Study

The aim of this study is to get it the significance of leading member interaction and to emphasize the impact of cultural differences on leading member interaction. Therefore, the concepts of leadership, leader member interaction and culture are introduced, and researches are conducted in the fields of leader member interaction and culture, including the theorists of Graen and Hofstede.

Turkey and leading member of the interaction of cultures examining whether to show a difference in the interaction of the leading members working in France and to expand the field of leadership studies and, if aimed to investigate the impact of culture on these differences.

In this study, we aimed to examine the relationship between cultural values measured by Hofstede VSM 2008 Questionnaire and the quality of leader member exchange measured by Graen's LMX 7 Questionnaire. There are many leadership theories known to researchers. This study will also examine whether the changes in the quality leader are affected by the four cultural dimensions of Hofstede: power distance, individuality versus collectivism, femininity, and masculinity versus, avoidance of uncertainty.

For this purpose, the following questions are answered.

- Do cultural dimensions have a significant impact on leading member interaction?
- What are the cultural differences that affect the interaction between Turkey and France, the leading member of the staff?

1.2. Statement of The Problem

From the past to the present, culture has been assumed in many different fields of science. First, it should be said that even the organizations that exist for a short time have a culture of their own. Culture, being a socially built entity, is largely unique. Secondly, the unique symbols, messages and communication within the organization provide ease of communication and management. Finally, culture is a way of managing group behavior. Culture is a control mechanism that approves or prohibits certain behaviors within a group or organization.

The rapid change of societies and cultures has also affected the institutions established by the society. There is a corporate culture that the institutions trying to gain a place in the sector they are in must have. In this process of the formation of culture, the influence of leadership as well as the work has an impact. The leader's duty to create culture is to create a structural system for organizing his or her followers. Leaders also form an emotional base that supports their values and future visions. In line with these tasks, leaders form willing teams to fulfil their goals. The connection between the leaders and the followers constitutes the consensus within the institution and all the material and moral values created in short, the culture.

In a global world where borders are shrinking and mobility is increasing, it is easier for people of different cultures to come together and interact. In this respect, the interaction of leaders and members has gained importance in groups with different cultures.

The aim of this study is to measure the impact of leading member interaction of culture. In order to understand this effect, in the literature review section, the concepts of leadership, leader member interaction and culture are explained and theorists including Graen and Hofstede are included in the concepts of leader member interaction and intercultural interaction.

1.3. Research Method

The research method section includes the sample, data collection tool and method of the research as well as the creation of the research form and the scales in the research form. The independent variable of the research is the LMX scale. On the other hand, the dependent variable of the research is the dimensions of the concept of culture and its sub-dimensions are Power Distance, Avoidance of Uncertainty, Individualism Collectivism, Masculinity Femininity, Long-Short Term Orientation.



2.THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Leadership

Leadership can have a different meaning for every person in the world. It is one of the humans, social and universal phenomena. People have social activities and the fact that they can accomplish the things that cannot be accomplished by themselves necessitates them to live together. There is leadership in all times and places where people live and operate together as a group, organization, community.

Although scientific studies on leadership started in the 20th century, it has been one of the subjects that have attracted the attention of the scholars and philosophers since the early ages. Leadership is a developing discipline today.

Leadership can be defined simply as the art of motivating people with a common goal to move together.

There are various definitions of leadership. Academically, the word leader was first used in the Oxford English Dictionary of 1933. According to the Oxford dictionary, Leadership is defined as action the action of a group of people or an organization'. (Oxford Dictionary).

Another definition of leadership, according to Thom Foreston, is to do what you love and to pass on this energy and enthusiasm to others. Creating an inspiring vision and ensuring that people achieve their goals in line with the vision (Daft,2007). According to Peter Northouse, leadership is defined as a process in which a group with a common goal is influenced by an individual. (Northouse ,2010)

The connotation of the word leader is the big names we read in the newspaper news. In fact, there are leaders in large or small workplaces, briefly in every part of our lives within the family. Accordingly, Richard L. has made the following definition in his book "Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes and outcomes that reflect their shared purposes" (Daft,2007).

Leadership is among the most valuable human activities. Being a good leader for a student at school, a commander in the military, or a good politician means having great respect. Also, leadership is to bring people together for a common purpose, to cooperate. Moreover, leadership is the ability to create an environment in which they trust each other during this process.

According to Jacques and Clément's definition, leadership is the process that one person sets the purpose or direct for one or more other people and gets them to move with him or her along together, each with competence and commitment in that direction. (Jacques & Clement 1994)

Leadership is one of the most complex and multifaceted events in which organizational and psychological research is carried out, and it is also one of the most observed and least understood events on earth. (Bums,1987)

In the literature on leadership, it is seen that various theories and different views on leadership have been put forward. Some of these studies suggest that leadership is an innate combination of abilities, and others suggest that leadership characteristics can be acquired later. In addition, some of the theories developed focused on the personal characteristics of the leader and some of them focused on the behavior of the leader and therefore the degree of influence of the members or subordinates, and later the leader was seen as the person who acted according to the conditions required by the situation. (Efekan ,2007)

There are several leadership theories developed to describe leadership styles. Each of the approaches contributed to the development of leadership theory. In this section, the evaluation of these theories will be explained.

2.1.1. Traditional Theories

There are several distinct theoretical bases for leadership. The phrase "Great leaders are born, not made" is the simplest and most meaningful sentence that explains this theory. In this perception, the leader character is born from the birth. According to this theory, you are either a natural leader or never a leader.

The major reason for the masculine character of the term "Great Man" in the relevant period is that the leadership analysis is mostly in the military field. (Kendra,2019)

This theory was born in the middle of the 19th century, it is the ancestor of all other leadership theories. Great Man theory, it is assumed that most of the time the intrinsic properties of the leaders in the male gender. Leaders are not created, or leadership characteristics are not acquired afterwards. One of the main minds of the theory is the belief that great leaders will rise when confronted with the appropriate situation.

2.1.2. Trait Theory

The Trait Theory approach was also one of the first theories of leadership. This theory, a set of personal characteristics defining leader tries to explain the distinctive features of event. (Goff,2003)

This understanding focuses on the essential qualities that a leader must possess, as well as the basic characteristics, such as physical and personal traits. It assumes that basic characteristics are leaders' complex features with different characteristics. Like the Great Man theory, this approach involves leaders having the same traits that they were born from and staying for a long time. (Sethuraman & Suresh,2014)

Early research on leadership was based on the psychological focus of people with inherited and leadership characteristics. Therefore, successful leaders often been viewed.

Beginning to examine the various characteristics that define the leader would allow the characterization of an effective leader. Thus, the characteristics that distinguish leaders from non-leaders would be identified. In the researches, it has been determined that effective leaders sometimes do not have the same characteristics, and sometimes there are more members of the group than the leader, but they do not appear as leaders. Therefore, the process of leadership has emerged the necessity of looking to other variables to be fully understood.

2.1.3 Behavioural Theories

In the early 1950s, unsuccessful efforts to establish universal leadership characteristics led to the emergence of a new trend. Behavioral approaches were developed as researchers and theorists began to concentrate on how they behave and what they do, rather than concentrate on the personal characteristics of leaders, so that the traits approach carries a very shallow and constricting aspects of leadership analysis. Behavioral approach, another approach in leadership studies, took its place in academic studies. The research focused on what leaders do; this was concerned with the content of managerial activities, roles, and responsibilities (Daft,2007).

Behavioral leadership theories do not seek innate traits or abilities. On the contrary, they look at what leaders do. The basic idea of this theory is not to be born as a leader. Leadership is a process that can be learned later. Successful leadership can be defined and learned. In this current of thought, the behavior of the leader is taken into consideration regardless of the mental, social, and physical abilities of the leaders. One of the most important research points is what the leaders do in actual life. Here, the aim is to define the actions of the leaders in order to enable other people to follow a more successful path (Ekeland, 2005).

Behavioral theory to explain the work can be emphasized as follows.

2.1.3.1. Michigan Leadership Studies

At the University of Michigan, the leading social sciences research center, studies began in the 1950s. A different approach was adopted by comparing the behavior of the effective and ineffective leader. The aim of this study was to identify the factors that increase the satisfaction levels of the group members and the productivity of the group. The effectiveness of the leader was determined by the efficiency of its subgroups. Two different leadership styles emerged in line with the work. Employee-centered leader, the job-centered leader (Johns & Moser, 2001);

A job centered leader is a leader who controls how much previous work-oriented methods are applied by group members, who uses the authority he has gained from the position and applies a large amount of punishment. Job-centered leadership conducts efficiency, cost reduction and scheduling activities.

Employee-centered leader for the person is based on transferring his / her powers and responsibilities. Such leaders change working conditions to increase the satisfaction of group members, focus on the personal development of group members and act closely on the development of group members (Johns & Moser 2001).

2.1.3.2. Ohio State University Studies

Starting in the 1945s, an experimental study was conducted at Ohio State University using a 150-item questionnaire to assess the leader's effective behavior. The study is directed to subordinates This study particularly among military and civilian managers, leadership behaviors aimed to measure effectiveness in achieving the objectives of the team or organization (Yunker & Hunt, 1976).

Two critical interdependent leadership behavior was found by researchers. These independent leadership behaviors: "initiating structure" and "consideration" (Daft,2007);

Initiating Structure: In this form of behavior the leader is task-oriented, and the degree of focus is defined. The leader's behavior in the pursuit of achieving the goal includes behaviors that try to organize goals and business relationships. Examples of such leadership behaviors are planning, ensuring that employees work more, managing tasks. The leader is seen as the most important person in the group.

Consideration: What is important for the leader is to establish an atmosphere of sensitivity, respect for ideas and mutual trust in his work with his subordinates. Listens to the problems of the group members, appreciates them, and includes the members of the group in the decision-making process.

The two categories here are independent of each other. The leader can show both these behaviors at the same time, low and high. Leadership behaviors where integrators are effective can be drawn on two separate axes instead of continuity like one of the leading ones.

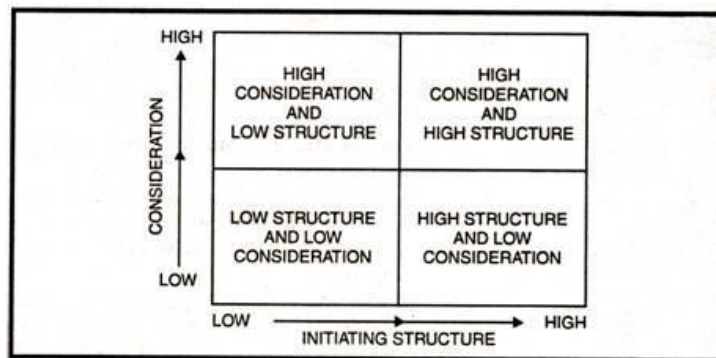


Figure 1. Four Functional Leadership Patterns based on Initiating Structure and Consideration Dimensions (Altok & Yılmaz 2014).

As a result, the findings of show us that effective leaders have a strong ability to work with others. They can easily create a structure in which they can demonstrate their Ohio State Leadership Studies activities and the teams they create are balanced and harmonious teams.

2.1.3.3. Management Theory Of Rensis Likert

In the 1960s, a survey developed by Rensis Likert and his colleagues at the University of Michigan conducted studies to identify executive styles in different teams. In addition, he conducted performance researches of different organizations. One of the aims of these studies was to draw attention to the leadership behaviors of high and low performance leaders. As a result of these studies, four different leadership styles were defined by Likert. (Kelsay,2010)

System 1 / Exploitive Authoritative: In this system, administrators are rarely able to participate in the decision-making center. Decisions are made at the top and transmitted to subordinates through a hierarchical chain. Subordinates work with threat and fear. The penalty method is also applied.

System 2 / Benevolent Authoritative: Decisions of high importance are made by the leader and less important decisions can be made by subordinates. No penalties or prizes will be used without a job. Communication is low.

System 3 / Consultative: Leaders provide a freer working space for subsystems than System 1 and System 2 leadership styles. The leader relies heavily on subordinates. Part of the decisions taken by the leader, subordinates can make technical decisions

System 4 / Participative: The leader feels a sense of full trust and shared responsibility at the disposal of employees. The decision-making process is equally distributed across all levels of the organization through open communication. Satisfaction and motivation are the highest level. (Canpolat ,2016)

2.1.3.4. Blake And Mouton's Managerial Grid Theory

After working at Ohio and Michigan universities, proving that leadership is not just one dimension, research on both type of task-centered and employee-centered leadership gained importance. Mouton and Blake developed the scale in which task-centered and employee-centered behaviors of leadership were measured (Simsek &Akgemici & Celik, 2003).

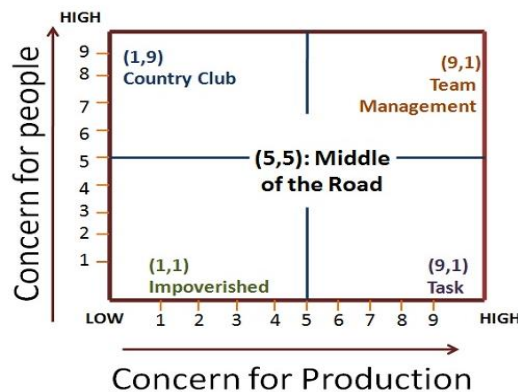


Figure 2. Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid. (Blake &Mouton, 1969)

The Managerial grid style varies according to human and production orientation. The model is simply created by assigning numbers from 1 to 9 of the x and y dimensions in a two-dimensional space. 1 is defined as low and 9 as high level. In this approach, the vertical axis is the human-oriented approach and the horizontal axis is the product / result-oriented approach. Accordingly, the areas represented by the approach can be grouped under 5 main groups (Blake & Mouton, 1969)

Impoverished Style (1.1): They are managers who have low level of concern for both people and production. The reasons that managers utilize this style is to preserve their position and to keep their heads out of inconvenience much obliged to their position. To be held accountable for any errors is the primary concern of such managers.

Country Club Style (1.9): It is critical for directors to keep a high level of concern for people and a low level of concern for production. What is accepted in this line of considering is to extend the execution by giving significance to the consolation of the workers.

Middle-of-The-Road Style (5.5) In this case, it is aimed to balance the company goals and employee needs. Equal to the production and spread of people of concern here is what level does not meet the production nor the people's wishes and satisfaction levels.

Produce or Perish Style (9.1) High levels of concern for production and low levels of concern for people are the most important factors in neglecting the needs of employees. Leaders who expect performance by providing only money to employee's pressure employees through rules and penalties to achieve company goals.

Team Style (9. 9): Both people and production are significantly concerned. Commitment among employees and the importance of teamwork are emphasized and the leader creates an environment for this. Employees feel part of the company.

2.1.3.5. Mc Gregor's X And Y Theory

The X and Y theory, also known as 'neo-Classical Management Theory', was developed in the 1960s because of Douglas McGregor's work. Douglas McGregor's Theories of X and Y have an important place in the history of the approach of the method. Theory X, which was put forward by McGregor, almost summarizes the classical management approach, while Y theory gives an idea about the essence of Neo-classical management approach. Managers 'and employees' attitudes towards Douglas McGregor's X-Y Theories can give an idea of their preferred management approach. Explain the tasks of management, responsibilities, and behavior of leaders. These two hypotheses portray two models of inspiration that are inverse to each other. In addition, the study explains how employees are motivated.

Douglas McGregor summarized two different evaluations for employees in X-Y Theories. While there are more negative evaluations about the employees in the X Theory, more positive evaluations are introduced in the Y Theory.

Theory X approach is that the manager is authoritarian. Accordingly, an authoritarian administrator exhibits the following behaviors (Tekin & Baş & Gökdemir;2016):

- Result-oriented management and management focused on project dates and completed works
- Angry and cold management exhibits, for example, can shout to employees.
- Demonstrates a demanding management, demands from employees.
- It displays a management that is not involved in projects or work itself.
- It exhibits one-way communication (it is usually commanding, and it does not matter what the employee says, his own words are important).
- He does not like to thank or praise.
- He does not care about employee welfare or morale.

Theory X connects this authoritarian ruler's behavior in this way to the employee perception below. So, if an administrator behaves in the above manner, he or she thinks the following way for its employees:

- Employees do not like their jobs
- Employees are not open to change
- Employees are not clear horizon cannot see the future
- Employees are not responsible, they are on the shoulders of the risk manager
- Employees do not want to be managed.

For the above reasons, the manager feels obliged to manage, strictly control, and constantly control the employees and exhibits the behavior in Theory X.

It can be said that the Y theory is derived from X. It is precisely aimed at finding the opposite of Theory X. In this sense, Theory Y can be reached by considering the opposite of everything in Theory X.

Instead of the authoritarian ruler in Theory X, the ruler in Theory Y may be called the “Enlightened Administrator. This manager's behavior can also be listed as follows:

- Giving direction with imagination and creativity
- Without narrow head
- Open to development and growth
- In favor of a friendly atmosphere
- Easy to accept and participate
- Adopts decentralized management of tasks and responsibilities

The main reason why this manager exhibits the above behaviors is that he / she has the following view for his / her employees:

- Employees have the will and determination to work
- Employees can make their way and make the right choices
- Staff can control themselves.
- Employees can take responsibility
- Employees have imagination and can adapt it to their work
- Employees have creative sides

2.1.4. Contingency Theories

The idea advocated by Contingency theory is that there is no single way of leadership and that leadership styles should be based on certain situations and variables.

To a certain degree contingency leadership theory are an expansion of the trait theory, within the sense that human characteristics are related to the circumstance in which the leader work out their authority.

The ideal contingency theories are that leaders can analyze their situation and adapt their behavior to improve leadership effectiveness. The main situational variables are the characteristics of the followers, the characteristics of the working environment and the following tasks and the external environment. (Zeithaml et al. 1988)

2.1.4.1. Fiedler's Contingency Theory

Fiedler's work is a comprehensive study to relate leadership style to organizational situation. The basic idea is to match the leader's style with the best situation for his success. In Fiedler's model, it is designed to enable leaders to identify both leadership style and organizational situation (Cruz & Nunes & Pinheiro,2011)

According to Fiedler, there are two types of leadership behavior. The first is the relationship-oriented leadership behavior that attaches importance to the interpersonal relations 'and the second is the task-oriented leadership behavior that attaches importance to the task that individuals perform'.

Leaders who give importance to the tasks that individuals perform, give more importance to the work done. They lead the group members, give strict orders for the work to be done, and have little interest in the problems and needs of the group members. On the other hand, leaders who give importance to the personality of the managed individuals give more importance to the relations between individuals. These leaders concentrate more on the harmony and friendship between the group members. According to Fiedler, effective leadership depends on the following situational factors:(Fiedler, 1967)

Leader-Member Relationship; This relationship refers to the degree of trust and loyalty of group members towards the leader. When subordinates believe, regard, and have certainty within the leader, leader-member relations are considered great. As a result of mutual trust, a warm relationship emerges between the group members and the leader and this provides a favorable environment for leadership.

Task structure: Some tasks depend on very precise methods, while others depend entirely on initiative. Jobs with a high degree are routine and well-defined jobs, such as assembly line workers. Creative, undefined tasks, such as strategic planning, have a low degree of task structure. The situations considered in favor of the leader are those in which the task structure is high.

Position power: This variable is the degree to which the leader's position forces the group members to accept orders. The leader has a formal organizational position in the areas of rewarding, punishing, promotion and termination, and has a significant position power. A leader in the organization may have authority. If more, there is a positive environment for leadership.

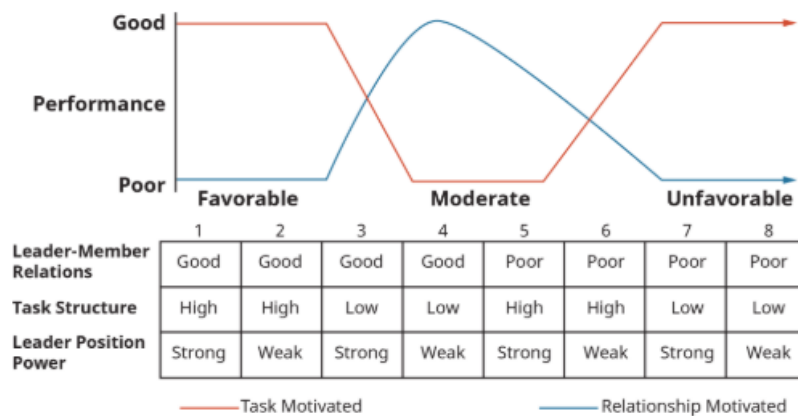


Figure 3. Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leader-Situation Matches (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974)

According to Fiedler, the most valid leadership behavior depends on the situation. Fiedler's contingency theory does not suggest the existence of a valid form of leadership, always and everywhere. Instead, it explains leadership styles that vary according to specific circumstances. Fiedler stressed that, as the best leadership style, there was no single method shown. Thus, the variability of the situation forms the basis of the contingency theory.

2.1.4.2. Hersey-Blanchard Leadership Theory

Dr. Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard developed state theory as a result of their work in 1977. The two most important actors in leadership are leadership styles and the maturity level of followers. Maturity refers to the process of change in the awareness, interest, experience, and motivation factors of group members over time. (Akgemciv, 2011)

As other contingency theories, Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory demonstrate moreover attests that effective leaders do not utilize as it were one style of leadership. Leadership styles vary depending on the situation. The situations are explained by the maturity of the followers and the details of the task. The level of success and effectiveness of leadership is the most important factor affecting the maturity status of subordinates. There are four maturity levels to define the relationship between leadership styles and maturity levels. (Yukl, 2010).

I. Telling / Directing (S1): At this level, where the group members are not motivated to perform their duties, the leader transmits all information to the group members on how to perform the task. The decision-making body is only a leader.

II. Selling / Coaching (S2): The ideas of motivated group members are listened to by the leader. The leader motivates the group members to perform their duties. The decision-making body is only a leader.

III. Participating / Consulting (S3): Group members who can perform the task are effective in the decision-making process. The leader's area of interest is the motivation of employees rather than duty.

IV. Delegating / Observing (S4): Group members who are not involved in the decision-making process are highly trusted by the leader. The tasks of the group members are observed by the leader.

2.1.4.3. Path-Goal Theory

Another contingency approach, Path-Goal theory, was developed in the 1970s by Robert J. House who is an expert in leadership in various cultures, and his friend Terence R. Mitchell. In this theory, it is the leader's most important responsibility to increase the motivation of group members to achieve organizational and personal goals. Leaders can improve the outcomes of their organizations by directing group members to goals and influencing by path clarification. (House R,1975)

It is called Path clarification when the leader works with team members in the process of displaying and identifying behaviors that will lead to organization rewards and business success. The task of the leader is to increase personal gain to the subordinates for the target achievement and to provide clear and easy travel paths to the roads leading to this gain.

The group members and the situation determine the right leadership style. Only the leadership style that motivates and satisfies employees or group members is the right one. The tasks of the leader include facilitating, coaching, and rewarding the business processes of its employees. Path-Goal Theory identifies four leadership styles (House R,1975):

1: Directive leadership: A leader is a guide who knows what should be done and how the tasks should be done. It is a guide that tells group members what is expected of them about the processes and how they can best fulfill their tasks. Group members are closely supervised by the leader.

2: Supportive leadership: This kind of leaders attaches importance to the group members' aspirations and tries to establish a friendly atmosphere. He does little things to make the job more enjoyable, which increases motivation among group members.

3: Achievement-oriented leadership: Difficult goals are set by the leader. The highest level of employee performance is expected by the leader. Some of the beliefs of a leader who is highly confident in the talents of their employees are the responsibility of the group members and their efforts. The leader constantly makes improvements to achieve higher performance.

4: Participative leadership: The leader, who is concerned about the situation of the group members, takes a friendly approach. The leaders involve the group members in the process of getting ideas and create an open environment for discussion.

2.1.4.4. Vroom-Yetton-Jago Model Of Leadership

This approach was developed by Victor Vroom and Philip Yetton. This approach focuses on the decision-making process of the leaders and examines the leadership behaviors arising from the relationships between the leaders and their followers.

The Vroom-Jago model was widely applied; this tells the leader to fully correct the amount of participation of the addicts to use in making a decision. This model explains how much subordinate a say in should have sharing decisions, depending on the characteristics of the situation; In other words, decisions made by only one person are not always the best in all cases. The model has three main components: the lead style of participation, a set of questions to analyze a decision situation, and a set of decision rules. The first thing to be explained here in detail is that there is no leadership style that is successful in every situation. The second component is that this situation should be determined. The third component is the determination of the rules that explain which situation is most suitable in which strategy. (Vroom & Yetton, 1973)

When making a decision, a leader can choose between five different levels of participation.

1. Autocratic 1 (A 1); evaluates his / her own information while making a decision and takes the decision without consulting the followers.

2. Autocratic 2 (AII); it receives information from the followers, but still makes the decision.

3. Consultative 1(CI); shares each issue with its followers one by one and it receives followers' ideas and suggestions one by one but makes the final decision again.

4. Consultative (CII); The group meets with its followers as a group and shares the problem, receives their opinions and suggestions, and keeps the final decision-making authority.

5. Group 1 (GI); share problems with their followers, get their ideas and solve the problems with common decisions.

The Vroom-Yetton-Jago model suggests that problems can be analyzed with 7 contingency questions. With the yes or no answer given to these questions, the leader can choose one of the five decision behaviors he can choose. In order to make a decision, he / she should answer the following 7 questions according to the model.

1. Is quality needed?
2. Do I have enough information to make a quality decision?
3. Is the problem structured?
4. Will the implementation of the decisions be accepted by subordinates?
5. Will my subordinates accept the logical reasons for making decisions alone?
6. Will the subordinates share the organizational goals to be determined in solving this problem?
7. Is there a conflict between subordinates in implementing the decisions taken?

The leader follows the decision tree he has created with yes and no answers until he reaches the result. At the end of the branches, what the leader will do is determined.

2.1.4.5. Leader Member Exchange Theory

The Leader-Member Interaction Theory emerged as a response to the Average Leadership Style, which is the dominant view of the time, which treats leader behavior as equally consistent with all members. The theories that are supposed to behave in the same way to the leader or everyone who works together are called Contingency Theories. However, it was observed that the leader did not treat the members in the same way. The purpose of developing this theory is to explain the dynamic relation between leader and member. The effects of the leader and the member on the behavioral response such as performance and emotional responses such as satisfaction, loyalty and quiver were examined in the existing relationships. The theory explains how a leader has developed different relationships with different members over time. (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

The main research area of the LMX theory is the business-related attitudes and behaviors of the members, the way their leaders behave towards the members, and how the members perceive this behavior. According to the LMX theory, situations such as competence of team members, personality traits, past shares and personality traits can develop special relationships between leaders and subordinates.

According to Kang and Stewart , the theory focuses on the degree of emotional support and exchange of valuable resources between leaders and members, and therefore the main focus of the LMX Theory is; It is to make the relationship a much higher quality relationship by enabling high performance (Kang & Stewart 2007).

This theory attempts to explain how leaders influence members or followers through social change. In the theory of LMX, it is also emphasized how the leaders distribute their limited material and spiritual resources in line with their differentiated relations with their subordinates. (Graen & Scandura, 1987).

In the low-quality leader-member relationship, the member only performs the tasks related to the job and there is no more responsibility. In return for this situation, leaders provide standard benefits for their members, such as salary only. On the contrary, in high-quality leader-member relationships, members take responsibilities outside of their standard duties. Leaders, on the other hand, provide their employees with the most favorable conditions for fulfilling their duties and offer more benefits than wages. (Yukl, 2010).

There are two groups, in-group, and out group, depending on the interaction level of the leader. The in-group which the leader interacts at a high level is the in- group. Conversely, the low-level interaction group constitutes the out group. According to Rofcanin and Mehtap, leaders have limited time and energy to have an equal and quality relationship with each member. Therefore, in return for loyalty, trust, support, and similar behavior from its leader members, it uses these resources only for certain members in the “internal group”. There is more social distance between other members and therefore these members are in the “external group” social status. (Rofcanin & Mehtap ,2010)

Leader expects efficiency from in-group members with whom he developed bilateral relations more than out-group. The factors in determining the in-group members are their qualifications, how reliable they are and what they want to take more responsibility in the group. As a result of this expectation, the leader gives the member more responsibility, is involved in the decision-making process and shares more information. Thus, these members gain privileges such as bonus, early promotion, and more suitable working conditions. In order to maintain this relationship, individuals must meet the leader's expectations. (Can & Azizoğlu & Aydın, 2015)

In contrast, out-group members are audited within the framework of employment contracts. The powers of the members are justified by the contracts. The leader will provide support, assessment and assistance mandated by the task, but will not go beyond these limits. In contrast, group members do the work they need to do within the contract and do not try to do more than that. The leader establishes a formal command relationship with the out-group members, does not allocate as much time to them as internal group members, does not trust them and does not grant privileges. (Lunenburg F, 2010)

2.1.4.5.1. Leader-Member Interaction Process In Organizations

Role theory deals with the philosophy of “People act in different and predictable ways depending on their personal identity and location”. Accordingly, it is assumed that the roles in the organizations are related to the existing social positions. One of the elements of the Role-Playing theory is the structure and processes of the resulting relationship between the leader and the member that the LMX theory tries to explain. According to this theory, the process of interaction between the leader and the member can be defined under three headings (Graen and Scandura, 1987).

Role taking; At this stage, the leader undergoes a series of tests, determines the abilities of the members, and tries to guess the members' limits. The member, on the other hand, determines the benefits it can provide from the leader. In this process, the position given by the employee or the member leader determines the position of being in the internal or external group according to the degree of acceptance. Up to this point, the interaction

between the leader and the member; it is based on economic exchanges and the member is paid a salary in return for the services he or she shows, as stated in the contract.

Role making; It is the second phase and it is determined in which phase the relationship between the leader and the member will remain. In various situations, the leader and the member determine how they will treat each other, and a low or high level of relationship occurs.

Role routinization: It is the third and final stage. The behavior of the leader and the member is largely compatible. There is a mutually effective cooperation. The effective level of bilateral relations is now more about being a team player than on acquaintance. Trust, loyalty, and respect develop between the leader and the member. In short, thanks to the experience gained in the first two stages, the behavior between the leader and the member acquires a routine and a relationship of the groove is revealed.

2.1.4.5.2. Strong And Weaknesses Of The Leader-Member Interaction Theory

In this theory, which examines the interaction between the leader and the member, there are strengths and weaknesses as in many theories.

One of the strengths of LMX theory is its descriptive aspect. This allows the leader to determine who is less and more in the group. Most of the time, this emergence situation is not welcomed by the organization, but it provides a fair distribution of resources by the leader.

Another strength of LMX theory proves that the relationship between leader and member is related to positive individual and organizational output variables. The best examples of these variables are performance, career development and job satisfaction.

In addition to these strengths, there are also criticisms of the theory. How to establish high-quality relationships, how to get into such relationships, ways to build trust, respect and responsibility, and what rules are not clear are the shortcomings of the theory. On the other hand, the fact that the leader does not treat members equally contradicts with his understanding of justice. In theory, group members are divided into two as internal and external group members. Special attention of the inner group is considered as a discrimination to the other group.

2.1.5. Modern Theories In Leadership

Many theories have been put forward to explain leadership effectiveness. Since the late 1970s, two of the most prominent leadership theories have been the Transactional Leadership Theories and Transformational Leadership theories.

2.1.5.1. Transactional Leadership Theories

Transactional leadership is defined as the “transaction” between the leader and his followers. The basic idea of the theory is that the motivation of group members is reward and punishment. The main purpose of the group members is to achieve the award given by the leader. While awards are fully notified to subordinates, no information is given about penalties.

Leaders who are not open to new approaches inform the group members of their role and insist that their duties be fulfilled through existing practices. The leader who thinks that the current situation is enough to increase the effectiveness of the organization ignores the need to develop ideas. While the leader focuses on personal motivation, the common interests of the team and the organization can be ignored. (Samanta & Lamprakis, 2018).

Transactional Leadership was theoretically shaped with three basic characteristics:

a) Contingent Reward: It is an approach in which group members accept exchange for performance. The leader punishes the group members who he / she considers to be unsuccessful and the successful ones are rewarded. The degree of good or bad performance of the group members affects the level of relationship with the leaders.

b) Management by exception-active presumes: The leader who ensures that the conditions are most suitable for the group members to reach their goals closely follows the business and has full control. The leader is in control and takes preventive actions before mistakes occur.

c) Management by exception-passive presumes: In this approach the leader acts when the group members do not meet the standards to fulfill their duties. In other words, the leader intervenes when the goals are not reached, and the problems become serious.

2.1.5.2. Transformational Leadership Theories

Transformational leadership is one of the personal characteristics of it is more concerned with what the leaders do or achieve, rather than their reactions. Transformational leadership is to stimulate the organizational structure by initiating a transformation process in accordance with the requirements of the changing environmental conditions in the organization; it can be expressed as an activity of adopting the mission and goals of the organization by affecting the beliefs, attitudes and values of the audience with the personality traits that awaken respectability, trust and courage. (Güney & Salih ,2007)

As a result of the studies conducted by Burns and Bass, interactive leadership, which includes more traditional methods and generally includes the activities of managers, and transformational leadership phenomena that take into consideration the values, beliefs and needs of the audience, are often used to express leadership.

Transformational leaders, on the other hand, behave more than the effort of satisfying the needs of subordinates by giving awards, and direct the subordinates towards success and growth by giving importance to the understanding of the group and organization and increasing the confidence.

Transformational leadership brings organizations from their present to the future; it creates the dreams they want to achieve, and creates a willingness to change within employees; It creates new culture and strategies by mobilizing energy resources (Odumeru,2013)

Dimensions of transformational leadership; Charisma, Inspirational leadership, Intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration (House ,1975).

Charisma: In the literature, charisma dimension has been used in charismatic leadership, idealized effect, or charisma forms. According to House, the charismatic leader; high self-confidence and the ability to influence others have the ability to adopt their own beliefs to their viewers.

Inspirational leadership: The meaning of this dimension; It is an attractive, reassuring, and diligent vision formulation for the future. This vision should be raised by the leader by understanding the ideas of the followers.

Individualized consideration: The dimension of interest at the individual level includes a set of activities and behaviors that cry to improve employee performance. Leaders guide their subordinates to achieve their duties and support their subordinates within the circumstances. These leaders consider the individual differences and aspirations of each of their followers, providing guidance and coaching and appropriate advice. The leader does this without giving the impression that he is following his followers.

Intellectual stimulation: As an intellectual stimulus, the leader in the mental incentive dimension in the literature encourages viewers and new ways of doing things by questioning old assumptions, traditions, and beliefs. New approaches and different experiences of the audience are supported; their different ideas from the leader's ideas are also not criticized and new methods and analyzes are encouraged and encouraged.

2.2. CULTURE

As Schein points out, a concept of culture with a multicolored past also has an awfully long past. Although much work has been done, there is no complete consensus on the definition of culture in the literature. Since the concept of culture, which emerged about two hundred years ago, has a complex structure, it is difficult to make a single definition of it.

In 1871, Tylor made one of the earliest known definitions of culture: "Culture is a complex whole consisting of knowledge, belief, art, morality, law, tradition, and habits of members of a society. Hofstede, on the other hand, defines culture as values, beliefs and assumptions that are learned at a young age and which distinguish the members of a group from others. (Schein,1985)

Looking at the word meaning, the word "Culture" originates from the verb "Cultura" or "Colere" in Latin. This verb in classical Latin means "to grow up". The word "Culture" was used in the same meaning in French until the 18th century, and then the word was transcribed from here and it was used as "Cultur" in a German language dictionary dated 1793. The concept of culture began to be used as the value created by human mental capacity in German at the end of the 18th century. (Güvenç & Eroğlu, 2007).

Culture has recognition on faces created by different scientists at different times. Culture is still a concept that shows change and development. In general, a social institution can be thought of as a pattern of development reflected in knowledge, ideology, and daily rituals. This routine affects the social development and interaction of the social group concerned. In the process of defining similar behavior patterns of a group, culture is used as a tool to question the differences in lifestyles of human groups. (Fairholm,1994)

Culture also connects social values that consider common values and ways to treat people with whom we do not share the same culture. Culture is one of the most important tools for creating new organizations to solve the problems that may occur.

We can look at the culture from two different viewers. First, Culture defines people and institutions at the beginning. It then gives direction to daily life and forms a system of established beliefs. Resident beliefs consist of both internal and external orientation beliefs.

It is the level of external guidance beliefs that relate to how a social organization or employees relate to wider communities for competition and collaboration. Internal beliefs are about the internal management and leadership of the organization. It forms the basis of the mutual ties between the members. (Fairholm,1994)

The second aspect of culture is more tactical. This is about the daily routine of an organization. The system that defines the specific routine actions we perform daily is defined by culture. Since each s shared in the group is accepted as common, the environment in which the members of the group can trust each other is provided by the culture. At this level, we see culture as a way of dealing with rules and emotions that guide daily actions. In other words, culture forms the basis of regular interaction between group members. (Hofstede 1991)

Geert Hofstede conducted one of the deepest studies on culture. Hofstede (1991), defined culture as “The collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another”. According to this definition, the existence of a collective situation shared by people who share a common past and live together is the reason for the emergence of culture. In addition, it is stated that culture is not inherited and is a learned situation. Culture is learned from the sharing of individuals living together. (Hofstede 1991)

Hofstede talks about the three levels of “mental program” that he uses in the definition of culture and creates a pyramid to explain it. The layers that make up this pyramid are the universal level from the bottom to the top, the collective level, and the individual level. (Hofstede, 1984a, s. 15)

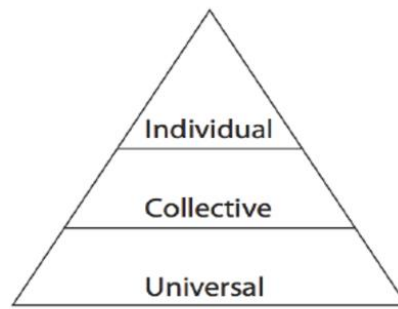


Figure 4. Hofstede's pyramid of mental programming (Hofstede,2001)

Although the boundary between these three layers cannot be drawn exactly by anthropologists, culture is in the Collective level.

The first level is the Universal Level, refers to the qualities that all people have. People's behaviors such as laughing and crying, their need to be in solidarity with others, or all their aggressive behavior are indicated at this level.

The second level is the Collective level, contains the culture element. It is common among people belonging to a group or category. The mental programs of beliefs that belong to a group differ from those of the people who make up the other group. In this layer, the forms of activities such as language spoken by individuals, respect for each other, physical distance with other individuals, eating and drinking are also found at this level.

The individual level is third part, is a completely ambiguous part of the mental program that is not the same as any other person. The idea advocated here is words with different mental programming, even if they are identical twins of two people. The personal character of the individual is the main reason for different interpersonal behaviors within the same social culture.

Hofstede tried to explain how people from different cultures behave in his works in line with these definitions. In the study he started with IBM, an international organization in 1967-1968, he defined national culture in four different categories in the following years. In his later works, the definition of culture expressed in five different dimensions.

2.2.1. Components Of Culture

The difference of lifestyles in societies is the main reason for the differences between cultures. These differences are because the cultural dimensions are not similar.

While Hofstede tries to define the culture of a group, various cultural indicators are used. These indicators, including symbols, heroes, rituals, and values, are present in every culture. Ritual, symbol, and hero layers are formed from the social experiences of the individual. The reason why this structure is likened to the layers of onions stems from the fact that unwritten rules in society affect culture in different dimensions. (Hofstede 1991).

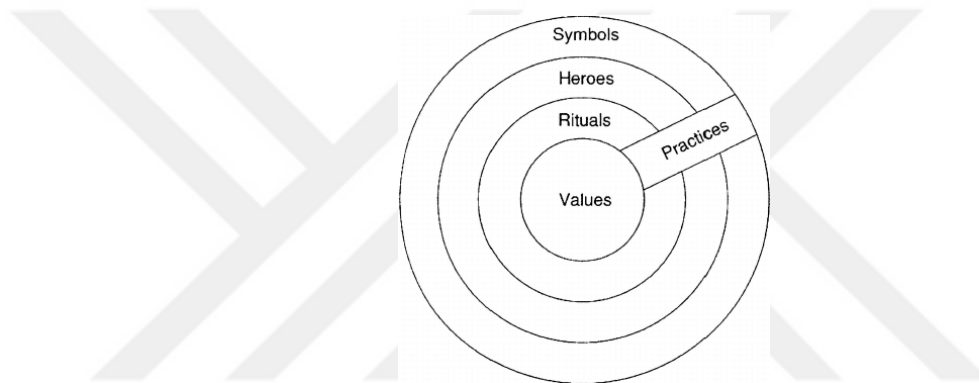


Figure 5.Hofstede's Four Levels of Culture (Hofstede,1991)

The Onion Model has symbols on the outermost side of the diagram. In this onion model, where values constitute the deepest center of culture, symbols constitute the most superficial area of the culture layer. Rituals and heroes are in the middle layer. (Hofstede, 1991).

Symbols: words, gestures, pictures, clothes, such as concrete elements that constitute the culture. These symbols have a special meaning for people who share the same culture. In addition to clothing styles, hair styles, flags and brands, and status indicators, words in a specific language or jargon also belong to this category. New symbols can easily be developed within cultures, and the disappearance of old symbols can easily occur. Symbols belonging to a cultural group can be copied by another group.

Heroes: The heroes are found in the second outer layer. Heroes are especially important for people who share a certain culture. It also creates a role model for a group of prominent heroes. The main reason for this is that living, dead or imagined heroes have the same cultural values as the society.

Rituals: There are also rituals in an inner step in the diagram. Collective activities form rituals. Various activities such as congratulations of the members of the cultural group, religious and other social ceremonies are also included in the rituals. Also, the forms of greeting and respect for other people are examples of rituals. In order to protect the social structure of a society, rituals are preserved and transferred to the next generation.

This symbol ritual and heroes are categories that are easily perceived by individuals in the community. According to this model, the core of culture is good, bad, ugly, normal-abnormal, rational-irrational practices are generally based on the values of the behavior patterns of an unconscious individual.

Values: Values are central to the stratified structure of Hofstede. Culture includes values, and the values system forms the heart of the concept called culture.

The term "practices" was used by Hofstede to grasp the symbols, heroes and rituals. Practices are seen by someone who observes from the outside. However, the cultural meanings of the practices cannot be observed from the outside and can only be interpreted by individuals in the culture. (Hofstede, 2001, s. 11):

2.2.2. Hofstede's Framework

In many studies, various dimensions of national cultures have been tried to be determined. These cultural dimensions are effective in clarifying the ways in which countries are similar and different from each other in terms of their values. Social cultural dimensions seem to be important in terms of understanding the organizational values of the firms in that society, since cultures are a shared values system. Among the various studies on intercultural differences, similarities, their effect on human behavior and their reflection on businesses, the most mentioned in the literature is that of Dutch scientist Geert Hofstede.

Hofstede's classification is the most used classification when examining the cultural characteristics of societies. Between 1967 and 1973, Hofstede did this work on IBM employees in more than 70 countries. Hofstede argues that culture has five dimensions in its work to identify intercultural differences: 1. Individualism-Collectivism, 2. Masculinity-Femininity, 3. Power Distance, 4. Avoidance of Uncertainty and 5. Long-Short Term (Hofstede, 1983, 1984, 2001).

2.2.2.1. Individualism- Collectivism

The most issue tended to by this measurement is the degree of commitment that a society keeps up among its individuals. It is about whether people's own images are defined as "I" or "we". Hofstede also states that people keep their own clusters (in-group) apart, that relatives, clans and organizations whose activities are considered as "we" while others are accepted as "them" and that the commitment at the collectivist level is expressed as us. (Hofstede, 1991).

Hofstede's "individualism and collectivism" dimension is related to the relations between individuals and communities within the society. Humans are living things in communities. However, the tendency to live collectively differs among communities. (Hofstede, 1984).

According to Hofstede, the level of national wealth and prosperity is the source of individualism behavior. He also argued that there is a connection with the political systems and individualism levels of countries. He stressed that one of the reasons for the existence of the capitalist system is individualism.

Hofstede suggests that the tendency towards individualism will be different depending on the countries' locations. He emphasized that in countries close to the equator, instead of modern industrial societies, it will remain as an agricultural society, large families with a high number of children and small organizations dominating the job, and in cold countries, the opposite will happen. In cultures with high individualism, people think of themselves and their families first. For them, other people are in the second plan.

In collectivist societies, people belong to faithfully connected 'groups'. (Hofstede, 1984). In Hofstede's researches, the degree of tendency of individualistic feature is different according to the task and title. While the individualist tendency is less common in the unqualified working class, the degree of this tendency increases as we go up to classes such as engineers and managers. (Hofstede, 2001).

Table 1: Main Differences Between Individualist and Collectivist Cultures (Hofstede, 1980)

Collectivist	Individualist
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individuals are born in society, large families or clans that protect themselves in return for loyalty. • “We” consciousness is dominant. • The concept of identity is shaped within the social system. <p>Individuals are emotionally dependent on organizations or institutions.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relations with organizations gain a moral dimension. • Belonging to organizations is important. Organization membership is the goal. • Private life can be violated by the organization or clan in which the individual belongs. • Specialization, order, tasks, and security are provided by the organization or clan. • Friendships are predetermined within the framework of social relations. Prestige requirement prevails in these relations. • Reliable to group decisions. • Value standards are different within and outside the group (Particularism) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Everyone in society only bears responsibility for himself or his nuclear family • - "I" consciousness is dominant. • The concept of identity is individual. • Individuals are emotionally independent from organizations or institutions. • Relations with organizations are based on interest. • Individual initiative and success are important. Leadership is the goal. • Everyone has the right to think privately and individually • There is autonomy, diversity, satisfaction, and individual financial security in the system. • Special friendships are needed. • Reliable for individual decisions. • Value standards are valid everywhere. (Universalism)

2.2.2.2. Masculinity- Femininity

This dimension is related to the distribution of gender roles in society. All social role distributions are more or less voluntary, and a task typically seen for men or women may vary from one community to another. Some societies allow both men and women to play many different roles. What men and women should do is sharply separated by others? In the case of such a sharp distinction, role distribution is generally expected to assume service-oriented and compassionate roles in response to men's more assertive and dominant roles. This distinction between societies led to the emergence of the culture dimension "Masculinity-Femininity" as another cultural dimension. According to Hofstede, male cultures maximize the social role separation between genders, while female cultures distinguish relatively less social role between genders (Hofstede, 1983).

In masculine culture, values such as success, money, assertiveness, and competition are strong. The reason why this cultural dimension is called masculinity is that these values are attributed to the male role and are called as durable. In feminine cultures, values such as personal relationships, attention to others, quality of life and service are evident. Hofstede these values because they are part of the role of women called sensitive values. A high score in this dimension (Masculine) indicates that the society will be guided by competition, success and success, and the value system that starts at school continues throughout organizational life. The low score on the dimension (Feminine) means that the dominant values in society give importance to others and quality of life. For a feminine society, quality of life is a sign of success.

The masculine-feminine culture dimension is also effective in business life. First of all, while male culture members live to work, the female cultures are tried to live. In male cultures, the meaning of the job is to earn more money, while in the female culture, relations and working conditions come to the fore. While the ideal manager in male culture is an "hero" who is ambitious, determined, and sociable, the female culture is a "normal person" who can create an environment of reconciliation and focus on human relations. Building a career for female cultures is optional for both sexes. In male cultures, this is an imperative for men and optional for women. In terms of business areas, female cultures will provide more success in the service sector and male cultures in the production sector. (Hofstede, 2001)

2.2.2.3. Power Distance

PDI is defined as “the degree of acceptance and desire of individuals in the society for the unequal distribution of power” (Hofstede, 1980, p. 45). In this dimension, it is argued that not all individuals in the society are equal. It also states that social culture does not exhibit an attitude towards these inequalities in society.

The first place where we can see the difference in PDI in society is the family that we define as the smallest part of the society. In societies with low PDI, parents support their children to be able to move from a young age. In societies with high PDI, loyalty, love, and respect are the highest virtues for family elders. These feelings that occur in the family affect teacher-student at school and manager-employee relations in the future. Employees become overly obedient to their managers, which triggers managers to show the " father " profile. High status differences and hierarchy are met normally. (Hofstede, 1984).

Hofstede (1984); He stated that people with low education level and low status profession had higher PDI. Another issue that Hofstede advocates is that the differences in PDI are due to the geographical location of the country, the difference in the level of welfare and the density of the population. In cold climates close to the poles, societies will have to develop their technologies to fight the difficult conditions of nature. With the developing technology, the education level and welfare level of the societies increase. As a result, increased income will be distributed evenly, and the PDI will be low. The opposite of this situation occurs in regions close to the equator. Due to the favorable conditions of nature, there will be no need for technology and higher education levels, therefore, the development of the national welfare level will not be possible. As a result, the country's income will be collected in a certain part of the country, which will lead to a high level of PDI. (Hofstede, 1984).

2.2.2.4. Avoiding Uncertainty

The uncertainty avoidance dimension is related to the way a society handles the fact that the future can never be known: should we try to control the future, or should we allow it to happen? This uncertainty arouses concern, and different cultures have learned to address it in different ways. Cultures that avoid high levels of uncertainty have organizations that seek to ensure security and avoid risk. Situations where uncertainty exceeds normal levels cause anxiety. Technology, law, and religious tools are the three elements that enable people to fight uncertainty. Human developed technology against the uncertainties of nature. The law is a weapon used by people for uncertainties. On the other hand, religion is an acceptance against uncertainties that people cannot protect themselves. An example that can be given to this situation is the acceptance of people by believing in life after death and against uncertainties for death. Different societies' attitudes towards uncertainties are also different. (Hofstede, 1984).

In the new democracies that were established after the First World War, it is an idea advocated by Hofstede that avoiding uncertainty is higher than in old democracies. Foundations such as Republic of Turkey is a country thrown after the first world war, UAI is high compared to countries such as Britain, Belgium.

In some cultures, people admit that they cannot predict future situations, so they tend to avoid ambiguous situations. In societies where uncertainty is high, people seek stability. Society is afraid of situations that are uncertain and have no place in written rules. Such societies secure themselves by strict adherence to the authority hierarchy and written rules. In addition, differentiation and changes in thoughts are not tolerated in such societies.

UAI affects society's tendency to do business. In the culture where the level of UAI is low, the degree of ignoring uncertainties is high. Flexibility is preferred and personal choice and decision making are at the forefront. In these cultures, initiative is at the forefront, but teamwork is rewarded. In societies where uncertainty is high, rules and procedures are important. Obedience of employees is expected and rewarded, and vice versa. (Güney, 2008,).

2.2.2.5. Long-Short Term Orientation

Hofstede added the “Long-Short Term Orientation” dimension as the fifth dimension in addition to the four dimensions used when explaining culture, as a scale developed by Michael Haris Bond in 1985 was applied in twenty-three countries (Hofstede, 2001).

In this study, Michael Bond translated the Chinese Value Survey, which he developed according to Eastern culture, into different languages and applied it in twenty three countries, and as a result of his study, three of the cultural values developed by Hofstede were one-to-one overlapping. He found that there was another dimension unlike the “avoidance” dimension. Hofstede, which bases its features on the teachings of Eastern tradition Confucius, named this dimension the “Long-Short Term Orientation” and named it the fifth dimension it used to define culture (Hofstede, 1991).

Dimension of a society is more focused on the efforts of the present or future or the past (Minkov & Hofstede, 2011). According to Hofstede, long and short-term adjustment is about dealing with the problems of choice between virtue and reality in life and respecting and obedience to elders is important in long-term harmonized societies. (Hofstede, 1991).

As for what should be understood from the long-short term orientation dimension, when it comes to long-term orientation; values for the future, for investment and for survival are understood. When it comes to short term orientation; Past and present values such as fulfillment of social responsibilities, respect for tradition are understood. (Hofstede, 1991)

2.2.3. High And Low Context Cultures

Context is the stimulating factors surrounding a communication event (Morden 1999). Context expresses the integrity, condition, and situation of communication. Experience, such as knowledge, behaviour, emphasis, and facial expressions, expresses the environment and conditions surrounding the message (Dozier & Husted, & McMahon, 1998). This model is particularly useful for understanding how people in a culture relate to others in terms of social ties, responsibility, commitment, social cohesion, and communication.

Hall (1976) 's theory focuses on interpersonal communication and cultural differences in personal space and time. The first dimension is context, and Hall divides it into low-context and high-context cultures.

The way to understand cultural orientations is to define a culture as low or high context. In high and low context cultures, cultural issues have taken root in the past. In low context cultures, communication is strange and open, whereas in the high context, the opposite is closed communication and fill with messages. In a high context, individuals rely on their culture to understand each other.

High context cultures are very stable, unified, adherent, and slowly changing. In a high-context culture, people tend to rely on their history, situations, relationships, and many other information, including religion, to make sense of an event. Hall (1976)

Low-context cultures are cultures in which communication is direct and strict, based on feelings and real intentions. Image and body language are rarely used. In these cultures, meanings are clearly stated, meaningful sentences that one can understand from one's past or experience are not used, and meanings are clearly expressed through language. People who communicate often expect clarification when something remains unclear. In high-context cultures, on the other hand, there are social signs surrounding what is to be conveyed. Here, personal dignity, close human relations and mutual trust are more important than written contracts. (Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988).

In a high context culture, the inner meaning is often embedded in the depth of knowledge, so not everything is clearly stated in writing or verbally. The listener is expected to understand information that has not been said or implied by making use of his experience or historical knowledge. (Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988).

Turkey and France are both mentioned as high context cultures.

2.2.4. The Concept Of Organizational Culture

Organizational culture is a field of research related to multiple disciplines, taking, and using concepts, perspectives, models, and methods from different disciplines. There are many diagnoses in organizational culture research based on sociology.

As in every social group, there is a sense of culture in organizations. The relationships and communication networks, human relations, business idea sharing, common values and beliefs established by groups and individuals in an organizational structure constitute the organizational culture. Organizational culture is a guide that sheds light on the new people's functioning in the organization, business relations, working rules, attitudes towards other employees and their behaviours during the working period. (Seymen & Bolat 2002).

The most widely accepted definition of organizational culture belongs to Mintzberg and is as follows.’’ Every organization has a culture that describes how it does things. What is of interest here is a more specific culture, that is, a rich and deeply established system of values and beliefs that separates an organization from others. It can be said that the group created the situation and climate to create a kind of’’ chemistry ‘. A deeply embedded system of values and beliefs is an ideology and a concrete part of the organization. This ideology is shared by members of the organization and used to separate the organization from others. Ideology connects employees to the organization and improves mission awareness. (Can, Azizođlu, Aydın, 2015)

Schein's definition of culture also emphasized assumptions, beliefs and values adopted by members of the organization. Schein's definition deviates from two basic functions of culture. These are: to ensure the integration of the group in the inner environment and the harmony of the outer environment. The formation of culture is an effort by the group towards stereotyping and integration. Culture is the collective learning of a group. However, it is not easy to explain the content of this learning. At this point, there are two main problems each group faces. The first is adaptation to the external environment to survive and grow, and the second is internal integration to carry out and adapt to daily tasks. Accordingly, the definition of organizational culture made by Schein in 1992 is as follows (Schein,1992);

” Culture is a pattern of common basic assumptions that a group learns as they solve their problems related to external harmony and internal integration, is established on a solid foundation and operates as well as proving its validity, and thus providing new members with correct ways of perceiving, thinking and feeling problems. ”

The structure formed by the management level in the organizational chart is called the formal organizational structure. This structure is established within the framework of certain rules. Management authority and authority are in the upper parts of the hierarchical structure. There is also an informal structure formation within the organization. Employees' relations with each other, communication processes, job demands, and expectations take their place within the organization as informal structure.

2.2.4.1. Basic Features Of Organizational Culture

Organizational culture shaped by the national culture includes both the national culture and the characteristics of different cultures through its members. The characteristics of organizational culture, which has a unique structure in the form of cultural synthesis, are shown below (Eren, 2008):

- Organization culture: It constitutes its strategic plans and vision within the framework of the thoughts and behaviors of the management staff. This vision, which affects all members in the development phase, is gained by the members in the process and applied by suggesting them.
- Organization culture: It is internalized and shared by all members as an output of organizational features.
- Organizational culture, which is verbal as in national culture; The core values that spread through effective communication networks emerge as beliefs, attitudes and behaviors.
- Organization culture: it has a systematic and repeating, transmitted structure.
- It constitutes the rules of the relations between the members and the external environment.

2.3. CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP

Today there is a greater need for effective international and intercultural communication and cooperation. The increasing number of internet users and the smooth circulation of products and capital among countries make the world more obligatory for cooperation and interaction.

Increased ties and globalization do not mean that cultural differences are diminishing. The number of barriers stemming from cultural differences is inversely proportional to the reduction of economic boundaries. The problems increase as the limits decrease. Some of the most important examples to be given here are one of the world's most famous Fast-food chains serving wine and salads on the menu in France, and the use of by-products to adapt to taboo in meat products in India. (House & Hangers & Javidan & Dorfman & Gupta,2004).

While globalization has many opportunities in the business world, it also brings together problems arising from cultural differences. There is an accepted fact in companies in the global market, which is to adapt to multicultural environments. The main task of leaders is to accept differences and to ensure that the differences are in harmony. Leader follower interaction, compliance is the most important key in preventing intercultural conflicts.

The shrinking of borders and the increasing interaction of organizations create many opportunities in the business world. In addition to these opportunities, the interaction with organizations in different parts of the world brings with it the difficulty of perceiving and accepting different cultural values.

Taking part in the global market is not just doing business in a location other than your current location. Being global also means adapting to the way you do business. The biggest task here is the leaders who influence and follow a lot of followers to get the job done.

What all experts in international trade need most is the flexibility. As a leader is accustomed to, it requires flexibility to meet quite different applications and values effectively. The flexibility of the leader also gives him the ability to be open to other ideas and opinions.

It is a difficult process for international managers to break away from the culture in which they grow up, receive education and work for years. One of the challenges is that one understands and accepts other practices, unlike their own personal experience. In addition to these challenges, a relaxed attitude towards meeting and accepting situations that are constantly and rapidly changing is among the features expected from the leader.

2.3.1. Relation Between Culture And Leadership

Differentiation between cultures also affects the way organizations work and their management styles. Opinions or reactions of people with different cultures about similar topics may differ. For this reason, especially multinational companies are aware that they cannot carry out different individual behaviours in a single management form arising from cultural differences (Sargut, 1994).

It is useful to look at the leadership model given by Zel (2001) to see how important the culture has had in the leadership process. According to Zel, all research models contain various variables that affect the leadership process. It is possible to summarize these variables in three headings: the characteristics of the leader, the characteristics of the environment (technology, structure, culture) and the characteristics of the followers (Zel, 2001)

Firstly, personality factor affects behavior and management performance more than other factors (Zel, 2001, p. 157). Personality is the whole of physical, mental, and spiritual characteristics that distinguish a person from others. Among the characteristics of the leader, which is the first factor affecting the leadership performance, culture has a particularly important place in the formation of the leader's personality.

Culture and personality are in interaction. As well as the effects of culture on personality formation, personality traits also have effects on culture. In the study of culture and personality interaction, individual behaviours come to the fore and individual behaviour cannot be understood without considering its cultural situation and elements. Various studies have shown that the influence of culture is wide in shaping personality. Family form, which is among the various aspects of culture, the social roles of parents, social values, attitudes,

beliefs and the effect of social norms separately play a role in child education and personality development (Zel, 2001).

Secondly, culture affects the characteristics of the members who follow the leaders, that is, the members. Culture shapes the personality of leaders, as well as subordinates, as well as the personality of leaders. For example, the leadership style applied to Turkish employees trained with Turkish culture and French employees trained with French culture will not be the same.

The third and last variable that affects leadership performance is the characteristics of the environment. Technology, organizational structure, culture creates the characteristics of the environment and has an important place.

One of the most important work for leadership and leadership options is the international GLOBE project by Robert House. As mentioned in the Globe project, the success of international operations is related to the leader's influence on the organization. The impact on leaders in managing these operations depends on the amount of prestige and privilege culture. (House & Hangers & Javidan & Dorfman & Gupta, 2004)

Clearly, leadership and culture are interrelated, and one requires the other. The first leader of any organization creates a process for the purpose of the organization. Later followers and members of the group act around these values formed by the founder or leader. Over time, the new members' acceptance of these values and act in this direction constitutes the culture of that organization. Leaders interact with culture to determine what to look out for, how to react to member behavior, and what to communicate to followers. (Fairholm,1994)

2.3.2. Culture And Leadership In Turkey

Republic of Turkey 'what a vast majority of the land in West Asia, while a small portion is located on the European continent. The location on two continents gives the country the mission of being a cultural, economic, and political bridge between east and west. Historical origins in Turkey based on the Ottoman Empire, Muslim groups began to migrate to the country with his empire begin to crumble and this has created an ongoing western-oriented subculture. Today, with the effect of globalization worldwide, new lifestyles and subcultures are formed in the young population. (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002).

As evidenced by the work of Hofstede, the Turkish culture system has a high class in terms of PDI. (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 1999). There is no horizontal communication between the top executives and employees at the bottom of the pyramid. Ccommunication and the flow of information is among certain people. (Culture Compass, Hofstede Insights, 2019). In Turkish companies, the authority is gathered in the hills. The decision-making mechanism is in the people in the center. With the presence of paternalism (paternalistic) identity in a Turkish society, the characteristics of a leader who possess authority and control disciplinary expectation along with tolerant, sincere compassionate feelings are also seen. (Paşa, 2000,).

People often use the rhetoric symbols that show their status while addressing people they are not highly qualified or sincere with. In the workplaces, the areas where the top management park their cars, eat, or even rest are different. Even the benefits that companies provide to their personnel differ according to these statuses. The way people are addressed shows differences in status. (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006).

The second dimension Uncertainty Avoidance is high in Turkey. This rate is needed largely because of the higher laws and rules to be in Turkey. Rituals are used to reduce the level of anxiety. As in every country with a high rate UAI, Turkey also has strong beliefs and strict rules. Turkey ranks 85 points up in this size. According to Hofstede, although Turks frequently pass on God in their speeches, not in their religiousness, but in stressful situations there is a use due to reducing tension and habit. (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002).

Turkey is the third dimension of masculinity femininity in the neck with a low MAS high point. the feminine aspect of this study appears high at first, male dominated society which was odd for Turkey. In addition, the male-dominated outlook was degraded by some societies. However, the positive characteristics of feminine societies are more. In Turkish society, affection and love are more important than competition and ambition. In Turkish society, relations between people are warm and sincere. Conflicts in private and business life are rare and leisure activities with the family are important.

The fourth dimension is collectivism and Turkish society has a collectivistic structure. Religious belief is seen as the biggest factor in the Turkish society having this structure. It is believed that in order to fulfill the social and ethical obligations of the society in the religion of Islam, the whole society acts with brotherhood feelings, and this brings together the collectivist structure. (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002). Turkish society has the structure of a society where "We" is more important, people are loyal to their groups (family, community, fan base, etc.), communication is indirect, trust is formed over time, torpedo is frequently seen and feedback is indirect.

In long term orientation in the process of overcoming difficulties in every society, there are some points that are taken from the past. The meaning of this dimension is to have good relations with the past and to investigate the future through the past. Turkey has an average value of this size. This means that the past has little impact on culture. Turkey ranks 46 points in the middle of this size and a dominant culture has no choice.

2.3.3. Culture And Leadership In France

France, or officially the French Republic, is a country whose mainland is in Western Europe and has overseas territory in many parts of the world. France has been one of the leading countries in the field of international relations worldwide since the second half of the 17th century. Between the 18th and 19th centuries, France established one of the largest colonial empires of the period. During this period, the borders of France extended from west Africa to southeast Asia, leaving significant traces in the culture and politics of the societies in the regions it affected. In a country that has over 50% of its population practicing the Catholic religion.

The culture of France is shaped by the geographical location of the country, the intense relations developed with the neighboring nations and the waves of migration experienced in various periods of history. Important changes in daily life in France stand out with the intense migration from France and the culture migrants carry from their countries.

High PDI prevails in communities where individuals' welfare differences are easily accepted. Although France has an autocratical structure, the level of aristocracy is also high. The situation that upper-class people dominate lower- or middle-class people is acceptable in France, as in any society with a high level of power. Power gathers in the center as much as possible in France. Failure to spread power equally is a condition voiced and accepted by the low-level communities in France. Laws and regulations are heavily controlled by the government. There is a formal language and distance between employees, who have managers. The flow of information is provided in a hierarchical order. (Zheng, 2010) The power of decision making is in the highest unit in the hierarchy, as the power in management is concentrated in the center. Employees cannot be in the decision-making process and this is seen as disrespectful. (Hofstede, 1984).

France is one of the highest rated countries in the world on the UAI scale. Adaptations to anxious changes in society are at a high level. French society is exceptionally low tolerance to uncertain situations. It shows that this culture is threatened by unforeseen situations and that the society wants to retain control. Instead of affective factors affecting society, they argue that everything must proceed through rules and laws. The best example of this in the business world is that the manager takes all precautions against surprises that may have all the information without entering the meetings (Gilit,2012).

In French society, there are almost no surprises, everything is planned and discussed before. So, everything is mostly programmed. Since the power is concentrated in the center, all the necessary documents are requested by the center before the meetings. French government high-speed train networks, nuclear power plants have a good position in almost every subject to be calculated with more detailed knowledge. Due to the high-power distance, the French want to make sure that their position in the community is safe and do not refrain from making sharp criticisms for this. Grievs and rules are needed at high levels because they do not like uncertainty, this situation even affects their daily routines.

France's score is low in the masculinity dimension driven by the sense of competition from the society. Both men and women have equal social roles. The difference between male and female roles is as low as possible so that women and men are treated equally in all areas of society (Hofstede, 1983). They value the quality of life and the purpose of life. This value can be demonstrated by its focus on the famous welfare system, 35-hour working week, five-week holidays and quality of life. This social security and welfare system caused French culture to be defined as a feminist.

French society is an individual society with a high score. According to Hofstede, the integration between society and people is low in France. In this society, the word "I" is used more than the word "we" in defining themselves. As their parents raise their children, they make them emotionally more independent than the groups they belong to. So, people only care about themselves and their families. In addition, the French attach great importance to their individual identity, which includes their right to privacy. It does not matter to belong to a group in this culture.

Since individuality is at the forefront in French culture, successes in business life are emphasized, and a better position is targeted in the next step. Climbing the hierarchy stairs in France is a very natural and common situation. In the business world, a social environment is created not only for relationships, but to maintain the current position and achieve better. The interests of employees are expected to be protected.

Long-term commitment, valuing existing ties, and respect for traditions are indicators of long-term orientation. French society has a high score of this size. Highly rated France shows strong capacity to be pragmatic, which means that even if it has to change its traditions for a long-term benefit, the population is not afraid to make decisions and insist that way.

4.Methodology

In this chapter; the purpose and importance of the research, the model and hypotheses of the research, the data collection method and scales used in the research, the universe and the sample of the research, the analysis of the research data and the limitations of the research.

4.1. Data Collection & Samples & Measurement Tool

In the research part, a research form was used as a data collection tool. The created research form was sent from the survey portals on the internet. SPSS 19.0, one of the statistics programs, was used in the analysis of the data obtained.

The main body of this research is the white-collar Turkish and French citizens. According to the calculations made within this group, 404 employees will be randomly selected and form the sample. In the sample formation, it will be paid attention to the equality in the Turkish and French distribution and in the distribution of men and women, as well as equal distribution in the average age, educational status and position levels of the employees.

In this research, a questionnaire will be used as a measurement tool. The questionnaires consist of three parts. The first part consists of 10 demographic questions about the participant. In the second part, there are 7 questions which will measure the first conceptual structure, Leader member interaction LMX 7. Respondents indicate their answers using a five-point Likert scale. The LMX 7 scores are interpreted by using the following guidelines: very low = 7-14, low = 15-19, moderate = 20-24, high = 25-29, and very high = 30-35. The score obtained determines whether the members are in-group and out-group. In the third part of the survey, VSM 2008 questionnaire consisting of 20 questions is used.

4.2. Research Questions

1. Is there a relationship between Turkish and French employees between leader/member exchange (LMX) and cultural values (power distance) beyond the impact of gender, age, education level, work experience, and job title/position?

2. Is there a relationship between Turkish and French employees between leader/member exchange (LMX) and cultural values (collectivism/individualism) beyond the impact of gender, age, education level, work experience, and job title/position?

3. Is there a relationship between Turkish and French employees between leader/member exchange (LMX) and cultural values (femininity/masculinity) beyond the impact of gender, age, education level, work experience, and job title/position?

4. Is there a relationship between Turkish and French employees between leader/member exchange (LMX) and cultural values (uncertainty avoidance) beyond the impact of gender, age, education level, work experience, and job title/position?

5. Is there a relationship between Turkish and French employees between leader/member exchange (LMX) and cultural values (Long-Short Term Orientation) beyond the impact of gender, age, education level, work experience, and job title/position?

4.3. Hypotheses

In this study, white collar workers will be investigated in the interaction of the leading members of cultural differences in French and Turkish society. In this context, it is planned to reveal the relationship between two conceptual structures by using descriptive method. In addition to these two conceptual structures, research will be guided by demographic variables. With the hypothesis and alternative hypotheses that determine the direction of the research, it is aimed to add depth and versatility with a total of 5 hypotheses. In the alternative hypotheses, not only the relationships between the conceptual structures, but also the relationship between the first conceptual structure and demographic variables and the

relationship between the second conceptual structure and demographic variables will be investigated. The model of conceptual structures and dimensions can be drawn as follows:

Demographic variables about the employee:

1. Gender (D1)
2. Marital status (D2)
3. Age 3 (D3)
4. Education level (D4)
5. Worked position (D5)
6. Severance period (D6)
7. Nationalite (D7)

Dimensions of culture concept : Dependent variables

1. Power Distance (A1)
2. Avoidance of Uncertainty (A2)
3. Individualism Collectivism (A3)
4. Masculinity Femininity (A4)
5. Long-Short Term Orientation (A5)

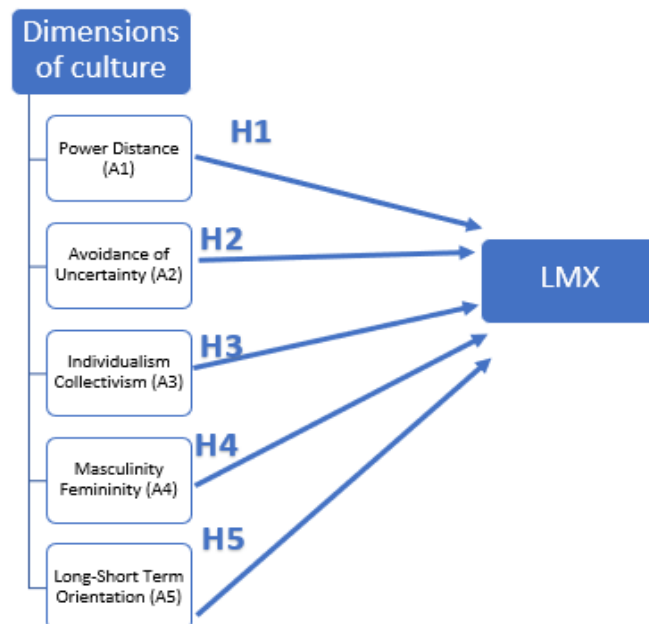


Figure 6. Model of Hypothesis

Hypotheses 1: There is positive relationship Turkish and French employees between Power Distance and LMX

Hypotheses 2: There is positive relationship Turkish and French employees between Avoidance of Uncertainty and LMX

Hypotheses 3: There is positive relationship Turkish and French employees between Individualism Collectivism and LMX

Hypotheses 4: There is positive relationship Turkish and French employees between Masculinity Femininity and LMX

Hypotheses 5: There is positive relationship Turkish and French employees between Long-Short Term Orientation and LMX

4.4. Findings and Comments on the Demographic Features of the Sample

4.4.1 Turkish Samples

This section Turkish citizens whose age 25 above their gender, marital status, life expectancy in Turkey, graduation rate, total work experience, demographic questions such as working time in the company they were asked.

4.4.1.1. Gender

The gender asked in demographic questions was asked in the form of nominal scale. 110 of the participants are women and constitute 51.60% of the total number. There are 104 male participants, constituting 48.40% of the total amount. Looking at these data, it is seen that the gender of more than half of the participants is female.

Table 2: Distribution of Turkish Participants about Gender Variable

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	110	% 51,6
Male	104	% 48,4
Total	214	

4.4.1.2. Age

This variable was asked as an evaluation scale consisting of 4 categories. When the age distribution of the participants is examined, it is seen that the young population is the majority. 67.8% of the participants were between 25-35 years of age. Participants in the 36-45 age range cover 25.2%, participants in the 46-55 age range 7%.

Table 3. Distribution of Turkish Participants about Age Variable

Age	Frequency	Percent
25-35	145	% 67,8
36-45	54	% 25, 2
46-55	15	% 7
Total	214	

4.4.1.3. Marital Status

The gender asked in demographic questions was asked as nominal scale. 111 of the participants are single and constitute 51.9% of the total number. Married participants are 103 and make up 48.1% of the total number. Looking at these data, the number of married people seems slightly higher, although the percentage of single and married is awfully close to each other.

Table 4. Distribution of Turkish Participants about Marital Status Variable

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Married	103	% 48,1
Single	111	% 51,9
Total	214	

4.4.1.4. Life Expectancy in Turkey

This variable was asked as an evaluation scale consisting of 5 categories. Most of the Turkish participants examined when the table has been living in Turkey as it is expected more than 20 years. 20 years and over 96.7% the proportion of persons residing in Turkey. There are 3 people who have never lived in Turkey as Turkish citizen.

Table 5. Turkish participants, according to the variable distribution of life expectancy in Turkey

How many years since you live in Turkey?	Frequency	Percent
0	3	% 1,4
1-5	2	% 0,9
6-10	1	% 0,5
11-19	1	% 0,5
20 year and +	207	% 96,7
Total	214	

4.4.1.5. Life Expectancy in France

This variable was asked as an evaluation scale consisting of 5 categories. The proportion of Turkish participants who lived 1-5 in France was 3.7%, those who lived between 6-10 years were 2.3 %.

Table 6. Turkish participants, according to the variable distribution of life expectancy in France

How many years since you live in France?	Frequency	Percent
0	201	% 93,9
1-5	8	% 3,7
6-10	5	% 2,3
Total	214	

4.4.1.6. Completed Degree

The level of education asked in the demographic questions was asked as an intermittent scale consisting of 4 categories. Looking at the educational status of the Turkish participants, most of them are under graduation. 132 people have undergraduate and constitute 61.7% of the total number. Graduate participants are 42 and make up 19.6% of the total number. The ratio of people with postgraduate (PhD) and + education level is 5.1%. The proportion of high school graduates is 13.6%.

Table 7. Distribution of Turkish Participants about Completed Degree Variable

Completed degree	Frequency	Percent
High school and under	29	% 13,6
Undergraduate	132	% 61,7
Graduate (Master's)	42	% 19,6
Postgraduate (PhD) and +	11	% 5,1
Total	214	

4.4.1.7. Work Position

This variable was asked as an ordered scale consisting of 4 categories. When the job positions of the participants are examined in the table, it is seen that there are few people who have the title of company owner and senior manager. The majority of the participants

are employees. 104 people in the category of employees are 48.6% of the total number. The proportion of participants who are Company Owner and Top Management is equal and 6.1%.

Table 8. Distribution of Turkish Participants about Work Position Variable

What is your position in the company you work for?	Frequency	Percent
Company Owner	13	%6,1
Top Management	13	%6,1
Middle Management	59	%27,6
Low management	25	%11,7
Employee	104	%48,6
Total	214	

4.4.1.8. Working Time in Current Company

This variable was asked in the form of an ordered scale consisting of 4 categories. The working period of 105 participants within the company is between 1-5 years and this number is 49,1% of the total number. 15,9% have been in the company for less than 1 year. 28% have been in the company between 6-15 years. There are 2 people working for a long time more than 31 years.

Table 9. Distribution of Turkish Participants about Work Time in Current Company Variable

How long have you been working for this company?	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1 year	34	%15,9
1– 5 years	105	%49,1
6 - 15 years	60	%28,0
16-30 years	13	%6,1
More than 31 years	2	%0,9
Total	214	

4.4.1.9. Total Business Experiences

This variable was asked as an ordered scale consisting of 4 categories. The working period of 76 of the participants is between 6-10 years and this number is 35.5% of the total number. The proportion of participants with 1-5 years of work experience is 26.6%, 17,8% between 11-15 years and 20,1% of people with more than 16 years of work experience.

Table 10. Distribution of Turkish Participants about Total Business Experience Variable

Your total business experiences?	Frequency	Percent
1– 5 years	57	%26,6
6 - 10 years	76	%35,5
11-15 years	38	%17,8
More than 16 years	43	%20,1
Total	214	

4.4.2. French Samples

This section French citizens whose age 25 above their gender, marital status, life expectancy in Turkey, graduation rate, total work experience, demographic questions such as working time in the company they were asked.

4.4.2.1 Gender

The gender asked in demographic questions was asked in the form of nominal scale. 98 of the participants are women and constitute 51.60% of the total number. There are male 92 participants, constituting 48.40% of the total amount. Looking at these data, it is seen that the gender of more than half of the participants is female.

Table 11. Distribution of French Participants about Gender Variable

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	98	% 51,6
Male	92	% 48,4
Total	190	

4.4.2.2 Age

This variable was asked as an evaluation scale consisting of 4 categories. When the age distribution of the participants is examined, it is seen that the young population is the majority 78,4% of the participants were between 25-35 years of age. Participants in the 36-45 age range cover 11,6%, participants in the 46-55 age range 6.8% and those over 56 cover 3,2%.

Table 12. Distribution of French Participants about Age Variable

Age	Frequency	Percent
25-35	149	%78,4
36-45	22	% 11,6
46-55	13	%6,8
56- 56+	6	%3,2
Total	190	

4.4.2.3 Marital Status

The gender asked in demographic questions was asked as nominal scale. 141 of the participants are single and constitute 74,2% of the total number. Married participants are 49 and make up 25,8% of the total number.

Table 13. Distribution of French Participants about Marital Status Variable

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Married	49	%25,8
Single	141	%74,2
Total	190	

4.4.2.4 Life Expectancy in Turkey

This variable was asked as an evaluation scale consisting of 5 categories. The number of years they lived in Turkey has asked the French. Most people with 90.5% percentage were not living in Turkey at all. There are 5 people living between 1-5 years, 7 people living between 6-10 years and 1 person living between 11-19 years. More than 20 years the number of people living in Turkey 5.

Table 14. French participants, according to the variable distribution of life expectancy in Turkey

How many years since you live in Turkey?	Frequency	Percent
0	172	%90,5
1-5	5	%2,6
6-10	7	%3,7
11-19	1	%0,5
20 year and +	5	%2,6
Total	190	

4.4.2.5. Life Expectancy in France

This variable was asked as an evaluation scale consisting of 5 categories. Another question was asked how many years they have lived in France. 90% of French participants have lived in their home countries for more than 20 years. Only 10% live in France for less than 20 years.

Table 15. French participants, according to the variable distribution of life expectancy in France

How many years since you live in France?	Frequency	Percent
1-5	10	%5,3
6-10	8	%4,2
11-19	1	%0,5
20 year and +	171	%90
Total	190	

4.4.2.6 Completed Degree

The level of education asked in the demographic questions was asked as an intermittent scale consisting of 4 categories. Looking at the educational status of the French participants, most of them are graduate. Graduate participants are 99 and make up 52,1% of the total number. 49 people have undergraduate and constitute 25,8% of the total number. The proportion of high school graduates is 11.6%. The ratio of people with postgraduate (PhD) and + education level is 10,5%.

Table 16. Distribution of French Participants about Completed Degree Variable

Completed degree	Frequency	Percent
High school and under	22	%11,6
Undergraduate	49	%25,8
Graduate (Master's)	99	%52,1
Postgraduate (PhD) and +	20	%10,5
Total	190	

4.4.2.7. Work Position

This variable was asked as an ordered scale consisting of 4 categories. When the job positions of the participants are examined in the table, it is seen that there are few people who have the title of company owner and senior manager. 33.4% is middle management, 28.4% is low management and employee ratio is 18.4%.

Table 17. Distribution of French Participants about Work Position Variable

What is your position in the company you work for?	Frequency	Percent
Company Owner	12	%6,3
Top Management	25	%13,2
Middle Management	64	%33,7
Low management	54	%28,4
Employee	35	%18,4
Total	190	

4.4.2.8. Working Time in Current Company

This variable was asked in the form of an ordered scale consisting of 4 categories. The working period of 104 participants within the company is between 1-5 years and this number is 54,7% of the total number. 30,5% have been in the company for less than 1 year. 9,5 % have been in the company between 6-15 years.

Table 18. Distribution of French Participants about Work Time in Current Company Variable

How long have you been working for this company?	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1 year	58	%30,5
1– 5 years	104	%54,7
6 - 15 years	18	%9,5
16-30 years	10	%5,2
Total	190	

4.4.2.9 Total Business Experiences

This variable was asked as an ordered scale consisting of 4 categories. In the other last question, people were generally asked about their work experience periods. Most of them have 1-5 years' work experience 64.7%. The proportion of participants with 6-10 years of work experience is 21.1%, 6.8% between 11-15 years and 7.4% of people with more than 16 years of work experience.

Table 19. Distribution of French Participants about Total Business Experience Variable

Your total business experiences?	Frequency	Percent
1– 5 years	123	%64,7
6 - 10 years	40	%21,1
11-15 years	13	%6,8
More than 16 years	14	%7,4
Total	190	

4.4.3 Analysis of Dimensions

In order to measure the reliability of the scales used in the study, Cronbach alpha values were examined. Factor analysis were performed to determine scale dimensions. Factor analysis were conducted separately for Turkish and French samples. Due to the differences between the Turkish and French samples, the results of the factor analysis of the two samples were also different. In each sample, the substances obtained are different in size. Therefore, each sample size was different as a result of the analysis. In the analysis, since the different substances were found to be low loaded and eliminated for each sample, the obtained dimensions could not be equal. In this case, it is not possible to make comparisons between these two countries. The fact that the two countries have different characteristics in terms of social and cultural dynamics may cause this. In order to compare the two cultures in a healthy way, reliability analysis was used considering the original dimensions of the scales in the literature. The reliability values obtained for the scales and original dimensions were found to be suitable for the study. The fact that the reliability values

are reasonable supports the hypothesis that the problems arising from the factor analysis arise from the cultural differences of the countries.

After the scale dimensions were determined, comparison analysis was conducted between the two countries for Leader Member Exchange Scale and Hofstede's Values Survey Model subjects and sub-dynamics. Descriptive statistics of the scale and its sub-dimensions were determined by country. Power distance (PDI), Uncertainty avoidance (UAI), Collectivism, etc. between the two countries. individualism (IDV), Long-term orientation etc. The differences between Short-term and Masculinity (MAS) and femininity were determined by Independent Samples T-Tests.

4.4.3.1. Reliability Statistics

In the table below, the total reliability of the scales was calculated with Cronbach Alpha

Table 20. Reliability Statistics of Scales and Total

Scales	Turkish		French	
	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Total Reliability	0,814	27	0,803	27
Leader Member Exchange Scale	0,866	7	0,878	7
Hofstede's Values Survey Model	0,716	20	0,666	20

Reliability analysis was conducted by considering all the scale used in the study and all the judgments in these scales. Reliability was measured by Cronbach Alpha coefficient. As a result of the tests, this value was calculated as 0.814 for the Turkish sample and 0.803 for the French sample. Scale-based reliability values were also calculated in the table. On the Leader Member Exchange scale, this value was found to be 0.866 for the Turkish sample and 0.878 for the French sample. The reliability value of Hofstede's Values Survey Model was found to be 0.716 for the Turkish sample and 0.666 for the French sample. The calculated Cronbach's Alpha values are reliable for research.

In the table below, the reliability values of the Hofstede Values Survey Model scale were calculated with Cronbach's Alpha.

Table 21. Reliability Statistics of Leader Member Exchange and Hofstede's Values Survey Model Factors

Dimensions	Turkish		French	
	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Power distance (PDI)	0,786	4	0,793	4
Uncertainty avoidance (UAI)	0,780	4	0,767	4
Collectivism vs. individualism (IDV)	0,628	4	0,620	4
Long-term orientation vs. Short-term	0,731	4	0,614	4
Masculinity (MAS) and femininity	0,761	4	0,644	4

In the table above, reliability values of the sub-dimensions of Hofstede's Values Survey model were calculated separately for Turkish and French samples. The calculated Cronbach alpha value of the Power distance dimension on the Turkish sample was 0.786, 0.780 for uncertainty avoidance, Collectivism etc. 0.628 for individualism, Long-term orientation etc. Short-term is 0,731 and Masculinity (MAS) and femininity are 0,761. The Cronbach alpha value of the Power distance dimension calculated on the French sample was 0.793, 0.767 for uncertainty avoidance, Collectivism etc. 0.620 for individualism, Long-term orientation etc. For short-term, 0.614 and Masculinity (MAS) and femininity are 0.644. When the reliability is examined, it is seen that the dimensions are suitable for Turkish and French samples.

4.4.3.2. Descriptive Statistics of Leader Member Exchange and Hofstede's Values Survey Model

In the tables below, minimum, maximum, mean, standard deviation and variance values of scale and sub-dimensions were calculated for both samples.

Table 22. Descriptive Statistics of Leader Member Exchange Scale

Dimensions - Turkish	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	N of Items
Leader Member Exchange Scale	214	1,14	5,00	3,015	0,644	0,714	7
Dimensions - French	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	N of Items
Leader Member Exchange Scale	190	1,14	5,00	3,336	0,395	0,802	7

In the table above, statistics regarding the opinions of the participants regarding the Leader Member Exchange scale judgments were compiled. Looking at the scores given to the judiciary, the environment calculated for the Turkish sample is 3,015. Participants' judgment assessment was realized around the expression "I am indecisive". The average of the French sample was calculated as 3,336. The French also rated these items of scale around the idea of "I am indecisive". We see that the standard deviation value of this average is lower than the Turkish sample. French participants have relatively higher scores than Turkish participants. They turned more towards the 'Agree' option from the indecision option.

According to the data obtained, Turkish leaders are not very strong and sincere in their immediate environment in the relationship of leader-member interaction, but they are not too shy or informal towards leaders. They stated that they may have the opportunity to participate in various experiences and organizations in order to clarify their roles and roles with their leaders. They stated that their managers are not sufficient in understanding and solving problems and needs. They stated that the managers knew them fully and were wrong about their observations about their potential.

Leader-member interaction comments for the French sample are slightly different. They stated that they were appreciated, if not always, on the subjects they were successful

in. They see that there is cooperation in leader-member interaction and that there are efforts to recover from the difficult situation regarding the business. Managers tend to solve problems when a business problem occurs, even if they cannot fully identify and identify the problems. He thinks that the managers trust themselves.

Table 23. Descriptive Statistics of Hofstede's Values Survey Model

Dimensions - Turkish	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	N of Items
Collectivism vs. individualism (IDV)	214	1,00	5,00	3,524	0,869	0,939	4
Power distance (PDI)	214	1,20	4,00	2,909	0,485	0,235	4
Masculinity (MAS) and femininity	214	1,20	4,40	3,136	0,643	0,413	4
Uncertainty avoidance (UAI)	214	1,50	5,00	3,879	0,569	0,755	4
Long-term orientation vs. Short-term	214	1,25	5,00	3,637	0,587	0,786	4
Dimensions - French	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	N of Items
Collectivism vs. individualism (IDV)	190	1,00	5,00	3,545	0,976	0,953	4
Power distance (PDI)	190	2,25	5,00	3,592	0,541	0,293	4
Masculinity (MAS) and femininity	190	1,20	4,40	3,126	0,643	0,413	4
Uncertainty avoidance (UAI)	190	1,40	5,00	3,051	0,614	0,378	4
Long-term orientation vs. Short-term	190	1,00	5,00	3,620	0,833	0,695	4

In the table above, statistics for Hofstede's Values Survey Model scale dimensions were compiled for Turkish and French samples. Some conclusions have been reached by looking at the means and standard deviations of the scores that individuals give to judgments of these dimensions.

Considering the dimensions, the main subject of the dynamics expressed by Collectivism-individualism is the degree of commitment among the members. The average of the scores given to judgments of this dimension in Turkish and French societies is almost the same and is around 3.5. Individuals, whether individual or

collective, expressed that their loyalty to the nuclear family or the existing group is not weak.

Ideas are different for the two communities on power distance. Power Distance is defined as the less powerful members of organizations and organizations in a country think and accept that power is unevenly distributed. Turkish societies are closer to the idea that there are no social and cultural inequalities. The average of French participants is higher (3,592). They admitted that the less powerful members of organizations and organizations in the French community countries were distributions of inequalities, with the power being distributed unevenly.

The averages for the masculinity (MAS) and femininity dimension are almost equal in both samples. This dimension is related to the role distribution of gender in society. Some societies determine the duties and responsibilities of men and women with strict rules, while others allow them to freely perform their roles. A high score in this dimension (Masculine) indicates that the society will be guided by competition, success and success, and the value system that starts at school continues throughout organizational life. The low score on the dimension (Feminine) means that the dominant values in society give importance to others and quality of life. For a feminine society, quality of life is a sign of success. As a result, the thoughts of both samples on this concept are close to the level of 'I agree'.

For the uncertainty avoidance (UAI) dimension, Turkish participants have higher average opinions (3,879). The average of the French participants' judgment scores related to this dimension is 3,051. This dimension is related to handling future uncertainty with different approaches in different cultures. The dimension of avoiding uncertainty is about the way a society deals with the fact that the future will never be known. The high average in Turkish society tells us that there is more willingness to avoid risk.

Long-term orientation vs. Short-term contains concepts that focus on the problems and efforts of today, the future or the past. It is an idea that the long- and short-term harmony

is important to overcome the problems in life. The averages for both communities are the same in this regard. Societies act carefully and regularly about long- and short-term problems and plans. It is seen that the importance and value attached to past and future efforts are in both communities.

4.4.3.3. Independent Samples T-Tests and Testing Hypothesis

In order to determine the cultural differences between the two countries in terms of 5 dimensions, t-test analyzes were performed. The results of the analysis are explained in the tables below with their hypotheses. Examinations on the normal distribution of data were made for both groups. It was understood that the data were normally distributed and the applications of parametric tests were continued. In addition, the kurtosis value of the sample belonging to the French participants was found to be -0,226 and the skewness value was -1,276. These values are -0,403 and -1,302 for the Turkish sample.

Table 24: Test of Normality

Samples	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		Shapiro-Wilk	
	Statistic	Sig	Statistic	Sig
Turkish Sample	0,186	0,024	0,432	0,01
French Sample	0,209	0,018	0,622	0,01
Lilliefors Significance Correction				

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test can be examined in cases where chi-square test cannot be applied because the sample volume is small. According to the normality examination in the table, the sample distribution was found to be suitable for the normal distribution. The large sig values of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test at 0.01 significance level indicate that the data is normally distributed. Another test of normality in the table is the "Shapiro-Wilk" test. Here the "Sig." Of the "Shapiro-Wilk" test Since the values are greater than 0.01, the data are normally distributed for all groups.

Table 25: Table of Descriptive

	Descriptive			
Samples	Skewness	Stand. Error	Kurtosis	Stand. Error
Turkish Sample	-1,302	0,131	-0,403	0,218
French Sample	-1,276	0,131	-0,226	0,218

In the table above, it is seen that the kurtosis and skewness values of the distributions are in the desired range. These values are required to be between -1.5 and +1.5 to obtain conformity to normal distribution. In this case, we continue the statistics with the assumption that our data is normally distributed as a result of normality studies.

4.4.3.3.1. T-Test Group Statistics Results of the Hofstede's Values Survey Model for French and Turkey

Table 26.T-Test Group Statistics Results of the Uncertainty Avoidance for French and Turkey

Factor	Mean		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
	Turkish	French							
Uncertainty avoidance (UAI)	3,0685	3,3719	4,424	0,036	-4,531	402	,000	-,30339	,06696

H0: There is no difference between Turkish and French societies in terms of Uncertainty avoidance.

H1: There is a difference between Turkish and French societies in terms of Uncertainty avoidance.

With the analysis in the table, it was examined whether there is a difference between the Turkish and French societies, such as preventing uncertainty and predicting future risk. Sig in the table. value is 0,000 p: less than 0.05. The differences between Turkish and French

society's desire to escape from risk and the unthinkable thoughts of the future were found to be statistically significant. The H0 hypothesis rejected.

Table 27. T-Test Group Statistics Results of the Long-term orientation vs. Short-term for French and Turkey

Factor	Mean		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
	Turkish	French							
Long-term orientation vs. Short-term	3,6203	3,6368	,021	0,884	-,193	402	,047	-,01652	,08561

H0: There is no difference between Turkish and French societies in terms of Long-term orientation.

H2: There is a difference between Turkish and French societies in terms of Long-term orientation.

No difference was found between the two communities on issues related to long-term orientation and short-term concepts focusing on the problems and efforts of today, the future or the past. They are of the opinion that long- and short-term adjustment is important to overcome problems in life. Sig in the table 0,047 less then p:0,05. The difference in terms of the size specified between communities is statistically significant. The H0 hypothesis rejected.

Table 28. T-Test Group Statistics Results of the Collectivism vs. Individualism for French and Turkey

Factor	Mean		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
	Turkish	French							
Collectivism vs. individualism (IDV)	3,523	3,544	,463	0,496	,049	402	,961	,00494	,10106

H0: There is no difference between Turkish and French societies in terms of Collectivism vs. individualism.

H3: There is a difference between Turkish and French societies in terms of Collectivism vs. individualism.

The dimension in the table, which relates to the degree of commitment between members individuals or communities, has differences between communities. Shallow. Since its value is $0.961 > 0.05$, there is no differences between two communities. As a result, the H0 hypothesis accepted. There is no difference between Turkish and French societies in terms of Collectivism vs. individualism.

Table 28. T-Test Group Statistics Results of the Power distance for French and Turkey

Factor	Mean		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
	Turkish	French							
Power distance (PDI)	3,7274	3,7649	1,234	0,267	-,675	402	,500	-,03750	,05559

H0: There is no difference between Turkish and French societies in terms of Power distance.

H4: There is a difference between Turkish and French societies in terms of Power distance.

In the above test, less powerful members of organizations and organizations between the two communities disagree about the uneven distribution of power. Turkish societies are closer to the idea that there is no social and cultural inequality. The average of French participants is higher. They think that less powerful organizations and members of organizations in French community countries are distributed by inequalities and that power is not evenly distributed. There is no differences between two groups. Sig value is in the table $0.500 > 0.05$, the H0 hypothesis accepted.

Table 29. T-Test Group Statistics Results of the Masculinity (MAS) and femininity for French and Turkey

Factor	Mean		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
	Turkish	French							
Masculinity (MAS) and femininity	3,0514	3,1358	1,230	0,268	- 1,348	402	,178	-,08439	,06260

H0: There is no difference between Turkish and French societies in terms of Masculinity (MAS) and femininity.

H5: There is a difference between Turkish and French societies in terms of Masculinity (MAS) and femininity.

In the table, statistics for the test of difference between averages for Masculinity (MAS) and femininity dimension were compiled. Shallow. Since its value was $0.187 > 0.05$, the absence hypothesis was rejected. In this case, the H5 hypothesis is rejected. This dimension is related to the role of gender in society. Some societies determine the duties and responsibilities of men and women with strict rules, while others allow them to freely perform their roles. The high score in this dimension (Masculine) indicates that the society will be guided by competition, success and success, and the value system that starts at school continues throughout organizational life. These differences have been proven according to differences of opinion between the two communities. The H0 hypothesis accepted.

4.4.3.4. Regression Analysis

In the tables below, regression models created for Turkish and French samples are given. The effects of variables in the model on the dependent variable Leader Member Exchange are interpreted by hypotheses

Table 30: Regression Model for Turkish Sample

Independent Variables (Turkish sample)	B	Stand. Deviation	Beta	t	Sig.
Constant	2,094	0,013		3.043	0,000
Collectivism vs. individualism (IDV)	0,213	0,183	0,195	2,605	0,000
Power distance (PDI)	0,135	0,106	0,105	2,444	0,000
Masculinity (MAS) and femininity	0,044	0,065	0,044	1,064	0,065
Uncertainty avoidance (UAI)	0,049	0,075	0,039	1,054	0,001
Long-term orientation vs. Short-term	0,033	0,122	0,038	2,188	0,000
F: 11,411 df: 5 R ² : 0,271 p<0,05 (n):214					

Dependent Variable: Leader Member Exchange

In the regression analysis in the table, the rate of independent variables to explain the model is 27.1%. The remaining part can be explained by different variables. For the independent variables in the model to have a statistically significant effect, Sig. values are expected to be less than 0.05 significance level. In the table, sig of the Masculinity (MAS) and femininity variable. Since its value is 0.065 > 0.05, we see that the effect of this variable on Leader Member Exchange is not statistically significant. So, H_{0c} hypothesis is accepted. Other hypotheses are rejected. In this case, the basic H₀ hypothesis is rejected. So, the effects of other variables on Leader Member Exchange were positive and statistically significant. The high F value as 11,411 indicates that the model parameters are significant.

H0. Hofstede's Values Survey Model variables have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	REJECTED
H1. Hofstede's Values Survey Model variables have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange	
H0a. Collectivism vs. individualism (IDV) have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	REJECTED
H1a. Collectivism vs. individualism (IDV) have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	
H0b. Power distance (PDI) have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	REJECTED
H1b. Power distance (PDI) have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	
H0c. Masculinity (MAS) and femininity have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	ACCEPTED
H1c. Masculinity (MAS) and femininity have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	
H0d. Uncertainty avoidance (UAI) have significant impact Leader Member Exchange.	REJECTED
H1d. Uncertainty avoidance (UAI) have significant impact Leader Member Exchange.	
H0e. Long-term orientation vs. Short-term have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	REJECTED
H1e. Long-term orientation vs. Short-term have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	

Table 29. Regression Model for French Sample

Independent Variables (Turkish sample)	B	Stand. Deviation	Beta	t	Sig.
Constant	4,145	1,340		2,487	0,000
Collectivism vs. individualism (IDV)	0,268	0,125	0,192	1,078	0,123
Power distance (PDI)	0,281	0,111	0,244	2,467	0,000
Masculinity (MAS) and femininity	0,155	0,066	0,311	1,944	0,001
Uncertainty avoidance (UAI)	0,037	0,088	0,031	1,054	0,001
Long-term orientation vs. Short-term	0,083	0,099	0,041	2,096	0,000
F: 9,810 df: 4 R2: 0,233 p<0,05 (n): 190					

Dependent Variable: Leader Member Exchange

In the regression analysis in the table, the rate of independent variables to explain the model is 23.3%. The remaining part can be explained by different variables. In order for the independent variables in the model to have a statistically significant effect, Sig. values

are expected to be less than 0.05 significance level. In the table, sig of the Collectivism vs. individualism (IDV) variable. Since its value is $0.123 > 0.05$, we see

that the effect of this variable on Leader Member Exchange is not statistically significant. H0a hypothesis is accepted. Other hypotheses are rejected. The effects of other variables on Leader Member Exchange were positive and statistically significant. The high F value as 9,810 indicates that the model parameters are significant.

H0. Hofstede's Values Survey Model variables have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	REJECTED
H1. Hofstede's Values Survey Model variables have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange	
H0a. Collectivism vs. individualism (IDV) have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	ACCEPTED
H1a. Collectivism vs. individualism (IDV) have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	
H0b. Power distance (PDI) have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	REJECTED
H1b. Power distance (PDI) have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	
H0c. Masculinity (MAS) and femininity have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	REJECTED
H1c. Masculinity (MAS) and femininity have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	
H0d. Uncertainty avoidance (UAI) have significant impact Leader Member Exchange.	REJECTED
H1d. Uncertainty avoidance (UAI) have significant impact Leader Member Exchange.	
H0e. Long-term orientation vs. Short-term have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	REJECTED
H1e. Long-term orientation vs. Short-term have significant impact on Leader Member Exchange.	

Discussion and Conclusion

The aim of this study is to understand the importance of the relationship between the leader and the member and to emphasize how cultural differences affect this interaction. To reach this goal, Hofstede and LMX7 scales were used. A cross-cultural comparison between French and Turkish employees was made using the National Culture Survey. Whether these cultural differences affect the interaction between the Leader Member has been examined.

Hofstede's work culture between Turkey and France show that there are significant differences. According to the results obtained from this study, the biggest difference between Turkish and French cultures is in Collectivism and Individualism (IDV). French society is more individual than Turkish society. On the other hand, there is a certain difference in s Long-term orientation between Turks and French society. In French culture, hard work is shown to adapt to changing conditions, to save and invest, and to achieve their goals. However, in Turkish culture, this dimension has an average value and does not show a dominant feature. Values in the dimensions of Power Distance, Masculinity Femininity, Avoidance of Uncertainty are awfully close to each other.

We were expecting to see similar results with the work of Hofstede. Findings in the study of Hofstede provides opposite data for the Power Distance dimension. Although Hofstede says that Turkish and French culture are similar for the Power Distance dimension, the idea that power does not spread evenly in the French society is more dominant than the Turkish society in the results of the study. In addition, the other dimension that goes against Hofstede's work is Collectivism and Individualism (IDV). In the study, it was revealed that the individual values of Turkish society, which are more suitable for the nuclear family structure, are in the foreground.

For the Avoidance of Uncertainty dimension, Hofstede suggests that Turkish and French society have similar characteristics, but in the thesis findings, the degree of avoidance of uncertainty is higher in Turkish society.

In his study, Hofstede argued that long-term plans are mostly seen in French society, while in the related study, it was found out that Turkish culture has the same long-term orientation value as the French culture.

It concerns the role of gender in society in the Masculinity and Femininity dimension. The high score in this dimension (Masculine) shows that the society will be guided for competition and success and the value system that started in school continues throughout organizational life. In the study, the values of the two communities are the same as in the Hofstede study.

The different results of the study conducted by Hofstede can be explained by globalization and global change. With the development of technology, the world has become a small high-tech village where people from many different cultures interact. 30 years passed over Hofstede's Cultural Survey studies. In this past period, cultures can change or turn into mixed cultures. From another point of view, it can be said that the psychological situation of the individuals may affect the perception of the questions, this means that different comments can be done for the same question or situation.

Apart from the cultural dimensions, one of the aims of this study was to determine the effect of the cultural values of Turkish and French employees on the leading member interaction. Turkey and France such as Ronen and Schenkar (1985), Project GLOBE (1990) etc.; Turkey and France take place in different clusters. In these studies, Turkey is stated in Arabic or middle east cluster while France is stated in Latin or European cluster.

As mentioned earlier in the literature, the leader-member interaction theory assumes that leaders develop a change with each of their subordinates, and that the quality of these leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships affects the responsibility, decision impact, access to resources and performance of subordinates. LMX focuses on increasing organizational success by establishing positive relationships between leader and subordinate.

According to the data obtained, Turkish leaders are not strong and sincere in their close circle in the relationship of leader-member interaction. Problems arise from low communication, which affects employee performance. On the other hand, they negotiate appropriate behaviors by negotiating about the behaviors that employees should do. They stated that their managers are not sufficient to understand and solve problems and needs. Leaders are not sufficient to motivate their employees, as they have little knowledge of their employees' strengths, needs and individual goals. They stated that the executives knew them exactly and yet were wrong in their observations about their potential.

The leader-member interaction interpretations for the French example are slightly different. They stated that they appreciate, if not always, what they were successful in. They found that there was cooperation in leader-member interactions and efforts to get rid of the difficult situation related to work. Leaders demonstrate behaviors that directly affect employees' performance, by encouraging, making suggestions, aiding, or removing barriers that negatively affect their business. Managers tend to resolve issues when a business problem occurs, even if they cannot fully identify the problems. Employees think that managers trust themselves.

As a result of the study, it was determined that the cultural dimensions of Hofstede affect my leader and member interaction in French and Turkish culture. In French and Turkish culture, there is a meaningful relationship between Power distance dimension and LMX. This indicates that employees with higher LMX scores prefer working environments with high power distance. High power distance score is an indication that they do not agree to distribute power evenly.

Different values have been determined between the two countries in collective and individualism. There is no significant relationship between individuality and LMX among French employees. While the high individualist score indicates that group members act more individually, this high score improves high-level member interaction. However, this hypothesis constitutes a meaningful expression for employees in Turkish society.

“A high masculinity score indicates the group is masculine, gender roles are clearly distinct; men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on success. Women are supposed to be modest, tender, concerned with quality of life. Contrasting this is low masculine score which indicates a group that is labeled feminine. Gender roles overlap and both genders share responsibilities.” (Hofstede, 2001). There is a meaningful expression between masculinity and LMX for French employees. As the level of masculinity increases, the state of society having success, money and other dominant values also increases. Among the French employees, the importance of making money on the masculinity of culture and materialist tendencies strengthen the interaction with the leader. As evidenced in the previous chapters, ingroups are formed and leaders or managers spend a significant portion of their resources on ingroups. In the results of the surveys, there was no meaningful expression between the masculinity dimension of Turkish employees and LMX.

Results from regression showed a significant result between Uncertainty avoidance and LMX in both cultures. Low uncertainty avoidance score indicates that the group's anxiety level is low and is not threatened by uncertain situations. The opposite, high uncertainty avoidance score indicates the level of anxiety caused by unknown situations. In the work of both communities, there is a significant relationship between LMX and the Ambiguous avoidance dimension. As the level of anxiety increases, the level of interaction with the leader increases.

Employees with higher LMX scores prefer a work environment that is less long-term oriented. Long-term orientation versus short-term orientation refers to the fostering of virtues oriented toward future rewards perseverance and thrift. In contrast, short-term orientation refers to fostering virtues related to the past respect for tradition, preservation of face, and fulfilling social obligations. Societies with long-term orientation lead individuals to invest and be frugal. Achievements are the result of stable and careful work. Individuals have clear positions in society, so that effective communication is established between managers. There is a significant relationship between long term orientation water and LMX in the culture of Turkish and French employees. As the plans extend over the long term, effective communication is provided with the managers.

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Appendix

Bu anket formu, İstanbul Ticaret Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İşletme (İngilizce) Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Tamar Çırak'ın yüksek lisans tezi için hazırlanmıştır.

Bu anket formunun kullanılacağı araştırmanın amacı, Türkiye ve Fransa'daki çalışanların, ideal lider tercihlerini karşılaştırmalı olarak ölçmektir.

Vermiş olduğunuz bilgiler gizli tutulacak ve sadece akademik çalışma için kullanılacaktır.

ANKETİ DOLDURMANIZ YAKLAŞIK 15 DAKİKANIZI ALACAKTIR.

Katılımınızdan ve sabrınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederiz.

Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

Tez Danışmanı

Tamar Çırak

Doç. Dr. Pınar Başar

BÖLÜM 1

1- 10 arasındaki sorular demografik sorulardır

1)Cinsiyetiniz?

- Bayan
- Erkek

2)Yaşınız?

- 25- 35
- 36 – 45
- 46- 55
- 56 ve +

3)Medeni Haliniz?

- Bekar
- Evli

4) Uyruğunuz?

- Türk
- Fransız

5) Kaç yıldan beri Türkiye'de yaşıyorsunuz?

- 0
- 1- 5
- 6 – 10
- 11- 19
- 20 yıl ve üzeri

6) Kaç yıldan beri Fransa'da yaşıyorsunuz?

- 0
- 1- 5
- 6- 10
- 11 – 19
- 20 yıl ve üzeri

7) Eğitim durumunuz?

- Lise ve altı
- Üniversite
- Yüksek Lisans
- Doktora ve üzeri

8) Çalıştığınız şirketteki pozisyonunuz nedir?

- Şirket sahibi
- Yüksek kademeli yönetici
- Orta kademeli yönetici
- Düşük kademeli yönetici
- Çalışan

9)Şu andaki şirketinizde kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz?

- 1 yıldan az
- 1-5 yıl arası
- 6-15 yıl arası
- 16-30 yıl arası
- 31 yıl ve üzeri

10) Kaç yıllık iş tecrübeniz var?

- 1 yıldan az
- 1-5 yıl arası
- 6-10 yıl arası
- 11-15 yıl arası
- 16 yıl ve üzeri

BÖLÜM 2

11- 17 arasındaki sorular Lider Üye Etkileşimi sorulardır

11)Yöneticinize karşı konumunuzu biliyor musunuz?

- Çok Nadir
- Nadir
- Arada sırada
- Sıkça
- Çok sık

12)Yöneticiniz iş ile ilgili problemlerinizi ve ihtiyaçlarınızı ne kadar anlıyor?

- Çok Az
- Az
- Yeterince
- Fazla
- Çok Fazla

13)Yöneticiniz sizin potansiyelinizi biliyor ve takdir ediyor mu?

- Çok Az
- Az
- Yeterince
- Fazla
- Çok Fazla

14) Gerçekten ihtiyacınız olduğunda, yöneticiniz kendi zararı pahasına sizi zor durumdan kurtaracağı konusunda gücünü kullanma şansı nedir?

- Çok Az
- Az
- Yeterince
- Fazla
- Çok Fazla

15) Yöneticinizin, kendi pozisyonunun gücünden bağımsız olarak işinizdeki problemlerinizi çözme eğilimi nedir?

- Çok Az
- Az
- Yeterince
- Fazla
- Çok Fazla

16)Yöneticinizin, siz olmadığınızda sizin kararlarınızı savunacak kadar, size karşı güveni var mı?

- Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
- Katılmıyorum
- Kararsızım
- Katılıyorum
- Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

17) Liderinizle çalışma ilişkinizi nasıl karakterize edersiniz?

- Son derece verimsiz
- Ortalamadan Kötü
- Ortalama
- Ortalamadan iyi
- Son derece etkili

BÖLÜM 3

18- 37 arasındaki sorular Ulusal Kültür sorulardır

İdeal bir iş düşünün (mevcut işinizi göz ardı ederek), bu ideal işi seçmenizde aşağıdaki Kriterler ne kadar önemli olurdu?

		Önemsiz	Az Önemli	Önemli	Oldukça Önemli	Çok Fazla Önemli
18	Özel hayatınız ve aileniz için yeterli zamana sahip olmak					
19	İyi fiziksel çalışma şartlarına sahip olmak					
20	Yöneticinizle iyi bir ilişki içinde olmak					
21	İşte kalma garantisi					
22	Birbiri ile iyi anlaşan insanlarla çalışmak					
23	Yöneticinizin, kararlarında size danışması					
24	Terfi imkanlarının bulunması					
25	İşin çeşitlilik ve macera barındırması					

Özel hayatınızda, aşağıdakilerden her biri sizin için ne kadar önemli?

		Önemsiz	Az Önemli	Önemli	Oldukça Önemli	Çok Fazla Önemli
26	Kişisel süreklilik ve istikrar					
27	Tutumluluk					
28	Sebat etmek					
29	Geleneğe saygı					

		Çok Nadir	Nadir	Arada Sırada	Sıkça	Çok Sık
30	İş yerinde ne sıklıkta endişeli ve gergin hissediyorsunuz?					
31	Tecrübelerinize göre, alt kademedeki çalışanlar yöneticilerle fikir Uyuşmazlığında olduklarında ne sıklıkta bunu ifade etme korkusu yaşıyorlar					

		Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Karasızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
32	İnsanların çoğu güvenilirdir					
33	Alt kademe çalışanların kendi işleri hakkındaki sorularına kesin cevapları olmayan biri de iyi bir yönetici olabilir					
34	Çalışanların bağlı olduğu iki patronun bulunduğu kurumsal yapılardan her ne pahasına olursa olsun kaçınılmalıdır					
35	Çalışanlar arasındaki rekabet					

	yarardan çok zarar getirir					
36	Bir şirketin veya kurumun kuralları bozulmamalıdır- bir çalışan bunun şirket yararına olacağını düşünüyorsa bile.					
37	İnsanlar hayatta başarısız olduklarında çoğunlukla bu onların kendi hatalarıdır					

Attachments 2

Ce formulaire d'enquête est préparé pour la thèse de haute-licence de Tamar Çırak, étudiante du programme de haute-licences en l'administration des affaires (anglais) de l'institut des sciences sociales de l'université de Istanbul Ticaret .

Le but de cette recherche, dans laquelle on va utiliser ce formulaire d'enquête, est de mesurer, de comparer les choix des ouvriers qui travaillent en Turquie et en France.

Les informations que vous allez partager avec nous sont confidentiels et seront utilisés seulement pour des travaux académiques.

Compléter l'enquête durera seulement 15 minutes.

Merci pour votre participation et pour votre patience.

Etudiantes de Haute-Licence

Directrice de Thèse

Tamar Çırak

Doç. Dr. Pınar Başar

SECTION 1

Les questions 1 à 10 sont des questions démographiques

1) Sexe ?

- Femme
- Homme

2) Votre Age ?

- 25- 35
- 36 – 45
- 46 - 55
- 56 +

3) Votre état civil ?

- Célibataire
- Marié

4) Votre nationalité ?

- Turque
- Française/Français

5) Depuis combien d'année vivez-vous en Turquie ?

- 0
- 1 - 5
- 6 – 10
- 11 - 19
- 20 ans et +

6) Depuis combien d'année vivez-vous en France ?

- 0
- 1 - 5
- 6 - 10
- 11 – 19
- 20 ans et +

7) Niveau scolarité ?

- Collège/lycée
- Licence (Bac+3)
- Master (Bac+5)
- Doctorat (bac+8) et plus

8) Quel est votre statut professionnel dans l'entreprise ou vous travaillez ?

- Propriétaire
- Responsable De Haut Niveau
- Responsable De Niveau Moyen
- Responsable De Bas Niveau
- Ouvrier

9) Depuis combien d'années travaillez-vous pour votre entreprise actuelle ?

- Moins d'un an
- 1-5 ans
- 6-15 ans
- 16-30 ans
- 31 ans et +

10) Combien d'années d'expérience avez-vous ?

- Moins d'un an
- 1-5 ans
- 6-10 ans
- 11-15 ans
- 16 ans et +

SECTION 2

Les questions 11 à 17 sont des questions d'interaction avec les membres principaux

11) À quelle fréquence votre supérieur immédiat vous fournit-il un feed-back sur votre travail ?

- Rarement**
- Occasionnellement**
- Quelquefois**
- Assez souvent**
- Très souvent**

12) Jusqu'à quel point votre supérieur immédiat comprend-il les problèmes que vous avez dans votre travail et vos besoins ?

- Pas du tout**
- Un peu**
- Modérément**
- Pas mal**
- Beaucoup**

13) Jusqu'à quel point votre supérieur immédiat reconnaît-il votre potentiel ?

- Pas du tout**
- Un peu**
- Modérément**
- Pas mal**
- Beaucoup**

14) Indépendamment de la position hiérarchique qu'a votre supérieur immédiat, quelles sont les chances qu'il (elle) exerce son pouvoir pour vous aider à résoudre les problèmes auxquels vous faite face dans votre travail ?

- Pas du tout
- Un peu
- Modérément
- Pas mal
- Beaucoup

15) Indépendamment de la position hiérarchique qu'a votre supérieur immédiat, quelles sont les chances qu'il exerce son pouvoir pour vous aider à vous tirer d'affaires si cela s'avérait nécessaire ?

- Pas du tout
- Un peu
- Modérément
- Pas mal
- Beaucoup

16) Est-ce que vous avez assez confiance en votre supérieur immédiat pour être prêt à défendre ses décisions en son absence ?

- Pas du tout disposé
- Peu disposé
- Neutre
- Assez disposé
- Tout à fait disposé

17) Comment décririez-vous votre relation avec votre supérieur immédiat ?

- Extrêmement inefficace
- Pire que la moyenne
- Moyenne
- Meilleure que la moyenne
- Extrêmement efficace

SECTION 3

Les questions entre 18 et 37 sont des questions de culture nationale

Essayez de penser à ce que seraient pour vous les caractéristiques d'un travail idéal, même si vous ne les trouvez pas dans votre travail actuel. En choisissant un travail idéal, quelle importance attachez-vous à.

		Très peu important	Peu important	Assez important	Très important	De la plus haute importance
18	Avoir suffisamment de temps pour votre vie personnelle ou					

	familiale					
19	Avoir de bonnes conditions matérielles de travail					
20	Avoir de bonne relation de travail avec son supérieur immédiat					
21	Avoir la sécurité de l'emploi					
22	Travailler avec des gens qui coopèrent efficacement					
23	Être consulté par votre supérieur immédiat dans ses décisions					
24	Avoir de bonnes chances d'accéder à des positions hiérarchiques supérieures					
25	Avoir un travail qui comporte de la variété et de l'aventure					

Quelle importance attachez-vous dans votre vie privée aux caractéristiques suivantes ?

		Jamais	Rarement	Quelque fois	Souvent	Toujours
26	Équilibre et stabilité personnelle					
27	Être économe					
28	Persévérance (ténacité)					
29	Respect pour la tradition					

		Très rarement	Rarement	Parfois	Fréquemment	Très fréquemment
30	Vous sentez-vous nerveux ou tendu pendant le travail ?					
31	À quelle fréquence, selon votre expérience, les subordonnés ont-ils peur d'exprimer un désaccord avec leurs supérieurs					

Veillez indiquer dans quelle mesure vous êtes en accord ou en désaccord avec les opinions suivantes.

		Tout à fait d'accord	D'accord	Indécis	Pas d'accord	Pas du tout d'accord
32	On peut faire confiance à la plupart des gens					
33	On peut être un bon chef sans disposer de réponses précises à la majorité des questions que les subordonnés peuvent soulever au sujet de leur travail					
34	Il convient d'éviter à tout prix une structure d'organisation qui amènerait certains subordonnés à avoir deux patrons directs					
35	La compétition entre employés fait ordinairement plus de mal que de bien					
36	Les règles d'une compagnie ou d'une organisation ne doivent pas être enfreintes même si l'employé estime que ce serait dans l'intérêt de la compagnie.					
37	Si on rate sa vie, c'est souvent par sa propre faute					