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THE EFFECT OF LEADERSHIPSTYLES ON EMployees' PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT AND THE GENDER ROLE IN THIS RELATION

ABSTRACT

Purpose - The purpose of the study is to identify the impact of three leadership style (paternalistic, transformational and transactional) on psychological empowerment and the moderating effect of gender.

Methodology - The Survey method was used to gather data from 97 people working in middle and lower levels in various organizations and the analysis was conducted with SPSS 19. Four validated survey instruments were used to obtain the data: (1) The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), formulated by Bass and Avolio (1995), (2) The Paternalistic Leadership Scale developed by Voich (1995), (3) The Global Transformational Leadership Scale (GTL) developed by Carless, Wearing and Mann (2000) and (4) The Psychological Empowerment Scale developed by Spreitzer (1995).

Findings - The study shows that there is a positive but partial relationship between the Transformational Leadership style and Psychological Empowerment, but there is no relationship between Paternalistic Leadership, Transactional Leadership as predicted.

Conclusion - Transformational leadership style has been identified as one of the most important ways to empower employees in organizations in the light of findings.

Keywords: Paternalistic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, psychological empowerment, gender differences

JEL Codes: M14, J71, J54

1. INTRODUCTION

Organizations need self-confident employees, especially during times of increased competition. Empowering is an appliance that can help achieve this need. We have been talking about the leader in a way that he/she has decided to share his/her existing power with his/her subordinates (Conger and Kanungo, 1988, pp. 471-482, Wilkinson, 1998, pp. 40-56, Siegall and Gardner, 2000, pp. 703-722). Empowering is defined as a process in which the leader shares his/her own power and responsibility with his/her subordinates (Conger and Kanungo, 1988, pp. 472).

It is seen that the efforts and the initiative of the manager play an important role in the studies about empowering. Leadership styles and behaviors of managers make a difference in the success of the organization. Leadership is the art of influencing subordinates (Yukl, 1994) and empowering employees (Conger, 1999). It is an important issue that the leadership styles will contribute to the employee’s feeling of being strong and whether they will affect the perceptions of empowerment or affect the employee’s positive emotions.

Studies that look at empowerment in terms of psychological empowerment focus on the perception of empowerment of subordinates (Thomas and Vlthhouse, 1990, pp. 666-681, Spreitzer, 1995, pp.1442-1465). Psychological empowerment is the perception of how strong the employee feels (Thomas and Vlthhouse 1990, pp.672) Perceptions and beliefs related to the meaning of work, the impact, competence, and self-determination created are concepts that are emphasized as sub-dimensions of psychological empowering (Greasley et al., 2005, pp. 356-357).

It is important to know what beliefs employees have on their strengths and what variables affect their perceptions. In the relevant study, the influence of leadership styles on psychological empowerment will be investigated and the effects on psychological empowering and dimensions of leadership styles will be examined.
In order to be able to empower, managers need to give authority and responsibility to their employees and it is thought that the idea that the employee is strengthened in the work done may vary according to the gender. Despite extensive research on leadership, leadership styles and psychological empowerment, it was aimed to contribute to the literacy work of the study because these studies did not have much research on the differences of the employees according to gender factors. The purpose of this study is to find out from this point of view, "How is the relationship between leadership styles and employee perceptions of psychological empowerment, and how does the concept of gender contribute to these concepts? The study is organized as follows. In the first stage, the effects of leadership styles lead to the perception of psychological empowerment are discussed. In the second stage, the moderating effect of gender differences in the relationship between leadership styles and employees’ psychological empowerment is also investigated. Next, the research design used to test all these hypotheses and the results are discussed.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Psychological Empowerment

The study of Kanter in 1979 is one of the earliest works on empowering within the organization (Kanter, 1979). The concept of empowerment is examined in two main categories: structural and psychological. The first stage of empowerment is structural empowerment. Structural empowerment is the sharing of power and competence with not only the senior position but also the lower echelon with some changes to the system. It is argued that the structural empowering provided psychological empowerment in the studies carried out (Ertenü, 2008).

Empowerment is one of the most important organizational developments in preventing physical and mental health problems of the employee and increasing the efficiency of the institution. (Yoon, 2001). Empowerment has begun to be expressed in recent work with variables such as innovation, innovative business behavior, risk taking behavior, and commitment to work.

Empowerment means that employees are empowered and shared as Burke points out; raising employee responsibilities and working more efficiently (Burke, 1986). Argyris, however, criticized the issue of delegation and stated that, under normal circumstances, managers would appear to share only that they would not volunteer to share their power with their subordinates (Argyris, 1988).

The concept of empowerment also includes meanings such as entrepreneurship (Tannenbaum, 1968), autonomy (Kanter, 1979), internal motivation (Deci, 1980), competence (White, 1959), power needs and self-sufficiency (Bandura, 1977). Empowerment is the process of increasing the self-sufficiency of employees by providing information and innovation by eliminating the situations and issues that make employees feel weak within the organization (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). According to Conger and Kanungo, people are inherently strong beings, but living uncertainties and negative events lead people to feel powerless (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). In order for the individual to feel strong in the organization, the conditions that cause him to feel bad and weak must be removed.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, the concept of empowerment was considered more complex than it seemed, and the concept of psychological empowerment began to be studied (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997). In the first studies, this concept was tried to be explained by the concept of self-sufficiency suggested by Bandura (Bandura, 1986). However, as Thomas and Velthouse point out, self-sufficiency does not explain psychological emancipation alone (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). In this sense, 4 sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment should be emphasized.

**Meaning:** It means what the employee loads into the assigned tasks. While positive results such as dedication and loyalty develop in people who make sense to their work, employees who do not find work meaningful are disconnected and uninterested (May, 1969). Diversification in jobs and duties will prevent the monotony in the workplace, making the employee feel more peaceful, making the job more meaningful and making the employee feel stronger (Hackman and Oldham, 1976).

**Impact:** Organizational staff act strategically and administratively to their firms, but at the same time employees also contribute to their company (Ashforth, 1989). Employees feel stronger as they play a role in the completion of the work and feel that they make a difference (Abramson et al., 1978).

**Self-determination:** It is the belief that the quiche is going to get out of the business to do and to do the job right. It means the qualification revealed by Bandura (Bandura, 1977). Workers with fewer beliefs will be fears and empowerment (Ertenü, 2008).

**Competence:** It is the belief in the autonomy provided to him by his/her work (Deci and Ryan, 1985). The fact that the employee is responsible for the job will cause him to be more enthusiastic about the job and increase his/her self-confidence (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Self-confidence begins to feel stronger as the working employee increases.
Both support and freedom are needed to empower employees (Kanter, 1979). Since the issues of giving support and giving freedom are closely related to the manager, referring to the possibility of strengthening, the importance of the manager arises.

2.2. Leadership Styles

Leadership is mentioned as "imagining a group of people around in the direction of certain goals and moving them to achieve those goals" (Bass, Steidlmeier, 1999). Leadership is the process of mutual interaction between leaders and followers based on shared and mutual goals (Rost, 1991: 102). In the past years it has seen that leaders are classified as "democratic", "autocratic" and "laisser-faire". These leadership styles, expressing different styles of leadership, show the power of the leaders and their followers on decisions. Since the late 1980s, different leadership concepts have been developed. At the beginning of the nineties, the theories of Transformational Leadership and Charismatic Leadership began to be mentioned. In the following, three leadership styles, which will be examined in relation to empowerment and which have been frequently studied in recent years, are discussed. These are paternalistic leadership, transformational and transactional.

Transformational Leadership: This concept of attention was first drawn by Burns in 1978, and then by Bass in 1985 (Yukl, 1994, Hinkin and Tracey, 1999). Transformational leaders have a broad vision of what might be future, rather than the past of the organization (Chew, Spangler and Zhu, 2005, pp.42). Transformational leaders empower viewers to enable viewers to voluntarily work on the tasks they receive. It shares both responsibility and decision-making with its employees, thus allowing employees to become more empowered (Leithwood, Jantzi, Steinbach, 2000), and increasing the motivation they need to improve themselves. Transformational Leadership has four dimensions: Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individualized Consideration.

Transactional leadership: Burns sees the Transactional leadership style of leadership as a trade between leader and employee; therefore, employees know that when they do what they want, they will reach the results and rewards of a certain value (Nur 1998, pp.19-26). These kinds of leaders are task-oriented and open their expectations to their employees (Hartog, Hoogh and Koopman, 2005). They manage their employees in accordance with pre-established rules and they also expect employees to perform their duties within the framework of these rules (Hartog, Hoogh and Koopman, 2005). In case of failure, the reward system is applied and in case of failure, the penalty system is applied and a strict obedience from the employee is expected (Bartram, Casimir, Waldman and Yang, 2006, p.71). Transactional leaders depend on the current system, so the institution strengthens the existing system without changing the culture (Olle, 2005, p.20). Transactional leadership has one dimension: Contingent Reward

Paternalistic Leadership: In the paternalistic leadership approach, the relationship between the leader and the employee is more like a parent-child relationship (Aycan and Pasa, 2003). This related leader protects, directs, guides and guides the employee and takes decisions instead of his / her goodwill (Aycan, 2005). This relationship is not only for professional life, but also for private life. The leader is not only concerned with his/her work life but also with his private life and leads his/her employees. The employee trusts the leader and volunteers his/her direction. (Aycan, 2005).Paternalistic leadership has five dimensions: family atmosphere at work, individualized relationships, involvement in employees’ non-work lives, loyalty expectations, and status hierarchy and authority.

2.3. Relationship between Leadership Styles and Psychological Empowerment

On the basis of empowerment, the leader has the power to share with his/her subordinates (Likert, 1961, 1967). However, there is no such thing as the empowerment, sharing of power and responsibility that will always enable the employee to be strengthened psychologically (Ertenü, 2008). Both support and freedom are needed to empower employees (Kanter, 1979). Since the issues of giving support and giving freedom are closely related to the manager, referring to the possibility of strengthening, the importance of the manager arises.

According to the expectation theory (Vroom, Yetton, 1988), two types of motivation of the individual are anticipated; It is anticipation that the worker’s effort can turn into performance, and he/she expects to receive an award at the end of his/her performance. The expectation that the worker’s effort can turn into performance is called self-sufficiency (Bandura, 1977).

Also self-efficacy emotions may increase when employees are empowered; but the expectation of a prize for performance as a result is dependent on the ability of the manager to give feedback to the sense of self-efficacy, whether it is successful or not (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). In the studies conducted by Parker and Price, there was a positive relationship between employees’ perceptions of psychological empowerment and managers’ empowerment and managerial support (Parker and Price, 1994). Employees feel more empowered when they think their leaders support them (Parker and Price, 1994).
Examples of empowering support behaviors include emotional support for employees, participation in decision making, assertive but achievable goals, approaches that will not feel distracted, supportive and instructive feedback, and support for employees’ learning processes.

The leader’s confidence and hope, sincerity and carelessness of the employees lead them to value work and feel stronger (Avolio et al., 2004). From this point of view, it is revealed that transformational leaders who are pro-change, that is, more innovative, strengthen their subordinates more than do transactional leaders who are conservative and traditional leaders (Spreitzer, Delanazs and Quinn, 1999). Transformational leaders allow employees to share responsibility, make decisions, and thus provide the empowerment they need to improve their work (Leithwood, 1992). It may be possible to talk about the empowerment of employees if the manager is making an effort to strengthen her staff (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990, p.667).

By sharing information with employees, giving more responsibility, and communicating upwards, employees can express their opinions and opinions more easily (Wilkinson, 1998, p.47). Self-efficacy perceptions of employees need to be provided in order to provide psychological strength. Therefore, leaders should encourage their subordinates to be self-determined and accountable. It is important in terms of psychological empowerment that the employees themselves decide their work and that they can find solutions to the problems that may arise.

2.4. Gender Role as a Moderator

The difference between male and female, based on gender differences, has an extended background, and under assorted forms, is discusses in all fields. In our society there are different roles that are loaded on genders. The roles attributed to women and the roles attributed to man may vary between cultures and between societies. The role attributed to women; compassionate, gentle, loyal, loving to children, and being sensitive to others. The role attributed to the men is; a passion for ascension, being a competitor, dominant and oppressive attitude, being self-confident, independent and attitude-like, assertive, paying attention to money and dominating materialist tendencies (Bakan et al., 2004: 88-89). In Turkish culture, feminine values such as compassion, sensitivity towards others, understanding and warmth come to the forefront (Çağlar, 2001: 141).

However, gender relations involve an unequal power relationship where men are more dominant than women in many areas of work and social life, and women are often pushed into the second plan in business. The values assigned to the tasks attributed to men are greater than those assigned to the tasks attributed to women.

Many writers and researchers have stated that the term of empowerment comes from the ear as a more masculine word (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995). What women and men understand in terms of “power” is different from each other. In particular, it has been shown that the influence and self-efficacy dimensions of psychological empowerment are more endorsed by men (Spreitzer, 1995). The results of the meta-analysis are related to the characteristics of men and women; (Burton, 1993) show that men have more power than women (Burton, 1993), while women show different experiences (Bem S, 1974) and diversity (Budak, 1998). In Coakley’s work, he argued that men perceive themselves more physically than women and give more rewards to personal success (Coakley, 2007). In the study conducted by Çekmecelioğlu and Keleş in 2008, it was determined that there is a significant but negative relationship between the meaning and competence dimension of psychological empowerment and gender (Çekmecelioğlu and Keles, 2008). The study shows that women workers find their jobs more meaningful, believe they are competent in their work, and that they believe in their own ability to do things successfully. However, in order for generalizations to be made, the relationship between gender and psychological strengthening needs to be investigated more thoroughly. Gender based issues are seen to influence male and female employees’ conditions in the organizational environment (Acker, 2005).

In general, male employees are more audacious, risk taking and success oriented than female employees (Schein, 1973; Diekman and Eagly, 2000). There are studies supporting this view like De Vaus and McAllister (1991) mentioned that male employees usually take pleasure in more independence and power over their work. Furthermore, the same study shows that male employees set more importance than female employees on fundamental job related issues such as having liability, chance to use venture and responsibility, and achievements. It may be understood that male employees are extra approachable to the challenging and motivating behaviors of transformational leaders. Male employees might extra vigorously internalize the idea or purpose expressed by transformational leaders and knowledge improved motivation to business, on the other hand, female employees have fewer power and independence over their jobs and therefore may diminish such work related issues in judgment to their male colleagues (Kalleberg and Griffin, 1978). Therefore, female employees could be less predisposed by transformational leadership than male employees.
3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Aim of the Study

In this section, the conceptual model underlying the study, the literature supporting the predictions of the variables according to this model, and the hypotheses put forward as a result of them are expressed. In the analysis of the data, SPSS 19 was used. The analysis consisted of frequency analyzes of the demographics of the respondents, factor analysis, reliability analysis, correlation analysis and regression analysis to test the research hypotheses.

3.2. Sample and Data Collection

The sample of the research consists of a total of 97 people working in middle and lower levels in various organizations. 30 participants were male (30, 9%) and 67 were female (69, 1%) and their ages varied between 23 and 60 (Mean: 32, 33). When the education level of the sample population is examined, it is seen that 49 (50.5%) are undergraduates and 48 (49.5%) are graduate and PhD students. Fifty-seven participants (58.8%) stated their position as intermediate, while 40 participants (41.2%) stated that they were low-level employees. 45 of the employees are married, 52 are the single.

The average time spent by participants in business life is approximately 9.5 years (mean: 9.39), ranging from 1 to 37 years. Demographic data are summarized in Table 1.

3.3. Measures of the Study Variables

6 Likert Scale was used in answering the questionnaires applied in this research. The assessment options are as follows:

1) Strongly Disagree, 2) Disagree, 3) Slightly Disagree, 4) Slightly Agree, 5) Agree, 6) Strongly Agree

Survey forms used in the research were determined according to the variables considered to be measured. In this regard, it has been decided to use the questionnaire examples developed by researchers that have been validated and tested for reliability. The scales used in the questionnaire are:

- **Transactional Leadership**: Transactional leadership style is measured by Bass and Avolio (1995) and four proposals that measure contingent rewards in a survey of eight propositions in total. The reliability of the survey is 0.7952.

- **Paternalistic Leadership**: Paternalistic Leadership has been used in the survey of 5 questions about leadership. It is a one dimensional paternalist leadership scale (Voich, 1995). The reliability of the survey is 0.8814.

- **Transformer Leadership**: 7 questions about transformational leadership have been used in the survey. Carless, Wearing and Mann (2000) Global Transformational Leadership Scale (GTL) scale is used. The reliability of the questionnaire is 0.9156.

- **Psychological Empowerment**: Spreitzer’s (1995) 12-item measure was applied as 4 items. The questions are the same except for minor differences with the empowerment questions asked in the qualitative research on a daily basis over the internet. Each item measures 4 main dimensions of meaning, impact, self determination, competence. The responses were rated on a scale of 1-6. The reliability of the questionnaire is 0.7270.

- **Demographic Questions**: Questions were asked regarding the title, age, education status, and duration of the participants (seniority).
4. RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

A number of scientific studies have been conducted on the relationship between the variables involved in this study. For this reason, the variables studied and the relationships between them were determined by literature review. The model in this study is as follows.

Dependent Variable: Psychological Empowerment Perception

Independent Variable: Leadership Styles

Moderating Variable: Employee Gender
In accordance with the model, the following research hypotheses were illustrated;

**Hypothesis 1a**: There is a positive relationship between Transformational Leadership style and Psychological Empowerment.

**Hypothesis 1b**: There is a negative relationship between Paternalistic Leadership style and Psychological Empowerment.

**Hypothesis 1c**: There is a negative relationship between Transactional Leadership style and Psychological Empowerment.

**Hypothesis 2**: The impact of the Transformational Leadership on Psychological Empowerment will be higher in men than in women.

5. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1. Analytic Procedure (Statistical Analysis)

Factor analysis; Principal component analysis and varimax rotation method were used to determine the sub-dimensions of the leadership styles measured in the scope of the study and the subscales of the psychological empowerment perception variables of the employees and to compare with the sub-dimensions mentioned in the literature. In this sense, the degree of internal consistency of the substances included in the tests to be used for the measurement included in the reliability analysis is also measured. Statistical analysis was used as a method of regression analysis to determine how the psychological empowerment perception is explained by the leadership styles. In order to understand the effect of employee’s gender on psychological empowerment of the Transformational Leadership, the gender variable was transformed into a dummy variable and introduced into multiple linear regressions. In order to test the gender difference of the psychological empowerment perception, t test was applied for independent groups from parametric tests.

5.2. Correlations Results

In order to test the validity of the hypotheses, it has first been decided to conduct a correlation analysis and evaluate its results. When performing correlation analysis, each sub-dimension of Psychological Empowerment was inserted into Pearson Correlation Analysis with independent variables. Table 2 - Pearson Correlation Analysis Summary Table is shown below.
The sub-dimension of psychological empowerment, the sense of competence, is only related to transformational leadership. The sense of impact and the sense of meaning created are not only related to transactional leadership. Self-Determination perception was not related to any type of leadership. In this case, as a result of the Pearson Correlation Analysis, H1a from the above hypotheses is partially confirmed but H1b and H1c are rejected. A simple linear regression analysis was conducted to see the contribution of the Transformational and Paternalistic Leadership types to the subscales of psychological empowerment. The coefficient of correlation between parental leadership and transformative leadership has been introduced separately into the regression analysis so that it does not lead to multiple correlations beyond .70.

5.3. Regression Results of the Study

In this section, the rate of explaining the dimensions of the psychological empowerment of leadership styles has been examined. In this review, there are only findings related to transformational and paternalistic leadership, since transactional leadership does not relate to any sub-dimension of psychological empowerment. Findings related to the impact of the transformational leadership on the subscales of psychological empowerment are given in Tables 3, 4, and 5.

Table 3: The Effect of Transformational Leadership on Competence

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<th>Ind. Variable</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>Adjusted $R^2$</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Pf</th>
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<td>.350</td>
<td>3.641</td>
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Dependent Variable: Competence

Since the p-value (sig.) is 0.000 for the result of the analysis, it is statistically possible to estimate the competence perception by the transformational leadership variable. 12.2% of the variance perceptions of competence can be explained by the transformational leadership variable. The ratio of the transformational leadership variable to the competence perception is 35%.

Table 4: The Effect of Transformational Leadership on Meaning Dimensions

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<th>Ind. Variable</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>Adjusted $R^2$</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Pf</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transform. Leadership</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>5.378</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.231</td>
<td>2.319</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent Variable: Meaning Perception

According to the result of the analysis, it is statistically possible to estimate the sense of meaning by the transformational leadership variable since the p-value (sig.) is 0.000. 5.4% of the variation in perception of Job Meaning can be explained by the transformational leadership variable. The conversion rate of the transformational leadership variable was 23.1%.
According to the result of the analysis, it is statistically possible to estimate the impact perception created by the p-value (sig.) 0.000 with the transformational leadership variable. 5.9% of the variation in perceived Impact Perception can be explained by the Transformational Leadership variable. The predictive value of the transformational leadership variable is 24.2%. As in the correlation analysis, there is no relationship between the transformational leadership and self-determination in the regression results. Because the results of the analysis made with competence and self-determination sub-dimensions did not yield the results with the results of the psychological empowerment subscales of Paternalistic Leadership, Tables 6 and 7 give only the results related to sense of meaning and impact.

Table 6: The Effect of Paternalistic Leadership on Meaning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ind. Variable</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Pf</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Patern. Leadership</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>8.504</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.287</td>
<td>2.916</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent Variable: Meaning Perception

According to the result of the analysis, it is statistically possible to estimate the sense of work meaning with the paternalistic leadership variable since the p value (sig.) is 0.000. 8.2% of the perception of job meaning can be explained by the paternalistic leadership variable. The predicted rate of the paternalistic leadership variable, job meaning perception was 28.7%.

Table 7: The Effect of Paternalistic Leadership on Impact

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ind. Variable</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Pf</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Patern. Leadership</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>6.004</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>2.450</td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent Variable: Impact Perception

According to the analysis result, it is statistically possible to estimate the perception of the impact created from the p value (sig.) 0.000 with the paternalistic leadership variable. 5.9% of the variation in perceived impact can be explained by the paternalistic leadership variable. The predictive value of the perceived impact of the variable of leadership is 24.4%.

The Impact of Gender on "The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Psychological Empowerment"

Since it is the leader type of Transformational Leader that gives the most authority and responsibility to the employees in the workplace, it is thought that the gender variable will be the most influential transformational leader and psychological empowerment relation. Gender was taken as a dummy variable for the regression analysis and multiplied by independent variable scores and modeled. In the charts below, the psychological empowerment was found to be related to the sense of competence, meaning of work, and impact of creation. As you can see, the gender and transformational leadership interaction have never been effective. The statistics for the model are given in Tables 8, 9 and 10.
In this study, it was aimed to explain the effect of leadership styles on the perceptions of employees' psychological empowerment and the role of this related gender. The results obtained from the Pearson Correlation Analysis and Simple Linear Regression Analysis to understand the relationship and clarity between the Transformational Leadership style and the Psychological Empowerment are in parallel with the findings of the literature. It is possible to say that Transformational Leadership is not important for self-determination, which is one of the strengthening subcategories. It has been suggested that self-determination as one of the reasons for not being important for self-determination is more related to personal traits and related to self-confidence (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). Self-determination may be important for psychological empowerment, but according to the findings we have, it is not possible to say that it develops due to the behavior of the leader.

In the Paternalistic leadership approach, the relationship between the manager and the employee is like a parent-child relationship (Aycan and Pasa, 2003). This related leader protects, directs, guides and guides the employee and takes decisions instead of his/her goodwill (Aycan, 2005). Employees rely on their manager (Aycan, 2005). Some studies have shown that it is easier to strengthen in managerial employee relations based on mutual harmony and trust. (Keller & Dansereau, 1995; Gomez & Rosen, 2001). Because, in an environment of mutual harmony and trust, naturally controlling behaviors decrease; the sense of impact and sense of work created in the workplace are rising. (Liden et al., 2000).

The transactional leader uses the transfer of competence, in part, in his work to fulfill his/her duties. However, he/she does not fully implement the authority transfer principles when he/she does so. Since it has a lot of tasks to develop the aimed staff, it is not able to carry out literally proper authority transfer (Gavuz, 2008). When we look at the relationship between gender and psychological empowerment, it is seen that there is no consistent data. In a similar study conducted in Korea, men were found to have a lower self-determination perception (Yoon, 2001). In Ozaralli's work (2003), the determinants of

### Table 8: Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Transformational Leader and Competence Perception Effect on Gender As Moderating Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Ind. Variable</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Pf</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model 1</td>
<td>Transform. Leader</td>
<td>.122</td>
<td>13.257</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.350</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 2</td>
<td>Transform. Leader</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>6.633</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.355</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dummy Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.035</td>
<td>.718</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent Variable: Competence

### Table 9: Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Transformational Leader and Meaning Perception Effect on Gender As Moderating Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Ind. Variable</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Pf</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model 1</td>
<td>Transform. Leader</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>5.378</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.231</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 2</td>
<td>Transform. Leader</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>2.686</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>.235</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dummy Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.022</td>
<td>.828</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent Variable: Meaning

### Table 10: Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Transformational Leader and Impact Perception Effect on Gender As Moderating Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Ind. Variable</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Pf</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model 1</td>
<td>Transform. Leader</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>5.909</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.242</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 2</td>
<td>Transform. Leader</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>3.086</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>.250</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dummy Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.056</td>
<td>.581</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent Variable: Impact

5. CONCLUSION

In this study, it was aimed to explain the effect of leadership styles on the perceptions of employees' psychological empowerment and the role of this related gender. The results obtained from the Pearson Correlation Analysis and Simple Linear Regression Analysis to understand the relationship and clarity between the Transformational Leadership style and the Psychological Empowerment are in parallel with the findings of the literature. It is possible to say that Transformational Leadership is not important for self-determination, which is one of the strengthening subcategories. It has been suggested that self-determination as one of the reasons for not being important for self-determination is more related to personal traits and related to self-confidence (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). Self-determination may be important for psychological empowerment, but according to the findings we have, it is not possible to say that it develops due to the behavior of the leader.
gender have not been proven (Özaral, 2003). There was no significant relationship between gender and psychological empowerment in the study performed by Çavuş in 2008 (Çavuş, 2008).

In the global world where competition is intense, companies need to provide better quality and faster service to their customers in order to gain superiority over their competitors. Firms need to be able to successfully implement new management techniques in order to survive and achieve success in this fast changing process. It is possible to say that empowerment is a state of perception because it is a perception, that is, it changes according to the environmental conditions that occur. Therefore, it would be more accurate to talk about the fact that people feel more or less strengthened by circumstances and the conditions they are in (Spreitzer, 1995). It is therefore important that not only the style of the manager and who he/she is, how he/she behaves towards everyone, but how he interprets the behavior of his subordinates.

Parker and Price (1994, pp. 911-928) found a positive relationship between the feelings of empowerment of employees in the work they conducted and their perceptions of managers empowering, controlling, and supporting them. If employees perceive managers as empowering and supportive, they feel more empowered. Transformational leaders continue to work in organizations when they want to make changes. In contrast to the Transformational leadership, which tends to strengthen its subordinates by overthrowing its powers, the transactional leaders do not stand for the transfer of power. Transformational leadership style has been identified as one of the most important ways of empowerment of personnel in organizations (Bolat, 2008: 199). Paternalistic leadership perceptions differ among societies. In societies where Paternalistic leadership is prevalent, managers can make decisions on their behalf, claiming they know what is good for employees, if necessary. Employees voluntarily accept this. In the individualistic and egalitarian Western societies, it is difficult to understand this for two reasons. First of all it cannot be accepted that decisions can be taken on behalf of a person and it is not clear how this person is willing. In directing with a fatherly sense, the “manager” claims to know what is good for the employee and tries to apply them without getting the employee’s ideas. For this reason, paternal leadership by some Western researchers is seen as a practice restricting autonomy and freedom of choice (Aycan, 2001). Although Paternalistic concept of leadership in Western literature is negative and psychologically reinforcing; this study shows that Paternalistic leadership has a positive effect on the perception of psychological empowerment.

As a result, the study can be limited from the point of view of the sample size in order to provide more significant and healthy results. Also this survey does not contain a sectorial question. A second limitation was the frequent source measurement; that is, the data were composed only from employees’ view.

For other researches related to the similar concepts can replicate the methodology adopted in the present study to other sectors. Leadership styles is one of the factors that influence Psychological Empowerment, the other influencing factors can be explored. The present study does not investigate the antecedents of Leadership Styles.

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THE STUDY OF RELATIONSHIPS AMONG OFFICE LOCATIONS, CORPORATE GOVERNANCE AND BUSINESS PERFORMANCE: EVIDENCE FROM CHINA LISTED COMPANIES

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ABSTRACT
Purpose - Based on Tobler's first law of geography, this paper applies the concept on friction of distance, and assumes that business performance and corporate governance are interrelated with the locations where the according businesses site their headquarters offices. Methodology - A Differencing Location Factor survey was designed and used to examine the impacts within. The author first use a multiple regression to analyze Business Performance, then the single-factor and multivariate analysis of variance for Corporate Governance, and the Principal component analysis for comparing the quality of Corporate Governance. Findings- As per empirical results: 1) Corporate business performance significantly correlates with corporate governance and office locations, with a significant difference between various areas; and 2) For enterprises in China , the quality of corporate governance significantly correlates and varies with their office locations.

Conclusion- Regarding these results the office location is one of the factors that affect corporate governance and business performance. This also explains the United States, China and Taiwan scholars research that the headquarters office has a tendency to move towards the metropoliscentral in time trajectory.

Keywords: Corporate governance, business performance, location theory, multiple regression, multivariate analysis of variance, Principal component analysis.
JEL Codes: G34, M10, R39

1. INTRODUCTION

In the early 1930s, American academia began to discuss “corporate governance.” It was not until investors and regulatory authorities witnessed various corporate governance issues—from the financial crises and malpractices in enterprises to national economic recession and the financial tsunami—did they realize the importance of a perfect corporate governance mechanism to optimize capital markets and attract more international capital (Yin-Hua Ye et al., 2002). This impelled regulatory authorities to reflect on corporate governance so as to legislate mechanisms thereof. The OECD expressly argued that imperfect corporate governance was one of the key causes of failure of enterprises to enhance their international competitiveness. Research data shows that an imperfect corporate governance mechanism is one of the main causes of a financial tsunami (Rajan and Zingales, 1998).

Are locational factors important, and do the locations of enterprise headquarters correlate with corporate governance and business performance? Enterprises are established to earn maximized profits. To this end, it is important to gain competitive advantage, by prices or quantities, from a short-term perspective; adopt state-of-the-art production technologies from a medium-term perspective; and select appropriate headquarters locations from a long-term perspective. The locations of factories or offices with a geographical advantage that reduces the clients’ transport costs, while also attracting more clients and, in particular, enterprise headquarters—from where enterprises primarily issue orders and make decisions—are vital to overall enterprise operation (Ming-Yi Huang and Jin-E Jhang, 2000).
In 2017, the US president Trump put forth the "Biggest Tax Cut in American History" and the "Made in America" policy. This is likely to influence the economic development and financial status of other countries. For example, several large enterprises in Taiwan and Japan have planned to establish factories in the US. On April 1st, 2017, the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China and the State Council jointly announced a "millennial project" to develop the Xiongan New Area, as strategically important as the development in Shenzhen and Pudong. The goal of this project is to build a core area for developing innovative technologies, and make it the Silicon Valley of China. In order to reduce the intensity of investment in the Chinese Mainland and dependence upon foreign trade, the Taiwanese government carried out the "Go Southwards" policy, thus diversifying the investment risk and opening up new markets. Hence, the author began focusing on the influence of corporate governance and location theory.

Government policies stipulate general economic guidelines, which are of great concern to the business orientation of enterprises, national economy, and people's livelihood. Therefore, such policies should be treated with prudence. This paper discusses the correlation between the spatial locations of enterprise offices, quality of corporate governance, and business performance. Do the office locations of China listed enterprises correlate with the quality of their corporate governance and business performance? This paper will focus on the two types of correlation and the relationship between them.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Corporate Governance

Yin-Hua Ye (2016) defined corporate governance mechanism as the design and implementation of corporate institutions that are intended to improve the efficiency of strategic management. On the other hand, Shleifer and Vishny (1997) defined it as a way to ensure capital providers were duly rewarded. According to Cheng-En Ke (2000), corporate governance refers to corporate institutions that are intended to protect the due rights and interests of enterprises' capital providers. In his view, corporate capitals are mainly provided by the shareholders; however, the self-interested principal stakeholders or managers responsible for corporate management will not necessarily take into full account the due rights and interests of general shareholders. Therefore, it is imperative to build a supervisory mechanism to coordinate the interests between managers and shareholders to reduce agency costs and realize higher corporate value.

Corporate governance primarily deals with ensuring senior managers effectively create wealth for shareholders, while they are provided with autonomous rights and incentives (Epps and Cereola, 2008). A board of directors acts as a bridge between shareholders and managers, and on behalf of the shareholders, tries to protect and increase the enterprise’s long-term interests (Veliyath, 1999). The corporate governance mechanism regulates managers’ behaviors, which is directed toward ensuring that the enterprise investors receive a reasonable return on investment and preventing the losses of capital providers due to managers' misconducts (Shleifer and Vishny, 1986). The OECD (1999) proposes six guidelines for corporate governance, which are to 1) strengthen the functions of the board of directors, 2) exert the role of supervisors (the Audit Committee), 3) value the rights of shareholders and interested parties, 4) ensure the transparency of information exposure, 5) build and carry out an internal control and audit system, and 6) appoint high-caliber accountants and lawyers prudently.

To summarize, corporate governance is a system that protects the rights and interests of enterprise’s capital providers. It is intended to solve the agency problem, reduce the agency costs, supervise the organizational activities of the enterprise effectively by implementing a reasonable check-and-balance design, and, ultimately, maximize the enterprise’s economic value.

2.2 Location Theory

"Location" is built on the concept of social grouping. The location theory is a solution that scientists have proposed with respect to the competition and co-existence of ethnic groups, in nature, under resource-constrained conditions (Dimmick and Rothenbuhler, 1984). This theory relates to the selection of spatial locations for human economic behaviors with optimal combination of economic activities in those locations (Wei-Jhou Hu, 2006). The location theory is an important concept in the field of economic geography, and it gives a clear exposition of the division of industrial location that arises from the difference in the conditions of the spatial locations.

Weber (1909) applied the location theory to scientific management. To select appropriate factory sites, he put forth the concept of “factory location,” thus laying the basis for location selection. In 1909, Weber published the industrial location theory, where he argued that industrial locations were primarily influenced by three factors—transport costs, labor costs, and agglomeration economy.

Currently, M.E. Porter and P. Krugman are considered the leading authorities in location theory. In 1990, M.E. Porter published “The Competitive Advantage of Nations,” which stated that industrial clustering reflected a set of corporate
organizations that were geographically adjacent to and interacted with each other in a particular field. He argued that organizations were linked with each other due to the communality and complementarity between them. Hence, industrial clustering is an important cause of a nation’s competitive advantage. Weber proposed a diamond system regarding the competitive advantage of nations, as shown in Figure I.

The location theory was originally oriented toward manufacturing activities. With the advance in industrial transformation, office-based economic activities became increasingly important, which some scholars successively studied (Rubin, 1978; Pivo 1993). The advantages, degree of concentration, and change with respect to the locations of enterprise offices influences enterprise competitiveness and urban development. Holloway and Wheeler (1991) found that the location changes of enterprise headquarters were continued on an intra- and inter-industry basis, while Shilton and Stanley (1999) found that 40% of the enterprise headquarters in the US were clustered in 20 cities.

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Hypotheses

1) Locational Factor I: Urban-Rural Differences (Metropolitan Areas versus Non-metropolitan Areas) and Corporate Governance

Ruei-Jhao Deng et al. (2008) stated that economic globalization widened the economic gap between urban and rural areas. Specifically, urban areas obtained more resources and opportunities to increase public expenditures and improve infrastructure, thus creating better environments for local residents and enterprises. In contrast, rural areas were confronted with problems, such as population outflow, population aging, and resource shortage, thus lagging far behind urban areas.

Jhao-Lan Wang et al. (2008) studied government performance of 23 counties and/or cities of Taiwan. They found that 1) the relative efficiency of Taipei City, Taipei County, Taichung City, and Kaohsiung City was 1; and 2) the efficient values of most of Taiwan’s 23 cities and/or counties decreased progressively from north to south, when Taipei city/county is taken as the
core of overall competitiveness. Considering that the urban-rural differences influence enterprises, this paper proposes the following hypothesis:

H1: Enterprises located in metropolitan areas exhibit higher quality of corporate governance.

2) Locational Factor II: Traffic Convenience (Distance to International Airports) and Corporate Governance

Siao-Lin Yang (2012) studied the influence of geographical locations on the quality of board governance. The study found that, for smaller enterprises farther from (high-speed) railway stations, the quality of board governance was influenced more significantly by the adequacy of resources of local directors.

On the other hand, Liang-Jie Sie (2013) analyzed the entrepreneurial performance of micro-enterprises around the Science Park. This study found that the entrepreneurial performance was mainly influenced by key factors, such as prior knowledge and competence, market demand, innovative products, cooperation with the enterprises located in the Science Park, storefront location selection, and traffic convenience. Considering that the differences in traffic convenience influence enterprises, this paper proposes the following hypothesis:

H2: Enterprises located closer to International Airports exhibit higher quality of corporate governance.

3) Office Locations, Quality of Corporate Governance, and Corporate Business Performance

Ertugrul and Hegde (2001) found that enterprises with high quality of corporate governance also had high corporate value and good business performance. Furthermore, a study by Jhu-San Wang (2009) found that R&D and capital expenditures influenced enhancement in corporate value, and could be achieved indirectly through good corporate governance.

Klapper and Love (2004) studied the reports on the rating of corporate governance of 495 enterprises in 25 emerging market countries. They found that the quality of corporate governance positively correlated with their market value and business performance. Based on the combination of hypotheses 1 and 2, this paper proposes the following hypotheses regarding corporate business performance:

H3: Under the urban-rural differences, an enterprise located in a metropolitan area, and with high quality of corporate governance, is more likely to exhibit better business performance.

H4: Given the differences in traffic convenience, an enterprise located closer to a International Airport, and with higher quality of corporate governance, is more likely to exhibit better business performance.

3.2 Data Source

The object of this research is the China ShenZhen Stock Exchange listed enterprises sampled during the period of January 2010 to December 2016. We use 12,380 samples, for analysis, to discuss the correlation between the locational factors of offices, quality of corporate governance, and corporate business performance. The financial data is available from the annual reports of the China listed enterprises, Taiwan Economic Journal (TEJ).

3.3 Sample Analysis

The research samples are based on the headquarters addresses registered with the Department of Commercial Affairs. One thousand nine hundred and thirty four China enterprises are surveyed.

1) There are 1,023 enterprises located in Tier I cities, which account for 52.8% of the enterprises. Tier II cities has 407 enterprises (21.1%), Tier III cities has 193 enterprises (10.0%), and the non-metropolitan areas have 311 enterprises (16.1%).

2) There are 882 enterprises with a distance of less than 50 km from International Airports, which account for 45.6% of the enterprises. There are 648 enterprises (33.5%) at a distance of 51–100 km from International Airports, 129 enterprises (6.7%) at a distance of less than 101–150 km from International Airports, and 275 enterprises (14.2%) at a distance of more than 150 km from International Airports.

3.4 Definition and Measurement of Variables

3.4.1 Definition of Pointer Variable of Corporate Governance

1) Director shareholding percentage (DSP) : (number of shares by directors) ÷ (number of circulating ordinary shares) x 100%

Dalton and Kesner (1987) confirmed that the DSP positively and significantly correlated with business performance. If the majority share equity is held by directors, they are usually sufficiently motivated to supervise the managers, which impel
these managers to improve business performance and minimize harmful behaviors towards shareholders and the enterprise.

2) Director pledge percentage (DPP): (number of shares pledged by directors) \(\div\) (number of shares held by directors) x 100%. An-Lin Chen et al. (2013) argued that the DPP positively and significantly correlated with business performance. Specifically, if the directors overused financial leverage to increase their shareholding ratio, the inflated shareholding ratio could only strengthen their management rights, but would affect the corporate business performance.

3) Independent director number (IDN): Fama (1980) found that the IDN positively and significantly correlated with corporate business performance. Specifically, independent outside directors have considerable expertise and experience, and are usually scholars, experts or social elites. Therefore, they can assist the enterprise to make major decisions and provide professional services.

4) Share earnings deviation (SED): SED refers to the ratio of “the right for shareholding” to “the right to claim for cash flow”. A number of factors lead to the deviation, such as the insufficient information exposure, due to which some shareholders may become more motivated to plunder the benefits of the enterprise or deprive other minority shareholders. As a result, this will bring about higher agency costs, degradation in business performance, and reduction in corporate value (Claessens et al., 2000).

5) Cross-shareholding (CS): CS refers to the mutual shareholding between different enterprises with the aim of attaining a special purpose. Yin-Hua Ye et al. (2002) argued that, when the controlling shareholders won the control right through CS, a major negative embezzlement would be produced, thus reducing the corporate business performance.

3.4.2 Definition of the Variables Related to Locational Factors

1) In light of the allocation of government resources and administrative efficiency under Hypothesis I, China is divided into metropolitan areas (including Tier I cities, Tier II cities and Tier III cities) (APPENDIX), non-metropolitan areas (including other districts that districts not listed).

2) In light of the ease of shareholder supervision and distance to International Airports under Hypothesis II, the sampled enterprises are classified into four levels—Level I: a distance of 0–50 km from the nearest International Airports; Level II: a distance of 51–100 km from the nearest International Airports; Level III: a distance of 101–150 km from the nearest International Airports; and Level IV: a distance of more than 150 km from the nearest International Airports.

3.4.3 Definition of Corporate Business Performance

Klapper and Love (2004) used the Return on Assets (ROA) to identify deficient legal systems in corporate governance. An enterprise with high quality of corporate governance usually had a positive market value and business performance. On the other hand, Huson et al. (2004) used ROA to measure the influence of the replacement of senior managers on corporate business performance. They found that after the CEOs were replaced, the accounting performance of the enterprises would improve significantly. In this research, ROA is used as a variable for measuring corporate business performance. The after-tax net profit per 1-TWD assets is equal to (post-tax profit or loss) + (interest expenses) x (1 – tax rate) ÷ (average total assets).

3.5 Design of Research Model

From the perspective of office directions, this paper discusses the correlation between corporate governance and business performance. We specifically estimate and analyze the correlation by using the fixed effect of Panel Data Regression, descriptive statistics, single-factor and multivariate analysis of variance, principal component analysis, and different multiple regression models. Model (I): In order to measure the influence of corporate governance and office location on corporate business performance, the following regression model is built. In light of H3 (Under the urban-rural differences, an enterprise located in a metropolitan area or with high quality of corporate governance is more likely to exhibit better business performance.), the following regression equation is developed:

\[
\text{ROA}_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (\text{DSP}_t) + \beta_2 (\text{DPP}_t) + \beta_3 (\text{SED}_t) + \beta_4 (\text{IDN}_t) + \beta_5 (\text{CS}_t) + \beta_6 (\text{AREA-F}_t) + \beta_7 (\text{AREA-S}_t) + \beta_8 (\text{AREA-T}_t) + \epsilon_t
\]

where \(\text{AREA-F}\) is the office location (Tier I cities), \(\text{AREA-S}\) is the office location (Tier II cities), \(\text{AREA-T}\) is the Office location (Tier III cities) and \(\epsilon_t\) is the residual value.

In light of H4 (Under the differences in traffic convenience, an enterprise closer to a International Airport or with high quality of corporate governance is more likely to exhibit better business performance.), the following regression equation is developed:
ROA\_it = \beta_0 + \beta_1(DSP\_it) + \beta_2(DPP\_it) + \beta_3(SED\_it) + \beta_4(IDN\_it) + \beta_5(CS\_it) + \beta_6(DHK-1\_it) + \beta_7(DHK-2\_it) + \beta_8(DHK-3\_it) + \varepsilon \_it \hspace{1cm} (2) \]

where DHK-1 is enterprises with a distance of 0–50 km from a International Airport, DHK-2 is enterprises with a distance of 51–100 km from a International Airport, DHK-3 is enterprises with a distance of 101–150 km from a International Airport, and DHK-4 is enterprises with a distance of more than 150 km from a International Airport.

Model (II): In order to measure the influence of office locations on various corporate governance variables, the single-factor and multivariate analysis of variance is used. The analysis framework is as follows:

MANOVA mathematical formula:

\[ \beta_1(DSP\_it) + \beta_2(DPP\_it) + \beta_3(SED\_it) + \beta_4(IDN\_it) + \beta_5(CS\_it) = (AREA\_it) \hspace{1cm} (3) \]

The code names are the same as those under Model (I):

Urban-rural differences under Hypothesis I:

\( (AREA\_it) = \{\text{Location (Tier I cities, Tier II cities and Tier III cities, other districts)}\} \)

Differences in the distance to International Airports under Hypothesis II:

\( (AREA\_it) = \{\text{Location (enterprises in the area that are closest to International Airports, enterprises in the area that are the second closest to International Airports, enterprises in the area that are the second farthest from International Airports, and enterprises in the area that are the farthest from International Airports)}\} \)

The null hypothesis tested by the MANOVA is as follows: The mean vectors of horizontal groups are all equal, and are all available from the same group.
Model (III): Principal component analysis uses fewer variables to explain the majority of variables in the original data, as well as the composite pointers of the data. The main purpose is to set several indexes, and specifically: 1) determine the weight of each variable and obtain the weighted average of variables, 2) assign a high weight to a critical variable and a low weight to a relatively unessential variable, and 3) set the overall index accordingly.

Regarding the principal component equation, the overall index (Y) is a linear combination that comprises K analysis variables. We assume that the only three analysis variables are standardized as (Z₁, Z₂, and Z₃), and the weights of their principal components are set as (a₁, a₂, and a₃). The principal component equation is then expressed as follows:

\[ Y = a_1 Z_1 + a_2 Z_2 + a_3 Z_3 \]

where, Y is the overall index, Z_k is the k-th analysis variable (k=1, 2, 3…….), and a_k is the weight of the k-th analysis variable, namely, the weight of principal component.

The variance of the principal component Y is listed as follows:

\[ \text{VAR}(Y) = a_1^2 r_{11} + a_2^2 r_{22} + a_3^2 r_{33} + 2a_1a_2 r_{12} + 2a_1a_3 r_{13} + 2a_2a_3 r_{23} \]

where R = [r₁₁ r₁₂ r₁₃ ; r₂₁ r₂₂ r₂₃ ; r₃₁ r₃₂ r₃₃] is the correlation coefficient matrix of (Z₁, Z₂, Z₃).

a = [a₁ a₂ a₃] is the weight vector of principal component.

Next, we use the maximized variance of principal component as the objective function, and use the constraint equation, where the sum of square weights is equal to 1, to ensure the uniqueness of the solution:

\[ \text{MAX} : \text{VAR}(Y) = a' \cdot R \cdot a \]

S.T : a' * a =1

where a' * a =1 is the constraint equation where the sum of square weights is equal to 1.

To solve the above objective set, it is translated into a Lagrange equation.

\[ L = [a_1 a_2 a_3] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} \\ r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} \\ r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{bmatrix} - \lambda \left( a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2 - 1 \right) \]

To find \( \lambda \), we need to maximize the lagrange function, subject to the constraint that the sum of squared weights is equal to 1. The solution involves finding the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the correlation matrix R. The largest eigenvalue corresponds to the principal component with the largest variance.

In the equation (6), \( \lambda \) is the lagrangian multiplier. Through the principal component analysis mode of the statistical software, we determine the \( \lambda \) value and principal component weight [a₁ a₂ a₃]. The \( \lambda \) value can be used to measure the
representativeness of the principal component, namely, whether the principal components can represent all variables effectively. The \([a_1, a_2, a_3]\) are the elements used to construct the principal components.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Descriptive Statistics Analysis

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics analysis of the research samples involves average numbers and standard deviations.

**Table 1: Descriptive Statistics Data Table (N = 12,380)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Hypothesis I</th>
<th>Hypothesis II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>Standard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area – Tier I cities</td>
<td>14.75</td>
<td>11.852</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area – Tier II cities</td>
<td>16.23</td>
<td>11.705</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area – Tier III cities</td>
<td>18.12</td>
<td>14.309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-metropolitan area</td>
<td>15.38</td>
<td>11.335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area – Tier I cities</td>
<td>9.29</td>
<td>18.114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area – Tier II cities</td>
<td>8.16</td>
<td>16.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area – Tier III cities</td>
<td>8.91</td>
<td>17.802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-metropolitan area</td>
<td>7.04</td>
<td>16.184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDN</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area – Tier I cities</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>1.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area – Tier II cities</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>1.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area – Tier III cities</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-metropolitan area</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SED</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area – Tier I cities</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>8.331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area – Tier II cities</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>7.259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area – Tier III cities</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>10.303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-metropolitan area</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>10.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area – Tier I cities</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan area – Tier II cities</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.329</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The statistical results show that the DSP correlates with the mode of management. In those surveyed areas, such as Tier I cities, where there is a large proportion of family enterprises, there is a high ESP ratio; and a low DSP ratio when a large number of enterprises are managed by professional managers (for example, Tier I cities). The IDN of enterprises in the Tier I cities is obviously higher than that in other districts. The SED of the enterprises in the non-metropolitan areas is higher than that in the metropolitan areas. For enterprises in the metropolitan areas and a short distance from International Airports, the CS proportion is relatively high. This shows that such enterprises are good at gaining the corporate control right by means of CS.

4.2 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis

When stepwise multiple regression analysis is conducted in light of the urban-rural differences under Hypothesis I and differences of traffic convenience under Hypothesis II, office locations are replaced with dummy variables. In order to prevent multicollinearity, one of the dummy variables (the enterprises in other districts of the non-metropolitan areas under Hypothesis I and the enterprises with a distance of more than 150 km from International Airports under Hypothesis II) is removed from the analysis. According to the Table 2 and Table 3 multiple regression model, both hypotheses are statistically significant (< 0.05) in terms of office locations with a difference between the different areas. This shows that corporate business performance will be influenced by locational factors. All corporate governance variables under both hypotheses are statistically significant, which shows that the quality of corporate governance is of great concern to corporate business performance.

Table 2: Hypothesis III: Statistical Table of Regression Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficient</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficient</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Office location</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-.387</td>
<td>.087</td>
<td>-3.213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local- Tier I cities</td>
<td>2.229</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td>.209</td>
<td>21.742</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local- Tier II cities</td>
<td>1.780</td>
<td>.122</td>
<td>.128</td>
<td>15.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local- Tier III cities</td>
<td>0.315</td>
<td>.088</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>3.217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate governance</td>
<td>IDN</td>
<td>.228</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPP</td>
<td>-.010</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>-.048</td>
<td>-8.215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSP</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>7.210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>-.242</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>-.027</td>
<td>-4.790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SED</td>
<td>-.008</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>-.024</td>
<td>-3.223</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Hypothesis IV: Statistical Table of Regression Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficient</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficient</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distance to International Airports</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>.777</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>7.334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 to 50 km</td>
<td>.475</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>.062</td>
<td>4.449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 to 100 km</td>
<td>.448</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>4.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101 to 150 km</td>
<td>.323</td>
<td>.112</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>2.467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate governance</td>
<td>IDN</td>
<td>.233</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPP</td>
<td>-.011</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>-.059</td>
<td>-8.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSP</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.071</td>
<td>10.336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>-.013</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>-.042</td>
<td>-5.833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SED</td>
<td>-.159</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>-.033</td>
<td>-3.331</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3 Multivariate Analysis

Multivariate analysis is used to analyze whether the quality of corporate governance varies significantly with locational factors. If the level of significance reaches 0.05, Scheffe test is conducted for post hoc comparison.

The multivariate analysis on Hypotheses I and II involves four types of multivariate statistics: Pillai’s tracking value, Wilks’ Lambda (λ) value, Hotelling’s tracking value, and Roy’s maximum root value. The P values (=000) of the significant difference test of them are all smaller than 0.001; the level of significance (0.05) is reached, and the centroid difference is significantly evident. This shows that there is a significant difference between various office locations in terms of the average number of at least one dependent variable in the difference comparison for the dependent variables of corporate governance.

Table 4: Hypothesis I: Internal-subject Effect Test Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Sum of Squares of Category III</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Square of Average Value</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urban-rural difference</td>
<td>DSP</td>
<td>34190.97</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8547.492</td>
<td>41.698</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DPP</td>
<td>14375.16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3593.860</td>
<td>11.746</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IDN</td>
<td>602.070</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>150.523</td>
<td>90.705</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SED</td>
<td>11911.654</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2982.558</td>
<td>24.544</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS</td>
<td>41.043</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.261</td>
<td>51.527</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Hypothesis II: Within-subject Effect Test Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Sum of Squares of Category III</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Square of Average Value</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distance to International Airports</td>
<td>DSP</td>
<td>14964.755</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3896.223</td>
<td>18.112</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DPP</td>
<td>72883.885</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16663.551</td>
<td>58.529</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IDN</td>
<td>125.442</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30.325</td>
<td>18.594</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SED</td>
<td>3850.532</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>987.654</td>
<td>7.898</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS</td>
<td>40.011</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.566</td>
<td>49.777</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 presents Scheffe test is used for the single-factor and multivariate analysis of variance regarding the two hypotheses. The results of post hoc comparison in Table IV and V are summarized as follows: Discussion of the urban-rural differences: There is a significant difference between the various areas in terms of DSP, SED, and IDN; there is a significant difference between enterprises in non-metropolitan areas and enterprises in other areas in terms of DPP and CS. Discussion of the differences in traffic convenient: There is a significant difference between various areas in terms of DSP, DDP, IDN, and CS, while there is no significant difference between them in terms of SED.

Table 6: Multiple Comparisons between the Various Areas: Scheffe Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Metropolitan Area versus Non-metropolitan Area Results of Significant Difference</th>
<th>Distance to International Airports Results of Significant Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DSP</td>
<td>For 1: (3)&gt;(2)&gt;(4)&gt;(1) For 2: (3)&gt;(2)&gt;(4)&gt;(1) For 3: (3)&gt;(2)&gt;(4)&gt;(1) For 4: (3)&gt;(2)&gt;(4)&gt;(1)</td>
<td>For 1: (4)&gt;(2)&gt;(1) For 2: (4)&gt;(2)&gt;(1) For 3: (4)&gt;(3) For 4: (4)&gt;(3) &gt; (3)&gt;(4) &gt; (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPP</td>
<td>For 1: (1)&gt;(4) For 3: (3)&gt;(4) For 4: (1)&gt;(3)&gt;(4) For 5:</td>
<td>For 1: (1)&gt;(2) For 2: (4)&gt;(1)&gt;(3)&gt;(2) For 3: (3)&gt;(2) For 4: (4)&gt;(2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDN</td>
<td>For 1: (1)&gt;(3)&gt;(2)&gt;(4) For 2: (1)&gt;(2)&gt;(4) For 3: (1)&gt;(3)&gt;(4) For 4: (1)&gt;(3)&gt;(2)&gt;(4)</td>
<td>For 1: (3)&gt;(1)&gt;(4) For 2: (2)&gt;(4) For 3: (3)&gt;(4) For 4: (3)&gt;(2)&gt;(1)&gt;(4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SED</td>
<td>For 1: (4)&gt;(1)&gt;(2) For 2: (4)&gt;(1)&gt;(3)&gt;(2) For 3: (4)&gt;(1)&gt;(3) For 4: (4)&gt;(1)&gt;(3)&gt;(2)</td>
<td>For 1: (3)&gt;(1) For 3: (3)&gt;(1) For 4: (3)&gt;(4)&gt;(1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Metropolitan areas versus non-metropolitan areas: 1: Tier I cities, 2: Tier II cities, 3: Tier III cities, 4: non-metropolitan areas

Distance to International Airports: 1: 0–50 km, 2: 51–100 km; 3: 101–150 km; 4: at least 151 km

4.4 Principal Component Analysis

Principal component analysis is used to extract the common factors for factor analysis. The number of common factors depends on whether the eigenvalue is greater than 1. As a result, three principal factors are selected in total to account for 68.559% of total variance.

To discuss the influence of locational factors on corporate governance, this paper converts the extracted reliability into the validity of corporate governance performance indexes, and determines the weight of each corporate governance index accumulatively. According to Hypothesis I, this paper determines that enterprises in metropolitan areas are superior to those in non-metropolitan areas in terms of corporate governance (table 7). According to Hypothesis II, this paper determines that enterprises that are closer to International Airports exhibit better quality of corporate governance (table 8). The findings are consistent with the expected results.

Table 7: Reliability of Principal Component Analysis for Hypothesis I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan areas</td>
<td>0.0132</td>
<td>0.0878</td>
<td>-0.0283</td>
<td>0.0727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-metropolitan areas</td>
<td>-0.0152</td>
<td>-0.1115</td>
<td>0.0270</td>
<td>-0.0997</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Reliability of Principal Component Analysis for Hypothesis II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance to International Airports</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 to 50 km</td>
<td>0.0102</td>
<td>0.0858</td>
<td>-0.0345</td>
<td>0.0615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 to 100 km</td>
<td>0.0323</td>
<td>-0.0750</td>
<td>0.0381</td>
<td>-0.0046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101 to 150 km</td>
<td>-0.1581</td>
<td>0.1419</td>
<td>-0.0385</td>
<td>-0.0547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151 km</td>
<td>-0.1035</td>
<td>-0.2882</td>
<td>0.1437</td>
<td>-0.2480</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. CONCLUSION

This research is intended to probe the correlation between the office locations, corporate governance, and business performance of China’s enterprises. The research findings are summarized as follows:

1) Empirical results show that the business performance of China’s enterprises positively and significantly correlates with their corporate governance mechanisms, which is consistent with the expected argument of this research. Specifically, the better the corporate governance is, the better the business performance, which is also consistent with the research findings obtained by other scholars.

2) Empirical results show that under a specific corporate governance mechanism, various locational factors (including urban-rural differences and traffic convenience) significantly correlate with business performance. Specifically, corporate business performance varies significantly among China’s different areas.

3) Empirical results show that various locational factors (including urban-rural differences and traffic convenience) correlate with the quality of corporate governance significantly. Specifically, the quality of corporate governance varies significantly with the locational conditions.
4) Empirical results show that the quality of corporate governance of enterprises in the metropolitan areas is higher than that of the enterprises in the non-metropolitan areas. Furthermore, the quality of corporate governance of the enterprises close to International Airports is higher than those that are further away from such stations. This shows that the differences in spatial locations will influence the mentality, ideas, and decision-making of enterprises' top managements. For example, it is difficult for the government to regulate a relatively remote enterprise. Its shareholders cannot manage their business status from time-to-time due to the long distance. In the absence of government regulation or shareholders' supervision, a negative effect is produced on the managers. The managers may fail to work hard or seize personal power at the expense of the benefits of minority shareholders, thus degrading corporate governance and business performance.

Finally, this paper gives the following suggestions for subsequent research:

1) The industrial sectors in question may be subdivided to discuss whether the quality of corporate governance would be influenced by different industrial sectors and locational factors.

2) China ShenZhen Stock Exchange listed enterprises is not a large region, which may restrict further possibilities of differences, although the differences in locational factors bring about significant differences in the quality of corporate governance. Subsequent research may be extended to the Chinese Mainland all companies or European and American countries. This would make the regional differences more significant, thus possibly leading to different results.

3) In the current research, the pointer variables of corporate governance mainly focus on the equity structure and structure of the board of directors. Considering the difficulty in data acquisition, subsequent research may incorporate the pointers on transparency of information disclosure and the indexes of enterprise social responsibility. This would, thus, cover as many indexes of corporate governance performance as possible.

REFERENCES


Yin-Hua Ye. 2012, "The Influence of Geographical Locations upon the Quality of Board of Directors", Master’s thesis of the Institute of Finance in the National Yunlin University of Science and Technology.


The following is a table including the urban classification list based on GDP scale, per capita income, and airport throughput.

### China's Urban Classification List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tier I Cities (19)</th>
<th>Tier II Cities (30)</th>
<th>Tier III Cities (70)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beijing City</td>
<td>Shanghai City</td>
<td>Guangzhou City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xiamen City</td>
<td>Fuzhou City</td>
<td>Wuxi City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jixi City</td>
<td>Nantong City</td>
<td>Jinhua City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanya City</td>
<td>Meishan City</td>
<td>Huzhou City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liuzhou City</td>
<td>Mianyang City</td>
<td>Zhanjiang City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lianyungang City</td>
<td>Dandong City</td>
<td>Lijiang City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jingzhou City</td>
<td>Taishan City</td>
<td>Quzhou City</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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THE DYNAMIC ASSOCIATION BETWEEN CEO-DUALITY AND BANK PERFORMANCE: THE MODERATING ROLE OF BOARD SIZE

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - The aim of this study is to examine the association between CEO-duality and bank financial performance in Turkey.
Methodology - All parameter estimates of regression models are based on the system GMM panel regression analyses. Our data covers all commercial banks operating in Turkish banking sector during the period 2007-2013.
Findings - Our empirical results imply that CEO-duality has a significantly positive effect on bank financial performance measured by the ratio of net income to the average total assets. In addition, we find a negative moderating impact of board on the positive linkage between CEO-duality and bank performance.
Conclusion - It can be concluded that as the number of members of the board raises, the positive influence of CEO-duality decreases for Turkish banking sector in the analyzed period.

Keywords: CEO-duality, board size, corporate governance, commercial banks, Turkey.

JEL Codes: C33, G21, G34

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, especially since the 2000’s, corporate governance issues have come to the fore due to the scandals regarding firms in the countries such as the USA, Italy, Holland and China and financial crises. All these problems have caused the shareholders of the firms to suffer serious losses.

The board of directors is the most important corporate governance mechanism between the firm's shareholders and those who manage the firm. At the same time, the board of directors primarily monitors financial performance of the firm and counsels firm’s management, with the aim of protecting interests of shareholders. The most important role of the board of directors and its chairman is to hire, monitor, discipline, compensate, and fire the chief executive officer (CEO). It is also expected the CEO to manage the firm in line with the interests of shareholders of the firm and to inform the board of directors concerning the firm's activities (Fama and Jensen, 1983; Donaldson and Davis, 1991; Montgomery and Kaufman, 2003; Nahar Abdullah, 2004; Strebel, 2004; Nicholson and Kiel, 2007; Elsayed, 2010).

How the leadership structure of the firm influences firm financial performance has received a lot of attention in the corporate governance literature. The association between the CEO-Chairman duality and financial performance is usually dealt with through two opposing theories (i.e., agency theory and stewardship theory) in corporate governance studies.

The theory of agency argues that a dual appointment of the CEO and board chairperson or CEO-duality may lead to excessive power concentration in the hands of one person who is both CEO and chairperson of the board (Jensen, 1993). If the same person holds both the CEO and board chairperson positions in the same firm, this may affect firm financial performance negatively because CEO-duality may increase agency conflicts by reducing the level of board independence in the firm. Accordingly, this view supports separation of the CEO and chairperson roles, i.e., the firms opting for CEO non-duality structure is likely to have better financial performance compared to those relying upon CEO duality structure (Jensen and Meckling, 1976; Fama and Jensen, 1983; Eisenhardt, 1989; Jensen, 1993; Yermack, 1996). However, contrary to the theory of agency, stewardship theorists argue that the managers who are in charge of governing the firm are intrinsically
dependable people and effective stewards of the firm assets (Donaldson and Davis, 1991; Davis et al., 1997). Besides, managers (insiders) have more strategic information regarding the firm compared to both independent and outside members of the board. Therefore, if the CEO heads the board, the benefits of powerful leadership and unity of command that duality does engender may contribute to improving the firm’s financial performance, i.e., the fact that the CEO and the chairperson of the board are the same people (joint leadership structure) may help improve financial performance, as predicted by the theory of stewardship (Donaldson and Davis, 1991; Ramdani and Witteloostuijn, 2010).

In this study, following the study of Ramdani and Witteloostuijn (2010), we also investigate whether the size of board of directors moderates the duality-performance linkage. The negative impact of Chairperson-CEO duality is supported by theory of agency, while its positive performance effect is defended by the advocates of stewardship theory. Therefore, based on these opposite views, two potential interaction impacts with the size of the board of directors may arise. More specifically, the interactions of CEO duality and board size are likely to be negative or positive.

The 2000-2001 banking crisis experienced in Turkey and the latest financial crisis have revealed how important corporate governance for the banking and financial sector is. Thus, we focus on banking sector to test duality-performance linkage. More clearly, our primary focus for this study is to examine both the impact of CEO duality and the moderating impact of board size on the association between CEO-Chairman duality and financial performance of commercial banks in Turkey. The existing studies in Turkey mostly focus on industrial firms and do not consider the endogeneity of board characteristics and financial variables. Until now, there has been no remarkable paper investigating the moderating influence of the size of the board of directors on duality-performance linkage for Turkey. As a result, our study makes two contributions to the existing literature. First, we take in consideration the problems caused by endogeneity of bank-level variables and board characteristics variables employing system GMM estimator. Second, we investigate the significance of an interaction variable of CEO-duality and board size to understand whether board size moderates the duality-performance association. Estimation results from dynamic panel regression analysis suggest a statistically significant positive association between Turkish banks’ CEO duality structure and their financial performance. Additionally, we provide the first evidence of a negative moderating influence of size of board of directors on the positive relation between CEO-Chairman duality and financial performance in Turkish banking sector.

The next section reviews the related literature on duality-performance relation. Model specification, methodology and dataset employed are presented in Section 2. Section 3 presents the dataset on Turkish commercial banks. Section 4 presents the empirical findings and finally, Section 5 concludes.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Tian and Lau (2001), employing the dataset of 113 Chinese shareholding firms for two years (i.e. 1996 and 1997), analyze the relation between leadership structure and board composition and financial performance. Estimation results show that the influence of CEO-Chairman duality on accounting performance measured as return on assets (ROA) and return on equity (ROE) is positive and statistically significant for both 1996 and 1997.

Kula (2005), using a sample of 386 small and non-listed firms in Turkey, reports that the separation of chairman and CEO positions (i.e., CEO non-duality) has significant positive influence on performance of firm.

Yan Lam and Kam Lee (2008) investigate empirically the association of CEO duality with performance of firm by analyzing a sample of 128 listed firms in Hong Kong in 2003. Their results for full firm sample show that the duality-performance relationship is not significant in both ROA and ROE regression. When their sample is divided into two subgroups as family controlled and the non-family firms, the results show that duality significantly enhances the non-family firms’ ROA and ROE, whereas this variable causes performance of family controlled firms to diminish.

Kaymak and Bektas (2008) explore the relation of bank board characteristics (CEO duality, board independence, board size, and board tenure) with performance of bank using data for 27 Turkish deposit banks during the period of 2001-2004. Their findings from cross sectional regressions imply that there exists a negative and significant relation between duality and return on assets (ROA) in accordance with agency theory.

Belkhir (2009), investigating the relationship between governance variables such as board size, independence, ownership and CEO characteristics and performance in a sample of 174 U.S. bank (119 bank holding companies-BHC and 55 savings-and-loan holding companies-SLHC) between the years 1995-2002, finds that the impact of CEO-chair duality on performance, as measured by ROA and Tobin’s Q, is positive and statistically significant in the sub-sample of SLHC.

Ramdani and Witteloostuijn (2010) analyze empirically how independent directors and CEO duality affect firm financial performance for 313 listed firms from four different East Asian countries (i.e., Thailand, Indonesia, South Korea, and Malaysia) for the period of 2001-2002. The results of quantile regression uncover a negative moderating influence of board size on the positive association between CEO duality and ROA.


The relationship between the CEO duality and stock market performance measure (i.e. Tobin’s Q) for 199 firms in Sri Lanka between the years 2006-2010 is examined by Hewa Wellalage and Locke (2011). The empirical findings from dynamic panel data estimator indicate that Chairman–CEO duality is positively and significantly related to multinational company subsidiaries’ Tobin’s Q but it is not significant for local public companies’ Tobin’s Q.

The association between CEO non-duality and performance of 51 Turkish listed firms between the years 1998-2007 is tested by Eroisy et al. (2011). Their regression results show that market-based performance of firms with CEO non-duality structure is better than that of firms having CEO duality structure.

Using a sample consisting of 928 bank-year observations of Turkish deposit banks for the 1988-2009 period, De Jonghe et al. (2012) analyze how internal and external governance mechanisms determine efficiency of banks. As one of internal governance mechanism variables CEO non-duality is found to affect risk/return efficiency of commercial banks positively. In another words, banks which has separation of CEO and chairman positions tend to have higher risk/return efficiency.

Using dynamic panel data estimation technique (system GMM), Veprauskaite and Adams (2013) explore whether powerful chief executives affects the performance of 468 publicly listed UK firms between the years 2003-2008. The results of their analysis reveal that CEO-chairman duality, CEO-ownership, and CEO-tenure are negatively associated with performance of firm.

Employing a sample of 50 largest deposit banks which operate in Chinese banking industry during 2003–2010, Liang et al. (2013) study the relationship between board characteristics (duality structure, bank size and functioning of the board) and bank performance. After their sample is divided into two subsamples of low capitalized and well capitalized banks, taking into account the median capital of banks, they find that influence of duality on bank performance is significantly negative in the sub-sample of well capitalized banks. Besides, the authors re-classify banks as small and large deposit banks based on their total assets. The results from large banks sub-sample reveal that duality is negatively correlated with bank performance.

Using a sample of 204 Turkish listed firms between the years 2009-2010, Doğan et al. (2013) analyze the influence of CEO-duality on performance of firms. Based on empirical results, the authors conclude that there is a negative and significant link between duality variable and financial performance measured by accounting and stock market performance measures, i.e., ROA, ROE, and Tobin’s Q.

Ammari et al. (2014) explore the linkage board structure and firm performance for 40 French firms over the period of 2002-2009 using dynamic panel data analysis. Their results from system GMM estimator indicate that duality is negatively correlated with ROE and Tobin’s Q, while it is positively correlated with market-to-book ratio and ROA.

Nguyen et al., (2014), analyzing empirically the relationship between governance structures and financial performance measured by Tobin’s Q during 2008-2011 period through dynamic panel data estimation technique (two-step system GMM), report that CEO duality is found to be significantly and positively correlated with market based performance for Singaporean firms.

The association between outside directors and financial performance for a sample of 42 Tunisian firms during 2004-2010 is investigated by Kouki and Guizani (2015). Based on OLS regression analysis, the authors report that leadership structure (i.e. CEO duality) is negatively related to return on assets (ROA). Besides, leadership structure weakens the impact of outside directors on financial performance.

Moscu (2015) studies the relationship between CEO duality and accounting performance measure for a sample of 55 listed Romanian firms during the period 2010-2013. The findings from panel data regression analysis indicate that there is positive and significant linkage between Chairman–CEO duality and return on assets.

Using data of selected 24 banks from Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries in 2012, Naushad and Malik (2015) test the relationships between corporate governance variables and performance of bank. Their results indicate that for both Tobin’s Q and ROA, there is a positive moderating impact of CEO-Chairman duality on board size-performance relationships.
Employing panel data for 145 Indian non-financial listed firms between the years 2008-2012, Shrivastav and Kalsie (2016) study CEO duality-financial performance linkage by using panel data estimation methods. They use both stock market and accounting performance measures, i.e., Tobin’s Q and ROE. The results of their analysis imply that CEO duality structure is negatively and significantly associated with ROE, while it is not found to have a statistically significant influence on Tobin’s Q.

Based on a sample of 950 US firms during 1997-2011, Duru et al. (2016) investigate how CEO duality influences operating performance indicators using both static and dynamic panel estimation methods. The results from dynamic panel estimation methods suggest that CEO duality is negatively related to operating performance (represented by ROE, ROA, and ROS). However, it seems that negative effect of CEO duality weakens as board independence increases, i.e. there is a positive moderating influence of the proportion of independent directors on the negative relationship between CEO duality and operating performance measures.

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Model Specification and Methodology

The following econometric model which is similar to that of Kaymak and Bektas (2008), Ramdani and Witteloostuijn (2010), and Duru et al. (2016) is specified to explore the impact of duality on profitability of commercial banks in Turkey:

\[ \text{ROAA}_i = c + \gamma \text{ROAA}_{i-1} + \alpha_1 \text{DUALITY}_i + \alpha_2 \text{Ln}(\text{BS})_{it} + \alpha_3 \text{DUALITY}_i \times \text{Ln}(\text{BS})_{it} + \beta_1 \text{NIM}_i + \beta_2 \text{LTA}_i \\
+ \beta_3 \text{PLLTA}_i + \beta_4 \text{Ln}(\text{TA})_{it} + \beta_5 \text{ETA}_i + \lambda_i + \mu_i + \epsilon_{it} \] (1)

In this specification, \( i \) goes from bank 1 to bank 30, and \( t \) takes the values of the years from 2007 to 2013. ROAA\(_i\) is return on average assets and indicates the financial performance of bank \( i \) in period \( t \); \( c \) is the constant term; ROAA\(_{i-1}\) is the financial performance of bank \( i \) in period \( t-1 \); DUALITY\(_i\) is duality and Ln(\( \text{BS} \))\(_{it}\) is the natural logarithm of board size; DUALITY\(_i\) \times \text{Ln}(\text{BS})_{it} \) represents an interaction term between DUALITY and Ln(\( \text{BS} \)). We use this interaction variable to study the moderating impact of the size of board of directors on the association between CEO-duality and bank financial performance. DUALITY\(_i\) and Ln(\( \text{BS} \))\(_{it}\) are transformed, i.e., former is measured by the mean-centered CEO-Chairman duality and latter is measured by the mean-centered log of board size to reduce potential multicollinearity between original board variables and the interaction variable, as recommended by Duru et al. (2016). \( \lambda_i \) and \( \mu_i \) are time dummies and bank-specific, time-invariant effects that are unobserved, \( \epsilon_{it} \) is a classical error term of our model. \( \gamma, \alpha \) and \( \beta \) are coefficients to be estimated. Five other control variables specified in the above model are defined in Table 1.

In the presence of unknown bank fixed effects as well as the lagged one period of performance variable as one of the explanatory variables in regression equation (1), pooled OLS estimator will be biased upwards and inconsistent due to the fact that there is correlation between ROAA\(_{i-1}\), the lagged one period of performance variable, and \( \mu_i \), unknown bank fixed effects. Since the pooled OLS estimator does not take into account unknown individual effects in the regression equation (1), individual heterogeneity which is not included in the regression equation can emerge in the estimated coefficients. To get rid of the unknown individual effects from each observation, the standard method is to employ fixed-effects estimator (FE). The FE estimator wipes out these effects by transforming variables in Equation (1). Since the FE transformation is based on deviations from individual means, it creates a non-negligible correlation between the new lagged one period of profitability variable and the new disturbance term even if it is assumed that the disturbance terms are not serially uncorrelated. Therefore, the FE estimator will be biased downwards and inconsistent and it does not solve the endogeneity problem stemming from simultaneity in the regression model. Both the pooled OLS and the FE estimator are highly likely to be affected by the problem of endogeneity. If this is the case, the results obtained from these estimators are no longer unbiased and consistent (Nickell, 1981; Hsiao, 2003; Baltagi, 2005; Greene, 2003). The problem of endogeneity arises when the explanatory variables are associated with the disturbance terms in a regression model is able to be solved by using the dynamic GMM estimation technique. In dynamic panel models framework, Bond (2002), Arellano and Bover (1995) and Blundell and Bond (1998) point out that the system GMM estimator performs better than the first-differenced GMM estimator due to the fact that the latter can suffer from a weak instruments problem. Therefore, they propose the system GMM estimator instead of the first-differenced GMM estimator. The system GMM estimator can efficiently control for all forms of potential endogeneity, such as unobserved heterogeneity, simultaneity and reverse causality by taking into account lagged and differenced values of endogenous explanatory variables as their respective instruments, as discussed in Bond (2002), Arellano and Bover (1995), and Blundell and Bond (1998). Specifically, the dynamic system GMM estimator combines two regression equations: the first one is a first-differenced regression equation which employs lagged values of all variables as instruments and the other one is the regression equation in level which uses their lagged first-differenced values as instruments. System GMM estimator’s consistency depends on two specification tests: namely, Hansen test for the validity of instrumental variables and second-order autocorrelation test AR(2) for the first-differenced errors. The null hypothesis for Hansen test is that the chosen instruments are valid (i.e., uncorrelated with the error terms). Whereas, the null hypothesis for AR(2) is that there is no auto-correlation in first-differenced errors. As seen
from Table 4, both diagnostic tests are satisfied for two regression models. Finally, the results of System GMM are estimated using Windmeijer’s (2005) finite sample correction to mitigate the problem of finite sample bias (Roodman, 2009).

3.2. Dataset

In our study an unbalanced panel data is constructed for 30 commercial banks that operate in Turkish banking industry. Bank-level data are compiled using the web page of the Banks Association of Turkey. Whereas, detailed information on board variables such as CEO duality and board size are hand-collected from the annual reports of each of commercial banks during 2007-2013. The detailed definitions of dependent, independent and control variables included in the performance equation are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Definition of Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Panel A: Dependent variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>ROAA</td>
<td>Return on average assets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panel B: Independent variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duality</td>
<td>DUAL</td>
<td>A dummy variable that takes a value of 1 if the general manager is also chairman of the board, and 0 otherwise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panel C: Control variables</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagged performance</td>
<td>L.ROAA</td>
<td>The one year lagged performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board size</td>
<td>Ln(BS)</td>
<td>The natural logarithm of the total number of members on the board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net interest margin</td>
<td>NIM</td>
<td>Interest revenue less interest expenses divided by total assets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquid assets</td>
<td>LTA</td>
<td>The ratio of liquid assets to total assets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank risk</td>
<td>PLLTA</td>
<td>The ratio of provision for loan losses to total assets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank size</td>
<td>Ln(TA)</td>
<td>Natural logarithm of total assets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank capital</td>
<td>ETA</td>
<td>The ratio of total equity to the total assets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year dummies</td>
<td>YEAR</td>
<td>Seven year dummies for each of the seven years from 2007 to 2013.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

The summary statistics of dependent, independent and control variables are given in Table 2. The mean (median) of ROAA in Turkish banks is 0.019 (0.017). While the maximum value of this ratio is 0.077 and the minimum value is -0.035. The mean (median) value of duality (DUAL) is 0.059 (0). It seems that the mean of this variable is lower than those reported by Belkhir (2009) for U.S. banks, Liang et al., (2013) for Chinese banks, Boussaada and Karmani (2015) for the Middle East and North African banks, El-Chaarani (2014) for Lebanese banks and Belhaj and Mateus (2016) for European banks. This shows that only a small proportion of our sample banks have the dual position for general manager and the board chairman. Finally, when we look at the statistics of control variables, the mean (median) of board size (BS) of our sample banks is around 8 (9). The mean (median) net interest margin (NIM), is 0.052 (0.046).The mean (median) liquid assets (LTA), is 0.441 (0.350). The mean (median) board risk (PLLTA) is 0.010 (0.007). Finally, the mean (median) bank size Ln(TA) and bank capital (ETA) in the sample are 3.710 (3.650) and 0.195 (0.128), respectively.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ROAA</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>-0.035</td>
<td>0.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DUAL</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BS</td>
<td>8.015</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIM</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>0.266</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>0.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LTA</td>
<td>0.441</td>
<td>0.350</td>
<td>0.998</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>0.248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLLTA</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ln(TA)</td>
<td>3.710</td>
<td>3.650</td>
<td>5.244</td>
<td>1.633</td>
<td>0.973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETA</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>0.857</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: The sample is an unbalanced panel covering 204 bank-years over the period of 2007-2013. BS represents total number of members on the board. A list of variable definitions is given in Table 1.

4.2. Pairwise Correlations

The results of Pearson’s correlation analysis are reported in Table 3. Because of the fact that introducing the interaction term (DUAL × Ln(BS)) to the regression equation normally leads to high correlation between board variables (i.e., DUAL and Ln(BS)) and interaction term, both DUAL and Ln(BS) are mean-centered, as mentioned above. The variable ROAA is

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positively and significantly correlated with past ROAA, NIM, and ETA. The correlation coefficient between ROAA and the interaction term is negative and significant at 5% level. This finding is important because the relation between DUAL and Ln(BS) may cause financial performance to decline. The correlation coefficients between board variables and ROAA are not statistically significant. Similarly, the same holds true for other control variables. When examined the correlation coefficients, it can be said that there is no severe multicollinearity problem in our regression equation, implying that the assumption of independence between the variables is not violated for the analysis. Additionally, our study also performs a variance inflation factor (VIF) analysis to make sure that there is no problem of multicollinearity. According to the VIF values calculated for each of regressors, the highest (lowest) VIF value is 3.19 (1.23). This indicates that all of the regressors have VIF values of less than 10 and they can be employed in the same regression equation (Gujarati, 2004). Besides, the correlation coefficient between ROAA in the current period and L.ROAA in the previous period is 0.57. This justifies using the dynamic panel data estimators.

### 4.3. Empirical Results

The System GMM parameter estimates as well as all relevant diagnostic test statistics are reported in Table 4. We first estimate our regression specification without the interaction term of CEO-duality and board size and report the results in column 1 of Table 4. A statistically significant positive relationship is found between CEO-duality and the bank financial performance (ROAA). This means the CEO-Chairman duality structure is beneficial for commercial banks in Turkey. Our empirical result regarding duality is supported by stewardship theory but not agency theory.

This result on the leadership structure reported in Table 4 is consistent with the results of previous studies focused on the corporate governance-financial performance relationship (e.g., Tian and Lau, 2001; Belkhir, 2009; Ramdani and Witteloostuijn, 2010; Ammari et al., 2014; Moscu, 2015), but is also in contradiction to those of most of the earlier research (e.g., Rechner and Dalton, 1991; Kaymak and Bektas, 2008; Grove et al., 2011; Veprauskaitė and Adams, 2013; Liang et al., 2013; Doğan et al., 2013; Kouki and Guizani, 2015 and Duru et al., 2016, among others). With regard to the size of boards (Ln(BS)), there is a negative relation between Ln(BS) and ROAA but this relation is not statistically significant i.e., the size of boards has no significant influence on ROAA.

Regarding other control variables, ROAA is positively and significantly associated with past financial performance (L.ROAA), showing that past performance is a significant determinant of current performance. The impact of net interest margin (NIM) on bank performance is positive and significant. The positive impact of NIM on ROAA implies that as NIM rises, ROAA increases. Our results imply that there is not a significant association between liquidity ratio (LTA) and ROAA, i.e., bank financial performance is not influenced by liquidity level of commercial banks. Bank risk measured by the ratio of provision for loan losses to total assets (PLLTA) is significantly and negatively correlated with ROAA, suggesting that higher bank risk leads to lower ROAA. Finally, the estimated coefficients on bank size (Ln(TA)) and bank capital (ETA) are positive but not statistically significant, i.e., they are not significant determinants of bank financial performance.

We next re-estimate our baseline equation by adding interaction term to understand how board size moderates the relationship between CEO duality and financial performance. Our empirical findings are reported in column 2 of Table 4. All of the coefficient estimates except for that of CEO-duality variable are same in terms of sign and significance. The estimated coefficient on CEO-duality variable is now negative but insignificant, showing that CEO-duality has no significant effect on bank performance. When we examine the results of the regression model with interaction term, the estimated coefficient on interaction variable between CEO duality and size of the boards is found to be negative and statistically significant. Thus, this study’s finding reveals a negative moderating influence of size of board of directors on the positive association between Chairman–CEO duality and financial performance of commercial banks. These results may indicate that as the number of
members of the board rises, the positive influence of CEO-duality decreases. This finding is in line with the earlier finding of Ramdani and Witteloostuijn (2010). However, our result contradicts those of Naushad and Malik (2015) and Duru et al. (2016).

Table 4: The Association between Duality and Bank Financial Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model-I</th>
<th>Model-II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coef.</td>
<td>SEs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L.ROAA</td>
<td>0.315**</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DUAL</td>
<td>0.022***</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ln(BS)</td>
<td>-0.041</td>
<td>0.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DUAL×Ln(BS)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIM</td>
<td>0.150**</td>
<td>0.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LTA</td>
<td>-0.010</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLLTA</td>
<td>-0.524***</td>
<td>0.158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ln(TA)</td>
<td>0.0004</td>
<td>0.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETA</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank fixed-effects</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year dummies</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diagnostic tests</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-test statistics</td>
<td>10.53***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hansen test statistics</td>
<td>16.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AR(2) test statistics</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of instruments</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observations</td>
<td>168</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banks in sample</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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Notes: Dependent variable is ROAA. See Table 1 for rest of the variables’ definitions. PLLTA is treated as predetermined variable, while all other variables are treated as endogenous variables except for year dummies. For model 1, lag 2 and lag 3 of the levels of corporate governance variables (DUAL and Ln(BS)), lag 2 of NIM, LTA, Ln(TA) and ETA, lag 1 and lag 2 of PLLTA, lag 2, lag 3, and lag 4 of bank financial performance are employed as GMM-type instruments in the transformed equations. Meanwhile, first difference of predetermined variable and first lagged differences of endogenous variables are employed as GMM-type instruments in the original equations. For model 2, lag 2 and lag 3 of the levels of corporate governance variables (DUAL and Ln(BS)), lag 2 of NIM, LTA, Ln(TA) and ETA, lag 1 and lag 2 of PLLTA, lag 2, lag 3, and lag 4 of bank financial performance are used as GMM-type instruments in the transformed equations, while first difference of predetermined variable and first lagged differences of endogenous variables are instrumented in the original equations based on GMM procedure. The GMM instrument matrix is collapsed to avoid instrument proliferation, as suggested by Roodman (2009). Year and bank dummies are included but not reported. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05 and *<0.1.

5. CONCLUSION

In this study, we focus on Turkish banking sector to test duality-performance linkage by employing an unbalanced panel of 204 bank-years observations from a total 30 commercial banks between the years 2007-2013. For our study, the return on average assets (ROAA) is employed to measure Turkish banks' financial performance. Both the influence of CEO-Chairman duality on banks' financial performance and the moderating role of board size on the linkage between the CEO-Chairman duality and financial performance of Turkish commercial banks are empirically analyzed by considering the problems caused by endogeneity of bank-level variables and board characteristics variables through dynamic panel data estimation method (i.e., system GMM). The empirical findings presented in this study suggest that in the case of Turkish commercial banks, the CEO-Chairman duality as a governance mechanism is positively and significantly associated with financial performance. In other words, strong leadership structure of bank board enhances financial performance. This finding is also supported by the advocates of stewardship theory. With regards to the interaction of the CEO-Chairman duality and the size of the board of directors, we find empirical evidence of a negative moderating influence of size of board of directors on the positive association between the CEO-Chairman duality and financial performance, i.e., a statistically significant negative impact of the CEO-Chairman duality on bank financial performance is significantly and positively moderated by the size of board of directors, suggesting that as the number of members of the board rises, the positive influence of CEO-Chairman duality decreases. This could be explained by the view that a larger board causes the problems regarding coordination, control, and communication in decision-making process to increase. Thus, this could result in a reduction of the benefits of the CEO-Chairman duality. However, our study does not take into account the influences of other board characteristics variables (i.e., independent directors, foreign directors, female directors, politically-connected directors, etc.) and their interactions with Turkish banks’ board size on the financial performance of commercial banks. An analysis of how these
board variables might affect performance of Turkish banks can be a potential area for future studies. Besides, we do not control the influence of ownership structures of commercial banks. For the future studies the performance influence of CEO-Chairman duality could be analyzed in terms of ownership structure.

REFERENCES


THE IMPACT OF INDIVIDUALISM AND COLLECTIVISM ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

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ABSTRACT
Purpose - The purpose of this research is to demonstrate the influence of leadership style on organizational citizenship behavior, as employees show individualistic or collectivistic characteristics.

Methodology - 174 white-collar employees (105 males and 69 females) located in Istanbul (N=89) and Denizli (N=85) formed the sample of this study. A multidimensional questionnaire with six-point interval scale was applied to measure all substantive variables used in this study.

Findings - This research revealed that OCB level in Denizli is significantly higher than the level of OCB level İn İstanbul as expected. There is also relationship between some of the leadership styles and OCB. Although both individualism and collectivism have a positive and meaningful correlation with OCB, the correlation between collectivism and OCB is stronger in relation to individualism and OCB.

Conclusion - The relationship between leadership style and OCB is moderated by individualism in different ways according to the city. Culture is very important and influential in organizations. It can completely affect the concepts and value perceptions of people, and as a result the leadership styles expected by the employees.

Keywords: Organizational citizenship behaviour, individualism, collectivism, leadership styles, cultural differences.
JEL Codes: D23, M14, L20

1. INTRODUCTION

In the 2000s, when global competition grew rapidly, companies that were aware of the need to use their resources more efficiently, especially due to the global crises, began looking for different ways to increase their productivity and profitability. In this process, it has been noticed that it is not enough for company managers and employees to fulfill the duties contained in their job descriptions, but to go one step ahead of the task description and to do their own unexpected behavior. Now for companies, it is important that employees embrace the company as if it is their own company and act accordingly.

Since people tend to respond positively to positive behaviors and negatively respond to negative behaviors, there is a significant influence of the behavior of the leaders in the sense that employees feel themselves in their organizations and adopt their organizations as their own (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter, 1990; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine Bachrach, 2000, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine Bachrach, 2000, Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommier, 1996). It can be argued that when the employees believe that the leaders care about them and feel that they were treated fairly, the tendency to engage with harmful ways would decrease, and organizational citizenship behaviors would increase.

Although, the relationship between leadership and OCB has been stated before, the strength and direction of this relationship varies according to the personal characteristics of employees (George, 1991, McCrae and Costa, 1987, Moorman and Blakely, 1995) Ramamoorthy, Kulkarni, Gupta Flood, 2007, Ehrhart, 2004, Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko and Roberts, 2008, Walumbwa, Hartnell and Oke, 2010). One of the elements that will explain this situation is the dimension of individualism / collectivism. At first, this dimension was at society / culture level, but later it is stated that people may have individualist or collectivist personality traits regardless of the society they are in (Wagner, 1992; Early,
in this research, firstly the relationship between leadership styles and OCB will be analyzed in order to understand if the leader can increase or decrease OCB and make his/her subordinates more contributive to the organization. Secondly, the impact of culture on this relationship will be analyzed. Individual may have individualistic or collectivistic characteristics regardless of their nation. However, this study was conducted in different cities to be sure the level of individualism and collectivism differs.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in simplest form, refers to voluntary and individual extra role behaviors that are aimed at helping, not being directly or explicitly involved in a formal, rewarding, formal reward system, and contributing to the company’s productive functioning (Organ 1988). Since these behaviors are voluntary, situations where these behaviors are not present or those who do not show them are not punished. However, the fact that these extra behaviors do not take place in the reward system does not mean they will not be awarded absolutely (Organ, 1997).

Employees showing OCB have a positive attitude, help their colleagues at work, take care of newcomers to adapt to the company, often express their pride in working in their company, protect their company during negative accusations, do not bother to spend long hours at work when necessary, do not get permission unnecessarily, they do not violate the rights of others and avoid problems with their colleagues (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Organ (1988) has investigated OCB under 5 dimensions: altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, conscientiousness and courtesy.

- **Altruism** is the act of helping someone directly, consciously and willingly helping newcomers for alignment, and supporting employees with more workloads.
- **Sportsmanship** is a cool way of approaching the possible problems that may arise in the workplace and complaining about them, protecting the positive attitude even in adverse situations and not growing the minor affairs.
- **Civic virtue** dimension refers not only to expressing ideas but also by actively acting as a part of the organization such as reading electronic mail and letters, participating in meetings and following developments in the organization.
- **Conscientiousness** includes going beyond the minimum expected roles such as presence and punctuality of organization members, and careful use of resources, etc.
- **Courtesy** dimension includes the act of avoiding negative situations that may create tension, finding solutions without violating others’ rights, and consulting them before they engage in behaviors that may affect their colleagues.

Graham (1989) describes OCB through a quadruple model: (1) interpersonal helpfulness, helping coworkers with work related issues, (2) individual initiative, encouraging others to improve individual and team performance, (3) personal effort, going beyond expected efforts and exceeding the minimum performance, (4) loyalty, improving the corporate image and making an effort to promote the organization to the outside. Williams and Anderson (1991) investigated OCB by dividing them into two at the individual and organizational level. While citizenship behaviors for the benefit of the individual are more like conscientiousness dimension of Organ, behaviors for the benefit of individuals resembles of the dimension of benevolence (Organ and Konovsky, 1989; Smith, Organ and Near, 1983, Wayne and Green, 1993).

When we examine the OCB scales, it is seen that individual initiative and loyalty dimensions from the four dimensions Graham (1989) did not exactly correspond to the five dimensions of Organ (1988). In addition to the five dimensions of the Organ (1988), the individual initiative dimension of Graham (1989) has also been used within the context of this research in order to be able to fully explore the concept of SCL and relate it to other variables to be used in the research.

According to the results of the meta-analysis study of Organ and Ryan (1995) with 55 articles about OCB between 1983-1994, most important antecedent of OCB is job satisfaction. More recent research by Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter (2001) reveal that job satisfaction and perceived organizational support are the most important antecedents of OCB.

Another antecedent of OCB is loyalty. (Organ and Ryan, 1995; Schappe, 1998). Especially, it has been revealed that there is a strong relationship between emotional commitment and OCB (Jenkins, 2005). Other antecedents of OCB include organizational justice (Moorman, 1991, Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor, 2000, Penner, Midili and Kegelmeyer, 1997); personality traits such as positive emotional state (George, 1991), agreeableness and conscientiousness (McCrae and Costa, 1987) and engagement (Rich, Lepine and Crawford; 2010).
OCB increases the productivity of workers and consequently the organization, making existing employees stay and making the organization more attractive for newcomers, helping the organization to adapt to changes, enhancing organizational performance by facilitating interpersonal coordination (Cohen and Vigoda, 2000).

Making employees see the organization as if their own, feel that they belong to that organization, acting according to the interests of the organization inside and outside, be proud of being part of their existing organizations are among the important elements that will bring an organization to long term success. This will increase overall efficiency, as much more work can be done with existing resources, which will reduce the material and spiritual resources spent on organizational harmful behaviors and supervision mechanisms established to reduce these behaviors.

2.2 The Relationship between OCB and Leadership Styles

In the GLOBE study, leadership is defined as "an individual influencing and motivating another individual to contribute to productivity and success of their organization (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta, 2004). Daft (2005) defines leadership as an interaction between the leader who aim to achieve real change and output that reflects common purpose, and its followers. Given the characteristics of a successful leader, it is difficult to find a successful leader definition that will be valid in all cultures, organizations and situations. In general, however, it can be argued that employees feel that leaders who are similar to their personal characteristics are successful and feel more attached to these leaders. As different leadership styles affect employee commitment and satisfaction in different ways, it is expected that the OCB will also be affected differently.

There are many studies in the literature that examine the relationship between OCB and leadership style. In these studies, it was argued that the leadership style would affect OCB (Podsakoff et al., 1990, Podsakoff et al., 2000, Podsakoff et al., 1996). The relationship between leadership styles and OCB is based on Social Exchange Theory. According to Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964), people react to favorable behaviors in turn voluntarily due to the non-written rules of social relations although they are not obliged to. In other words, there is an unspoken principle of reciprocity, and by doing a favor in return, the other side tries to reach the balance. In view of this theory, employees who receive positively, supportive and promoting behaviors from their leaders, respond with supportive behaviors such as extra role behaviors, benevolence and honesty. In particular, there is a strong relationship between servant (Ehrhart, 2004; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008; Walumbwa, Hartnell ve Oke, 2010), transformational, transactional (Podsakoff et. al, 2000) and paternalistic leadership styles and OCB.

In the case of paternalistic leadership, the family metaphor is adapted to the organizations and the father figure who controls and protects is identified with the leader. The leader supports his employees, assists them, and waits for their unquestioning obedience and loyalty in return (Aycan, 2001). However, this leadership style can sometimes be regarded as "dictatorship" in western societies because it is a type of leadership unique to Pacific-Asian cultures such as China, India, Korea and Turkey (Aycan, 2001; Northouse, 1997). Because of this authoritarian leadership in the leadership style, the father-in-leader underestimates the talents of the employees, gives the decisions himself as "I know better than you" perspective, but also reduces the uncertainty for his employees when viewed from the positive direction (Cheng, 1995). It can be thought that the employees who see their leaders as their father tend to see their organization as their own families and show extra role behaviors and try to exceed the expectations in order to increase the performance of the organization.

Hale and Fields (2007) defined the servant leader as the leader type that is focused on the development of followers, rather than thinking about self-interest and glorifying himself. They believe that both their organizations and their employees are influential in the success of their customers and stakeholders, and they behave accordingly (Ehrhart, 2004). Servant leaders create an atmosphere of reciprocity that positively affects employees' attitudes and behaviors, enabling employees to exhibit OCB (Ehrhart, 2004; Liden et al., 2008; Neubert, et al., 2008; Vondy, 2010).

In the meta-analytic study, Podsakoff et al. (2000) have shown that transformational and transactional leadership styles increase OCB. These leadership styles positively affect altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civil virtue and conscientiousness dimensions of OCB. Burns (1978) argued that the main difference between the transformational and transactional leaders derives from the process of motivating the subordinates. Transactional leaders motivate employees with pre-determined awards to reach their goals. Transformational leaders, however, motivates their employees to outperform their awards by exceeding their specified awards and values. Motivation to overcome expectations supports employees on the way to extra role behavior and OCB (Bass, 1998). The study of Koh et al. (1995) in elementary schools in Singapore revealed that the relationships between transformational and transactional leadership behaviors and OCB were different.

As defined by Brown, Trevin and Harrison (2005) ethical leadership is “the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision making” (p. 120). In other words, ethical leaders are fair, honest, trustworthy, principled and responsible (Brown et al., 2005). When employees have ethical leaders, they may reciprocate...
these honest and fair behaviors by engaging more OCB. Research shows that there is a correlation between ethical leadership and OCB (Piccolo et al., 2010).

Laissez-faire leadership can be described as the passive form of transactional leadership or passive-avoidant leadership (Bass et al., 2003). In this leadership style, the contribution of the leader is very limited in terms of goal setting or providing direction, however if the employees are highly skilled and experienced this could be an effective leadership style (Rowold, & Heinitz, 2007). Moreover, if the employees are highly individualistic, they may feel autonomy and show more OCB.

Based on all this information, we can develop the following hypothesis:

H1: Leadership style contributes to organizational citizenship behavior.
H1a: Paternalistic leadership has a positive impact on OCB.
H1b: Servant leadership has a positive impact on OCB.
H1c: Transformational leadership has a positive impact on OCB.
H1d: Transactional leadership has a positive impact on OCB.
H1e: Ethical leadership has a positive impact on OCB.
H1f: Laissez-faire leadership has a positive impact on OCB

2.3. Individualism / Collectivism, Leadership Style and OCB

Parsons and Shills (1951) suggested individualism and collectivism as a way of differentiating between those who think more about their own interests and goals and those who focus on the social system, think more about the interests of the community than themselves. Individualists keep their personal interests ahead of their group's interests, giving priority to reaching their own goals (Earley, 1989; Wagner and Moch, 1986). Competition is one of the main behavioral characteristics of individualism in reaching its goal (Probst et al., 1999). In collectivists, the interests of the group prevent individual interests. At the expense of giving up on personal benefits, the group's well-being and group belonging are important (Wagner, 1992; Wagner and Moch, 1986).

Hofstede (1980) studied national cultures in his work on IBM employees and examined nations under four dimensions: individualism / collectivism, masculine / feminine, uncertainty avoidance and power distance. In this study, Turkey is one of the collectivist cultures. However, this does not mean that everyone living in Turkey adopts collective characteristics. As Hui and Triandis (1986) point out, these results imply that the majority of those living in the country have adopted collective characteristics. The research findings of Kuşdil and Kağıtçıbaşı (2000, p. 77) states that “research findings (recent years) show that the value system of the Turkish people cannot be labeled as ‘collectivist’ or ‘individualist’ because these values at the group and individual levels are dynamically existing together”. Earlier studies (Wagner, 1992; Early, 1989, 1993; Moorman and Blakely, 1995) have proved that people with collectivist or individualistic characteristics can be found within a single country.

When employees work with leaders who are in line with their cultural characteristics their organizational commitment, job satisfaction and performance are positively influenced (Ying and Ahmad, 2009; Li, 2004). Leaders in collectivist cultures where paternalistic culture is more common are more authoritarian, do not transfer powers and make central decisions, while leaders in individualistic societies with fewer bureaucracy are more inclined to distribute authority and far away from centralized decision making (Chen, 2001; El Kahal, 2002).

For example, the paternalistic leadership style where the father figure in the family is identified with the leader of the organization, emerges in communities high in collectivism, authoritarianism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance. People who grow up in this kind of culture prefer the paternalistic leaders and the atmosphere of trust they have created. However, a person who shows individual characteristics does not want to work with a paternalistic leader who is authoritarian, decides on behalf of his subordinates when making decisions, does not care about his subordinates’ opinions, and whose employees are involved not only in business life but also in private life.

Collectivists hold the interests of the group in front of their own benefit, strive for the welfare and success of the group and identify themselves with the group. Making effort for the organization’s interests and feeling self-belonging to the group exist in the definition of collectivism, so more OCB exhibits can be expected of those who have collectivist traits. Studies by Moorman and Blakely (1995) and Ramamoorthy et al. (2007) on the relationship between collectivism and OCB have also stated a positive correlation between collectivism and OCB. It is possible that collectivist people will adopt OCBs voluntarily because they feel self-belonging to the organization and put the organization’s interests before theirs.’
Collectivism also has a positive and strong relationship with organizational commitment (Parkes, Bochner and Scheider, 2001, Clugston, Howell and Dorfman, 2000, Ramamoorthy et al., 2007). Collectivist people see their organization as the continuation of their family, feel self-belonging, and care about loyalty. Because they tend to stay in their organizations for a long time, their loyalty is high. It can also be said that since collectivism has a positive influence on organizational commitment, it can also have positive influence on OCB.

However, it would be a mistake to claim that OCB is low in all individualist employees and high in all collectivist workers. Given the relationship between leadership style and OCB, this may be the opposite for people working for a leader against his/her personality. Individualist employees who are satisfied working alone individual achievements, and who are seeking more responsibilities may not show OCB because their expectations are not satisfied and they are not happy with their supervisor’s behavior. They may even be harmful to the company.

When we look at the contrary, we see that someone from a collectivist family who is accustomed to elderly taking the decisions of the family and the comfort it creates may have problems with a leader who adopts a liberal leadership style and does not show OCB. In the light of these assumptions, we can say that being individualist or collectivist would affect the relation between leadership style and OCB.

H2: Individualist or collectivist characteristics of individuals influence the relationship between leadership styles and OCB.

H2a: The correlation between all types of leadership styles and OCB gets higher when the employee is high in collectivism because there is a correlation between collectivism and OCB.

H2bf: The correlation between laissez-faire leadership and OCB is moderated by individualism. When employees high in individualism enjoy laissez-faire leadership style and feel autonomous, they engage more OCB. However employees high in collectivism would feel insecure and alone which would result in less OCB because they would not see organization as their own.

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Sample and Data Collection

The sample group of this study was white collar workers with at least one year of work experience, with university and above education level. At least one year’s work experience is to make sure that the subjects have sufficient experience and time to observe the leadership style of the managers. The demographics of the sample group of 174 participants are shown in Table1.

Table 1: Demographics

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<th>M</th>
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<td>Specialist</td>
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<td>Supervisor</td>
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<td>Unspecified</td>
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Total experience

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Experience in the current organization

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Gender of (%)

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City

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</tr>
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<td>Denizli</td>
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</table>

3.3. Measures of the Study Variables

In the research, three scales were used; organizational citizenship behavior, leadership style and individualism / collectivism.

OCB was measured by adding the “individual initiative” dimension of the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale by Moorman and Blakely (1995), to the five dimension of the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990). This scale consists of a total of 29 items, participants were asked to evaluate themselves on a 6-scale ranging from “almost always” (6) to “almost never” (1).

The altruism dimension consists of 5 items (eg. helping other employees who are heavily loaded), the courtesy dimension 5 items (eg. avoiding problems with co-workers), the sportsmanship dimension 5 inversely coded items (eg. always have a flaw in what the organization does), the conscientiousness dimension 5 items (eg. I believe we should grant the right to receive money) the civil virtue dimension 4 items (eg. participation in non-compulsory but important meetings) and individual initiative 5 items (eg from my colleagues often to develop ideas for the team).

In the Turkish translation of Podsakoff et al.’s (1990) scale, Göncü’s (2006) thesis was used, but some changes were made in the translation of some materials. The reliability value of this scale is α = .94 (Fields, 2002).

The “Leadership Style Scale” developed by Çağlar (2011) in his doctoral dissertation was used to measure leadership style. The scale, which deals with transactional, transformational, laissez-faire, ethical, paternalistic and servant leadership styles, is a collection of scales used in the literature in this literature. In this study, Çağlar (2011) has used the Leadership Behavior Scale developed by Podsakoff and colleagues for transactional and transformational leadership styles, the Bass’s Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for liberal leadership style, Aycan and her colleagues’ scale for paternalistic leadership, the Ethical Leadership Scale developed by Brown and others for The "Leadership Style Scale" developed by Çağlar (2011) in his doctoral dissertation was used to measure leadership style. After identifying common features, these items were excluded and only measures of deterministic, prominent elements of that leadership style were included. Factor analysis applied by Çağlar gives 3-dimension as developer-liberal-authoritarian. The Cronbach alpha values are .96, .88 and .69 respectively. The overall reliability coefficient is .92.

There are 38 items in the Leadership Style Scale. Participants were asked to evaluate managers on a 6-point scale ranging from “almost always” (6) to “almost never” (1). Transactional leader has 5 items (eg always gives me positive feedback when I perform well), transformational leader 6 items (eg interested in personal and career development of employees, directs them), laissez-faire leader 5 items (eg prefers not to intervene to solve problems), the paternalistic leader 10 items (eg creates a family environment in the workplace), the ethical leader 6 items (eg, the answer is ‘what is the right thing to do’ when making the decision), the servant leader 6 items (eg does every to serve its employees).

Triandis (1995) predicts that individualism and collectivism are not only part of society but also of individuals, thus affecting their values, attitudes and behavior. In this direction, the subjective reflection of individualism is called the “autonomous self” and the subjective reflection of collectivism is called the “relational self” (Wasti and Erdil, 2007). In this research, Singelis’s “Self Construal Scale” consisting of 30 questions was used to measure individualism and collectivism dimensions at the individual level. Arzu Wasti’s, "Measurement of individualism and collectivism values: Self-editing and INDCOL scales in Turkish" was used for the Turkish translation of the scale. On this scale, individualism and collectivism are not regarded...
as contradictory features but as cultural features that can exist in different levels in the same person (Wasti and Erdil, 2007). The reliability value of the Self Construal Scale was reported as $\alpha = .70$. (Singelis, 1994 Act.: Wasti and Erdil, 2007). Participants were asked to rate themselves on a 6-point scale ranging from "completely fit" (6) to "totally contrary".

Leadership styles:
- Paternalistic Leadership
- Servant Leadership
- Transformational Leadership
- Transactional Leadership
- Ethical Leadership
- Laissez-faire Leadership

H1: Leadership style contributes to organizational citizenship behavior.
H1a: Paternalistic leadership has a positive impact on OCB.
H1b: Servant leadership has a positive impact on OCB.
H1c: Transformational leadership has a positive impact on OCB.
H1d: Transactional leadership has a positive impact on OCB.
H1e: Ethical leadership has a positive impact on OCB
H1f: Laissez-faire leadership has a positive impact on OCB

H2: Individualist or collectivist characteristics of individuals influence the relationship between leadership styles and OCB.
H2a: The correlation between all types of leadership styles and OCB gets higher when the employee is high in collectivism because there is a correlation between collectivism and OCB.
H2bf: The correlation between laissez-faire leadership and OCB is moderated by individualism. When employees high in individualism enjoy laissez-faire leadership style and feel autonomous, they engage more OCB. However employees high in collectivism would feel insecure and alone which would result in less OCB because they would not see organization as their own.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1. Statistical Analysis

During the implementation phase, 198 surveys were distributed in total through face-to-face, electronic mail and internet site. Of these, 111 were reached via the internet site, 75 by face-to-face, and 32 by electronic mail. The turnover rate for face-to-face surveys is 88% and the return rate for those distributed via e-mail is 40%. Since the distribution of the questionnaire via the internet site is based on the snowball method, the return rate is not known. 26 of the total questionnaires (11%) were eliminated because few questions were answered and 174 questionnaires were analyzed in the last case. However, during the factor analysis, the data of the people who filled in the analysis scale were included only in the analysis of the subject scale.

All data were coded and analyzed by SPSS. All variables were subjected to factor and reliability analyzes after their normal distributions and frequencies were examined, then t-test and ANOVA difference tests, regression analysis were applied. The difference tests are important in terms of measuring the contribution of variables such as gender, education, experience, especially when employees show organizational citizenship behavior and have individualistic / collectivist personality.

By the regression analysis, the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables, and which leader styles influences which organizational citizenship factor were examined.

4.2. Factor Analysis

According to the literature review, organizational citizenship behavior scale was expected to have 6 dimensions. However, after removing 3 items because they were loaded under two dimensions at the same time, the scale items were loaded under two dimensions.
When the questions are carefully examined, it is seen that the behaviors related to self are loaded under the first dimension, while those related to the environment are loaded under the second dimension. For this reason, the first dimension is called *Individual OCB* and second one *Relational OCB*.

Since the Self- Construal Scale (individualism-collectivism) is a two-factor concept in theory, the scale was forced to two-dimensions. Factor analysis shows that the questions were distributed mainly to the dimensions of individualism and collectivism, while some of the individualism elements were loaded under collectivism and vice versa.

The Leadership Style Scale was loaded under 4 dimensions: the first dimension is distant-caring leader because the leader is controlling both himself and its surrounding; the second is the following-caring leader because there are questions about rewarding, the third and the fourth dimensions are paternalistic and servant leaders.

### 4.3. Independent t-test Results

An independent t-test was conducted to determine whether OCB and collectivism varied according to the demographics of the participants. These analyzes shows that it was seen that only the gender of the participants and the supervisors, the place where the participants lived gave a meaningful difference (Table 2). According to the test results, men are more collectivist than women and show more OCB. In addition, employees working for male supervisors are more engaged with OCB than the ones working for female supervisors.

The city where the participants live has a meaningful difference on both OCB and the two sub-dimensions, as well as individualism and collectivism. Participants living in Denizli show more OCB than those living in Istanbul. This situation continues in individual and relational OCB; the collectivism and individualism characteristics of those living in Denizli are higher than those of Istanbul.

**Table 2: Independent t-test Results of Demographics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>-3.09</td>
<td>151.41</td>
<td>.002**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectivism</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>44927</td>
<td>-3.05</td>
<td>141.94</td>
<td>.003**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
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<td>3.84</td>
<td>44562</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender of supervisor</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>df</td>
<td>P value</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
<td>Kadin</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>42736</td>
<td>-2.27</td>
<td>68.14</td>
<td>.027**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Erkek</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>12785</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>df</td>
<td>P value</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual OCB</td>
<td>Istanbul</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>-23,070</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Denizli</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational OCB</td>
<td>Istanbul</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>-14,938</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Denizli</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectivism</td>
<td>Istanbul</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>-21,689</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Denizli</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>Istanbul</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>-5,400</td>
<td>174,09</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Denizli</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
<td>Istanbul</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>-22,022</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>109</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>0.87</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4. One-Way ANOVA Results

A one-way ANOVA test was administered to see whether OCB and collectivism varied according to the position of employees. According to the results of the analysis, both variables differ according to the fact that the employees are supervisors, specialists or assistants (Table 5.6). According to the Scheffe test results, there is no OCB difference but employees in supervisory positions show more collectivistic characteristics than positions (Table 3).

Table 3: ANOVA Test Results According to Positions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3,91</td>
<td>1,38</td>
<td>3,97</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>.021*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3,95</td>
<td>1,30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>3,34</td>
<td>1,24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectivism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3,88</td>
<td>1,24</td>
<td>4,72</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>.01**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>3,79</td>
<td>1,19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>3,22</td>
<td>1,26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001

4.5. Correlation Results

In the correlation analysis, a positive and meaningful relationship was found between OCB and all leader styles except servant leader. Although both individualism and collectivism have a positive and meaningful correlation with OCB, the correlation between collectivism and OCB is stronger in relation to individualism and OCB. Hypothesis 1, which suggests that leadership styles have an impact on OCB, is thus supported.

The fact that the correlation between paternalistic and servant leader, and distant-caring leader and collectivism is higher than .70 reveals that there is a multiple correlation between these variables. Therefore, the servant leader and collectivism variables will not be included in the regression analyzes. The servant leader was chosen as the variables to exclude from the analysis because there was no correlation with OCB, and the correlation between collectivism and OCB is lower than the correlation between collectivism and following-caring leadership.

Table 4: Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Distant-caring l.</td>
<td>3,70</td>
<td>1,26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Following-caring l.</td>
<td>3,59</td>
<td>1,20</td>
<td>.688**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Paternalistic l.</td>
<td>3,71</td>
<td>1,20</td>
<td>.524**</td>
<td>.683**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Servant l.</td>
<td>3,68</td>
<td>1,08</td>
<td>.427**</td>
<td>.639**</td>
<td>.715**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Individual OCB</td>
<td>3,60</td>
<td>1,52</td>
<td>.785**</td>
<td>.325**</td>
<td>.160**</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Relational OCB</td>
<td>3,50</td>
<td>1,12</td>
<td>.672**</td>
<td>.308**</td>
<td>.211**</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>.861**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Collectivism</td>
<td>3,53</td>
<td>1,27</td>
<td>.736**</td>
<td>.293**</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.955**</td>
<td>.845**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Individualism</td>
<td>3,45</td>
<td>0,76</td>
<td>.345**</td>
<td>.158*</td>
<td>.243**</td>
<td>.154*</td>
<td>.459**</td>
<td>.407**</td>
<td>.469**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. OCB</td>
<td>3,56</td>
<td>1,35</td>
<td>.778**</td>
<td>.331**</td>
<td>.180*</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>.989**</td>
<td>.926**</td>
<td>.953**</td>
<td>.458**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001

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4.6. Regression Results

Correlation analysis shows that there is a relationship between variables, but it does not give information about its direction. For these reasons, a step-wise regression analysis was performed to find independent variables describing the dependent variable, OCB. Collectivism and servant leadership were removed from the analyses not to have multiple correlations.

As a result of the step-wise regression analysis, it was found that the most influential variable of the OCB was the city where the participants live (Table 5). There is a positive correlation between the OCB and the city where the participants live, distant-caring leadership and individualism, and a negative correlation between following-caring and paternalistic leadership.

Table 5: Step-Wise Regression

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>ΔR²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>ΔF</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>.906</td>
<td>.821</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>153.53</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>3.422</td>
<td>3.422</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>.418</td>
<td>.181</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.586</td>
<td>.000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distant-caring l.</td>
<td>.609</td>
<td>.371</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.521</td>
<td>.000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Following-caring l.</td>
<td>-.127</td>
<td>-.017</td>
<td></td>
<td>-2.331</td>
<td>.021*</td>
<td>-.072</td>
<td>-.072</td>
<td>.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>.151</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.170</td>
<td>.000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paternalistic l.</td>
<td>-.136</td>
<td>-.018</td>
<td></td>
<td>-2.876</td>
<td>.005**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hierarchical regression was conducted to find out whether individualism played a moderating role in relationship between leadership style and OCB, and different results were obtained for Istanbul and Denizli (Table 6). According to the participants in Istanbul, individualism affects the relationship between all forms of leadership and OCB as a moderating variable. While this correlation is only positive for the following-caring leader, negative for the distant-caring and paternalistic leaders. In other words, as individualism increases, the contribution of the following-caring leadership to OCB increases, whereas in the paternalistic and distant-caring leadership to OCB decreases with the contribution of individualism.

When we look at Denizli, it is seen that there is a negative and meaningful correlation between following-caring leader and individualism. As the individualism of the employees having following-caring leaders in Denizli increases, that of OCB decreases. Thus, Hypothesis 2, which suggests that individualism and collectivism play a moderating role between leadership styles and OCB, is partially supported.

Table 6: Regression Table for Istanbul and Denizli

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>ΔR²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>ΔF</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Istanbul</td>
<td>(constant)</td>
<td>.608</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>.108</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>3.348</td>
<td>.001</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Distant-caring</td>
<td>-.086</td>
<td>-.263</td>
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<td>.793</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Following-caring</td>
<td>-.072</td>
<td>-.365</td>
<td></td>
<td>.716</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>-.375</td>
<td>-.208</td>
<td></td>
<td>.031</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>.476</td>
<td>3.896</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Distant-caring_</td>
<td>-.602</td>
<td>-2.024</td>
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<td>.048*</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Following-caring_</td>
<td>.405</td>
<td>2.088</td>
<td></td>
<td>.041*</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paternalistic_</td>
<td>-.414</td>
<td>-2.226</td>
<td></td>
<td>.030*</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>individu._centered</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denizli</td>
<td>(constant)</td>
<td>.740</td>
<td>.547</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.089</td>
<td>3.014</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Distant-caring</td>
<td>.964</td>
<td>8.688</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Following-caring</td>
<td>-.128</td>
<td>-1.114</td>
<td></td>
<td>.268</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>-.146</td>
<td>-1.387</td>
<td></td>
<td>.168</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DOI: 10.17261/Pressacademia.2017.755
When the participants did not distinguish according to the city they live in, although leadership styles and individualism have influence on OCB, no significant interaction between these variables could be found (Table 7). Leadership style and OCB correlation is not affected by participants' individualism levels.

### Table 7: Hierarchical Regression

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variable</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>ΔR²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>ΔF</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(constant)</td>
<td>0,864</td>
<td>0,746</td>
<td>0,005</td>
<td>68,937</td>
<td>0,381</td>
<td>1,638</td>
<td>0,103</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distant-caring</td>
<td>0,95</td>
<td>16,262</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Following-caring</td>
<td>-0,193</td>
<td>-2,96</td>
<td>-0,004</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>-0,246</td>
<td>-4,335</td>
<td>-0,000</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>0,232</td>
<td>5,135</td>
<td>0,002</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distant-caring</td>
<td>-0,021</td>
<td>-0,477</td>
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<td>0,000***</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0,743</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>-0,089</td>
<td>-1,548</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>0,021</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td>0,000***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent variable: OCB

* p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001

### 4.7. 2x2 ANOVA and MANOVA Results

In order to determine how the interaction between demographics was influencing OCB, 2X2 ANOVA analysis was conducted. The results of the analyzes revealed that the interaction between total work experience and seniority at the current job, and the interaction between the gender of the participant and the city where it lives are significant (Table 8, Graph 1 and Graph 2).

### Table 8: 2X2 ANOVA Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total experience</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,932</td>
<td>1,127</td>
<td>,290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seniority at the current job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4,631</td>
<td>2,702</td>
<td>,102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total experience* Seniority at the current job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8,351</td>
<td>4,873</td>
<td>,029*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>187,97</td>
<td>342,76</td>
<td>,000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0,09</td>
<td>0,17</td>
<td>0,685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City*Gender</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2,95</td>
<td>5,37</td>
<td>0,022*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent variable: OCB

* p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001
As can be seen in Graph 1, while the employees with high total experience but low seniority have lower levels of OCB, their OCB significantly increase as their seniority increase. In Graph 2, it has been shown that the OCB levels of the participants change according to the city they live in, not to their genders as Denizli residents have higher levels of OCB.

In order to understand the relationship between the interaction of demographics and the two subscales of the OCB (Individual OCB and Relational OCB) 2X2 MANOVA analysis was conducted. As a result of this analysis, it was found that the only characteristic that influences the relationship with both dependent variables is the gender of the employees and that the interaction of the employee and the supervisor gender has no meaningful effect (Table 9, Graphs 3 and 4). Graph 3 and 4 show that the gender of the employee is more influential than the gender of the supervisor in both OCB dimensions.

Table 9: 2X2 MANOVA Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>Pillai's Trace</th>
<th>Wilks' Lambda</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean2</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor gender</td>
<td>0,246</td>
<td>0,246</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>187,97</td>
<td>1,42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0,031*</td>
<td>0,031*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0,09</td>
<td>3,54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor gender*</td>
<td>0,409</td>
<td>0,409</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2,95</td>
<td>0,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. CONCLUSION

In this research, the relationship between leadership styles and individualism / collectivism and OCB was examined. As a result of the research, it is revealed that there is a relation between leadership style and OCB, and in some cases, individualism plays a moderating role in this relationship. The factor analysis revealed 4 types of leadership in this study: following caring, distant-caring, paternalistic and servant. Although following-caring and distant-caring leadership styles do not exist in the previous literature, they are found to be more influential on OCB. Both of these leadership styles are highly caring about the employees while following caring is more about rewarding, distant-caring is more about controlling. When there is no categorization of the city, distant-caring is the most effective leadership style on OCB and the servant leadership style has no impact at all.

However, the most interesting result is differences about the individualism / collectivism and OCB levels according to the cities they live in. In this research, the individualism/collectivism of individuals were analyzed rather than the total collectivism level of the city. OCB is most significantly influenced by the city the participants live in. In specific, there is a strongly significant difference between the OCB levels of participants living in Istanbul and Denizli. In Denizli, the OCB level is significantly higher. When the differences between Istanbul and Denizli are examined, it can be seen that Denizli is more collectivist and has higher levels of OCB. Istanbul has different characteristics than Anatolian cities because it is the biggest and most cosmopolitan city of Turkey and more influenced by the western culture. It was expected that those living in Istanbul would be more individualistic, less caring about their relationship but more focused on their own interests.

In a mostly collectivist society like Turkey, it was expected that, men who are given more freedom and more courageously expressing themselves will have more individualistic characteristics while women are more helpful, more caring about relationships and more collectivist. However, there research results show the opposite. According to the independent t-test results, men show more OCB than women and are more collectivist. The reason could be the fact that, in recent years, women have also had the opportunity to rise to high positions in the business world and in order to be able to compete with men in this world they have adopted some of the more masculine features attributed to men. It was seen that the gender of the supervisors is only influential on OCB. Regardless of the gender of the employee, it has been demonstrated that employees working for male supervisors have higher levels of OCB.

Age could explain the fact that supervisors are more collectivist than other lower-level employees and have higher levels of OCB. The new generation in Turkey is more individualistic than the previous one, and grows up with suggestions from both family and friends that s/he should give the most importance to himself/herself. Employees in the upper position may be thought to be more collectivistic by their age, and therefore show a higher level of OCB.
In line with the independent t-test results, regression analysis results also show the differences on OCB between Istanbul and Denizli. As shown in Table 10, the individualist employees working with distant-caring leaders have lower levels of OCB in both cities. The reason for this may be that the individual does not like being controlled in the business and wants to be independent. These employees may not want to show extra role behaviors when they are told what to do.

In Istanbul, the relationship between following-caring leadership and OCB is positively moderated by individualism. In other words, as individualism increase the OCB level of employees working for following-caring leaders increase as well. This can be explained by the rewarding nature of following-caring leadership. Employees with high level of individualism would be more pragmatic about their gains and they would make more emphasis on individual interests. Their motive for OCB would not be the satisfying feelings of being beneficial to the organization but actual and individual rewards. In addition to this, in Istanbul, the relationship between distant-caring leadership and OCB is negatively moderated by individualism. Employees with high levels of individualism would be disturbed by the controlling nature of distant-caring leaders and would be more reluctant to show OCB. In Denizli, there is different scenario about following-caring leadership. As opposed to Istanbul, the relationship between following-caring leadership and OCB is negatively moderated by Individualism which means as the level of individualism increase, employees working for following-caring leaders show lower levels of OCB.

In terms of total experience and seniority, in both cities, while total experience has no significant contribution to OCB, seniority has positive contribution. As seniority increase, the level of OCB increase as well. This situation can be explained by the affective commitment and identification with the organization. As the length of time increase, the employee has more friends and more positive feelings to the organization. S/he feels belonging and identification and as a result shows more OCB.

This research reveals the fact that culture is very important and influential in organizations. It can completely affect the concepts and value perceptions of people. For this reason, when there is distinction between politeness and conscience in one culture, these two concepts may have the same meaning in another culture. This may be the reason why the scale of Leadership Style and OCB used in the research were loaded under different dimensions than the original ones in the literature. A similar study conducted with the scale developed in Turkey may lead to different results in the research.

One of the limitations of this research is the fact that the data has been distributed in different ways, including internet site, electronic mail and face-to-face distribution. The Participant quantity per question has remained quite low, especially in the Leadership Style Scale. Secondly, the scales used are developed in foreign cultures. Since the concepts may have different inner meaning for each culture, the origin of the scale may effect research results. The research can be repeated with scales developed in Turkey in order to see whether the results would change.

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VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY STUDY FOR SOCIAL CLIMATE SCALE IN ORGANIZATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- The importance of the social environment in which employees are involved and the inter-personal relationships in organizations have been discussed since the neoclassical period. There are various studies related to this issue in the literature. The purpose of this study is to develop a social climate scale in order to evaluate the social environment in which the organization's employees are involved.

Method- The study was conducted on the clinical and administrative employees of five public hospitals operating in Istanbul. The research sample consists of 517 observations. In order to enable a proper assessment of the social climate, employees working less than six months with the organization were not included in the study. IBM SPSS 24.0 and IBM SPSS AMOS 24.0 package programs were used to analyse the obtained data. Factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis in the structural equation model, binary correlations, t-tests and variance analysis (ANOVA) as well as descriptive statistics were applied.

Findings- During the development process of the social climate scale, a scale of 49 items was drawn based on the theories and studies in the literature. The final scale obtained from factor analysis consists of 26 items and 6 dimensions. These dimensions are as follows: interpersonal coherence (7 items), organizational support (7 items), intragroup communication (4 items), work ethic (4 items), occupational cooperation (2 items) and out of workplace relationships (2 items). The total reliability of the scale was 0.87 and the reliability coefficients of individual dimensions were 0.84, 0.83, 0.78, 0.71, 0.89 and 0.80, respectively.

Conclusion- The literature is certainly not poor in terms of studies assessing the organizational climate on the basis of a number of dimensions such as ethical climate, safety climate, and psychological climate. Yet, the number of studies on social climate is rather limited, with those investigating the topic focusing mostly on education. It is believed that, in this sense, the social climate scale developed in this study will make a unique contribution to the literature.

Keywords: Organizational climate, social climate, healthcare professionals, health care services, confirmatory factor analysis.
JEL Codes: L20, M12, MS4.

1. INTRODUCTION

In the early period of the management literature, running from early 1900s to 1950s, the focus was mostly on the formal structure, whereas the interpersonal relationships in organizations were discussed at formal level. It is possible to argue that the ideas that set the principles of management in this process were put forward for the first time in 1916, and that the subject became popular with the contributions of Henry Fayol in 1937 followed by Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick. Against the background provided by Frederick Taylor’s scientific management approach and Max Weber’s bureaucracy approach, the employment relationships regarding the employees had been standardized by the strict system created by the formal authority in the first half of the 20th century. Starting in 1939 with the publication of Roethlisberger and Dickon’s studies with Western Electric Hawthorne employees, the process led to the focus on informal human relations in organizations in the 1950s and 1960s. In this period, Trist and Bamforth’s studies which exhibited the relationship between technical systems and social systems at the Tavestock Institute, followed by Michel Crozier’s bureaucratic phenomenon approach, which discussed the relationship between informal human relations and formal systems, investigated human relations in organizations (Mintzberg, 1979).
Human being lives within a larger whole called the social structure (Güney, 2008). Both the individual and the people around are affected by the process in which human relationships were established and mutual interactions occur. Briefly put, the person's whole social life interacts with his/her environment (Fındıkçı, 2012). The studies performed by Likert present evidence demonstrating the relationship between the management and the labour force. One such piece of evidence is related to the influence of the management climate on employee behavior. Likert and Seashore proved that the behaviors of working groups had an effect on organizational performance (Kaczka and Kirk, 1967).

Interpersonal relationships take place within the scope of an exchange. The first definition of social exchange made by Blau in 1955 led to a very significant perspective on human relations (Homans, 1958). This movement, which arguably was introduced by Peter Blau, has been embraced also by George Homans, John Thibaut and Harold Kelley, and was mentioned in several studies (Emerson, 1976). One can refer to two specific values with reference to human relations. The first is the involvement; explaining why being in a group is attractive for people. The second one is communication and interaction (Homans, 1958).

In organizations, the concept of social climate can be defined as the level of harmonization, grouping, solidarity, and aspects of the work reflected outside the work, which are formed by the processes in the organization and the influence of the employees. The main purpose of this study is to develop a scale for evaluating the quality of the relationships among employees, the effects of which on organizational productivity have long been discussed.

This study includes validity and reliability analyzes of the social climate scale for organizations. Literature review takes place in the second part. The third part is about methods and models. The results of the analysis are presented in the fourth section. The fifth and last section consists results are evaluated.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

It is possible to say that the concept of social climate was first introduced by Lewin and his colleagues in 1939. Lewin et al. (1939) defined organizational climate as social climate and social atmosphere. That study, which is accepted as the first organizational climate study in the literature, was actually concerned with social climate and group behaviors. It also provides a basis for the concept of social climate.

Yilmaz and Altınkurt (2013) define the organizational climate as the general atmosphere and emotions in an organization. Authors, who emphasize the influence of employees on the organizational climate, regard the organizational climate as a working environment that employees directly or indirectly create. Climate is not a visible, concrete element but a sensible and perceiveable medium. The organizational climate is also descriptive of the organizational members' experiences with the organization and suggestive of the broader cultural context (Klamon, 2006). Özsoy (2012) states that the organizational climate is affected by external factors as well as the internal integration, adaptation and interaction process of employees, and that it changes shape by adapting to the external environment.

Moran and Volkwein (1992) mention that organizational climate is a function of the organizational structure and individual perception. In this context, organizational climate stands out as a feature that distinguishes the organization from other organizations. It is safe to say that organizational structure, wage, control, conflict and leadership etc. have integrally an effect on the perceived organizational climate. From this viewpoint, the organizational climate should not be limited only to the perception of the employee, but also the influence of the organizational processes on the perception of the employee should be taken into consideration (Arslan, 2004). Hence, organizational processes impact the organizational climate and have an indirect effect on job satisfaction and performance. On the other hand, organizational climate has a direct and powerful effect on job satisfaction and performance as well (Lawler and Oldham, 1974).

In the literature, the organizational climate has been analysed from various perspectives with a number of studies investigating the ethical climate (Appelbaum et al., 2005), open and closed climate (Arslan, 2004; Sönmez, 2014), social climate (Anderson, 1970; Jones, 1997; Moos, 1968; Bayar and Uçanok, 2012; Erdil and Ertosun, 2011) and safety climate (Türe et al., 2014). Unlike the organizational climate, the social climate is arguably connected with the social dimension of the organizational environment in which the employees are involved. The social climate has an important place in the organizations, in terms of the administrative aspects of the relationships among the employees as well as the management-consequences thereof, not to mention the director who is required to be competent in human relations in the organization.

The initial study focusing on organizational climate as a social atmosphere, by Lewin et al. (1939) was followed by the development of a social climate scale by Moos (1968). The social climate scale developed by Moos and later used by Haque and Sheikh (1992), Jones (1997) and Mirkin and Middleton (2014) consists of 12 dimensions. These dimensions are spontaneity, support, commitment, feasibility, order, understanding, relationship, aggression, diversity, openness, modesty and autonomy (Moos, 1968). Studies on social climate have shown that positive social climate increases people's desire, success, self-esteem and personal development (Haque and Sheikh, 1992). From a general point of view, the studies on the
social climate are found to be related to the effects of social environment in which children and adolescents are included (Lewin et al., 1939; Anderson, 1970; Wright, 1998; Weiss, 2003; Wright, 2009; Bayar and Uçanok, 2012).

For organizations, the usability of the previously developed social climate scales is rather limited. At this junction, various theories and studies in the literature were utilized in terms of assessing social climate in organizations. The theories and studies regarding the dimensions as identified in the studies are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Bibliography Referred to for the Development of the Social Climate Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Utilized Scale / Dimension or Approach</th>
<th>Study</th>
<th>The role of the concept in the study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Coherence</td>
<td>Social Exchange Approach</td>
<td>Homans, 1958</td>
<td>When the mutuality of human relations is evaluated, the emotions, attitudes and behaviors that employees create during the development process of relationships with each other form the most important dimension of social climate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attention and Support Dimension for Employees</td>
<td>Dietz, 2000</td>
<td>The inclusion of employees’ opinions in the decision-making process and the promotion of innovative ideas by the organization set the framework of the items evaluated in this context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dimension of the School</td>
<td>Bayar and Uçanok, 2012</td>
<td>The attitude of the school examined in the study in terms of the conflicts among the students was evaluated according to the organization’s attitude for the conflict.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Open Climate Approach</td>
<td>Arslan, 2004</td>
<td>Directors who pay attention to the feelings and thoughts of the employees enable the employees to develop sense of union. This support also provides for an open climate in the organization at the same time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Support</td>
<td>Open and Closed Climate Approach</td>
<td>Sönmez, 2014</td>
<td>When the influences of the director and thereby the organizational processes are evaluated in terms of perception of the organizational climate as sincere, paternal, managing, open or closed climate, the importance of institutional support for the social climate is understood.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Climate Scale</td>
<td>Moos, 1968</td>
<td>In the social climate scale, the dimension of the order is positive but the dimension of aggression is the negative factor, which is considered as the two factors that change the social climate perception. The institutional framework that the organization established is highly important in terms of employee relationships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management Support Attention to New Employee</td>
<td>Schneider, 1972</td>
<td>New employees have some expectations from the organization and these expectations can affect the perception of the employee on the organization in the later processes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Psychology Approach in Organizations</td>
<td>Bock et al., 2005</td>
<td>The perceived positive organizational climate increases information sharing and thereby communication among employees also enhance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relationship Dimension</td>
<td>Mirkin and Middleton, 2014</td>
<td>The grouping that emerges in the social environment that human beings are involved and the structuring of human relations that develop with the roles they have in these groups have an important effect on the social environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student Dimension</td>
<td>Bayar and Uçanok, 2012</td>
<td>The attitudes and behaviors of the students to their friends and those of the employees to their colleagues may bear similarity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Theory of Group Behavior</td>
<td>Mullen and Goethals, 1987</td>
<td>The tomographic structure of the social network in which intragroup communication has realized has taken place in the literature as a theme addressed by the analogue approach. It is important that people in the group communicate with whom and how they communicate, and how they form a network related to communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intragroup Communication</td>
<td>Participation and Cooperation dimension</td>
<td>Dietz, 2000</td>
<td>Cooperation among employees, relationships with other departments and processes within other departments are the important components of social climate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intraorganizational Conflict</td>
<td>Schneider, 1972</td>
<td>Employees’ approaches that form conflict basis with group perception within the organization can create a negative social climate perception.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Ethic</td>
<td>Socio-Ethical Climate Scale</td>
<td>Verdorfer et al., 2014</td>
<td>The socio-ethical climate perception stands out with the elements that will enable the development of values and ethical behaviors in the organization. The perception of organizational practices and rules is also important in terms of improving communication.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. MATERIAL AND METHOD

In the formation process of the social climate scale materials, the literature was reviewed and the theories and studies related to the subject were evaluated. As a result of the research, 49 items were generated for 8 anticipated dimensions. Preliminary study was conducted with 60 respondents. After changes were made in accordance with the feedbacks received from the respondents following this preliminary study, the research was started. In order to ensure that employees' social climate perception can be properly evaluated, the employees who worked for less than six months were excluded from the study. 7-Point Likert scale was used for the options given for the respondents' evaluations, and the responses ranged from "1 = definitely false to 7 = definitely true". In the first section of the two-section questionnaire, demographic data was given and the second one included scale items. The study was conducted on the clinical and administrative employees of five public hospitals operating in Istanbul between July and October 2016. Two of the relevant hospitals are special branch hospitals and the others are general hospitals. Data was collected with survey method in the study. A total of 900 questionnaires were distributed by using random sampling method and 593 of the distributed questionnaires were responded by the respondents (response rate of the questionnaires= 66%). After the incomplete questionnaires were excluded from evaluation, the final sampling was formed from 517 observations. IBM SPSS 24.0 and IBM SPSS AMOS 24.0 package programs were used to analyse the obtained data. Factor analysis, two-step confirmatory factor analysis, binary correlations, t-tests, and variance analysis (ANOVA) as well as common descriptive statistics were performed in data evaluation process.

4. RESULTS

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

According to the demographic data, 376 (73%) of the 517 respondents were female and 141 (27%) were male. Average age of the respondents was 33 years (SD=9.2), ranging from 18 to 65 years. Average occupational experience of the respondents was 11 years (SD=9.2), ranging from 6 months to 42 years. Average term of employment for the respondents was 7 years (SD=8.0), ranging from 6 months to 36 years. 240 (46%) of the respondents were single and 277 (54%) were...
married and 224 (43%) of them have one or more children. 465 (90%) of the respondents consisted of healthcare professionals and 52 (10%) respondents were administrative staffs. 335 (46%) of the respondents were permanent employee and 182 (54%) were covenanted employee. The information on staff and bed capacity of the public hospitals surveyed is given in Table 2.

### Table 2: Types, Number of Employees and Bed Capacities of Study Hospitals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hospital Name</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>N of Beds</th>
<th>N of Employees</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>% of Sampling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Göztepe TH</td>
<td>General/Teaching</td>
<td>663</td>
<td>1541</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>42.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haydarpaşa TH</td>
<td>General/Teaching</td>
<td>709</td>
<td>1404</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siyami Ersek Cardiology TH</td>
<td>Speciality/Teaching</td>
<td>525</td>
<td>861</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erenköy Psychiatric Hospital TH</td>
<td>Speciality/Teaching</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erenköy Physiotherapy Hospital</td>
<td>Speciality</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the sample size (517) was 10 times more than the number of items (49), it was suitable for factor analysis. Principal components analysis and Varimax rotation technique were applied in the factor analysis during the dimension acquisition process. The statements with factor weights less than 0.50 were excluded from the analysis, thereby reducing the total number of items from 49 to 26. The total variance was 61%. Accordingly, six dimensions with the eigenvalue more than 1 were obtained (KMO=0.85, Bartlett’s Sphericity Test \( \chi^2=5336.35, \text{Sd}=325, p<0.001 \)). These dimensions: interpersonal coherence (7 items), organizational support (7 items), intragroup communication (4 items), work ethic (4 items), occupational cooperation (2 items) and out of workplace relationships (2 items). The scale at which eight dimensions were initially predicted was reduced to six dimensions after factor analysis. It had been observed that from the dimensions of personal coherence and executive support which were planned, 2 of the relevant items for executive support had been under the dimension of organizational support but 4 of items which were expected to be under the dimension of personal coherence had been under the dimension of interpersonal coherence dimension. Other items of related dimensions were not included in the generated scale. When the reliability coefficients of the scale were evaluated, they were seen to be in the confidence interval. The Cronbach’s alpha of the scale was 0.87. Values for interpersonal coherence (0.84), organizational support (0.83), intragroup communication (0.78), work ethic (0.71), occupational cooperation (0.89) and out of workplace relationships (0.80) dimensions were also in the confidence interval (Table 3).

### Table 3: Factor Loadings of Items, Variances Explained and Reliabilities from Social Climate Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor Name</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor Loadings</th>
<th>Variance Explained (%)</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Coherence</td>
<td>11. I like my colleagues in general. 6. I build good relationships with my colleagues. 13. When I need to make arrangements for my working hours, I get support from my colleagues. 12. I trust my colleagues in general. 14. My colleagues are generally funny. 5. I prefer to cooperate with my colleagues. 33. We have a team spirit with our colleagues.</td>
<td>0.76 0.72 0.72 0.70 0.70 0.69 0.54</td>
<td>14.83 0.84</td>
<td>0.75 0.79 0.75 0.75 0.75 0.75 0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Support</td>
<td>27. The organization I have worked in supports good relationships among employees. 25. The organization has a sensitive management approach to conflicts and disagreements in the workplace. 26. Employees are supported by the organization in such cases as wedding feast or funeral ceremony (celebration or sending message) 24. A birthday celebration is held for all employees at the workplace, supported by the directors. 23. When I just started working, I felt the organization’s support. 49. The organization in which I have worked supports the career development. 41. There is an open and positive communication in all departments and units in the organization in which I have worked.</td>
<td>0.79 0.75 0.75 0.71 0.66 0.61 0.55</td>
<td>13.83 0.83</td>
<td>0.75 0.79 0.75 0.75 0.75 0.75 0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intragroup Communication</td>
<td>17. I have colleagues that I never want to communicate with. (R) 16. I have colleagues that I have never communicated with. (R) 15. There are some people among my colleagues that they do not want to communicate with each other at all. (R) 18. I feel that there are grouped people in the workplace. (R)</td>
<td>0.79 0.77 0.73 0.65</td>
<td>10.00 0.78</td>
<td>0.79 0.77 0.73 0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Ethic</td>
<td>39. There are inappropriate relationships with regard to business ethics among my colleagues. (R)</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>8.43</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2. Assessment of Scale Dimensions

Interpersonal coherence is an important component of social climate. For a positive social climate, employees need to be in coherence within their social relationships. This dimension includes the emotional attachment of the employee to his friends, the support he/she takes from his/her friends in case of need, and his/her perceptions and attitudes about his/her colleagues from working environment.

In the dimension of organizational support, the employee’s support received from the organization has been evaluated. The organization’s support for establishing good relationships among employees, the attitude of organization against conflict, the emotional support of the organization to employees as well as their career goals, and the open communication network within the organization provide support in order to create a positive social climate.

The intragroup communication dimension is related to the groupings that the employee feels in the organization and whether he/she feels that she/he belongs to one of these groups. The effect of possible groups on the communication within the working environment was also evaluated within this context. The evaluation of employees in the presence of the natural existence of informal groupings in organizations was considered in the dimension of intragroup communication of social climate.

The work ethic dimension includes ethical principles for social relations in the working environment. It is intended to assess the effects of ethical principles on the social climate in the work ethic dimension where the attitudes, and behaviors that employees should not be allowed in the ethical framework are measured.

Occupational cooperation is another important component of social climate. Because the basis of social relations established by the employees in the organizations is the business relationship, the exchanging opinions of the employees on the occupational issues provides an important and different dimension of the social climate. When employees support each other’s development, this will have a positive effect on the social climate.

In the dimension of Out of Workplace Relationships, it has been evaluated whether the employees carry the social environment in the working environment to out of workplace. This dimension was generated by the fact that employees’ perception of social climate in a positive way would allow to carry their social relations to the outside workplace.

In order to evaluate the construct validity of the social climate scale, two-step confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using factor analysis followed by structural equation modelling. The first and second step factor analyzes with the structural equation models are shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2.
As a result of the evaluation of the first and second stage factor analyses shown in the Table 4, it is observed that the models are quite well compatible with data in accordance with the norm values (Bryne, 2010).

**Table 4: Goodness-of-Fit Statistics for CFA Models**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>$\chi^2$/DF</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>NFI (≥0.90)</th>
<th>CFI (≥0.95)</th>
<th>GFI (≥0.90)</th>
<th>AGFI (≥0.90)</th>
<th>RMSEA (≤0.08)</th>
<th>PCLOSE (&gt;0.50)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First-Order CFA</td>
<td>488.94</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second-Order CFA</td>
<td>495.19</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Norm values are in parentheses.

Binary correlations of the dimensions created with the research variables are shown in Table 5.
Table 5: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
<th>7.</th>
<th>8.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Age (year)</td>
<td>33.43</td>
<td>9.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Job Experience (year)</td>
<td>10.56</td>
<td>9.20</td>
<td>0.89*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Tenure (year)</td>
<td>7.32</td>
<td>8.03</td>
<td>0.75*</td>
<td>0.82**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Interpersonal Coherence</td>
<td>5.69</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Organizational Support</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.32**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Intragroup Communication</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>-0.10'</td>
<td>-0.01*</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.31**</td>
<td>0.25**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Work Ethic</td>
<td>5.08</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.29**</td>
<td>0.20**</td>
<td>0.45**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Occupational Cooperation</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.52**</td>
<td>0.30**</td>
<td>0.30**</td>
<td>0.29**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Out of Workplace</td>
<td>5.88</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>-0.17*</td>
<td>-0.12**</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.36**</td>
<td>0.18**</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.09*</td>
<td>0.27**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05; **p<0.01.

The variables in the correlation table show that age is correlated positively with work experience and seniority dimensions, and negatively with out of workplace relationships dimensions. The relationship between age and work experience and seniority means naturally occurring condition and the decrease in out of workplace relationships due to the increase in age also promotes the relationship between age groups and out of workplace relationships dimensions. It is observed that seniority has no relationship to the other variables. Interpersonal coherence dimension is related to all kinds of dimensions and also associated with occupational cooperation at the highest level and occupational ethics at the lowest level. This fact can be interpreted as interpersonal coherence increases occupational cooperation. It is observed that the dimension of organizational support has a close correlation with other dimensions except for interpersonal coherence. This suggests that the employees’ interaction with each other may be independent of organizational support in the dimension of interpersonal coherence. The intergroup communication dimension is related to work ethics and occupational cooperation. From this viewpoint, it can be said that the unity of purpose generated by occupational cooperation and work ethics can strengthen intergroup communication. The work ethic dimension correlates with the dimensions of the occupational cooperation and extracurricular relationship at a quite low level. It is expected that the principles of occupational cooperation are related to work ethic. It is seen that the dimension of occupational cooperation is also related to the dimension of out of workplace relationships. The relationship for the increase of out of workplace relationships with occupational cooperation can be evaluated as a reflection of the positive atmosphere created by the occupational cooperation to out of workplace relationships.

The intergroup comparisons have shown that some organizations differ in the dimensions of interpersonal coherence and the organizational support. Intergroup bilateral comparisons were made according to Tukey HSD. The relationship between gender and interpersonal coherence is significantly different by 0.15, indicating that interpersonal coherence among male employees was greater (F=6.16, t=1.88, SE=0.79, p<0.05). This can be explained by the fact that female employees have much more emotional attitude towards human relationships than male employees and reflect this attitude to the interpersonal relationships (Parkinson et al., 2005).

When out of workplace relationships are compared with age variable in the intergroup comparisons, the group aged 25 and below is different from the group aged 36-45 with a mean difference of 0.51 (SE=0.13, p<0.001), and also from the group aged 46 and above with difference of 0.58 (SE=0.16, p<0.01) in a positive way (F(3,513)=7.00, p<0.001). Those with less than three years of work experience seem to prefer similar out-of-workplace relationships (F(3,513)=956.94, p<0.001).

Low educated participants differs from middle educated participants with a difference of 0.20 in a positive way in terms of interpersonal coherence (F(2,513)=3.35, SE=0.084, p<0.05). When organizational support is compared with education variable in the intergroup comparisons low educated participants differs from middle educated participants with a difference 0.58 (SE=0.013, p<0.001) and also from high educated participants with a difference of 0.51 in a positive way (F(3,513)=10.85, SE=0.14, p<0.001). Low educated participants differs from middle educated participants with a difference of 0.34 in a positive way in terms of work ethic (F(2,514)=4.24, SE=0.13, p<0.05). When the dimensions are evaluated in terms of occupations nurses differ from doctors with a difference 0.51 in a positive way in terms of intragroup communication (F(3,513)=3.01, SE=0.18, p<0.05).
5. CONCLUSION

Since the neo-classical management approach, also known as the human relations approach, the importance of human relationships in organizations has been emphasized and evaluated with different dimensions in the literature. The social climate concept, which is considered as a "social atmosphere" by Lewin et al. (1939) and which enable the concept of organizational climate to emerge, includes multiple variables. The social climate is evaluated with different dimensions in the literature. There are also studies in the literature, in which the organizational climate has been evaluated with several dimensions such as ethical climate, safety climate, psychological climate. It is seen that there are limited number of studies on social climate and the studies are mostly conducted on educational field.

It is important to apply the scale in different sectors when considering that healthcare professionals differ from the employees in the field of business and industry in terms of clarity, control and innovation dimensions in previously established social climate scale studies (Haque and Sheik, 1992). As this study shows very positive results in terms of validity and reliability in different public institutions and occupational groups outside the healthcare field, it looks promising that it can be applied in different sectors. It is aimed to work with organizations from different sectors in order to increase the generalization of the scale after this study which purposes to develop social climate scale and is regarded as an initial research.

The statistical evaluations have shown that the validity and reliability values of the social climate scale and the generated theoretical model are appropriate. Besides, it is observed that there are significant differences in some dimensions of the scale compared to other variables when considered the other results obtained from analysis of the data. It is seen that the carrying social relations at work to outside of the workplace varies depending on age. Younger employees tend to carry their social relations at work to the outside environments. It can be said that the structure of social relations changes as the age increases and leads to a decline in carrying the social relations at work to outside of the workplace. In order to make the social climate become positive, the support perception provided by the organization changes depending on the

Table 6: Results of Variance Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Interpersonal Coherence</th>
<th>Organizational Support</th>
<th>Intragroup Communication</th>
<th>Work Ethic</th>
<th>Occupational Cooperation</th>
<th>Out of Workplace Relationships</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>N (%)</td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>141 (27.3)</td>
<td>5.80 (0.66)</td>
<td>4.32 (1.33)</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>4.00 (1.58)</td>
<td>5.03 (1.21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>376 (72.7)</td>
<td>5.65 (0.84)</td>
<td>4.13 (1.26)</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>4.09 (1.49)</td>
<td>5.10 (1.12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;26</td>
<td>118 (22.8)</td>
<td>5.77 (0.95)</td>
<td>4.30 (1.32)</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>4.37 (1.57)</td>
<td>5.23 (1.11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>212 (41.0)</td>
<td>5.69 (0.81)</td>
<td>4.14 (1.31)</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>4.05 (1.55)</td>
<td>5.04 (1.15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45</td>
<td>132 (25.5)</td>
<td>5.62 (0.73)</td>
<td>4.11 (1.23)</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>3.92 (1.46)</td>
<td>5.60 (1.17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;45</td>
<td>55 (10.6)</td>
<td>5.67 (0.55)</td>
<td>4.23 (1.21)</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>3.83 (1.28)</td>
<td>5.09 (1.15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>240 (46.4)</td>
<td>5.63 (0.89)</td>
<td>4.10 (1.28)</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>4.09 (1.58)</td>
<td>5.10 (1.14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>277 (53.6)</td>
<td>5.74 (0.71)</td>
<td>4.25 (1.28)</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>4.04 (1.48)</td>
<td>5.06 (1.16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>170 (34.2)</td>
<td>5.82 (0.78)</td>
<td>4.55 (1.28)</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>4.14 (1.51)</td>
<td>5.28 (1.17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>187 (37.2)</td>
<td>5.61 (0.90)</td>
<td>3.97 (1.21)</td>
<td>10.85 ***</td>
<td>4.20 (1.54)</td>
<td>5.01 (1.08)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>160 (32.6)</td>
<td>5.64 (0.68)</td>
<td>4.04 (1.29)</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>3.83 (1.46)</td>
<td>4.94 (1.18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;3</td>
<td>106 (20.5)</td>
<td>5.62 (1.01)</td>
<td>4.18 (1.28)</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>3.86 (1.38)</td>
<td>5.20 (1.14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6</td>
<td>134 (27.0)</td>
<td>5.76 (0.84)</td>
<td>4.20 (1.30)</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>4.16 (1.58)</td>
<td>5.00 (1.12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;6</td>
<td>127 (25.4)</td>
<td>5.72 (0.67)</td>
<td>4.18 (1.34)</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>3.95 (1.46)</td>
<td>5.06 (1.17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure (year)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;3</td>
<td>137 (27.5)</td>
<td>5.73 (0.86)</td>
<td>4.21 (1.31)</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>4.30 (1.62)</td>
<td>5.17 (1.17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6</td>
<td>134 (27.0)</td>
<td>5.75 (0.80)</td>
<td>4.32 (1.24)</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>4.09 (1.52)</td>
<td>5.09 (1.07)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;6</td>
<td>114 (22.1)</td>
<td>5.62 (0.84)</td>
<td>4.09 (1.34)</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>4.07 (1.50)</td>
<td>5.15 (1.13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff</td>
<td>335 (68.2)</td>
<td>5.69 (0.78)</td>
<td>4.10 (1.30)</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>4.09 (1.51)</td>
<td>5.10 (1.13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractual</td>
<td>182 (35.8)</td>
<td>5.69 (0.84)</td>
<td>4.35 (1.23)</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>4.01 (1.53)</td>
<td>5.04 (1.18)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

M: Mean; SD: Standard Deviation. *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001.
educational status, as the education increases in general, the general opinion that the organizational support is inadequate also decreases.

Acknowledgment

This article was formed from a part of doctoral thesis study. This study was presented as an oral presentation at the Congress of Current Trends in Health Sciences Education - Research and Practices, held on 7-8 December 2017. This work was supported by Research Fund of the Marmara University project number: SAG-C-DRP-120917-0502.

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THE EFFECTS of STRATEGIC THINKING and POLITICAL SKILLS on TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - The basic motivation of this research is the observation of the effects of strategic thinking and political skills on transformational leadership. There are some researches and investigations about these three factors in the literature, but there is no study that investigates these three factors with their dimensions. This study aims to contribute to this gap in the literature.

Methodology - The research has been conducted with 496 companies located in Istanbul, Bursa and Kocaeli which are selected from 562 companies in Marmara Region from the list of 1000 largest industrial establishment of Turkey. Nearly 500 questionnaires were sent to those companies and 283 responses were collected. The survey results have been analysed with exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis and the hypothesis are tested with structural equation modelling.

Findings - According to the results of structural equation modelling; it has been observed that the sub-dimensions of strategic thinking and political skills has positive and significant effects on the sub-dimensions of transformational leadership. Variables with no positive and significant effects were discussed in the conclusion.

Conclusion - The observed effects are the behaviours that are expected from transformational leaders. Improving the skills of the leaders is essential for a successful transformation of businesses. The research results were supported with theoretical and practical suggestions for the development of those skills and behaviours.

Keywords: Strategic thinking, political skills, transformational leadership, structural equation modelling
JEL Codes: M10, M16, M19

STRATEJİK DÜŞÜNMEİNİN ve POLITİK YETENEKLERİNİN DÖNÜŞÜMCÜ LİDERLİK ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİLERİ

ÖZET

Amaç - Bu çalışmanın temel motivasyonu stratejik düşünce ve politik yeteneklerin dönüşümü liderlik üzerindeki etkilerinin incelemesidir. Literatürde bu üç faktörün araştırıldığı çalışmalar olmakla birlikte, bu üç faktörün alt boyutlarıyla ele alınması çalışma bakımından eksiktir. Bu çalışma ile literatürdeki bu boşluğu doldurulması amaçlanmaktadır.

Yöntem - Çalışma kapsamında Türkiye’nin 1000 büyük sanayi kuruluşu içerisinde, İstanbul, Bursa ve Kocaeli illerinde yer alan 496 işletmelerin 1000 adet anket formu ile gönderimi, topladığı 283 yanıt analiz ve model test edilmiştir.

Bulgular - Araştırma sonuçları stratejik düşünce ve politik yeteneklerin dönüşümü liderlik üzerindeki etkilerinin incelemesinde gözlemlenen pozitif ve anlamlı etkileri gözlemlemiştir. Araştırmanın sınırlarına dahil edilen ve araştırma sonuçlarının sınırlarını belirleyen faktörlerin profilinin belirlenmesi çabalarını arayışta kalmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Stratejik düşünce, politik yetenekler, dönüşümü liderlik, uygulamaya yönelik teori modeli
JEL Kodları: M10, M16, M19

1 This article is a part of the PhD thesis titled “The Effects of Strategic Thinking and Political Skills on Transformational Leadership” written in Gebze Technical University, The Department of Business Administration.
1. GİRİŞ

İşletmelerin günümüz dünyasında varlıkları sürdürür, yaşamlarına pozitif ivmede devam etmeleri gün geçtikçe zorlaşmaktadır, yaşanan değişim ve belirsizlikler işverenlerin liderlerin sorumlulukları artmaktadır (Bass ve Avolio, 1994; Leithwood, Jantzı, ve Steinbach, 1999). Bireysel olarak kendileri ve işverenlerine gelecekte daha iyi bir noktaya taşınmak üzere etkili bir vizyonu sahip, bu vizyon ile işletme çalışanlarına ilham veren ve model oluşturan dönüşüm söylemeye motive biçimde çalışmaların sağlamak üzere sağlığına il[vişim kuran, onları anlayan, saygı uyandıran, destekleyen ve her birini işletme amaç ve hedefleri ve potansiyelleri doğrultusunda üzerlerine sahip olan bir liderlik biçimi olmak üzere önemlidir. Bu bakış açısı ile, günümüzde dönüşümü liderlik oldukça önemli bir liderlik biçimi ve dönüşüm liderlik için stratejik düşünme ve politik yeteneklerin önemli becerilerdir.

Dönüşümü liderlik etkileyen en önemli becerilerden biri awesome bir dışa açılan hem bütünsel hem de parçalara ayrarak bakambilme, geçmiş tecrübeye ve deneyimlerinde yararlanarak olayları yorumlama becerileri; yanı stratejik düşünme becerisine sahip olmanızın oldukça önemlidir. Tümlerin ve işverenlerine fayda sağlayacak özel ihtiyaçlar ile ilgili olarak olmayan olmaları, bireylerin üzerinde etkileyicilik kapasitesinin yüksek olması, olayları ve kişileri doğru yorumlayarak duruma göre doğru davranışlar sergileyerek esnek bir tutuma sahip ve çalışanların hem bireysel olarak kendilerine hem de liderlerine değerlerini saglayan bir varios değerli ve şahsiyet almak olmasının önemlidir. Bunlarla, süreçten birlikte dönüşümü liderlik için stratejik düşünme ve politik yeteneklerin önemli becerilerdir.


2. LİTERATÜR İNCELEMESİ

2.1. Stratejik Düşünme, Liderlik ve Dönüşümü Liderlik


2.2. Politik Yetenekler, Liderlik ve Dönüşümü Liderlik


sağlayabilmesi için yüksek politik yeteneklerle sahıp dönüşümcü liderlerde çalışmaları ya da mevcut liderlerinin politik yeteneklerini geliştirmek üzere çalışmalar yapmaları gerektiğini ele almışlardır.

Yukarıda da görüldüğü gibi, dönüşümcü liderler ve izleyenler arasındaki iş birliği ve sağlıklı bir sürecin yürütülmesi için politik yeteneklerin önemi birçok farklı çalışmada tespit edilerek ele alınmıştır. Politik yeteneklere sahip liderler çalışanların yeteneklerini geliştirmekte, yüksek performans gösteren bir ekip oluşturmaya, oluşturan ekipi hem kendi işlerinde hem de dış dünyada ile iş iş cinsinden sağlama ve yönetme, iş gözlem yaparak olayları doğru yorumlama ve bu doğru taktırda aksiyon alma, kiz梳理 durumlarını ve farklılıkları öne çıkarmak ve yönetme, çalışanları rahatlatma, güven ve uyum içinde çalışmalari sağlama gibi birçok konuda politik yeteneklerin gelişmiş olması liderlere göre daha etkin ve başarılı oldukları yapılan çalışmalarla tespit edilmiştir (Sunindijo, 2012; Ewen ve diğerleri, 2013; Gentry ve diğerleri, 2013; Blickle ve diğerleri, 2014; Brouer ve diğerleri, 2016; Menc ve diğerleri, 2016).

3. VERİ VE METODOLOJİ

3.1. Araştırma Modeli ve Hipotezler


Şekil 1: Araştırma Modeli

Pisapia ve diğerleri (2005) stratejik düşünceyi karmasık durumlarda başarılı olmak için gereken beceriler olarak tanımlayarak sistem düşünmesi, yeniden çerçeveleme ve yansıtırma kavramlarıyla ele almıştır. Sistem düşünmesi, sistemin davranışlarını şekillendirecek ve eylemler için alternatifler sunacak özellikleri, kuvvetleri, örtüleri ve karşılıklı ilişkileri anlayarak, sistem bütüncül olarak görme yeteneği, yeniden çerçeveleme; yeni görüşler ve eylem alternatifleri oluşturmak için dikkati farklı bakış açları, zihinsel modeller ve paradigmalara kaydırılabilir yeteneği ve yansıtırma da aldığı da algar, deneyim ve bilgilerin kullanımı aracılığıyla ne olduğunu dair yargida bulunmak için mantıksal ve rasyonel düşünüçeyi harmanlayabilmek ve daha sonra gelecekteki eylemlere rehberlik edecek sezgisel ilkeler oluşturulmuş ve analiz bir yapıya tabi tutulmuştur (Ferris ve diğerleri, 2005).

Ferris ve diğerleri politik yetenekleri işyerinde başkanlarını etkin şekilde anlama, başkanlarını etkileme ve etkilemeyeğı bilgisini kullanma ve başkanlarını kişisel ve örgütsel hedeflerini zenginleştirerek şekildedir duvarın doğrultusunda öne çıkmak ve bu yeteneğin ağ kurma yeteneği, kişilere etkilemek ve iletişim şekilinde dört boyutlu ele alınması belirtmişlerdir (Ferris ve diğerleri, 2005). Ağ kurma yeteneği farklı kişilere iletişim kurmak, duvarın zenginleştirilmek, koalisyon kurmak ve bu ilişkiler kişisel ve yönetim(ISI) hedeflerine ulaşmak için kullanma yeteneği; kişilere etkilemek bir işçinin başkanları üzerinde güçlü bir etki yaratma; sosyal becerilerin farklı sosyal ortamlar ve kişilere doğru olarak analiz edilebile ve dikkati bir şekilde kendi duvarının ve işçilere uyum brüt yeteneği ve iletişim becerilerin çevresindeki kişilere bütünlik sağlamak, düştür, içten ve doğal duvarın becerisi olarak ifade edilmektedir (Ferris ve diğerleri, 2005).


H10: Sistem düşüncesinin vizyon oluşturma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H11: Sistem düşüncesinin model olma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H12: Sistem düşüncesinin ortak hedef için çalışma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H13: Sistem düşüncesinin yüksek performans beklentisi üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H14: Sistem düşüncesinin bireysel destek üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H15: Sistem düşüncesinin entelektüel uyarım üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H16: Yeniden çerçevelemenin vizyon oluşturma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H17: Yeniden çerçevelemenin model olma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H18: Yeniden çerçevelemenin ortak hedef için çalışma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H19: Yeniden çerçevelemenin yüksek performans beklentisi üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H20: Yeniden çerçevelemenin bireysel destek üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H21: Yeniden çerçevelemenin entelektüel uyarım üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H22: Yeniden çerçevelemenin yüksek performans beklentisi üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H23: Yeniden çerçevelemenin bireysel destek üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H24: Yeniden çerçevelemenin entelektüel uyarım üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H25: Aş kuruma yeteneğinin vizyon oluşturma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H26: Aş kuruma yeteneğinin model olma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H27: Aş kuruma yeteneğinin ortak hedef için çalışma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H28: Aş kuruma yeteneğinin yüksek performans beklentisi üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H29: Aş kuruma yeteneğinin bireysel destek üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H30: Aş kuruma yeteneğinin entelektüel uyarım üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H31: Kişilerarası etkileyiciliğin vizyon oluşturma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H32: Kişilerarası etkileyiciliğin model olma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H33: Kişilerarası etkileyiciliğin ortak hedef için çalışma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H34: Kişilerarası etkileyiciliğin yüksek performans beklentisi üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H35: Kişilerarası etkileyiciliğin bireysel destek üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H36: Kişilerarası etkileyiciliğın entelektüel uyarım üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H37: Kişilerarası etkileyiciliğin yüksek performans beklentisi üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H38: Kişilerarası etkileyiciliğinin model olma üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H39: Kişilerarası etkileyiciliğinin ortak hedef için çalışma üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H40: Kişilerarası etkileyiciliğinin yüksek performans beklentisi üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H41: Kişilerarası etkileyiciliğinin bireysel destek üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H42: Kişilerarası etkileyiciliğinin entelektüel uyarım üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H43: Sosyal becerikliliğin vizyon oluşturma üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H44: Sosyal becerikliliğinin model olma üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H45: Sosyal becerikliliğinin ortak hedef için çalışma üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H46: Sosyal becerikliliğinin yüksek performans beklentisi üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H47: Sosyal becerikliliğinin bireysel destek üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H48: Sosyal becerikliliğinin entelektüel uyarım üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H49: İçtenliğin vizyon oluşturma üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H50: İçtenliğin model olma üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H51: İçtenliğin ortak hedef için çalışma üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H52: İçtenliğin yüksek performans beklentisi üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H53: İçtenliğin bireysel destek üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.
H54: İçtenliğin entelektüel uyarım üzerinden pozitif bir etkisi vardır.

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Kara Ozturk, Erdil
3.2. Ana Kütle ve Örneklem

Araştırma evreni İstanbul Sanayi Odası’nın Türkiye’nin 500 Büyük Sanayi Kuruluşu ve Türkiye’nin ikinci 500 Büyük Sanayi Kuruluşu olarak sınıflandıran işletmeler olarak belirlemiştir. Araştırma örneğini bu kuruluşların arasında Marmara Bölgesi’nden faaliyet gösteren 562 işletme olarak seçilmiştir. Bu işletmeler içerisinde İstanbul, Bursa ve Kocaeli ilerinde yer alan 496 işletme üzerinden; kolayda örnekleme yöntemi ile ilgili işletmelerin üst, orta ve alt kademe yöneticilerine 500’e yakın anket ulaşmıştır ve geri dönüş alınan 283 anketten 260’ı ile analize uygun bulunarak analiz yapılmıştır.

3.3. Veri Toplama Aracı


4. BULGULAR VE TARTIŞMA

Araştırmaya katılan yöneticilerin demografik verilerine bakıldığında çoğunun erkek (%65), 36-45 yaşları arasında (%42,3), evli (%79,6), üniversite mezunu (%65,8), meslekte 21 yıl ve üzeri tecrübe (%35) olduğu görülmüştür.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Değişken / Soru</th>
<th>Faktör Yükleri</th>
<th>Düzeltilmiş Madde-Toplam Korelasyonları</th>
<th>Güvenilirlik (Cronbach’s Alpha)</th>
<th>Açıklanan Varyans</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sistem Düşüncesi</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1 Bir işi yaparken ya da karar verirken konuya ilgili var olan bilgilerden;</td>
<td>0,704</td>
<td>0,612</td>
<td>0,802</td>
<td>9,388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2 Bir problem çözüme ararken, problemi parçalara ayrımadan önce bütünüyle tanımlarım.</td>
<td>0,706</td>
<td>0,538</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3 Bir işi yaparken ya da karar verirken uzun vadeli düzeltici temel önlemler arırım.</td>
<td>0,502</td>
<td>0,502</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4 Bir işi yaparken ya da karar verirken detayları incelmeden önce büyük resme bakarım.</td>
<td>0,753</td>
<td>0,594</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5 Bir işi yaparken ya da karar verirken hareketle geçmeden önce büyük resme bakarım.</td>
<td>0,688</td>
<td>0,579</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S9 Bir işi yaparken ya da karar verirkenአgerçeklerin birbirleriyle ilişkilerini anlamaya çalışırım.</td>
<td>0,543</td>
<td>0,555</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Yansıtma</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S21 Bir işi yaparken ya da karar verirken durum çözüme ulaşktan sonra, onu nasıl ele almış olduğumu düşünürüm.</td>
<td>0,798</td>
<td></td>
<td>0,802</td>
<td>9,448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S23 Bir problem çözüme ulaşktan sonra, çözümün nasıl ve neden işe yarıdığını anlamaya çalışırım.</td>
<td>0,817</td>
<td></td>
<td>0,829</td>
<td>9,246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ağ Kurma Yeteneği</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P26 İşverindeki diğer çalışanlarla iletişim ağı (network) kurmaya ölabildiğine çok zaman ayırır ve çaba gösteririm.</td>
<td>0,616</td>
<td>0,554</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P27 İşverindeki önemli kişilerle başarıyla bağlantılı kurarım.</td>
<td>0,667</td>
<td>0,645</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P28 İşverinde işlerde ilgili, gerçekten ihtiyaç duyduğumda destek alabileceğim geniş bir meslektas ve çalışma arkadaş ağı geliştiririm.</td>
<td>0,721</td>
<td>0,574</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P29 İşverinde çok sayıda önemli insan tanıyor ve iyi bağlantılarım var.</td>
<td>0,698</td>
<td>0,647</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P30 İşverinde diğer çalışanlarla iletişimimimi geliştirmek için olabileceğine çok zaman ayırırım.</td>
<td>0,618</td>
<td>0,606</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P31 İşverinde işlerin sonuçlandırılması için bağlantıları ve ilişkilerimi kullanmada başarılıyım.</td>
<td>0,628</td>
<td>0,574</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kişilerarası Etkileyicilik</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P32 Birlikte çalıştım mesaisi arkadaşlarınımdan çocuğun, kendisini rahat ve huzurlu hissetmesini sağlayabilirim.</td>
<td>0,520</td>
<td>0,543</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P34 Çok insanla dostça ilişkiler geliştirebilirim.</td>
<td>0,712</td>
<td>0,618</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P35 Benim için insanların benim işlerimi ve görevlerimi yapamadığını çok koldardır.</td>
<td>0,715</td>
<td>0,516</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sosyal Beceriklilik</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P37 Diğer insanların özellikle temel motivasyonlarını ve gizli gündemlerini iyi söyleyebilirim.</td>
<td>0,734</td>
<td>0,585</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P38 Kendimi başkalannan nasıl takdim edeceğim konusunda sağlam bir sezi ve kavrayışa sahibim.</td>
<td>0,733</td>
<td>0,635</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Araştırma modelinin yapı geçerliliğini test etmek için SPSS 22.0 yazılımda değişkenler açıklıcı faktör analizi ile test edilmiş ve sonuçları Tablo 1'de sunulmuştur. Analiz sonuçunda tüm boyutların varyansının %67.817'lik (sistem düşüncesi %9.388, yansıma %4.517, stratejik düşünmenin alt boyutlarından yeniden çerçeveleme bu yeterlilik sağlamadığı için analiz dışı bırakılmıştır. Diğer tüm boyutların Cronbach's Alpha katsayıları minimum α =.671 ile kabul değerlerinin üzerinde kalma, yüksek performans beklentisi %6.067 ve bireysel destek %9.388, yansıtırma %4.448, ağ kurma yeteneği %9.246, kişilerarası etkileyicilik %4.517 kısmını açıkladığı görülmüştür (KMO=.895; χ² = 4646.063; df=741; p=0,000). Açıklayıcı içerik katsayları ise minimum ±.5 kabul edilebilir seviye olarak esas alınmış (Hair ve diğerleri, 2010); dönüşümcü liderliğinin alt boyutlarından ise %7.285, vizyon oluşturma %6.676, ortak hedef için çalışma %9.388, yüksek performans beklentisi %6.067 ve bireysel destek %9.388, yansıtırma %4.448, ağ kurma yeteneği %9.246, kişilerarası etkileyicilik %4.517 kısmını açıkladığı görülmüştür (KMO=.895; χ² = 4646.063; df=741; p=0,000). Açıklayıcı içerik katsayları ise minimum ±.5 kabul edilebilir seviye olarak kabul edilmiştir. Diğer tüm alt boyutların Cronbach’s Alpha katsaylarının minimum α =.671 ile kabul değeriinin üzerinde kalması için analiz dışı bırakılmıştır. Diğer tüm alt boyutların Cronbach’s Alpha katsayılarının minimum α =.671 ile kabul değerinin üzerinde kalması için analiz dışı bırakılmıştır. Diğer tüm alt boyutların Cronbach’s Alpha katsayılarının minimum α =.671 ile kabul değerinin üzerinde kalması için analiz dışı bırakılmıştır. Diğer tüm alt boyutların Cronbach’s Alpha katsayılarının minimum α =.671 ile kabul değerinin üzerinde kalması için analiz dışı bırakılmıştır. Diğer tüm alt boyutların Cronbach’s Alpha katsayılarının minimum α =.671 ile kabul değerinin üzerinde kalması için analiz dışı bırakılmıştır. Diğer tüm alt boyutların Cronbach’s Alpha katsayılarının minimum α =.671 ile kabul değerinin üzerinde kalması için analiz dışı bırakılmıştır. Diğer tüm alt boyutların Cronbach’s Alpha katsayılarının minimum α =.671 ile kabul değerinin üzerinde kalması için analiz dışı bırakılmıştır. Diğer tüm alt boyutların Cronbach’s Alpha katsayılarının minimum α =.671 ile kabul değerinin üzerinde kalması için analiz dışı bırakılmıştır. Diğer tüm alt boyutların Cronbach’s Alpha katsayılarının minimum α =.671 ile kabul değerinin üzerinde kalması için analiz dışında bırakılmıştır. Diğer tüm alt boyutların Cronbach’s Alpha katsayılarının minimum α =.671 ile kabul değerinin üzerinde kalması için analiz dışında bırakılmıştır. Diğer tüm alt boyutların Cronbach’s Alpha katsayılarının minimum α =.671 ile kabul değerinin üzerinde kalması için analiz dışında bırakılmıştır. Diğer tüm alt boyutların Cronbach’s Alpha katsayılarının minimum α =.671 ile kabul değerinin üzerinde kalması için analiz dışında bırakılmıştır. Diğer tüm alt boyutların Cronbach’s Alpha katsayılarının minimum α =.671 ile kabul değerinin üzerinde kalması için analiz dışında bırakılmıştır. Diğer tüm alt boyutların Cronb
Veri seti aynı zamanda güvenilirlik analizine tabi tutulmuş; tüm yapının güvenilirlik katsayısı Tablo 2’de görüldüğü gibi minimum 60’dan büyük ve literatürde yer alan kabul edilebilir sınırlardır (Field, 2009; Hair ve diğerleri, 2010) tespit edilmiş.

Veri setine uygun olan korelasyon analizi ile değişkenler arasındaki birlikte değişim ilişkileri, ortalama, standart sapma gibi tanımlayıcı istatistikler test edilmiş ve Tablo 2’de sunulmuştur. Stratejik dönüşmenin alt değişkenleri arasındaki korelasyon katsayısı r=.354; politik yeteneklerin alt boyutları arasındaki korelasyon katsayılari r=.206 ve r=.555 arasında; dönüşümü liderlilik alt boyutları arasındaki korelasyon katsayısı r=.263 ve r=.523 arasında değerlendirilmiş ve tüm boyutlarda alt boyutların arasındaki korelasyon literatürde bulunan oranlara göre büyük oranda orta seviyededir (Field, 2009). Bu değerler değişkenler arasında öngörülen mantıksal geçerliliğin sağlanmış göstermiştir (Hair ve diğerleri, 2010).


Bu doğrultuda değişkenlerin içsel tutarlılıklarının güvenilir olduğu görülmüştür. Doğrulayıcı faktör analizi uyum değerleri bir bütün olarak ele alındığında, oluşturulmuş olan modelin veriyle iyi bir uyum sağladığı sonucuna varılmıştır.

Tüm analiz koşulları sağlanıktan sonra hipotezler AMOS 20.0 programında gerçekleştiren yapışal eşitlik modellemesi ise test edilmişdir. Yapısal eşitlik model sonuçlarına göre Tablo 3’de görüldüğü gibi χ²=947,555, Norma(lstımlımsız χ²=1.606, RMSEA=.037, RMSEA=.045, TLI=.905, CFI=.915, GFI=.883, NFI=.806 değerleri ile literatürde bulunan oranlara göre büyük oranda uygun olup test edilmiş ve araştırma hipotezleri test edilmiştir.

Tablo 3: Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli Sonuçları

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Değişken</th>
<th>[x]</th>
<th>[±]</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>SID</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>AKY</th>
<th>KE</th>
<th>SZ</th>
<th>l</th>
<th>VO</th>
<th>OHİÇ</th>
<th>YPB</th>
<th>BD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OHİÇ</td>
<td>4,33</td>
<td>0,62</td>
<td>0,922</td>
<td>0,454</td>
<td>0,244</td>
<td>0,465</td>
<td>0,504</td>
<td>0,352</td>
<td>0,352</td>
<td>0,522</td>
<td>0,523</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YPB</td>
<td>3,94</td>
<td>0,72</td>
<td>0,799</td>
<td>0,356</td>
<td>0,184</td>
<td>0,388</td>
<td>0,260</td>
<td>0,387</td>
<td>0,275</td>
<td>0,431</td>
<td>0,516</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BD</td>
<td>4,10</td>
<td>0,66</td>
<td>0,715</td>
<td>0,308</td>
<td>0,194</td>
<td>0,368</td>
<td>0,342</td>
<td>0,206</td>
<td>0,346</td>
<td>0,263</td>
<td>0,367</td>
<td>0,282</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[x] ortalama, [±] standart sapmayı, α ise Cronbach’s Alpha değerini ifade etmektedir.


Tüm değerler için p<0,01 seviyesinde anlamlıdır.
**Yapısal Yollar** | **Standartlaştırılmamış Katsayılar** | **Standarize Edilmiş Katsayılar** | **Standart Hata** | **t Değişi**
---|---|---|---|---
χ² = 947.555, df = 590, p değeri = 0,000, Normlaştırılmış χ² = 1,606
RMR= 0,037, RMSEA= 0,048, GFI= 0,839, CFI= 0,915, NFI= 0,806, TLI= 0,905
* ile belirtilen t değerlerinde p<0,05 olarak ele alınmıştır.
** ile belirtilen t değerlerinde p<0,01 olarak ele alınmıştır.
*** ile belirtilen t değerlerinde p<0,001 olarak ele alınmıştır.

SİD: Sistem Düşüncesi, Y: Yansıtma
AKY: Ağ Kurma Yetenliği, KE: Kişilerarası Etkileyicilik, SZ: Sosyal Becerilik, İ: İçtenlik

*Şekil 2: Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli*

(Standardize edilmiş β katsayıları ile birlikte gösterilmiştir; χ² = 947.555, df = 590, p değeri = 0,000, Normlaştırılmış χ² = 1,606; RMR= 0,037, RMSEA= 0,048, GFI= 0,839, CFI= 0,915, NFI= 0,806, TLI= 0,905 şeklindedir.)

Araştırma modelinde ve hipotezlerde test edilmiş planlanan 42 hipotez, araştırma verileriyle yapılan açıklayıcı faktör analizinde dönüşümcü liderliğin alt boyutlarından model olma ve entellektüel uyarımın yerel faktör yüklerine sahip olmaları; stratejik düşünmenin alt boyutlarından yeniden çerçevelemenin yerel güvenirlik seviyesini sağlayamadığı için analiz dışı bırakılması sebebiyle başa ölçümlenmesi planlanan 42 hipotezden 12 tanesi test edilememiş ve Tablo 3’de de görüldüğü gibi geri kalan 24 hipotez test edilmiştir.

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Analiz sonuçlarına göre stratejik düşünmenin alt boyuttardan sistem düşüncesinin ortak hedef için çalışma (β = 0,241, p<0,01), yüksek performans beklentisi (β = 0,315, p<0,01) ve bireysel destek (β = 0,145, p<0,05) üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkisi vardır ancak visyon oluşturma üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkisi yoktur. Stratejik düşünmenin alt boyuttardan yansıtma ise, dönüşümü liderliğinin hiçbir boyutu üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahip değildir. Model sonuçları politik yeteneklerin alt boyuttardan ağı kuru yeteneğinin dönüşümü liderliğinin hiçbir alt boyuttan pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olmadığını göstermektedir. Politik yeteneklerin alt boyuttardan kişilere etkileşiciliği visyon oluşturma (β = 0,321, p<0,05) ve hedef hedef için çalışma (β = 0,512, p<0,001) üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahip iken; yüksek performans beklentisi ve bireysel destek üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olamamıştır. Politik yeteneklerin bir diğer alt boyut olan sosyal becerilik visyon oluşturma (β = 0,539, p<0,001), ortak hedef hedef için çalışma (β = 0,201, p<0,01) ve yüksek performans beklentisi (β = 0,397, p<0,001) üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olmuştur, bireysel destek üzerinde ise pozitif ve anlamlı bir etki görülmemiştir. Politik yeteneklerin alt boyuttardan iştihrak ise hedef hedef için çalışma (β = 0,214, p<0,01) ve bireysel destek (β = 0,215, p<0,005) üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olmuştur, ancak visyon oluşurma ve yüksek performans beklentisi pozitif ve anlamlı bir etki göstermemiştir.

Tablo 4: Hipotezlerin Sonuçları

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hipotez</th>
<th>Standardize Edilmiş Kataylar</th>
<th>Sonuç</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1a</td>
<td>Sistem düşüncesinin visyon oluşturma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,214**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1b</td>
<td>Sistem düşüncesinin hedef hedef için çalışma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,315**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1c</td>
<td>Sistem düşüncesinin bireysel destek üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,145*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2a</td>
<td>Yanıttımanın visyon oluşurma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2b</td>
<td>Yanıttımanın hedef hedef için çalışma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2c</td>
<td>Yanıttımanın bireysel destek üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3a</td>
<td>Ağı kuru yeteneğinin visyon oluşturma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3b</td>
<td>Ağı kuru yeteneğinin hedef hedef için çalışma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3c</td>
<td>Ağı kuru yeteneğinin bireysel destek üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4a</td>
<td>Kişilere etkileşiciliğinin visyon oluşturma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,321*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4b</td>
<td>Kişilere etkileşiciliğinin hedef hedef için çalışma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,512***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4c</td>
<td>Kişilere etkileşiciliğinin bireysel destek üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5a</td>
<td>Sosyal becerilikli bir kişinin visyon oluşturma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,397***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5b</td>
<td>Sosyal becerilikli bir kişinin hedef hedef için çalışma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,201**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5c</td>
<td>Sosyal becerilikli bir kişinin bireysel destek üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6a</td>
<td>İçtenliğin visyon oluşurma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6b</td>
<td>İçtenliğin hedef hedef için çalışma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,214**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6c</td>
<td>İçtenliğin yüksek performans beklentisi üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7a</td>
<td>Yansıtmanın visyon oluşturma üzerinde pozitif bir etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>0,215*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* ile belirtilen t değerlerinde p<0,05 olarak ele alınmıştır.
** ile belirtilen t değerlerinde p<0,01 olarak ele alınmıştır.
*** ile belirtilen t değerlerinde p<0,001 olarak ele alınmıştır.

5. SONUÇ
5.1. Araştırma Sonuçlarının Değerlendirilmesi

Araştırma sonuçlarında stratejik düşünmenin alt boyuttardan sistem düşüncesinin tüm alt boyutların dönüşümü liderliğinin tüm alt boyutları üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olması beklenmektedir, Tablo 4’dede görülebilir. Bu sonuçla bir araya gelen dil verimli yapıştırmalarda etkileşimlerin, etkinliklerin, team précizyonlarının tenin üzerinde performans beklentisi ve bireysel etkisi karakteristikleri ortak hedef için çalışma, yüksek performans beklentisi ve bireysel etkisi bir etken olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Bu sonuç aynı zamanda sistem düşüncesinin liderin çevresi ve ilişkilerinin her birinin ayrı ayrı rolü ve bunların işleyişi dönümüsüne nasıl uydugunu, sistemdeki bağlantılarını önemi ve bu bağlantıların sistemdeki tesiriının analizilmesi,
sistemdeki girişi ve çıktıların işletme ekosisteminin nasıl etkilediğiyile ilgili bir farkındalık yarattığı görüşü (Pisapia ve diğerleri, 2005) sistem düşüncesi sahip bireylerin bu farkındalığı, çalışanlarının her birinden ayrı ayrı sergileyecekleri en yüksek iştirme ve bu ilişkileri kişisel ve yönetimsel hedeflere uçları tahmin etme yeteneği de anlaşıldı; algılanan durum ile var olan durumu, ortak hedef için çalışma, yüksek performans etkileyiciliği yüksek liderlerin kendi hedeflerine ulaşabilmek ve sonucun gerektirdiği davranış biçimini bilinçli ve zersiz bir etkisi olduğunu öne sürdükleri araştırma sonuçlarına göre politik yeteneklerin alt boyutlarından sosyal beceriklilik olarak analiz edilmiştir. Sistem düşüncesine sahip olan liderlerin; iletişimde uygun uygunsuz, teşvik ile iyileştirme için çalışanlarda yönelik zihinsel geliştirmeler yapmışlar (Senge, 1992; Pisapia ve diğerleri, 2005); liderlerin hedef belirleme ve bu doğrultuda doğru yönelimde yapmak konusundaki etkiliği göstermektedir. Sistem düşüncesine sahip liderlerin dikkatlerini organizasyonların basamaklarını arasında ileri ve geri doğru kaydırılabilme, sistemizin büyük başamağında gerçekleşen değişimlerin diğer başamaklara ve sistemdeki diğer parçalarına etkilerini ve aralarındaki ilişkilerini yaratmalarını tahmin etme yeteneği de liderlerin organizasyonunun bütün olarak ele alıp her bir parçasının dönümüne katkıını anlayarak bir hedef belirleme ve bu hedef için her bir parçanın katkıını ne olması gerektiğini anlamalarını sağlamaktadır. Sistem düşüncesine ait bu görüşler, sistem düşüncesinin ortak hedef için çalışan konusunda etken olarak görülmesi,ビジョン yapılmıştır. Ferris ve diğerleri (2007) yaptığı çalışma, liderlerin vizyon oluşturma konusunda etken olarak görülmesi görüşüyle ortuşmuş sahaya, araştırma sonuçlarına sistem düşüncesi ile ortak hedef projecte çağrayı arasındaki pozitif ilişkili açıklayabilir.

Yanıtltular liderlerin algıları, deneyimleri ve bilgilerini kullanarak, yaşanan durum ile ilgili ne olduğuna dair yararlı bulunanlar ve gelecek etyelerini şekillendirirken bu yargıları mantıksal ve rasyonal dengeselce harmonlayarak seksiz ilke oluşturma yetenekleridir (Pisapia ve diğerleri, 2005). Araştırma sonuçlarına göre stratejik düşünmenin alt boyutlarından, yönetim yetenekinin alt boylarını ise vizyon oluşturma, hedef etkin hedef sebeplere anlamsız bir etkisi bulunmaktadır (Liedtka, 1998); algılanan durum ile var olan durum arasındaki farklıları anlayarak, doğru ve doğruca yakın dikkatli olarak etkilemek için yapacakları konuları netleştirmeleri, sistemdeki girdi ve çıktının işletme ekosistemini nasıl etkilediğiyle ilgili bir farkındalık yaratmıştır. Arşı çalışması, sistem düşüncesi sahip olan liderlerin; stratejik düşünmenin alt boyutlarından vizyon oluşturma, öğretimde ve uygulamada yüksek performans etkileyiciliği yüksek liderlerin kendi hedeflerine ulaşabilmek ve sonucun gerektirdiği davranış biçimini bilinçli ve zersiz bir etkisi olduğunu öne sürdükleri araştırma sonuçlarına göre politik yeteneklerin alt boyutlarından sosyal beceriklilik olarak analiz edilmiştir. Sistem düşüncesine sahip olan liderlerin; iletişimde uygun uygunsuz, teşvik ile iyileştirme için çalışanlarda yönelik zihinsel geliştirmeler yapmışlar (Senge, 1992) sistem düşünümcülüğü ve aralara etkilerini yaratmalarını tahmin etme yeteneği de liderlerin organizasyonunun bütün olarak ele alıp her bir parçasının dönümüne katkıını anlayarak bir hedef belirleme ve bu hedef için her bir parçanın katkıını ne olması gerektiğini anlamalarını sağlamaktadır. Sistem düşüncesine ait bu görüşler, sistem düşüncesinin ortak hedef için çalışan konusunda etken olarak görülmesi görüşüyle ortuşmuş sahaya, araştırma sonuçlarına sistem düşüncesi ile ortak hedef projecte çağrayı arasındaki pozitif ilişkili açıklayabilir.


dönüşümcü liderlerin hedefledikleri dönüşümü daha kolay ve başarılı sonuçlarla gerçekleştirmeleri için sürekli hızlı ve kolay yürütmelnmesi sağlayacaktır.

Stratejik dönüşüme becerilerinden sistem dönüşücesi ve politik yeteneklerden sosyal becerikilik; dönüşümü liderliği en çok etkileyen kilid faktörlerdir. Liderlerin aşağıda ele alınacak yöntemlerle, belirlenen tüm yeteneklere önem vermesi; özellikle de etkilerinin diğer yeteneklere göre daha fazla olması sebebiyle sistem dönüşücesi ve sosyal becerikilik yeteneklerine daha fazla odaklanması, hedefledikleri dönüşümün gerçekleştirilmesinde kendilerine kolaylık ve fayda sağlayacaktır.

 Araştırma sonuçları doğrultusunda dönüşümü liderlerin vizyonlarını oluştururmak, bu vizyonu ifade etmek ve izleyenlerin de bu vizyonu benimsemek, sosyal becerikilik yetenekleri için önemlidir. Dönüşümü liderlerin hedefledikleri dönüşümü daha kolay ve başarılı sonuçlarla gerçekleştirmeleri için sürekli hızlı ve kolay yürütmelnmesi sağlayacaktır.

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 Araştırmaya bulgularına göre dönüşümü yönetenlerin hedefledikleri dönüşümü sağlamak üzere çalışan, çalışanlara önem verip her birini bireysel olarak ileriye taşımak, dolayısıyla hedefe doğru hızla ulaşılması sağlamak üzere bireysel destek sağlamaları için sistem düşüncesine sahip olmaları ve çalışanların içinde davranmaya önem vermeleri gerekmektedir. İzleyenlere bireysel destek sağlayan dönüşümü yöneten liderler, izleyenlere saygı gösterir, dua etmek gerektirir, düşüncelerini dikkate alır, gereksinimlerini duyarlı olur, kişisel gelişimlere destek olur ve izleyenlere koçluk yaparak hedeflenen dönüşümün sağlanmasında izleyenlere katkı sağlarlar (Bass, 1985; Conger ve Kanungo, 1998; Podsakoff ve diğerleri, 1990; Bass ve Avolio, 1994). Dönüşümü yöneten liderlerin sistem düşüncesi yaklaştığı kapsamında izleyenlere her birini sistemine birer parça olarak görek aynı aileyi, sistemine bağlı olarak çalıştırırlar için bu bireysel parçaların her birinin önemini anlayarak izleyenlere ayak yapıştıkları, fazlasını olumlu ve olumsuz davranışları, davranışlarına sebep olan etmenler birer parçası olarak ayrı ayrı ele almalı, sistem için sağlıklı çalışması için bu bireysel parçaların her birinin öneminin anlayarak izleyenlere ayak yapıştıkları. Bu duruma göre davranışlar değiştirerek (Ferris ve diğerleri, 2005a; Ferris ve diğerleri, 2005; Ferris ve diğerleri, 2005) dönüşümü yönetenlerin tüm çalışanlarına güvenilmeye, çalışanların etkin bir şekilde aktarmalarını ve bunun karşılığında çalışanlarından yüksek performans beklenmesi sağlayacaktır (Braddy ve Campbell, 2013). 

 Araştırmada çeşitli istatistiksel yeterlilikleri sağlanamadığı için analiz dışı biriklim durumunda kalan üç alt boylu vardır. Stratejik düşünenin alt boylu olan yeniden çerçevelemenin etkileri ve dönüşümü liderliğinin alt boylu olan model olma ve entelektüel yaşamın etkilerini tespiti için gecekteki yapılabilecek yeni araştırmalarda farklı sonuçlar elde edilmesi durumunda, analiz dışı biriklim olan bu üç alt boytu ile ilgili sonuçlar tekrar değerlendirilebilir literatürdeкатki sağlanabilir ve liderlerin bu becerileri geliştirmesine yönelik pratik ve uygulanabilir öneriler sunulabilir.


 Araştırma 283 yönetici ve çalışanlara dahil olan 260 ankette, 260 anketi analiz edilecek, 260 anket子里ltin sonuçlarına genel olarak test edilebilir.

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 Kara Ozturk, Erdil

Araştırma kapsamında veriler doğrudan yöneticilerden toplanmıştır. Dolaysıyla yöneticilerin kendilerine yönelik stratejik düşünce ve politik yeteneklerini kullanma becerilerini ve dönüşümü liderlik yeteneklerinin kendi öz değerlendirmesini içermektedir. Gelecekte yapılacak farklı araştırmalarda, çalışanların liderlerinin stratejik düşünce, politik yetenek ve dönüşümü liderlik becerilerini değerlendirme dönemi istenerek, karşılıklı bir analiz gerçekleştirilebilir. Araştırmanın bu şekilde çift taraflı yürütülemesi konuya farklı bir bakış açısı geliştirerek, algılanan stratejik düşünce, politik yetenek ve dönüşümü liderlik ile gerçekleşen stratejik düşünce, politik yetenek ve dönüşümü liderlik karşılıklı olarak değerlendirilmesinin yanı sıra,itimate ve birbirleri üzerindeki etkilerinin karşılaştırılarak olarak incelenmesine olanak tanıyarak literatürde farklı bir katkı sağlanacaktır.

Bu araştırmanın temel hedefleri arasında bulunmadığı için incelemenemiz olmakla birlikte; liderin yöneticilik seviyesi, kendisine bağlı çalışan sayısı, cinsiyet, yaş, medeni hal, eğitim durumu ve meslekteki tecrübe yıldız gibi demografik özelliklerinin liderlerin stratejik düşünce becerisi, politik yetenekleri ve dönüşümü liderlik yetenekleri ve bunlara etkilenen alt boyutlar üzerinde bir farklılığı sebep olabileceği gelecekteki çalışmalar ile istatistiksel olarak incelenebilir.

Gelecekte bu konuda çalışan araçtırmaçlar dönüşümü liderliğe etki eden beceriler olarak ele alınmış olan stratejik düşünce ve politik yeteneklerinin yanı sıra; aynı zamanda dönüşümü liderliğe etki eden bir beceri olarak ele alip, dönüşümü liderliğin somut sonuçlarının üzerinde performansı, takım performansı, örgütsel performans, örgütsel başlıgın doğruan ölçülebilir faktörlere etkisini inceleyerek literatüre katkı sağlayabilir.

Araştırma sağlam, eğitim, araştırma-geliştirme, teknoloji, kamu gibi belirli sektörler esas alınıp, veriler spesifik olarak araştırma grubu olarak belirlenen sektörlerden toplanarak, stratejik düşünce ve politik yeteneklerinin bu sektörlerde etkilerine etkiledir. Ayrıca farklı sektörlerde yapılan incelemeler karşılaştırılarak, bu konuda sektör bir farklılık yaratması olabileceği ele alınabilir. Eğer farklılık gözlemlenirse sektörün hangi özelliğinin bu farklılığı sebep olduğu da yeni araştırmalarla ayrıca incelenebilir.

KAYNAKLAR


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INVESTIGATION OF THE MEDIATOR EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACTING VIOLATIONS AND ORGANIZATIONAL EXTERNALITY ON JOB SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

Objective- The relationship between organizational justice and job satisfaction is investigated in our work, especially when organizational exclusion and psychological contract violations have been experienced by occupations.

Methodology- The study’s survey was applied to 258 white-collar employees of 5 high-performance firms operating in the production sector in Turkey in 2017. The data obtained from the questionnaires were analyzed by SPSS statistical package software.

Findings- Organizational exclusion and psychological contract violations affect organizational justice, and organizational justice has increased the level of job satisfaction in institutions. In organizations where organizational justice exists, it appears that employees show positive attitudes and that employees are more willing to carry out the goals and objectives of the organization when they are treated fairly.

Conclusion- Psychological contract violation and organizational exclusion are related with job satisfaction. In additional, organizational justice mediate the relationship between psychological contract violation and organizational exclusion.

Keywords: Psychological contract violation, organizational exclusion, organizational justice, job satisfaction, organizational behavior
JEL Codes: L220, M510, M540

PSİKOLOJİK SÖZLEŞME İHLALİ VE ÖRGÜTSEL DIŞLANMANIN, İŞ TATMİNİ ÜZERİNDEKİ VE ÖRGÜTSEL ADELETİN ARA DEĞİŞKEN ETKİSİNİN İNCELENMESİ

ÖZET

Amaç- Çalışmanın amacı, özellikle örgütSEL dışlanma ve psikolojik sözleşme ihlali üzerinde işgörenlerin yaşamış oldukları durumların örgütSEL Adalet ve iş tatmini arasındaki ilişkiler incelenmektedir.

Metodoloji - Çalışmanın anketi, 2017 yılında Türkiye’de üretim sektöründe faaliyet gösteren 5 yüksek performanslı firmanın 258 beyaz yakalı çalışanına uygulanmıştır. Anketlerden elde edilen veriler, SPSS istatistiksel paket yazılımıyla analiz edilmiştir.

Bulgular- ÖrgütSEL dışlanma ve psikolojik sözleşme ihlalinin örgütSEL adaleti etkilediği, örgütSEL adaletin sağlantığı kurumlarla iş tatminin düzeyinin yükseldiğini ortaya koymuştur. ÖrgütSEL adaletin var olup olmadığını organizasyonlarda çalışanların olumlu tutumlar sergilediği ve çalışanlara adil davranıldığında organizasyonun amacı ve hedeflerinin gerçekleştirilmesinde çalışanların daha çok istekli olduğu ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Sonuç- Psikolojik sözleşme ihlali ve örgütSEL dışlanmanın iş tatmini üzerine etkisi vardır. ÖrgütSEL adaletin prosedürel ve dağtlanmış alt boyutlarının bahsedilen ilişkilerde ara ilişkihn etkisi tespit edilmiştir.

Keywords: Psikolojik sözleşme ihlali, örgütSEL dışlanma, örgütSEL adalet, iş memnuniyeti, örgütSEL davranış
JEL Codes: L220, M510, M540
1. GİRİŞ


Organizasyonların etkili bir biçimde çalışması için işgörenler arasındaki sosyal ilişkilerin incelenmesi gerekmektedir. Son dönemdeki çalışmalar incelendiğinde işgörenlerin algıladığı psikolojik sözleşme ilişkisi nispeten daha yeteri yaşınının bir hava olarak belirlenmiştir. Yapılan çalışmalarında bu iki faktörün örgüt üzerindeki etkisini incelenmiştir. İş güvenliği, performans, verimlilik ve hatta işten ayrılmaları sağlanırken ne yazık ki başarılı olması imkansızdır. İşgörenlerin işten ayrılmaları ilacıda nedeni olarak görülürken, işgörenlerin işten ayrılmaları sonucunda personelin örgüt içindeki etkisini değerlendirerek bu amaçlı yüzden getirememekte ve hatta bu süreç firmanın işteği dışında onlarca personelin örgüt içindeki etkisiniyme nasıl arttırdığı düşündüğü ve bu etkisi daima personelin örgüt içindeki etkisini yeılmektedir (Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Carter-Sowell et al., 2008 ).

Çalışmamızda psikolojik sözleşme ilişkisi ve örgütün dışlanmanın çalışanların iş ortamında ilacıla ikili ilişkili önemine değinilecektir. Ayrıca bu ilişkilerde örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali ve örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali ile gerçekleşen etkileri olacaktır. Yapılan araştırmalar sonucunda, psikolojik sözleşme ilişkisi, örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali ve örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali ile ilgili önemli etkileri olabilir. 5000 işgören üzerinde yapılan bir çalışmada, işgörenlerin % 13’unun son 6 ay içinde işten ayrılmaları nedeniyle örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali iddiası ile artıkta görülmektedir.

Çalışmamızda psikolojik sözleşme ilişkisi ve örgütün dışlanmanın çalışanların iş ortamında ilacıla ikili ilişkili önemine değinilecektir. Ayrıca bu ilişkilerde örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali ve örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali ile gerçekleşen etkileri olacaktır. Yapılan araştırmalar sonucunda, psikolojik sözleşme ilişkisi, örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali ve örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali ile ilgili önemli etkileri olabilir. 5000 işgören üzerinde yapılan bir çalışmada, işgörenlerin % 13’unun son 6 ay içinde işten ayrılmaları nedeniyle örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali iddiası ile artıkta görülmektedir.

1.1. Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali

İş yaşamında tarafların karşılaştıkları yükümlülüklerini içeren sözleşmeler haricinde yazılı olmayan fakat kabul edildiği varsayılan bir takım hususlar mevcuttur. Tam bu noktada ise karşılıklık teorisi, işgörenlerin kendilerine yararlı olduğunu düşündüğü oranda psikolojik sözleşme ilişkisini incelemek ve acı çektiğini tespit etmiştir. Ayrıca bu ilişkilerde örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali ve örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali ile ilgili önemli etkileri olabilir. 5000 işgören üzerinde yapılan bir çalışmada, işgörenlerin % 13’unun son 6 ay içinde işten ayrılmaları nedeniyle örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali iddiası ile artıkta görülmektedir.

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Yapılan araştırmalar psikolojik sözleşme ilişkisi, örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali ve örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali ile ilgili önemli etkileri olabilir. 5000 işgören üzerinde yapılan bir çalışmada, işgörenlerin % 13’unun son 6 ay içinde işten ayrılmaları nedeniyle örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali iddiası ile artıkta görülmektedir.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali

İş yaşamında tarafların karşılaştıkları yükümlülüklerini içeren sözleşmeler haricinde yazılı olmayan fakat kabul edildiği varsayılan bir takım hususlar mevcuttur. Tam bu noktada ise karşılıklık teorisi, işgörenlerin kendilerine yararlı olduğunu düşündüğü oranda psikolojik sözleşme ilişkisini incelemek ve acı çektiğini tespit etmiştir. Ayrıca bu ilişkilerde örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali ve örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali ile ilgili önemli etkileri olabilir. 5000 işgören üzerinde yapılan bir çalışmada, işgörenlerin % 13’unun son 6 ay içinde işten ayrılmaları nedeniyle örgütün adalete yönelik inancın ihlali iddiası ile artıkta görülmektedir.

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2.2. Örgütsel Dışlanma

Dışlanma kavramı sosyal psikoloji alanında öncesinde çok kez araştırılmış olsa da iş ortamındaki dışlanma son dönemde artış göstermiştir. Bu olayları bir olgu olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır (Ferris et al, 2008; Robinson et al., 2013; Kouchaki and Wareham, 2014). Dışlanma kişilerin ve kurumlardan çıkıp ve sürdürülenin önune önemli bir engel olduğu için hem dışlanma ve organizasyon için çift taraflı önemli etkileri olabilir. 5000 işgören üzerinde yapılan bir çalışmada, işgörenlerin % 13’unun son 6 ay içinde
örgütSEL deŞLANMA YAŞADıGıNı TESPıT EDeşMİştır. Bu SONuÇ ÖrGüTSel dEŞLANMANınzı azıMSıNMYaCAkCı bıR olGU OluŞUNuNGозLer ÖNÜNE SıRMıKTEDİR. ÖrGüTSel dEŞLANMaYA öneRKе bU LıGı_PFAYLAŞıLMAYAÇAK, GÖZ TEMAsı kurULMaçs, SohBETLÈRE dAHıL EdıLMEMESı, ÖNEMLı TıOnLıTANTLARı ÇağRıLMasıMAsı, SÖZ VeRILMEsıVe GèREKLI KınAYıNLARı SıkmAÇANıSMAsı öNEKle VERİlBİR (Wu, Wei and Hui, 2011).

ÖrGüTSel deŞLANMaNınzı SOnUÇLARı YAŞAPlı ARaSTıRıMLARda FARKLI İlkım GöSTERİMKTEDİR. UZMANların BıR KıSMı ÖrGüTSel dEŞLANMaNınzı BiREYdE oLUMu ETkİL oLARAK YarArAK KENDELIİnzı KABUL ETMıRmAsı NıÇın BİRİYEnLı kzıBıRıLGıNı ve PoZİTİF dAVRANıSıNLARı SıgRıLıGıNZıNı BıRLıMTıRmıS (Carter-Sowell et al., 2008). FAKAT ARaSTıRıMLARınzı ÇOĞU ÖrGüTSel dEŞLANmaNınzı NEGATıF ETkİLERı OluŞUNuNG ALTıNı ÇıZıʈMıŞTıR. Bu ARaSTıRıMLARınzı SOnUÇLARıNı NıÇın ÖrGüT TARTıFıNdAN dEŞLANdıGınzı DÜŞünEN BiREYLERDE BıR TAkım FIZYOLÖJiK ve PsıKıLojıK SıRNA LRıLMıS MıKTARı ADıLMıSTıR (Thau, Aquino, Marıijn Poortvliet, 2007; Gomez et al.,2011). Bu RAhATlıkZılkı ARASınzı NıÇın İSTrEN AYıRLıNMASı, dUygUSAL ÇöküNTü, dEPRESyON, KAYgı, BAŞ AĞRISı ve KALP RAHATSızlıGıLARı YER ALMaKTDıR (Heaphy and Dutton, 2008)

ÖrGüTSel deŞLANMa Nınzı AYınzı öneRKе de CıDDİzeigtI BİR TAkım ZARARıLARVE RıMıKTEDİR. ÖrGüTSel deŞLANMa SıRNADAN ÖRGen TıBLEn bU NıÇın BİLGI ÖLüMü AYıRLıNANGı RıMıKTEDİR ve ÖRGen dAVRANıSıNLARıNı ve PoZİTİF dAVRANıSıNLARı BıRİYEnLı NıÇinzı SıgLıLMıS MıKTARı ADıLMıSTıR (Ellard; Robinson and Judge, 2013). AİT ÖLMnıNZınzı nıCıM TEMel İHTıYıAÇıLARıNınzı BIrİYEnLı ÖRGen SıRNA LRıLMıS MıKTARı ADıLMıSTıR. Bu RAhATlıkZılkı BiREy GİNİNZıNı NıÇın BİLİR bU RıMıKTEDİR. Bu ALıNCı NıCın TıBLEn BiREYNıN KENDİSıNZı İLE DİGil ÇıZEVEرزıNİNZı ÇAPtı NıCıMLeRıNınzı DİGil İLE BİR OYALıdız (Ellard and SarackıLıKı, 2002; SparcKıLLıKı, 2006).


Çalışmamızda 5’li likert ölçeğine göre hazırlanan değişkenlerimiz, 36 soruluk anket formu ile ölçülmüştür. Bağımsız değişken (psikolojik sözleşme ihlali ve Örgütsel Dışlanma), ara değişken (örgütsel adalet prosedürel ve örgütsel adalet dağıtımsal) ve bağımlı değişken (iş tatmini) faktör analizine tabi tutulmuştur.

Faktör analizi sonucunda 11 soru faktör dağılımı göstermediğinden, güvenirliliğini düşürerek farklı faktörlere düştüğünden ölçekten çıkarılmıştır. Kalan 25 soru 5 faktöre dağılmıştır. Faktör yükleriyle birlikte faktör analize tabi tutulan değişkenlerimiz aşağıdaki tabloda gösterilmiştir:

Tablo 1: KMO and Bartlett’s Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KMO and Bartlett’s Test</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.</td>
<td>.944</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity</td>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Çalışmada, değişkenlere ilişkin KMO ve Barlett testi uygulanmıştır. KMO ve Barlett testi yapılan faktör analizi için uygulanmış test edilmesi açısından önemlidir. KMO değeri 0.60’dan yüksek olması faktör analizinin uygun olduğunu göstermektedir. Çalışmada elde edilen verilerin faktör analizi sonucunda uygun olduğunu açıklanabilmektedir (Leech, N. L. Barlett, K. C and Morgan, G. A. 2005; Tuna, M., Bircan, H and Yesiltas, M. 2012).

Tablo 2: Rotated Component Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rotated Component Matrix</th>
<th>Component 1</th>
<th>Component 2</th>
<th>Component 3</th>
<th>Component 4</th>
<th>Component 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OD7. Konuşma sırasında diğerleri beni sohbete dahi etmiyor.</td>
<td>,903</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OD10. İşyerinde diğerleri kahve arasına çıkarken beni çağırmyor veya sormuyorlar.</td>
<td>,901</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OD6. İşyerinde insanların bana bakımadiansı fark ettim.</td>
<td>,899</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Artar, Adiguzel, Erdil

ÖD5. Çalışma arkadaşlarım benden kaçıyor.

ÖD4. Kalabalık olan bir yemekhanede gönülsüz bir şekilde tek başına oturuyorum.

ÖD8. İşvereninde değerleri benimle konuşmayı reddediyo.

ÖD9. İşvereninde değerleri ben orda yokmuş gibi davranıyor.

PSI4. Çalıştığım firmaya karşı büyük oranda öfke hissediyorum.

PSI1. Çalıştığım firma işe alım sürecinde verdiği sözlerin neredeyse hiç birini yerine getirmedi.

PSI7. Çalıştığım firmanızın bana davranış şekli beni hayal kırıklığına uğratıyor.

PSI2. Şimdiye sorumlulukları yerine getirmeme rağmen kurumum verdiği sözleri yerine getirmedi.

PSI5. Çalıştığım firma tarafından ihanete uğramış gibi hissediyorum.

OAP3. İş yeri ile ilgili kararlar verilirken, yöneticim kesin ve eksiksiz bilgileri toplar.

OAP2. İş ile ilgili kararlar alınmadan önce yöneticim tüm çalışanların görüşlerini alır.

OAP4. Yöneticiler alınan kararları çalışanlara açıklar ve çalışanlar talep ettiği ek bilgiler verir.

OAP5. İş ile ilgili alınan kararlar, etkilenen tüm çalışanlara düzenli ve tutarlı bir biçimde uygulanır.

OAP1. İş ile ilgili kararlar yöneticim tarafından tarafılsız bir şekilde alınır.

OAD3. İş yüküm adildir.

OAD1. İş planım adildir.

OAD2. Maasım adildir.

OAD5. İş sorumluluklarım adildir.

OAD4. İş veriden edindigim oduller ve kazanımlar adildir.


İT2. İş verinde fikirlerime saygı duyuluyor.


Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

PSI: Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali, OD: Örgütsel Đışlanma, OAP: Örgütsel Adalet-Prosedür
OAD: Örgütsel Adalet-Đağtmsal, IT: İş Tatmini

Faktör analizi, değişkenleri/boyutları temsil eden soruların ölçümesinde, korelasyonlar aracının tek bir değişkeni/boyutu ölçüğünde ilişkin bulgu olarak ele alınmaktadır. Faktör analizi, örneklem kitesinde yada anketin yapıldığı bireylerin değişkenleri/boyutları temsil eden sorular karşısında verdikleri cevapları ölçmek amacıyla, sorular arasında belirli bir düzenin olup olmadığını tespit etmek için uygulanmaktadır (Tavşancıl, 2006; Leech, Barlett ve Morgan, 2005)

Güvenilirlik Analizi

Güvenilirlik analizi; sorular arasındaki ortalama ilişki dikkate alınan ölçümün içsel tutarlılığının tanınıtılmaktadır. Literatürde Nunnally (1978)'in belirttiği Cronbach Alfa katsayısı 0.50 ve üzeri olan ölçümler yeterli kabul edilmektedir (Nunnally, J. C., 1978; Hair et al., 2000; Büyüköztürk, 2007).
Tablo 3: Güvenilirlik Analizi

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DEĞİŞKENLER</th>
<th>Soru Sayısı</th>
<th>Cronbach Alfa (α) Değerleri</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psikolojik Sözleşme İhali</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.943</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Örgütsel Dışlanma</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>İş Tatmini</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.795</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Örgütsel Adalet-Prosedürel</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Örgütsel Adalet-Dağıtımsal</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.895</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Güvenilirlik Analizi, değişken/boyutu temsil eden soruların yanı kullanılan ölçeğin ne derecede doğru ölçtüğünü, güvenilir olduğunu gösteren analizdir. Güvenilirlik analizinin özelliği uygulanan testin aktarılabilir ve tekrarlanabilir olmasıdır. (Kissacasi, Güvenilirlik Analizinde, değişken/boyutu temsil eden soruların birbirleri arasındaki tutarlılığını ve yeterliliğini gösteren bir kavramdır (Sencan H. 2005; Yıldırım A. ve Simsek H. 2006).

Tablo 4: Bağımsız Değişkenlerin Bağımlı Değişkenlere Etkisinin Regresyon Analizleri Sonuçları

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bağımsız Değişkenler</th>
<th>Bağımlı Değişkenler</th>
<th>Standart β</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Düzeltilmiş R²</th>
<th>F Değeri</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Örgütsel Dışlanma</td>
<td>İş Tatmini</td>
<td>-.147***</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>7,291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psikolojik Sözleşme İhali</td>
<td>İş Tatmini</td>
<td>-.523***</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>5,410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Örgütsel Dışlanma</td>
<td>Örgütsel Adalet-Prosedürel</td>
<td>-.430***</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.182</td>
<td>74,258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psikolojik Sözleşme İhali</td>
<td>Örgütsel Adalet-Prosedürel</td>
<td>-.229***</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>18,113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Örgütsel Dışlanma</td>
<td>Örgütsel Adalet-Dağıtımsal</td>
<td>-.394***</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td>60,418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psikolojik Sözleşme İhali</td>
<td>Örgütsel Adalet-Dağıtımsal</td>
<td>-.204***</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>14,238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Örgütsel Adalet-Prosedürel</td>
<td>İş Tatmini</td>
<td>.626</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.390</td>
<td>211,603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Örgütsel Adalet-Dağıtımsal</td>
<td>İş Tatmini</td>
<td>.552</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.303</td>
<td>144,342</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*: p<0.05  **: p<0.01  ***: p<0.001

Korelasyon Analizi

Korelasyon analizi; Tablo 5’de de görüldüğü üzere, Psikolojik Sözleşme İhali, Örgütsel Adalet Prosedürel ve Dağıtımsal Boyutları, Örgütsel Dışlanma ve İş Tatmini arasındaki birbir ilişkiler ele alınmıştır. Daha önce de belirttiğimiz üzere, şimdiye kadar yapılan analizler (faktör analizi, güvenilirlik analizi, tanımlayıcı analizler) kurumlardan elde edilen 258 ankет üzerinde yürütülmüştür. Değişkenlere ait ortalamaların, standart sapma değerlerinin ve korelasyon katsayıslarının yer aldığı Tablo 5 ve Tablo 6’da matrislerin üst köşegenlerinde ölçüm değişkenlerine ait korelasyon katsayıları listelenmiştir.

Tablo 5: Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Örgütsel Dışlanma</td>
<td>2,1653</td>
<td>1,43013</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psikolojik Sözleşme</td>
<td>2,5776</td>
<td>1,33208</td>
<td>330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>İş Tatmini</td>
<td>3,6526</td>
<td>.90517</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Örgütsel Adalet Prosedürel</td>
<td>3,3789</td>
<td>1,01117</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Örgütsel Adalet Dağıtımsal</td>
<td>3,4283</td>
<td>.97425</td>
<td>332</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Tablo 6: Korelasyon

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Orgütsel Dışlanma</th>
<th>Psikolojik Sözleşme</th>
<th>İş Tatmini</th>
<th>Orgütsel Adalet Prosedürel</th>
<th>Orgütsel Adalet Dağıtımsal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1.854**</td>
<td>-1.147**</td>
<td>-430**</td>
<td>-394**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum of Squares and Cross-products</td>
<td>674,935</td>
<td>535,278</td>
<td>62,931</td>
<td>204,712</td>
<td>181,341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covariance</td>
<td>2,045</td>
<td>1,627</td>
<td>0.191</td>
<td>0.622</td>
<td>0.550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Psikolojik Sözleşme</th>
<th>İş Tatmini</th>
<th>Orgütsel Adalet Prosedürel</th>
<th>Orgütsel Adalet Dağıtımsal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-1.147**</td>
<td>-523</td>
<td>1.626**</td>
<td>1.552**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum of Squares and Cross-products</td>
<td>535,278</td>
<td>583,794</td>
<td>14,043</td>
<td>101,528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covariance</td>
<td>1,627</td>
<td>1,774</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>329</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Orgütsel Adalet Prosedürel</th>
<th>Orgütsel Adalet Dağıtımsal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-430**</td>
<td>-229**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum of Squares and Cross-products</td>
<td>204,712</td>
<td>101,528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covariance</td>
<td>0.622</td>
<td>0.310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>329</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Orgütsel Adalet Dağıtımsal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-394**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum of Squares and Cross-products</td>
<td>181,341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covariance</td>
<td>0.550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali ve Orgütsel Dışlanma değişkenleri; tüm değişkenlerle (Orgütsel Adalet Prosedürel ve Dağıtımsal Boyutları ve İşten Tatmini); p<0.01 düzeyinde anlamlı ve ters ilişki sahiptir. Bu durum örgüt içinde yaşanan psikolojik sözleşme ihalini iş görenler arasında adalet ve iş tatmin seviyelerini azalttığını göstermektedir. Orgütsel Adaletin Prosedürel ve Dağıtımsal Boyutları p<0.01 düzeyinde iş tatmini değişkeniyle anlamlı ilişki sahiptir. Bu Durum örgüt içinde orgütsel adaletin prosedürel ve dağıtımsal boyutlarıyla iş görenler arasında sağlanması durumunda iş tatmin seviyelerinin yükselmesini göstermektedir.

Regresyon Analiz Sonuçlarına Göre Desteklenen ve Desteklenmeyen Hipotezler

Öngörülen araştırma hipotezlerini test etmek için regresyon analizi kullanılmış ve bu regresyon analizleri sonuçlarına göre ara değişken ektisi dışında kabul edilen 3 hipotez Tablo 7'de gösterilmiştir.
Tablo 7: Araştırma Hipotezlerinin Desteklendi/Desteklenmedi Durumu

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hipotezler</th>
<th>Desteklendi / Desteklenmedi</th>
<th>Anımlılık Düzeyi (Sig.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1: Örgütsel Dışlanma’nın, İş Tatmini üzerinde etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>DESTEKLENİ</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2: Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali, İş Tatmini üzerinde etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>DESTEKLENİ</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3: Örgütsel Dışlanma’nın, Örgütsel Adalet’in Prosedürel boyutu üzerinde etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>DESTEKLENİ</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4: Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali, Örgütsel Adalet’in Prosedürel boyutu üzerinde etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>DESTEKLENİ</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5: Örgütsel Dışlanma’nın, Örgütsel Adalet’in Dağıtımsal boyutu üzerinde etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>DESTEKLENİ</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6: Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali, Örgütsel Adalet’in Dağıtımsal boyutu üzerinde etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>DESTEKLENİ</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7: Örgütsel Adalet’in Prosedürel boyutu, İş Tatmini üzerinde etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>DESTEKLENİ</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H8: Örgütsel Adalet’in Dağıtımsal boyutu, İş Tatmini üzerinde etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>DESTEKLENİ</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ara değişken etkisi dışında araştırma modellimizde belirtilen değişkenler arasında yapılan hipotez testleri sonucunda, regresyon analiziyle hipotezler desteklenmiştir. Değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler regresyon analizi sonucunda istatistiksel olarak anlamlıdır.

Tablo 7’deki İş Tatmini Bağımı Değişkenine etki eden Örgütsel Dışlanma bağımsız değişkeni ile ilişkisi açısından regresyon analizi sonucuna göre, ($β$=-.147***; p<0.001) H1 hipotezi desteklenmektedir.

İş Tatmini Bağımı Değişkenine etki eden Psikolojik Sözleşmenin İhlali bağımsız değişkeni ile ilişkisi açısından regresyon analizi sonucuna göre, ($β$=-.523***; p<0.001) H2 hipotezi desteklenmektedir.

Örgütsel Adalet Prosedürel boyutu Bağımı Değişkenine etki eden Örgütsel Dışlanma bağımsız değişkeni ile ilişkisi açısından regresyon analizi sonucuna göre, ($β$=-.430***; p<0.001) H3 hipotezi desteklenmektedir.

Örgütsel Adalet Prosedürel boyutu Bağımı Değişkenine etki eden Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali bağımsız değişkeni ile ilişkisi açısından regresyon analizi sonucuna göre, ($β$=-.229***; p<0.001) H4 hipotezi desteklenmektedir.

Örgütsel Adalet Dağıtımsal boyutu Bağımı Değişkenine etki eden Örgütsel Dışlanma bağımsız değişkeni ile ilişkisi açısından regresyon analizi sonucuna göre, ($β$=-.394***; p<0.001) H5 hipotezi desteklenmektedir.

Örgütsel Adalet Dağıtımsal boyutu Bağımı Değişkenine etki eden Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali bağımsız değişkeni ile ilişkisi açısından regresyon analizi sonucuna göre, ($β$=-.204***; p<0.001) H6 hipotezi desteklenmektedir.

İş Tatmini Bağımı Değişkenine etki eden Psikolojik Sözleşmenin İhlali bağımsız değişkeni ile ilişkisi açısından regresyon analizi sonucuna göre, ($β$=-.523***; p<0.001) H7 hipotezi desteklenmektedir.

İş Tatmini Bağımı Değişkenine etki eden Psikolojik Sözleşmenin İhlali bağımsız değişkeni ile ilişkisi açısından regresyon analizi sonucuna göre, ($β$=-.523***; p<0.001) H8 hipotezi desteklenmektedir.

Kurumlarda, psikolojik sözleşme ihlali yaşanmaması durumunda çalışanlarda kurumlarına karşı örgütsel aday ele alınmasından etkisi olmakta bireylerin psikolojik sağlığı üzerinde etkisi olmakta olduğunu belirtmeleri konusunda artışa neden olmuştur. Özellikle psikolojik(&:394***; p<0.001) H6 hipotezi desteklenmektedir.

İş Tatmini Bağımı Değişkenine etki eden Psikolojik Sözleşmenin İhlali bağımsız değişkeni ile ilişkisi açısından regresyon analizi sonucuna göre, ($β$=-.523***; p<0.001) H8 hipotezi desteklenmektedir.

Araştırma modellimizde ara değişkenin etkisini belirlemesinin konusunda özellikle, Örgütsel Adaletin Prosedürel ve Dağıtımsal Boyutlarının; Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali, Örgütsel Dışlanma ve İş Tatmini değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkide ara değişken rolü; analizler sonucunda kurulan hipotezlerle etkisi olup olmadığı belirlenmiştir.

Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali Bağımsız Değişkeni ile Örgütsel Güven Ara Değişkeni Vasıtasıyla İşten Ayrıma Arasındaki ilişkilerin İncelenmesi

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Table 8: Ara Değişken Etkisinin Regresyon Analizi Sonuçları

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bağımsız Değişkenler</th>
<th>Bağlı Değişkenler</th>
<th>Standart β</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Düzeltilmiş R²</th>
<th>F Değeri</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regresyon&lt;br&gt;ÖrgütSEL Dışlanma&lt;br&gt;ÖrgütSEL Adalet&lt;br&gt;Prosedürel</td>
<td>İş Tatmini</td>
<td>-,.147</td>
<td>,000</td>
<td>,019</td>
<td>7,291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regresyon&lt;br&gt;Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali&lt;br&gt;ÖrgütSEL Adalet&lt;br&gt;Prosedürel</td>
<td>İş Tatmini</td>
<td>-,.523</td>
<td>,000</td>
<td>,012</td>
<td>5,410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regresyon&lt;br&gt;ÖrgütSEL Dışlanma&lt;br&gt;ÖrgütSEL Adalet&lt;br&gt;Dağıtımsal</td>
<td>İş Tatmini</td>
<td>-,.147</td>
<td>,000</td>
<td>,019</td>
<td>7,291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regresyon&lt;br&gt;Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali&lt;br&gt;ÖrgütSEL Adalet&lt;br&gt;Dağıtımsal</td>
<td>İş Tatmini</td>
<td>-,.523</td>
<td>,000</td>
<td>,012</td>
<td>5,410</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Psikolojik sözleşme ihlalinin yaşandığı kurumlarda örgütsel adaletin prosedürel ve dağıtımsal boyutlarının ara değişken etkisi iş tatmini bağımlı değişkenini etkilemekte. Bu durumda kurumlarda yaşanan psikolojik sözleşme ihlalleri karşısında kuruma karşı adalet ortamının sağlanmasının iş görenler üzerinde etkisini olduğu ve iş görenlerin örgütsel adaletin sağlanmasının durumunda kurumdan ayrılmak isteyenlerin sayısı arttığı, iş tatmini duygularının yükseldiği gerçeğini ortaya koymaktadır.

Table 9: Araştırma Hipotezlerinin Desteklendi / Desteklenmedi Durumu

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hipotezler</th>
<th>Desteklendi / Desteklenmedi</th>
<th>Anlamlılık Düzeyi (Sig.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H9: ÖrgütSEL Dışlanma ile İş Tatmini arasındaki ilişkiye örgütSEL Adalet’in Prosedürel boyununun ara değişken etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>Desteklendi</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H10: Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali ile İş Tatmini arasındaki ilişkiye örgütSEL Adalet’in Prosedürel boyununun ara değişken etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>Desteklendi</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H11: ÖrgütSEL Dışlanma ile İş Tatmini arasındaki ilişkiye örgütSEL Adalet’in Dağıtımsal boyununun ara değişken etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>Desteklendi</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H12: Psikolojik Sözleşme İhlali ile İş Tatmini arasındaki ilişkiye örgütSEL Adalet’in Dağıtımsal boyununun ara değişken etkisi vardır.</td>
<td>Desteklendi</td>
<td>P&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. SONUÇ
Psikolojik sözleşme ihlali, işgörenlerin çalışmaya başladıkları kurumlarda kendilerine sağlanan imkanlarla ilişkilendirilmiştir. İşgörenlerin bir kariyer imkanlarının olduğu ve sosyal olanakların iyi olduğu kurumlara geçiş yapmak istemelerinin sebeplerinden biride yaşadığı sözleşme ihlalleridir. Kurumlardaki personel ihtiyacı karşılamak amacıyla adaylara iş görüşmelerinde sundukları fırsatları gerçeekte sunmadıklarında, işgörenler bu durumdan rahatsızlık duyarlar ve iş fırsatlarını aramaya başlarlar. Bu durumun farkında olmayan kurumlarda sürekli bir personel karışıklığı yaşanmış ve maddi açıdan bir zara yol açan bir durumla karşılaşmaktadırlar. Aynı durum, işgörenlerin örgütSEL dışlanma yaşamlarını durumda yaşamlarını ve örgütSEL dışlanmanın kariyer ve ليستım eksikliğinin yaşandığı kurumlarda düzenli bilgi alışkanlığı sebep olmuştur, bu durum işgörenlerde beklenen performansın gerçekleşmemesine sebep olmaktadır.

ÖrgütSEL dışlanmanın genelde kurumlarda meydana gelen kişiler arasında oluşturulan gruplaşmaların ortaya çıkması, işgörenlerin arkadaşları tarafından Kabul görmemesi ve kendilerini yalnız hissetmeleri sebebiyle psikolojik sorunların

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oluşmasıyla birlikte kurumdaki ortamdan memnuniyetsizlik duyarak performanslarını düşürmeleri sonucunda görülmektedir. Kurumlarda yaşanan bu durumlar işgörenlerin çalışma performansını etkileyerek kuruma zarar vermek ve kurum içinde işgörenler arasında çatışmaların oluşmasına sebep olmaktadır. Psikolojik sözleşme ihlali ve örgütsel munda işgören sirkülasyonundan dolayı geride kalmalarına sebep olmaktadır.\textit{\textquotedblright\text{Organizational Justice\textquotedblright}}

- 1960

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ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND INTENTIONS TOWARDS TYPES OF WHISTLEBLOWING: THE CASE OF TURKEY AND ETHIOPIA

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- Whistleblowing, is one of the rarely studied topics in non-western cultures, and none in Ethiopia. Hence, this study explores whistleblowing and the contribution of organizational culture (OC) types on different modes of whistleblowing intentions in Ethiopia along with cross-cultural comparison of the theoretical model in Turkey.

Methodology- Totally 528 employees (Ethiopia, N=274 and Turkey, N=254) were selected as participants. Four organizational culture types and six dimensions of whistleblowing are measured using a multidimensional questionnaire with five-point interval scale.

Findings- Analyses revealed that hierarchical culture significantly and positively contributed to external, anonymous, and formal whistleblowing. Alternatively, clan culture had significant positive contribution to internal and informal whistleblowing, and negative contribution to external whistleblowing. However, there were significant variations in terms of nationality.

Conclusion- The dominant values and beliefs embedded within the culture of an organization tend to predict the most likely preferred and accepted methods of whistleblowing in that particular organization.

Keywords: Organizational culture, whistleblowing, Turkey, Ethiopia.
JEL Codes: M14, M10, L10

1. INTRODUCTION

Illegal, immoral or illegitimate practices such as corruption, fraud, sexual harassment and the like have been a source of major social and economic crises to the employees, organizations and the society at large. Effective whistleblowing systems play a great role in minimizing or stopping such unethical practices. About one-third of organizational wrongdoings are exposed by a report obtained from whistleblowers. Compared to internal or external audits, the tips gained from whistleblowers was found to be more productive (Nayir, Rehg, & Asa, 2016).

When employees decide to report organizational wrongdoing, they might face dilemmas concerning to whom to raise their concern. This is because, the selection of the recipient is very important as it may affect the reaction of the organization to the informer, the value of the whistleblowing and type of retaliation (Dworkin & Baucus, 1998). MacNab et al. (2007) classified whistleblowing in to four major types: internal reporting, internal whistleblowing, external reporting and external whistleblowing. They have studied the impact of culture on whistleblowing and they have found that culture has a very influential role on whistleblowing activity, reluctance to whistleblowing and tendencies towards whistleblowing. In addition, Park, Blenkinsopp, Oktem, and Omurgonulsen (2008) categorized whistleblowing in to six types; external, internal, anonymous, identified, formal and informal. They posited that each of these whistleblowing types have significant and distinctive characteristics. They also argued that each type of whistleblowing is associated with the existing cultural values, context and personal character in different ways.

As stated, organizational culture plays an important role in enhancing the effectiveness of whistleblowing systems. Policies related to whistleblowing need to be altered based on organizational culture. They should be customized to the specific organizational cultural values since polices formulated in other settings might not work well for all situations (Loyens, 2013). It is possible for management to forecast the possibility of whistleblowing occurrence and more preferred mode of
Whistleblowing is among one of the most important issue in the field of management science that has received greater attention in most developed countries. The media, legislative bodies, academicians and the general public started to increase their attention towards whistleblowing (Vandekerckhove, 2006). Whistleblowing has been defined in several ways. The whistleblowing literature is full of debate as to what constitutes whistleblowing (Philmore, Mohammad, & Richard, 2013). Generally, whistleblowing denotes an ethical action taken by a person to inform an abuse or wrongdoing in an organization with the aim of stopping the serious danger caused by the abuse (Pierre, 2012). How a society perceives whistleblowing and the role that it plays in that society affects how whistleblowing is defined. In some instances, it used as an instrument to fight corruption and to resolve internal conflicts while in some other instances it is used more as an act of free speech. The various definitions offered differ basically on the context, aim and scope of how whistleblowing is used (Martin, 2010). Whistleblowing definitions started to emphasize the role of whistleblowing in work settings. Whistleblowing is perceived as an act that an employee takes to reveal organizational malpractices that the employer or organizational member is involved with. One of the most popular and widely cited definition is suggested by Near and Miceli (1985) as: “the disclosure by organization members (current or former) of illegal, immoral or illegitimate practices under the control of their employers, to persons or organizations that may be able to effect action” (p. 4). Scientific research has heavily relied on this definition and it is the most commonly used one (Miceli et al., 2008).

There may be substantial distinction in the actual methods by which a whistleblower prefers to reveal organizational wrongdoings. Earlier studies pertaining to whistleblowing have made distinctions between internal versus external methods, and identified versus anonymous (Park et al., 2008). Organizational members who desire to echo a misconduct can do so through a large number of paths. The most straightforward choice that whistleblowers could make is to limit their leak within their company (internal reporting) or to report it to persons or bodies outside their company (external reporting) (Donkin, Smith & Brown, 2008). Park et al. (2008) offered a typology on how individuals blow the whistle based on three dimensions. Every single dimension denotes a person’s choice on how to blow the whistle. The choices include; internally or externally, identified or anonymously and formally or informally. The current study is based on Park et al. (2008) classification of whistleblowing types and uses these six types of whistleblowing as dependent variables to identify their relationships with organizational culture types.

Reporting organizational misconduct and other similar unethical actions to the right people in the organization’s hierarchy (who are believed to be able to stop the wrongdoing) is described as internal whistleblowing. The individual(s) who receive the report are within the organization and may include, but not limited to, administrators, supervisors, ethics officers, board of directors and the hotline (Chung, Monroe, & Thorne, 2004; Finn, 1995). Additional range of internal whistleblowing recipients found in most organizations also include; internal ombudsmen, equity and merit units, counselling departments, fraud investigation units and human resource departments (Donkin, et al., 2008). Related to preference, the majority of research findings showed that internal whistleblowing is preferred by most whistleblowers (Miceli & Near, 1992). Likewise, due to several costs associated with external whistleblowing, most organizations tend to prefer internal whistleblowing than external reporting (Ponemon, 1994). Internal whistleblowing tends to give a chance for the organization to solve the problem behind closed doors and in internal way. In some cases, internal whistleblowing may be perceived as the employee exhibiting loyalty and commitment to the organization (Somers & Casal, 1994; Barnett,
1992), and also as a pro-social act (Miceli & Near, 1992). Nevertheless, blowing the whistle internally rarely gets acceptance within the organization as it is believed to be threatening and dissent. Thus, in many instances, employees who blow the whistle are possibly silenced or their information may be covered up or disregarded (Miceli & Near, 1992; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005).

On the other hand, external whistleblowing refers to the reporting of organizational misconduct to a complaint recipient outside of the organization. Those who receive the report may consist several parties in the general public domain such as private and state owned media, professional organizations, regulatory agencies and interest groups (Chung et al., 2004; Miceli & Near, 1994; Miceli & Near, 1995). Further recipients of whistleblowing report external to the organization include; watchdogs representing government, trade unions, parliament members, anti-corruption hotlines and journalists (Donkin, et al., 2008). When employees report organizational misconduct to external bodies, it tends to create a severe destruction to the company (Park & Blenkinsopp, 2009). However, external whistleblowing is more effective in that it brings a change within the company. This is possibly due to the attention it brings from outside stakeholders which creates more pressure on the company to respond to the misconduct reported (Dworkin & Baucus, 1998). Previous studies revealed that, compared to internal whistleblowers, external whistleblowers are more likely to face greater reprisal from colleagues in the organization (e.g., Near & Miceli, 1986; Dworkin & Baucus, 1998). Employees who blew the whistle anonymously and were unsuccessful to hide their identity have also encountered greater reprisal (Miceli & Near, 1994).

When employees reveal organizational misconduct using their real name (providing information that recognizes the individual employee personally), it is referred as Identified whistleblowing. Contrary to this, when employees report organizational misconduct by hiding information about themselves and or by using assumed or artificial name is referred as anonymous whistleblowing (Park et al., 2008). When employees use anonymous way, it tends to enhance the reporting of organizational misconduct such as fraud and corruption since the perceived personal cost of blowing the whistle becomes lesser (e.g., Kaplan & Schultz, 2007; Robinson, Robertson, & Curtis, 2012). Anonymous reporting enables whistleblowing systems more effective to discern fraud. A study conducted using large-scale multivariate analysis in Australia revealed the existence of a positive relationship between anonymous reporting channel and reported fraud (Johansson & Carey, 2015). However, it has been argued that probing anonymous report is hard and is rarely protected under law (Park, Blenkinsopp, & Park, 2014). Blowing the whistle anonymously tends to make the disclosure easier for the whistleblower but it creates difficulties on the investigation of the problem (Vandekerckhove, 2010). Based on the communication methods, styles or systems used already in the organization to reveal organizational misconduct, it is possible to classify whistleblowing as either formal or informal. When employees report organizational misconduct by following standardized lines of communication or official protocols of the organization, it is referred as formal whistleblowing. On the other hand, informal whistleblowing refers to a situation in which the employee who observed organizational misconduct personally reveals to his/her close companions or to somebody he/she trusts about the wrongdoing. In addition, it is also possible to differentiate between unauthorized and authorized whistleblowing and formal whistleblowing could be taken as authorized (Park et al., 2008).

2.2. Organizational Culture

There are several definitions given to organizational culture. Defining organizational culture universally has been obscure (Lewis, 2002). Almost about 150 different definitions have been identified for culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Organizational culture has been commonly defined as shared values, beliefs and assumptions present among staffs within an organization. It tends to assist in regulating and managing behavior in the workplace (Schein, 1991). Values and beliefs begin to develop from the constant negotiation and practices among employees in an organization. The emerged values and beliefs develop through time and turn out to be a foundation for what is thought appropriate or inappropriate in a company with regards to right and wrong behavior (Macntosh & Doherty, 2010). Some popular definitions of organizational culture include; the collective programming of the mind which differentiates employees in one organization from other employees in another organization (Hofstede, 1990), values and norms that describe a corporation and that impact features of an organization’s operation (Trice & Beyer, 1993), shared meaning among organizational members working in a given company and patterns of belief, rituals and norms used as a social glue (Smircich, 1983), and attitudes, beliefs, and values shared by organizational members and customs belonging to a given social unit (Martin & Siehl, 1983). Social glue is commonly considered as a metaphor to culture/organizational culture. The cultural elements that unifies them include; the shared beliefs, values, norms, and understandings. Organizational culture plays a role in preventing fragmentation, clashes, pressure, and other despairs. It makes the organizational life to possess harmony, consensus and communality (Alvesson, 2002).

Cameron and Quinn (2006) explained the concept of organizational culture relatively in a more explicit and simple way. According to the authors, organizational culture comprises “the taken-for-granted values, underlying assumptions, expectations, collective memories, and definitions present in an organization and they shortly described it as- how things are around here” (p. 16). They further stated that organizational culture reflects the dominant ideology that exists inside
individuals’ mind, conveys a sense of identity to workers and gives the unwritten and unspoken rules that instruct on how to get along in their workplace. The current study bases its analysis on this definition and tries to look at the typology of organizations based on the computing values framework (CVF). The CVF identifies two major dimensions placing the indicators in to four clusters. One of the dimension separates effectiveness criterion that focuses on flexibility, discretion and dynamism vs. stability, order and control. The other dimension distinguished effectiveness criterion from the one focusing on external orientation, differentiation and rivalry vs. integration, internal orientation and unity. Figure 1 below shows the two dimensions forming the four clusters: hierarchy, clan, market, and adhocracy.

Figure 1: Competing Values Framework (CVF)

![Competing Values Framework (CVF)](Source: Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 35)

2.3. The Relationships between Organizational Culture Types and Modes of Whistleblowing

Organizations with a typical hierarchical culture are well known by having features of a formalized and structured organizational setting. The most critical elements that are valued as a criterion for success include; strong lines of authority to make decisions, establishment of standardized rules and procedures, and methods of control and accountability. Some of the peculiar characteristics include; order, rules and regulations, uniformity and efficiency. Achieving a stable, predictable and efficient organization is the long-term concerns (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Organizations with hierarchical culture are often structured with a bureaucracy. The bureaucracy tends to have an inherent bias that strives to maintain status quo. One possible reason for this could be the characteristics of the power that exists in bureaucratic organizations. The power is used to regulate the flow of information and alterations to the group might provide information that disappoints those in power (Kowtha, Landau, & Beng, 2001). Organizations that have very high vertical structures tend to impede internal whistleblowing. Employees in such a culture tend to show higher levels of discomfort in utilizing internal reporting methods (Park et al., 2008). Arguments and conflicts are not tolerated in hierarchical companies since they are perceived as irrational, violations of smoothly functioning procedure and disruption to efficiency (Trompenaars & Turner, 1998). Elders, managers, superiors and authorities are highly valued in societies that are characterized by a high power distance (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). And since one of the theoretical philosophy of hierarchy is based on the principle of administrative authority to make decisions, organizations tend to show reluctance to blow the whistle on organizational wrongdoing (Smith, 2013). Thus, we hypothesized that:

H1: Hierarchy culture positively contributes to employees’ intention towards external, anonymous, and formal whistleblowing.

H1a: Hierarchy culture positively contributes to employees’ intention towards external whistleblowing.

H1b: Hierarchy culture positively contributes to employees’ intention towards anonymous whistleblowing.

H1c: Hierarchy culture positively contributes to employees’ intention towards formal whistleblowing.

On the other hand, organizations characterized by a clan culture share their values and goals among all the organizational members. There is strong cohesion between employees and participation tends to be high. There is a sense of “we-ness” among employees and they resemble extended families. Some of the basic assumptions in these cultures include; developing employees, establishing effective teamwork and treating customers as partners. In addition, the organization continuously strives to establish a human work atmosphere (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Employees in a clan culture feel as if they are a family member towards each other and their organization. They like the connection they have with each other and the organization. Criticizing publicly is very rare and negative feedbacks are communicated indirectly. Employees exert
maximum effort to avoid loss of face. The organization seems cohesive and pleasant with employees valuing a family and friendly feel within the organization where everyone looks out for each other (Trompenaars & Turner, 1998). Employees might avoid external whistleblowing as it creates various fears and a feeling of discomfort. They may be regarded as accusers, lose trust and respect from teammates, and damage the bond with their organization (Karaca, 2013). Organizations characterized with a clan type of culture lack procedural norms and formalization. Employees tend to raise their concern on organizational wrongdoings through informal approaches and in a modest way (Kowtha et al., 2001). The intimacy, loyalty, easily approachable superiors, and family like feelings among the organizational members is likely to reduce the need to blow the whistle anonymously. Hence, we hypothesized that:

H2: Clan culture positively contributes to employees’ intention towards internal, identified, and informal whistleblowing.

H2a: Clan culture positively contributes to employees’ intention towards internal whistleblowing.

H2b: Clan culture positively contributes to employees’ intention towards identified whistleblowing.

H2c: Clan culture positively contributes to employees’ intention towards informal whistleblowing.

The third type of organizational culture identified by the CVF is market culture. This culture focuses on the external environment and on developing the transactions found between the organization and several other external constituencies such as; clients, suppliers, traders, regulators/officials and the likes. The main emphasis is to carry out transactions with external bodies, gain competitive advantage, and maximizing; profit, outcomes, power in market, and secure clients. Competitiveness, productivity, strong determination and aggressive strategy to boosts production and profit are fundamental values. Major duty of management is to motivate the company in the direction of productivity and outcome. Similar to hierarchy culture, market culture also focuses on stability, order, and control. On the other hand, adhocracy culture emphasizes on possessing a work environment characterized by creativity and dynamism. Employees are expected to think or act freely and to develop/use their entrepreneurial skills. This culture aims to nurture adaptability, flexibility and creativity. Adhocracies are commonly considered to be the same with temporary. They are regarded as tents set up for temporary purpose instead of a permanent workstation. Power is not centralized and authority is not based on relations which is true for other types of cultures (e.g. hierarchy and market). This culture gives greater focus to individuality, empowers employees to take risk and imagine the future (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Concerning market and adhocracy culture types, there are no strong evidences in the extant literature that show the impact of these two types of cultures on whistleblowing intentions of employees. Therefore, a research question was asked in this study:

Q.1: Do the remaining types of organizational culture types (adhocracy and market) contribute to employees’ intentions towards various types of whistleblowing?

Figure 2: Theoretical Model

Theoretical model of the study can be seen in Figure 2. Since the purpose of this research is to investigate whistleblowing in non-western cultures, the theoretical model was tested in Ethiopia and Turkey. In addition to the proposed model, the current study also aims to examine the following research questions:

Q.2: Do employees in Ethiopia and Turkey differ in terms of their preference for a particular type(s) of whistleblowing?
3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Participants

A total of 528 voluntary employees from private and public organizations in Turkey (254) and Ethiopia (274) formed the sample for this study. Nearly 600 surveys were given to employees who were on duty from Jan-Mar, 2016 in Ethiopia and from April-June, 2016 in Turkey. All the participants were selected from Istanbul for Turkey and Addis Ababa for Ethiopia. The sample consisted of employees from a total of 13 private and 7 public organizations for Turkey and from 9 public and 11 private organizations for Ethiopia. The questionnaires were distributed using a hard copy and online system and the average completion time was 18 minutes. A response rate of 84% (Turkey) and 80% (Ethiopia) were obtained.

3.2. Instruments

Organizational culture was measured using the twenty four-item organizational culture assessment instrument (OCAI) developed by Cameron and Quinn (2006). The original OCAI in English was used with Ethiopian participants and the Turkish version translated by Öcal and Ağca (2010) was used for Turkish participants. Sample items include; “The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high,” and “The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do”. Whistleblowing was assessed using a 14 items intentions towards types of whistleblowing (ITTW) scale developed by Park et al. (2008). Participants were presented with the following vignette: “Assume that the sales department of your company has committed the crime of tax evasion by manipulating its account books and receipts. An employee who has been working for the past 5 years discovers the wrongdoing one day by chance.” Participants were then presented with the following question: “If he/she were to report the wrongdoing in any of the following ways, what would you think of his action?” The original English version of the scale is used for Ethiopian participants while the translated Turkish version (developed by a group of experts using back and forth translation system) was used for Turkish Participants. Sample items include; “He/she provides information to the prosecution/police”, “He/she reports it to his supervisor”, and “He/she reports while not revealing his identity”. A 5-point interval scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) was used for both OCAI and ITTW scales.

4. RESULTS

4.1. Validity and Reliability of Scales

Initially, validity and reliability tests of the scales were conducted. ITTW were measured with six dimensions – representing six different types of whistleblowing – each with two or three indicators. These items were prepared to measure external-internal, anonymous-identified, formal-informal whistleblowing types which are the two extremes of the three continuums and they are not used as a composite whistleblowing score. In this case, conducting a factor analysis to all items together is not meaningful, and for two-three item indicators conducting separate factor analyses become pointless as well. Therefore, only Cronbach’s alpha reliability analyses were conducted and results are given in the Table 1 comparatively for Ethiopian and Turkish data.

Table 1: Reliability Analysis for Types of Whistleblowing Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of whistleblowing</th>
<th>Item number</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anonymous</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identified</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from the Table 1 above, the coefficients of Cronbach’s α for all the scales used in the two countries suggest that the scales are reliable. The reliability scores for all the scales measuring the different types of whistleblowing were well above the acceptable level with a single exception for formal whistleblowing scale used with Turkish participants (α=.68).

The OCAI has a total of 24 questions item representing four factors. There are 6 items under each of the four factors. These four factors represent a typical organizational culture type and are named as clan culture (CC), hierarchy culture (HC), market culture (MC) and adhocracy culture (AC). To assess the reliability and validity of the OCAI, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted separately for data obtained from Ethiopian and Turkish participants (See Table 2). Due to low item loading (less than .50), one item of adhocracy culture in Ethiopian sample, and one item of clan culture in Turkish sample were eliminated. The results indicated acceptable fit for both Ethiopia (χ² (224, N=278)=438.96, p=0.00, CFI=.93,
TLI=.92, RMSEA=.06, SRMR=.06) and Turkey (χ2 (224, N=278)=414.61, p=.00; CFI=.92, TLI=.91, RMSEA=.05, SRMR=.05). We analyzed further to check for convergent validity and discriminant validity. All factor loadings for both samples were relatively high and significant, providing evidence for convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Also, the construct reliability (CR) values of organizational culture factors in both samples were all above .70 acceptable level indicating high internal consistency of the dimensions (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Average variance extracted (AVE) values, which reflect the overall amount of variance accounted for by the latent constructs, were all above .50 threshold (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 2: Confirmatory Analysis of Organizational Culture Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Ethiopia Item number</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>Item number</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adhocracy</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ethiopia sample χ2 (224, N=278)=414.61, p=.00; CFI=.92, TLI=.91, RMSEA=.05, SRMR=.05

Turkey sample χ2 (224, N=254)=414.61, p=.00; CFI=.92, TLI=.91, RMSEA=.05, SRMR=.05

CR= Construct Reliability; AVE= Average variance extracted

4.2. Describing Research Variables in Ethiopian and Turkish Settings

Descriptive statistics of variables were calculated to profile our samples from both countries. Then, statistical tests were applied to find out if there were any differences in these variables in the two settings.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics and Friedman two-way ANOVA Test Results for Whistleblowing Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>M (Ethiopia N=278)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M rank</th>
<th>M (Turkey N=254)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>External</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>4.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anonymous</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>3.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identified</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>2.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>4.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>2.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Friedman Test Ethiopia sample χ2 (5, N=278)=66.47, p=.00

Friedman Test Turkey sample χ2 (5, N=254)=284.90, p=.00

As can be seen from Table 3 above, Ethiopian sample indicated their intentions a little above average (score =3) for all types except informal whistle blowing, which is preferred less than average. However, Turkish sample indicated only three types above average (internal, anonymous, and formal) and the other three less than average. To find out if there is actually a difference in the preferred whistleblowing behavior, Friedman one-way ANOVA tests were conducted to both samples. The results revealed that the degree of preference between six types of whistleblowing intentions were statistically different in both Ethiopia and Turkey samples (χ2 (5, N=278)=66.47, p=.00; χ2 (5, N=254)=284.90, p=.00 respectively).

The most preferred whistleblowing behavior in Ethiopia was ‘formal’ and the least preferred was ‘informal’. Employees’ preference for ‘formal’ whistleblowing scores (M=3.68) was significantly higher than all the remaining types of whistleblowing with the highest mean rank (4.11). ‘Informal’ whistleblowing (M=2.83) tends to be the least preferred type of whistleblowing with the lowest mean rank (2.96). In Turkish sample, the two most preferred whistleblowing behaviors were ‘formal’ (M=3.90) and ‘internal’ (M=3.87) and the least preferred was ‘informal’ (M=2.60) with a mean rank of 4.59, 4.45 and 2.69 respectively. So we can say, even though means indicated differences in the intention to show different whistleblowing intentions between Ethiopia and Turkey, the most and least preferred methods were same. Subsequently, to find out statistically, if ITTW show difference in terms of country of origin, a series of independent t-tests were conducted. Results can be found in Table 4 below. It was found out that with the exception of anonymous whistleblowing, Turkish and Ethiopian employees showed statistically significant difference in terms of the five types of whistleblowing.

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Table 4: Independent Sample T-test Results of Whistleblowing Types in terms of Cultures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethnici</td>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>-3.87</td>
<td>530</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identified</td>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>527</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal</td>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>-3.73</td>
<td>530</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethni</td>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>-2.44</td>
<td>529</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identified</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Regression Analyses Result for External, Anonymous, and Formal Whistleblowing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>External Whistleblowing (Ethiopia)</th>
<th>External Whistleblowing (Turkey)</th>
<th>Anonymous Whistleblowing (Ethiopia)</th>
<th>Anonymous Whistleblowing (Turkey)</th>
<th>Formal Whistleblowing (Ethiopia)</th>
<th>Formal Whistleblowing (Turkey)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>-2.93**</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>2.53**</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>2.32*</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.40***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhocracy</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>-3.73**</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-1.62</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>1.55**</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>3.11**</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>2.70**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Regression Analyses Result for Internal, Identified, and Informal Whistleblowing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>Internal Whistleblowing (Ethiopia)</th>
<th>Internal Whistleblowing (Turkey)</th>
<th>Identified Whistleblowing (Ethiopia)</th>
<th>Identified Whistleblowing (Turkey)</th>
<th>Informal Whistleblowing (Ethiopia)</th>
<th>Informal Whistleblowing (Turkey)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>5.05***</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>2.25*</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>-1.99*</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-2.45*</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-1.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhocracy</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-3.73**</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>1.55**</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The contribution of hierarchy culture on formal whistleblowing was also positive for both Ethiopian (β=.23, t=2.76, p<.01) and Turkish (β=.17, t=2.80, p<.01) samples. In contrast, clan culture for Turkish sample (β=.27, t=4.54, p<.001) and adhocracy culture for Ethiopian sample (β=.25, t=3.70, p<.001) showed negative contribution to formal whistleblowing intentions. The overall result obtained from the regression analyses showed that, with the exception of anonymous whistleblowing in Turkish sample, hierarchical culture significantly and positively contributed to external, anonymous, and formal whistleblowing intentions of employees. However, the explanatory power of hierarchy culture for the observed variance in these three types of whistleblowing was moderately low in both samples. Thus, Hypothesis 1a and Hypothesis 1c are supported while Hypothesis 1b is partially supported.
With regards to internal whistleblowing, Table 6 above depicts that clan culture positively contributed to internal whistleblowing for both Ethiopian (β=.30, t=5.05, p<.001) and Turkish (β=.14, t=2.25, p<.05) samples. On the other hand, hierarchy culture negatively contributed to internal whistleblowing both in Turkey (β=-.15, t=-2.45, p<.05) and Ethiopia (β=-.16, t=-1.99, p<.05). Also, for Ethiopian sample, adhocracy culture showed negative contribution to internal whistleblowing. The results also revealed two significant results with regards to informal whistleblowing. For Ethiopian sample, clan culture showed positive contribution (β=.35, t=5.42, p<.001) while market culture for Turkish sample showed negative contribution (β=-.13, t=-2.10, p<.05) to informal whistleblowing. However, all the four organizational culture types in both samples did not show significant contribution to identified whistleblowing. Thus, Hypothesis 2a is supported, Hypothesis 2c is partially supported, and Hypothesis 2b is not supported.

5. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The main purpose of the current study was to examine the contribution of organizational culture types on employees’ intentions towards various mode(s) of whistleblowing. The study also aimed to find out whether employees in Ethiopia and Turkey differ in terms of their preference for a particular type(s) of whistleblowing. The results of the analysis are discussed in the following section.

In this study, we proposed that hierarchy type of organizational culture positively contributes to employees’ intention towards external, anonymous and formal whistleblowing. The results supported the hypothesis, with exception of anonymous whistleblowing in Turkish sample. Even though we did not come across previous empirical studies that particularly tested the association between hierarchy culture and whistleblowing types, there are some strong evidences in related research and theoretical explanations that demonstrate cultural dimensions and organizational structures relate with types of whistleblowing. For example, King (1999) argued that in organizations with a typical hierarchical or bureaucratic character, reporting organizational misconduct tends to be less open and frequent. A study conducted by Chang and Lu (2007) also found that in Taiwanese organizations - characterized by a strong sense of administrative ethics, conformity and admiration to superiors - when the opinions of employees differs from that of superiors, employees are expected to accept the views and directives of the superiors without challenging them in an open way. Discussing ethical issues openly was found to have a positive association with confrontation and reporting internally. But it has a negative association with blowing the whistle externally (Kaptein, 2011). An experiment carried out to identify the role of anonymous whistleblowing also revealed that employees’ intention to whistleblow on organizational misconduct increased when their identities were kept secure (Mecca et al., 2014). The costs associated with blowing the whistle anonymously is perceived to be lower than that of reporting in identified way (Kaplan & Schultz, 2007).

We also proposed that clan culture positively contributes to employees’ intention towards internal, identified and informal whistleblowing. Except for identified type of whistleblowing, the results generally supported the proposed hypothesis. This finding is supported by previous studies and theoretical propositions. For example, Miethe and Rothschild (1994) argued that in organizations which are relatively smaller, less bureaucratic, less formalized, and that are highly participative, employees are likely to have relatively higher rates of internal rather than external whistleblowing. Clan cultures have relatively flat hierarchies and the major controlling mechanisms of written rules and regulations are minimized or lacking. The unwritten norms and regulations tend to create higher levels of influence on members revealing organizational misconduct in such a way that employees will be generally less likely to whistleblow the misconduct of team members (Miller & Thomas, 2005). And if they decide to report a misconduct, they may more likely to report it internally and informally. In addition, the preference for internal whistleblowing in clan culture could be explained by the theory of planned behavior (TPB). According to TPB, intention to carry out a certain behavior (in this case type of whistleblowing) is influenced by underlying beliefs that one experiences. One of these beliefs is subjective norm which refers to the perceived social pressure one experiences either to perform or not to perform the behavior (Park & Blenkinsopp, 2009). Thus, employees in clan culture are more likely to prefer a comfortable friendly relation with other colleagues in the workplace instead of initiating conflict by blowing a whistle on the misconduct of others to external agents.

Our study further revealed that market culture significantly and positively contributed to external and anonymous whistleblowing. One possible explanation for this could be that organizations with market culture are considered to function as a market themselves. Their orientation is towards external surroundings rather than internal matters (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The focus and connection with external environment in market cultures could be one possible factor that influences employees in such cultures to prefer external whistleblowing. Power gaps between levels is also very low because information tends to flow freely. Due to inequality of power and lower dependency, employees tend to make decisions based on their personal self-interest. In such cultures, legitimacy is bestowed by compromise and resolution, and not by decree (Kowtha et al., 2001). Thus, reporting organizational misconduct to external constituents could be easy and employees may likely engage in such intentions. In addition, information is very widely diffused and highly codified in market cultures. Employees in such cultures tend to have the chance to collect and interpret information they desire by themselves. Due to this, decisions are made autonomously and can be determined by self-interest. There are no identity-
based associations and there are limited guidelines that govern employees to speak-up or voice their interest at a convenient time and place (Kowtha et al., 2001). Thus, employees working in organizations that are dominated with values of market culture could prefer external and anonymous whistleblowing due to these reasons.

Our study also found out that adhocracy culture had significant negative contribution to both external and formal whistleblowing. Adhocracy culture emphasizes creativity, innovation and fostering entrepreneurship. In this culture, power is decentralized and there is no authority relationships (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Thus, employees might not be afraid to raise their concern to those working in the same organization, hence minimizing the need to whistleblow externally. Also, the adhocracy culture corresponds to and tends to possess similar characteristics to that of what Trompenaars and Turner (1998) called the incubator culture. In such cultures, employees tend to have very close relationships, shared interests and superordinate goals. There is high dependence on face-to-face interaction and intimacy. Rhee and Moon (2009) also found out that adhocracy culture is positively related with information adequacy. Adhocracy cultures are more likely to offer sufficient information to their staffs about individual and organizational issues. In addition, adhocracy culture has a positive effect on information flow and interaction supportiveness. The authors argued that this type of culture tends to enhance a free flow of information and a positive communication atmosphere whereby employees listen to each other actively, manage clashes, and show sympathy towards each other. Thus, as this study found out, employees in this type of culture may less likely incline to prefer external and formal whistleblowing to reveal organizational misconduct.

Concerning preferred mode of whistleblowing in the two countries, overall, our study found out that employees’ intentions towards types of whistleblowing in the two nations is very similar. In both samples, the most preferred is formal whistleblowing while the least preferred is informal whistleblowing. The higher level of preference for formal whistleblowing in both countries might be due to the existence of higher degrees of uncertainty avoidance in the two nations. This finding tends to be in line with some of the previous studies. For example, Hofstede (1991), identified Turkey as a country with national culture that is dominated by higher index levels of uncertainty avoidance (85). Ethiopia also scored little above average on uncertainty avoidance index (52). In a typical organization dominated with strong uncertainty avoidance culture (like Turkey and Ethiopia), rules and procedures to govern the environment are more likely to prevail. In such organizations, little is left open to chance or interpretation and employees tend to stick to the already established formal system (Tavakoli, et al., 2003). Thus, the higher preference for formal and lower preference for informal whistleblowing in both nations could be attributed to the higher degrees of uncertainty avoidance. The second most preferred type of whistleblowing is internal for Turkey and anonymous for Ethiopia. On the remaining types of whistleblowing, the preferences are nearly the same indicating very close similarity. The preference for internal as the second most preferred type of whistleblowing among Turkish participants is similar with Park et al.’s (2008) cross-cultural study that compared Turkey, UK, and South Korea on preference towards six types of whistleblowing. The authors reported that, generally, there is a preference for internal, formal, and anonymous other types of whistleblowing in Turkey. The overall result tends to indicate that in all the three pairs of whistleblowing types, the mean difference is relatively higher for Turkey compared to Ethiopia.

Based on the findings of the current study, we can conclude that the dominant values and beliefs embedded within the culture of an organization tend to determine the most likely expected and acceptable methods of whistleblowing in that particular organization. Even though organizational culture types in both countries significantly predicted the various types of whistleblowing almost in similar ways, the observed effect sizes were not very high. As the main implication of the current study, we would like to emphasize that whistleblowing policies at organizational level should consider their prevailing dominant cultural values while formulating guidelines on how their employees report organizational misconducts easily. Mecca et al., (2014) suggested that organizational policies must protect whistleblowers from possible reprisal and give the chance to report what they know without fear. In short, policy makers, leaders, and managers need to make sure that their employees have adequate access to the various whistleblowing channels, especially channels that are congruent with the dominant cultural values of their organization, and that potential whistleblowers in the organization need to perceive the established channels as acceptable, easy and appropriate to report unethical events they come across in their workplace.

Lastly, we would like to acknowledge that the results of the study should be appraised with some potential limitations. One potential limitation can be the scenario approach utilized to investigate participants’ intention towards types of whistleblowing. The single scenario, which deals about one specific topic (tax evasion) was very specific. This could influence their preference towards a particular type of whistleblowing, may be that their response about their intentions towards a particular type of whistleblowing could relate with the specific type of organizational misconduct presented in the scenario. Also conditions in the real world contain more information related to an ethical event compared to the misconduct presented in the vignette used for the current study. Moreover, the generalizability of the findings are limited with the sizes of samples in both countries, further studies are required to verify the results of the current research. In
general, however, the results appear to be enlightening and encouraging, and we hope that they will enhance the groundwork for additional similar studies in this area especially in a non-Western cultures.

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MARKET ORIENTATION, COMPETENCE-BASED MARKETING CAPABILITY AND FIRM DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

Purpose: The topic of competence-based marketing has attracted much attention from business scholars, further exploration of competence-based marketing capability is especially important. The main purpose of this study is to address and investigate the relationship between market orientation and original equipment manufacturer (OEM) suppliers' competence-based marketing capability, along with the impact of competence-based marketing capability on product-linked development and relationship-linked development.

Methodology: Based on a sample of 119 Taiwan's OEM suppliers, we used Smart PLS 2.0 to perform SEM and to evaluate both the quality of the measurement model and the interrelationships of the constructs.

Findings: Empirical testing of 119 OEM suppliers suggests that a proactive market orientation has a positive influence on the development of competence-based marketing capabilities. Furthermore, the development of competence-based marketing capability leads OEM suppliers to engage in product-linked and relationship-linked development.

Conclusion: The topic of competence marketing has attracted much attention from business scholars; however, no empirical studies have measured companies' capabilities in competence marketing. Therefore, the framework of this study followed linkages developed from the resource-based view (strategic orientation → organizational capabilities → organizational performance) for the purpose of exploring the antecedents and effects of CBMC.

Keywords: OEM supplier, competence-based marketing, market orientation

JEL Codes: M31, L14

1. INTRODUCTION

Competition in the environment puts pressure on original equipment manufacturing (OEM) suppliers to upgrade their abilities and to innovate. Buyers are attracted to a supplier that can move quickly to introduce many competence-based services, especially when competing suppliers provide only one or two. However, it is often difficult for industrial buyers to accept new services from their suppliers (Korhonen & Kaarla, 2006). According to the competence-based marketing view, it is only when a supplier is able to make its buyer aware of their competence that the potential competences might be applied (Danneels, 2007). That is, suppliers should pay more attention to the development of the actual competence than to the communication of that competence to buyers (Golfitto & Gibbert, 2006; Zerbini, Golfitto & Gibbert, 2007). Zerbini et al. (2007) also suggested that buyers might apply the supplier’s competence to their processes when they perceive a strong benefit of that competence. Hence, the further exploration of competence-based marketing capability (CBMC), the ability of firms to communicate the value of various competences to their buyers, is especially important for OEM suppliers to enhance their relationships with their buyers.

As OEM suppliers continuously learn and grasp the lessons of their prior experiences and the best practices of both themselves and their buyers, the scope of their competence might expand from manufacturing only to product design and development, global logistics, and after-sale services (Hobday, 1995; Collis, 1996; Zollo & Winter, 2002; Liu, Liu and Lin, 2008). Accordingly, in this paper, the competence that will be marketed will be referred to as product-linked competence.

1 OEM (original equipment manufacturing): When a manufacturer follows a buyer’s specifications and design to assemble all parts into a product and then ships the product to the buyer.

2 A competence-based service of OEM suppliers is a type of outsourcing in which the supplier takes on a service formerly conducted by the buyer; in other words, the supplier has a specific ability to provide that service.
Such competences are designed to ensure proper functioning of a product and/or to facilitate the buyer’s access to that product in an outsourcing relationship (Mathieu, 2001).

The purposes of this study are as follows. First, although extensive scholarly work has been done on the topic of competence marketing (Zerbini et al., 2007; Berghman, MatthysSENS & Vandenbemt, 2006; Moller, 2006; Li, 2011), few empirical studies have measured skills in competence-based marketing. Second, according to resource dependence theory (RDT) suppliers with a relatively weak position in the market and strong dependence on buyers will seek to reduce uncertainty and manage their dependence by restructuring their exchange relationships (Liu, Tsou & Chen, 2013). In this regard, a competence-based marketing view is employed to posit that CBMC induces buyer’s feedback for supplier’s product-linked development and buyer’s dependence in supplier’s relation-linked development. The third goal of this study is to address and investigate the relationship between market orientation and CBMC. The concepts of proactive market orientation and responsive market orientation will be used (Narver, Slater & MaLachlan, 2004) to discuss which market orientation of a supplier improves supplier’s capability to market their competence, in turn increasing the chance that their competence will be applied to the buyer’s operating processes. Research framework is shown as below (Figure 1).

Figure 1: A proposed model of the linkages among market orientation, competence-based marketing capability and product and relation-linked development

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

2.1. Competence-Based Marketing Capability

Some firms do not know precisely what competences they have. Buyers and suppliers each have their own perceptions of their existing competences, shaped by their mental models and path-dependent successful historical experiences (Markides, 1998). In particular, many manufacturing companies have become more customer-centric and innovative in attempts to differentiate themselves from competitors (Oliva & KallenberG, 2003; Grönroos, 2006; Neu & Brown, 2005; Gebauer, Edvardsson, Gustafsson & Witell, 2010). To deliver their innovative offerings persuasively and gain a buyer’s confidence and trust, marketing competence is needed to protect buyers from misidentifying a supplier’s competence (Liu
Marketing competence helps buyers to define and clarify the boundaries and attributes of OEM suppliers’ competences in a competitive market. The present study treats CBMC as a composite that requires a formative measure, because CBMC is a higher-order resource that increases in magnitude as each of the three components of competence marketing capability increases. A series of competence-based marketing literature (Zerbin et al., 2007; Berghman, MatthysSENS & VandenbEMT, 2006; Moller, 2006; Danneels, 2007; Li, 2011) led us identify three components of CBMC: communication competence, absorption competence, and joint innovation competence. These components support each other. For example, a higher degree of communication competence enables absorption competence and joint innovation competence, high levels of absorption competence allow internal employees to develop suitable relational skills (i.e., communication competence), and relational skills enable better joint innovation competence.

2.2. Market Orientation and CMBC

A market orientation emphasizes commitment to the continuous creation of superior value for customers (Narver and Slater, 1990). Market-oriented firms encourage organization-wide activities to generate and disseminate market intelligence to respond to existing and latent customer needs (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Najafi-Tavani, Sharifi & Najafi-Tavani, 2016). Hence, the present study proposes that a market orientation plays a decisive role in forming suppliers’ CBMC. According to Narver et al. (2004); Tsou, Chen & Liao (2014), a supplier’s market orientation can be divided into two constructs: a proactive market orientation and a responsive market orientation (Narver et al., 2004). A proactive market orientation refers to a firm’s endeavors to discover, understand, and satisfy customers’ latent needs. In contrast, a responsive market orientation refers to discovering, understanding, and satisfying customers’ expressed needs.

2.3. Responsive Market Orientation and CMBC

To satisfy buyers’ expressed demands, responsive market-oriented suppliers will improve their response time to market as well as reduce total production costs through improved product design and quality and the introduction of new products. It is important to obtain valuable information about the needs of buyers. To provide and acquire specific information, suppliers should have systems in place that identify and record each transaction and interaction with buyers (Chen, Li & Evans, 2012). Frequent sharing of market information in an organization also provides an environment that drives and encourages internal employees with greater knowledge, skills, and qualifications to provide increasingly integrated solutions for buyers (Li, 2011). Information sharing, both within and between suppliers and buyers, helps suppliers to understand better how they should market their ability to satisfy buyers’ needs. Therefore, it is expected that OEM suppliers with a responsive market orientation will increase their degree of familiarity with their buyers and reduce the likelihood of bad communication.

H1: A responsive market orientation has a positive effect on competence-based marketing capability.

2.4. Proactive Market Orientation and CMBC

In a competitive environment, it is expected that buyers might commit themselves to establishing, developing, and executing cooperative activities with OEM suppliers (GuLATI, 1998) if the potential outcome is desirable (Morgan and Hunt, 1994). A proactive market-oriented supplier would build an innovative environment that encourages employees to improve cross-functional information sharing and coordination. Employees who are satisfied and motivated to create, acquire, and build upon new knowledge will push a firm to satisfy buyers with new services by assimilating current knowledge about buyers, as well as integrating resources and knowledge from all involved departments. Proactive suppliers who can appropriately adapt, integrate, and reconfigure internal and external organizational skills, resources, and functional competences to meet the desires of consumers (Teece et al., 1997) will gain more attention from buyers and therefore have more opportunities to exercise their competences. Liu et al. (2013) also pointed out that many suppliers are devoted to innovation and the development of exclusive business knowledge, helping to sustain a creative advantage in an outsourcing situation. A supplier that is able to present a specific creative skill or good performance will change their buyers’ degree of control and encourage communication and trust.

H2: A proactive market orientation has a positive effect on competence-based marketing capability.

2.5. CMBC And Product-linked Development

Many studies have shown that core competences can lead to rigidity (Leonard-Barton, 1992; Burgelman, 1994), becoming “competence traps” (Levinthal & March, 1993) that limit the opportunities available to a firm. The buyers in an outsourcing relationship may play an important role in rendering suggestions or providing opportunities to improve suppliers’ product development. As OEM suppliers enhance and pay greater attention to communication with their buyers, they might explore the strengths or weaknesses of their competences, giving themselves chances to develop their competences by dynamically
modifying their abilities to suit the requirements of their buyers in a co-creation process (Hallen, Johanson & Seyed-Mohamed, 1991; Newman, Prajogo & Atherton, 2016).

H3: Competence-based marketing capability has a positive effect on product-linked development.

2.6. CMBC And Relation-linked Performance

A supplier with more advantages is more likely to pass on those competitive advantages for their buyers, thus attracting their attention (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). From the buyer’s perspective, perceived trust increases with a confident assessment of a partner’s present and future resources. Marketing competence is one way that a supplier can show that it can be trusted to respond to a buyer’s requirements, in turn enhancing its connection with and engagement in the collaboration between itself and a buyer. Gullen, Johnson & Sakano (1995) argued that the partners’ commitment will develop if the partners perceive value in the benefits derived from the collaboration. Therefore, a competence that is perceived by a buyer can be anticipated to play an important role in inducing that buyer’s commitment and may increase its willingness to depend on a supplier. Thus, the final hypothesis is advanced.

H4: Competence-based marketing capability has a positive effect on relation-linked development.

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Sampling and Data Collection

In this empirical study, we used a questionnaire to collect data to test the model and hypotheses. The sample frame was drawn from “2013 Top 5,000—the largest corporations Taiwan” published by the Taiwan Credit Information Center 2012. The top 1,000 electronics companies were selected as the sample for this study because the majority of Taiwanese electronics companies are involved in OEM and play an important role in the global electronics market. To increase the quality of the responses to the questionnaire, senior executives of strategic business units were selected as respondents, because they have the greatest and most specific knowledge about their relationships with buyers. Questionnaires, cover letters, and self-addressed stamped return envelopes were mailed to all sample firms on December 22, 2015. Three weeks after the first mailing, reminder letters were sent to the companies that had not yet returned completed questionnaires. After the elimination of incomplete questionnaires, 119 completed copies were returned, for an effective response rate of 11.9%.

A test of non-response was conducted to determine whether any bias was present. All returned questionnaires were categorized as early respondents (73 copies) or late respondents (46 copies). There was no significant difference among the scale (p=0.64), the length of collaboration (p=0.69), between the two categories, confirming population precision of the sample (Armstrong & Overton, 1977).

3.2. Measurement

Regarding market orientation, this study adopted the Narver et al. (2004) scale to measure proactive market orientation (PMO) and responsive market orientation (RMO). The constructs of PMO and RMO were each measured by three items. PMO reflects the extent to which a firm has attempted to discover, understand, and satisfy the expressed needs of its customers. RMO reflects the extent to which an OEM supplier firm has attempted to discover, understand, and satisfy the latent needs of its customers. CBMC was conceptualized as a higher-order construct that increases in magnitude as each of its three components increases (Diamantopoulos & Winkelhofer, 2001). Hence, CBMC is a composite that includes three components: communication competence (CC), absorption competence (AC), and joint innovation competence (JIC). We adopted a reflective perspective to measure these three components. We adopted four items based on the work of Joshi (2009) to measure CC. To measure AC, we referred to the research of Tsou and Chen (2012) and employed three questions that measured the ability of firms to assimilate, identify, transform, and make use of new information or knowledge from the environment. We adapted material from Li (2011) to use four items to measure JIC, that is, to reflect the extent to which suppliers engage in developing product-linked innovations, including products and processes, together with the buyer. Items regarding product-linked development with a buyer, reflecting the extent to which a buyer has contributed to suppliers’ product design/development, were adapted from Lawson, Petersen, Cousins and Handfield (2009). Relation-linked development with the buyer was assessed via adaptations of the scales of Johnston, McCutcheon, Stuart and Kerwood (2004) to obtain four items that measured the suppliers’ perceptions of the dependability of buyers.

3.3. Data Analysis and Results

To evaluate both the quality of the measurement model and the relationships between the constructs in this structural equation modeling(SEM) model, the partial least squares (PLS) technique (Smart PLS 2.0 software) was employed. In agreement with Tenenhaus, Vinzi, Chatelin, and Lauro (2005) and their suggestion of explaining validation of the PLS model when adopting PLS, an index of goodness of fit (GoF) was used to calculate the geometric mean of the average
communality and the average $R^2$ values ($0 < \text{GoF} < 1$). Tenenhaus et al. (2005) suggest that a cut-off value of 0.25 can be considered satisfactory for a medium effect size (Wetzels, Odekerken-Schröder & van Oppen, 2009). According to the results in Table 3 ($\text{GoF} = \sqrt{(0.63) \times (0.29)} = 0.42$), the cut-off value of 0.42 exceeds 0.25.

3.4. Measurement Model Results

The PLS method provides details of any significant relationships between survey items and identifies support for the hypotheses. As shown in Table 1, the factor loadings for this research fell between 0.72 and 0.95, indicating that the designed questions successfully explain the model (Nunnally, 1978). The composite reliability falls in between 0.86 and 0.97, indicating that the constructs can be considered reliable. Collectively, then, the reliability and internal consistency of the items are acceptable. In addition, this study's average variance extracted values (AVEs) achieves the standard suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981): at least 0.5 is considered satisfactory and indicates convergent validity. On the other hand, Table 2 shows that the values for average variance extracted from the five constructs in the research are larger than the correlation coefficients, indicating discriminative validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Overall, the results demonstrated the validity of the research constructs.

Table 1: Table for Measurement Properties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct identifier</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
<th>Cronbach alpha</th>
<th>Composite reliability ($\rho_c$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responsive market orientation</td>
<td>PMO</td>
<td>RMO 1</td>
<td>0.844</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>RMO 2</td>
<td>0.878</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>RMO 3</td>
<td>0.856</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proactive market orientation</td>
<td>RMO</td>
<td>PMO 1</td>
<td>0.849</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PMO 2</td>
<td>0.917</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PMO 3</td>
<td>0.846</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product-linked development</td>
<td>PLD</td>
<td>PLD 1</td>
<td>0.780</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PLD 2</td>
<td>0.780</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PLD 3</td>
<td>0.847</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relation-linked development</td>
<td>RLD</td>
<td>RLD 1</td>
<td>0.745</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>RLD 2</td>
<td>0.880</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>RLD 3</td>
<td>0.900</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>RLD 4</td>
<td>0.881</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absorption competence</td>
<td>AC</td>
<td>JIC 1</td>
<td>0.905</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>JIC 2</td>
<td>0.952</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>JIC 3</td>
<td>0.838</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AC 1</td>
<td>0.787</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint innovation competence</td>
<td>JIC</td>
<td>AC 2</td>
<td>0.819</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AC 3</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>AC 4</td>
<td>0.822</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Communication competence</td>
<td>CC</td>
<td>CC 1</td>
<td>0.842</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CC 2</td>
<td>0.870</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CC 3</td>
<td>0.727</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CC 4</td>
<td>0.745</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Mean, SD and Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
<th>(5)</th>
<th>(6)</th>
<th>(7)</th>
<th>(8)</th>
<th>(9)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RMO</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMO</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.53**</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RLD</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.45**</td>
<td>.38**</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLD</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.20*</td>
<td>.38**</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td>.56**</td>
<td>.42**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIC</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.46**</td>
<td>.42**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>.48**</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.26**</td>
<td>.50**</td>
<td>.50**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>.57**</td>
<td>.65**</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative year</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>.02**</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05, ** p < 0.01. Note: N=119.

1. Figures along the shaded diagonal are values of the square root of the AVE.

Table 3: The results of path analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path coefficient (b)</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Competence-based marketing capability; $R^2=0.39$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsive market orientation</td>
<td>0.187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proactive market orientation</td>
<td>0.504***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>-0.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative length</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product-linked development; $R^2=0.17$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence-based marketing capability</td>
<td>0.415***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative length</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relation-linked development; $R^2=0.31$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence-based marketing capability</td>
<td>0.538***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>-0.128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative length</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Average $R^2$ | 0.29 |
Average communality | 0.63 |
Goodness-of-Fit | 0.42 |

Notes: Goodness-of-Fit=$\sqrt{(average communality \times average R square)}$.* p < .05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

3.5. Structural Model

The construct model of this research was applied to verify the four hypotheses generated from the five constructs. The results of path analysis is shown in Figure 2. In disagreement with H1, there was not a significant relationship between RMO and CBMC ($b=0.187, t=1.828$). The results support H2 in that a significant positive relationship between PMO and CBMC ($b=0.504, t=6.347$) was seen. The results also support H3 and H4: significant relationships were seen between CBMC and product-linked development ($b=0.415, t=4.784$) and between CBMC and relation-linked development ($b=0.538, t=6.277$). The number of employees and perceived pressure from competition showed no significant relationships with the other variables.
4. DISCUSSIONS

OEM suppliers may have substantial differences in their ability to function within the buyer-supplier relationship. Many manufacturers provide the service of designing and integrating externally supplied products and service components into a customer-specific solution (Salonen, 2011). Although the existence of complex but excellent competence-based service can help to attract buyers, OEM suppliers nevertheless must face and overcome some difficulties that may not be as simple as they appear. The difficulty is that buyers will not form partnerships without a clear understanding of the partner’s skills (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990). Accordingly, sophisticated marketing management that integrates technical knowledge of the competences that buyers seek is needed.

Three competences are suggested for OEM suppliers to build CBMC. The first need is for efficient communication with buyers, which consists of accurate, valuable, and up-to-date information. However, even with this valuable information, without absorption competence, firms will be unable to convert this market information into the required knowledge, nor will they be able to sense market opportunities (Pavlou & El Sawy, 2004). Second, absorption competence enables suppliers to better apply and adjust their knowledge base in various areas. Finally, in the present study, we argue that OEM suppliers that are able to offer suggestions or opportunities for fostering or reexamining the collaborative relationship will find that joint innovation is an effective way to inform buyers about their activities or competences. Suppliers can gain a buyer’s confidence and trust by engaging in joint innovation to resolve a problem resulting from the buyer’s competence trap (Ebers & Grandori, 1997).

In today’s rapidly changing environment, firms must develop dynamic capabilities to ensure a continuing competitive advantage in the field of strategic management. Firms must have the ability to repackage their resources and create new capabilities to face a dynamic environment. The result of this research suggests that proactive market-oriented firms pay...
more attention to exploring and generating marketable intelligence and are therefore able to supply decisive and acceptable competences, impressing buyers, who are vulnerable to uncertainties in resource acquisition posed by the changing and competitive environment.

5. CONCLUSION

The topic of competence marketing has attracted much attention from business scholars; however, no empirical studies have measured companies’ capabilities in competence marketing. Therefore, the framework of this study followed linkages developed from the resource-based view (strategic orientation → organizational capabilities → organizational performance) for the purpose of exploring the antecedents and effects of CBMC. This study further suggested that a proactive market orientation influences the development of CBMC in OEM suppliers. Furthermore, CBMC leads OEM suppliers to develop superior products and improve relationships with buyers.

REFERENCES


THE EFFECT OF MARKET ORIENTATION AND INNOVATION ON COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGES

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- Identify competitive advantages of embroidery SMEs embroidery from the aspect of market orientation and SME innovation. SME market orientation is applied from the ability of SMEs in finding market information to develop strategies and policies while SME innovation from SMEs ability to apply technical innovation, product / service innovation and process innovation.

Methodology- Population of this research is the entrepreneurs and managers of SMEs embroidery in Pakis subdistrict Malang and Bangil subdistrict Pasuruan with a sample of 90 respondents. Analysis of the data in this study is done by using multiple regressions.

Findings- The results showed that the market orientation and innovation have a significant effect on competitive advantage. In order to gain a competitive advantage, then entrepreneurs and managers of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) embroidery in District Pakis Malang and Bangil Pasuruan develop marketing strategies by taking into account market orientation with the emphasis on the ability to monitor competitors and develop or doing innovations related to new products.

Conclusion, Market orientation affects the competitive advantage which is an indicator of competitor orientation and Innovation affects on the competitive advantage which is an indicator of technical innovation that are considered to have the largest or most powerful contribution as a reflection of the innovation variable.

Keywords: SME embroidery, market orientation, innovation and competitive advantage.

JEL Codes: C12,L26,M31

1. INTRODUCTION

The existence of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in East Java is very strategic in order to improve the economy. The strength of SMEs has proved as the net in the current economy in many large companies that have gone bankrupt. For the development of SMEs in East Java, it needs to get more serious attention in order to improve employers’ ability to compete on regional and international markets. East Java governor stated that the existence of cooperatives and micro, small, and medium enterprises (SMEs) are able to absorb unemployment in the local region of the province. It is noted that the number of cooperatives and SMEs in East Java is not less than 30 thousand units. The number of workers is able to recruit as many as 97 percent of the total workforce in this province. Currently, total GDP revenues in East Java reached Rp1.135 trillion a year. The total revenues is 58.8 percent or Rp548.9 trillion comes from donations of cooperative sector and SMEs (www.antarajatim.com).

East Java has a craft industry center; one of the flagship products in East Java is the embroidery business. The embroidery industrial center is scattered in the area of East Java such as Surabaya, Malang, Kediri district, Pasuruan, Probolinggo, and Sidoarjo. The development of industrial centers in East Java border is still dominated by Pasuruan (Bangil) and Malang (Pakis subdistrict). In 2013, the number of small industrial embroidery business consisted of 236 units and the number of workers absorbed as many as 1248 workers (Disperindag, 2006-2013). Due to the expertise generated by generations and do not need higher education. It takes only tenacity, skill and creativity. But in 2006, the increase is very large which was 18.23% of the number of embroidery small industrial and the number of workers absorbed was 29.78% (Disperindag 2006-2013). This is because on September 11, 2005 the Government of Pasuruan stipulated that Bangil as the City of Embroidery (Embroidery Center). Therefore, many people flocked to establish their own business.
As well as in District Bangil, Malang Regency society calls Sumberpasir Village at District Pakis as Embroidery Village. In the village, the embroidery activity has been done since 1975 ago. At that time, there were only 5 people. In the recent day, it has grown to 235 artisans. They are scattered in three hamlets out of four hamlets in the Sumberpasir village that is Krajan, Gagak Asinan, and Ngrangin. Embroidery artisans in the village are doing embroidery for various purposes such as the Muslim fashion, mukena, hijab, robes, a variety of souvenirs, table cover and sheets. In making embroidery, craftsmen used two ways which is manual sewing machines and hand embroidery. For products produced, there are semi-finished and finished. Such products are marketed to Malang, Surabaya, Jakarta, Bali, Lombok, Bengkulu, Borneo, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia.

In running a business, it can not be separated from competition between similar businesses, not least in the embroidery business in Sumberpasir subdistrict. The challenge facing entrepreneurs’ embroidery business in Sumberpasir is very heavy. Apart from the regional embroidery entrepreneurs challenges also come from overseas products. This condition, if left then gradually small embroidery industry in Pakis Village subdistrict Sumberpasir will be worse off. It is a challenge for all parties concerned to find a solution to the growth of small industrial enterprises especially in Pakis village subdistrict Sumberpasir has not been afflicted by the encountered conditions.

Concerns will be increased due to high challenges faced by SMEs which can be seen from the difficulties of its SMEs to market their results. These conditions resulted in the decrease in sales volume that affect the inability of SMEs to increase employment even some SMEs which releases its workforce because they are not able to provide wages. With the pressure of a very tight competition, that directly or indirectly affects the performance of the company's organization in the apparel industry, including small and medium scale. Rapid changes in today, both in terms of technology, customer needs and product cycles getting shorter causing serious problems for the business world is no exception small and medium enterprises.

These circumstances make clear that it is necessary to know the factors that influence the competitive advantage of SMEs; this is done in order to compete to produce the products that the public interest such as Chinese and Korean goods. Besides, the internal factors of the majority of SMEs are lack of managerial capacity and skills, lack of access to information technology, capital and markets. This internal weakness due in part to lack of qualified human resources managers of SMEs in anticipating the problems being faced (Sugiarto, 2008).

Based on the various shortcomings above, it is required a special attention on the fate of the existence of SMEs as supporting the real economy society. Therefore, a tight competition requires companies to have a competitive advantage, otherwise the company can not survive. In an organization’s competitive advantage can be gained by observing the superior value for customers, culture and climate to bring any improvement in efficiency and effectiveness. With advances in technology that can not be dammed, a product the company will add flourish to the point, where these products will be difficult to distinguish from one another. In order to win in a competition, then in marketing the current product manufacturers are not only based on product quality, but also relies on common strategies used by the company is a market orientation (Never and Slater, 1990) and innovation (Wahyono, 2002) as well as entrepreneurial orientation (Weerawerdena, 2003).

According to Kohli and Jaworski (1990), market orientation is a corporate culture that can lead to increased marketing performance. Never and Settler (1990), defined that market orientation as an organizational culture that is most effective and efficient to create behaviors that are needed to create superior value for buyers and generate superior performance for the company. Companies that have made the market orientation as the culture of the organization will be based on the need of external base, wishes and market demand as a basis for preparing a strategy for each business unit within the organization, and determine the success of the company.

Companies that implement market orientation has advantages in terms of customer knowledge and the excess can be used as a source for creating products that comply with the wishes and needs of customers. Dewi (2006) found no evidence of a significant positive effect between market orientations on competitive advantage. Zhou, et al (2009) showed that the greater the customer orientation, more and more companies were able to develop a competitive advantage based on innovation and market differentiation. Lings, Ian and Greenley, Gordon (2009) concluded that there is a significant relationship between market orientation with external marketing success (market orientation performance, financial, and customer satisfaction). Suhendri (2009) showed that the orientation of the market, the quality of human resources and marketing areas management can create competitive advantage.

In addition to market orientation, innovation can also be used as a strategy to achieve competitive advantage. The main goal of innovation is to meet the market demand so that product innovation is one that can be used as a competitive advantage for the company (Wahyono, 2002). Customers generally want the product - an innovative product to their liking. For companies, success in innovation means that the company is a step further than its competitors. This requires companies to recognize ingenuity customer tastes so that innovation does ultimately is consistent with the wishes of its
customers. Thus innovation - should be planned and carried out carefully. Dewi (2006) concluded that there is a positive and significant influence between product innovations for competitive advantage. Suliyanto (2011) showed that the orientation of learning has a positive effect on technical innovation and administrative innovation, technical innovation has positive effects on the competitive edge, but innovation administration has no positive effect on the competitive advantage.

Logical reason of this study is that SMEs in various regions have characteristics that are not the same, although in general they are not different profiles. Especially for this research, the identification and analysis of the variables that affect the competitive advantage of SMEs is very important. Results of this research can be the foundation to develop strategies and policies to encourage the growth of SMEs.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

2.1. Competitive Advantage

The goal of strategies development and tactics is that the companies can compete in any situation, especially when economic and political conditions are less favorable. Therefore, the company should have a competitive advantage. Ferdinand (2000) stated that in a competitive market, the ability of the company resulting in performance, particularly financial performance, highly dependent on the degree of competitive advantage. To perpetuate its existence, the company's competitive advantage should also be sustainable, because basically the company wants to perpetuate its existence. Sustainable competitive advantage is the company's strategy to reach its final destination, the performance of which generates high profits. This means that sustainable competitive advantage is not an end, but a means to achieve the ultimate goal of the company, which is to increase the company's performance. Kotler and Armstrong (2003) defines the competitive advantage is an advantage against competitors gained by offering a lower value or by providing greater benefits because the price is higher.

From the above definition, a competitive advantage can be defined as a strategy that benefits from the company to work together to more effectively compete in the market place. Strategies must be designed to achieve continuous competitive advantage (sustainable competitive advantages) so that the company can dominate the market, old and new markets. With these advantages, it will encourage the acquisition of a higher return, higher growth, and increase the market value (Joel Litman, 2000).

A company occupies a position of competitive advantage is due to the comparative advantage in resources produces superior value at a lower cost. Competitive advantage can not be understood by looking at the company as a whole. Competitive advantage comes from a lot of different activities undertaken by the company to design, produce, market, deliver, and support its products.

Competitive advantage includes determining the position of an attempt to maximize the value capabilities that set it apart from competitors. A company occupies a position of competitive advantage is due to the comparative advantage in resources produces superior value at a lower cost. Competitive advantage comes from a lot of different activities undertaken by the company to design, produce, market, deliver, and support its products. Competitive advantage basically grows from values or benefits created by the company for its buyers. Customers generally prefer to buy products that have more value than desired or expected. However, that value will also be compared with the prices offered. Purchasing the product will occur if customers consider the price of a product in accordance with the value it offers.

Some of the indicators used to measure competitive advantage as expressed by Song and Parry (1997), Dewi (2006) and Supranoto (2009) stated that the uniqueness of the product, product quality and competitive prices. The uniqueness of the product is a unique product that combines the company's artistic value with customers' tastes. The quality of products is the quality of the design of the company's products. Meanwhile, the competitive pricing is the company's ability to adjust product prices with the general price in the market.

2.2. Market Orientation

Market orientation is something that is important for the company in line with increased global competition and changes in customer needs that companies realize that they must always be close to the market. Orientsi market a business culture in which the organization is committed to continue to be creative in creating superior value for customers. Uncles (2000) defined that market orientation as a process and activities associated with the creation and satisfying customers by continually assess the needs and desires of customers.

The implementation of market orientation will bring improved performance for the company. Narver and Slater (1995) stated that market orientation consists of three components: customer orientation, competitor orientation and interfunctional coordination. Customer orientation and competitor orientation including all activities involved in obtaining information about the buyer and its competitors on the target market and spread through the business, while the
interfunctional coordination based on customer information as well as competitors and consists of a coordinated business ventures.

The concept of customer orientation can also be interpreted as a sufficient understanding of the target customer purchase in order to create superior value for buyers continuously. The understanding here includes an understanding of the entire value chain of buyers, both during and at the time of the latest development in the future. This effort can be achieved through the process of finding information about customers (Uncles, 2000). Based on this information, the company salesperson will understand who its potential customers, both now and in the future and what they want for now and the future.

From this description, it can be understood that the implementation of market orientation requires a company's ability to find a variety of market information that can be used as the basis for the company to do the next step or strategy. Oriented company competitors often seen as a company that has a strategy and understand how to obtain and share information about competitors, how to respond to the actions of competitors and also how the top management responds to competitors' strategies (Ferdinand, 2000).

Nervier and Slater (1995) stated that interfunctional coordination is the usefulness of a coordinated resource company in creating superior value for the targeted customers. Interfunctional coordination refers to particular aspects of the organizational structures that facilitate communication between different organizational functions. Interfunctional coordination based on the information of customers and competitors as well as consists of business alignment effort which typically involves a more of the marketing department, creating superior value for customers. Interfunctional coordination can enhance communication and exchange between all the functions of an organization that takes into account customers and competitors, as well as informing the latest market trends. It fosters both confidence and independence among separate functional units, which in turn give rise to a corporate environment that is more willing to accept a product that is completely new, based on customer needs.

Market orientation is very effective in gaining and maintaining a tight competitive which starts with the planning and coordination with all the parts that exist within the organization to satisfy the needs and desires of consumers. Therefore, market orientation should emphasize the importance of the analysis of the needs and wants of target markets more efficiently and effectively than with competitors in an effort to achieve competitive advantage. Market orientation is a corporate culture that puts the market as the key to survival. Therefore, in order to maintain the growth rate in the middle of the competition increasingly complex, the market must be managed with systematic efforts, by means of information and to recognize customer needs so that the products provide customer satisfaction. Besides, the market must be approached in a way to dig up information on the characteristics and background of the customer so that the anticipation of the market can be done in a proportional manner. The main market should be well served if the company's overall expectation responsively to customers and competitors in the market. Thus, the market-oriented companies will show a competitive advantage in the middle of the competition.

In this study, the indicator used to measure market orientation refers to the opinion of Slater & Narver (1995) which is a customer orientation, the orientation of competition and coordination between functions.

2.3. Innovation

The existence of a clear link between innovation with the development of competitive advantage and profitability is above the average, many companies are interested in learning how to generate innovation and managing the innovation process effectively (Lengnick Hall, in Hitt, et al: 2005). In the industry, where the dynamic environment has become a fact of life, innovation is closely related to organizational effectiveness (Robbins, 2006).

However, it is not easy to give birth for innovative ideas, let alone implement it. Many factors influence the implementation of effective organizational innovation. Structural aspects, cultural and human resources are a characteristic that always arise when researchers studied an innovative organization (Robbins, 2006). What is said Robbins apparently supported by a comprehensive review on a question of innovation is an organic structure that positively affects innovation (Damanpour, 1991 in Salah 2008). This organizational structure is lower in vertical differentiation, formalization and centralization, organic organizations facilitate flexibility, customization and inter action of the cross that makes innovation easier application. In the organic structure also encourages communication between units high, for example there are committees, task forces, crossed team - functional and other mechanisms that facilitate interaction across departmental lines (Monge, et al.: 1992). Organizations are able to implement innovations if it is supported by organizational culture means innovative organizations tend to have a similar culture is a culture that encourages experimentation (Robbins, 2006). Foster creativity and apply it in the form of innovation in response to the demands and needs of the company or organization to survive a necessity in an era where business environments evolve, change and fluctuate with highly dynamic, complex and difficult to predict. However, efforts to foster and implement innovations are often not supported by
the managers in the company. Therefore, managers required to support the process of innovation are having a transformational leadership Characteristic is inspiring and energy to others through intellectual stimulation (Robbins, 2006). According to Damanpour (1991), innovation is an introduction to equipment, systems, laws, products or services, new technological production process, a structure or administration of the new system, or a new planning program for the adoption of an organization. Meanwhile, the type of innovation is the behavior and the factors that determine the adoption of such innovations. Research Damapour (1991) classifies innovations into several types such as: administrative innovation, technical innovation, product/service innovation, process innovation, radical innovation, incremental innovation. Administrative innovation is related to the organizational structure and administrative processes that are not directly related to the basic activities of an organization and its work is directly related to the management of the organization. Technical innovation is related to technology products, services, and production processes. Product innovation is a new product or service that was introduced on the outside or because of market requirements. Innovation process is a new element introduced in a production company or service operations, input raw materials, specification of tasks, jobs and information, and equipment used for the production of a product or making services. Radical innovation is the product services which have not been available in the past, or in the form of a new system (new delivery system) for the product and services that already exist. Belonging to the first category are: (1) Major innovation, an innovation services that are completely new to the market (has never existed in the market). It is usually very driven by information and technology-based computers. (2) Start-up business, a new service in a market which is previously served (3) New service for the present market, new products offered to consumers who already exist, even though such services could have been provided by other organizations. Incremental innovation is changes to the product and services that already exist, which is rated as the development (improvement). These changes can include: (1) Service line extention, the improvements or the expansion of existing service lines (2) Service improvement is the changes in features of services offered. (3) Style changes, are simple changes that have an impact on perception, emotion, and customer attitudes. So, what happened is not a fundamental change in services, but only in appearance only. Radical innovation is done on a large scale, carried out by experts in their field and usually managed by the department of research and development. Radical innovation is often done in the manufacturing and financial services institutions. While incremental innovation is the process of adjusting and implementing small-scale improvements and innovations are accounting consultants, R & D services, retail trade and restaurant (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2003). In this study, the indicators used to measure innovation refers to the opinion of Damanpour (1991) that is technical innovation, product / service innovation and process innovation.

3. RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

3.1. The Influence of Market Orientation on Competitive Advantage

Companies that implement market orientation have advantages in terms of customer knowledge and the excess can be used as a source for creating products that comply with the wishes and needs of customers. Dewi (2006) found no evidence of a significant positive effect between market orientations on competitive advantage. Zhou, et al (2009) showed that the greater the customer orientation, more and more companies were able to develop a competitive advantage based on innovation and market differentiation. Lings, Ian and Greenley, Gordon (2009) concluded that there is a significant relationship between market orientation with external marketing success (market orientation performance, financial, and customer satisfaction). Ratnawati (2017) the result of statistic test show that SMEs innovation will have a competitive advantage if SMEs always create innovation such as product innovation, process innovation and market innovation.

Based on the study above, it can be arranged hypothesis is as follows:

H1: Market orientation has a positive and significant impact on competitive advantage

3.2. The influence of Organizational Innovation for Competitive Advantage

Dewi (2006) concluded that there is a positive and significant influence between product innovation for competitive advantage. Suliyanto (2011) showed that the orientation of learning has a positive effect on technical innovation and administrative innovation, technical innovation has positive effects on the competitive edge, but innovation administration has no positive effect on the competitive advantage.

Based on the study above, it can be arranged hypothesis is as follows:

H2: Organizational innovation has a significant positive effect on competitive advantage

4. RESEARCH METHODS

The purpose of this study outline was to examine the effect of market orientation and innovation for competitive advantage. It is intended to test several hypotheses have been proposed to study rests on a theory that has been built investigators. Therefore the type of research that is consistent with the objectives and the hypothesis is the study of causality. Causality research is research that want to find an explanation in the form of causal relationships (cause-effect)
between multiple variables (Ferdinand, 2006). This study aimed to define the causal relationships between some of the situations described in the research model and on that basis then drawn a general conclusion. The hypothesis proposed in this study is a causality hypothesis.

This type of research conducted is also a survey research. Survey research is research that takes a sample of the population using questionnaires as the principal tool (Singarimbun: 1999). This method is also called questionnaire method since to obtain such data are usually submitted a series of questions that are arranged in a list.

4.1. Population and Sample

The population in this study is the entrepreneurs and managers of SMEs embroidery in Pakis subdistrict Malang and Pasuruan Bangil. According to Djarwanto (1999), "The sample is part of the population whose characteristics is going to be investigated and is considered to represent the entire population or a number less than the total population. Roscoe in Sekaran (2006) stated that in the multivariate study (including multiple regression analysis), the sample size should be several times (preferably 10 times) of the number of variables in the study. Given the number of variables used in this study that is 3 variables, the number of samples used as much as 9 x 10 = 90 respondents from entrepreneurs and managers of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) embroidery in Pakis subdistrict Malang and Pasuruan Bangil.

5. DATA ANALYSIS METHOD

5.1. Multiple Regression Analysis

This method is used to see the effect of organizational learning, market orientation and innovation on competitive advantage. The equation model used in this study is:

\[ Y = b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 \]

Source : Sugiyono (2006)

Description:

\( Y \) = competitive advantage

\( b \) = Standardized Coefficient Beta

\( X_1 \) = Market Orientation

\( X_2 \) = Innovation

5.2. Hipothesis Testing

The hypothesis is to test the effects of market orientation and innovation on competitive advantage. The hypothesis is tested based on the t-value analysis which is gained from the multiple regression model. The mathematical formulation of the hypothesis is:

\[ H_0 : \beta_i = 0, \quad i = 1, 2 \]

\[ H_1 : \beta_i \neq 0, \quad i = 1, 2 \]

The significant level is \( \alpha = 5\% \) and degree of freedom \((k)\) and \((n-k)\) in which \( n \) is the observation and observation number, then \( k \) is the independent variable. Then, the \( t_{count} \) is formulated as follow:

\[ t_{count} = \frac{\beta_i}{s_{\beta_i}} \]

Source : Sugiyono (2006)

In which :

\( \beta_i \) = regression coefficient

\( s_{\beta_i} \) = Standard error of regression coefficient

The significant level is \( \alpha = 5\% \), then if \( t_{count} > t_{table} \) then \( H_0 \) is rejected and \( H_1 \) is accepted or if the probability (Sig.) \( t < 5 \% \) then \( H_0 \) is rejected and \( H_1 \) is accepted.

6. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The multiple regression analysis method is used to see analysis whether or not there is the effect of market variable \((X_1)\), and innovation \((X_2)\) on competitive advantage \((Y)\). The result of multiple linear regression analysis is done by using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 17.0 for windows which can be seen on Table 1:
Table 1: The Recapitulation of Multiple Regression Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Variable</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Market Orientation Innovation</td>
<td>0.228</td>
<td>2.230</td>
<td>0.028*</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.364</td>
<td>3.563</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R : 0.504  
R Square : 0.254  
F count : 41.812  
Prob. F : 0.000

(*). Statistically significant at the level α = 5%

Table 1, explains that market orientation and innovation has a significant effect on competitive advantage at 5% statistics level. These results indicate that market orientation and innovation contribute to competitive advantage of 25.4%, while the remaining 74.6% is influenced by other variables outside the model.

The final model of the overall multiple regression analysis shown in Figure 1 below:

Figure 1: Final Research Model

6.1. The Effect of Market Orientation on Competitive Advantage

Based on the results of inferential statistical analysis, it is found that the market orientation significantly influence competitive advantage. These results can be explained that the orientation of the market is something that is important for the company in line with increased global competition and changes in customer needs that companies realize that they must sealu close to its market. Market orientation is a business culture in which the organization committed to continue to be creative in creating superior value for customers. Uncles (2000) defined that market orientation is a process and activities associated with the creation and satisfying customers by continually assess the needs and desires of customers. These results extend the study proposed by the Dewi (2006) which concluded that there is a significant positive effect between market orientation on competitive advantage. Zhou, et al (2009) showed that the greater the customer orientation, more and more companies were able to develop a competitive advantage based on innovation and market differentiation. Suhendri (2009) showed that the orientation of the market, the quality of human resources and marketing areas management can create competitive advantage.

6.2. The Influence of Innovation on Competitive Advantage

Based on the results of inferential statistical analysis, it is found that innovation significantly influence competitive advantage. According to Damanpour (1991), innovation is an introduction to equipment, systems, laws, products or services, new technological production process, a structure or administration of the new system, or a new planning program for the adoption of an organization. The contribution of innovation for competitive advantage, if it is associated with a descriptive analysis of the results, there is evidence that the indicators were considered to have the largest or most powerful contribution as a reflection of technical innovation is the innovation variable. Results of this analysis show that entrepreneurs and managers of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) embroidery in Pakis subdistrict Malang and Bangil Pasuruan need to develop or innovate with regard to products.

These results extend the study proposed by Dewi (2006) concluded that there is positive and significant correlation between innovation to excellence bersain. Suliyanto (2011) showed that the orientation of learning has a positive effect on
technical innovation and administrative innovation, technical innovation has positive effects on the competitive, but innovation administration has no positive effect on the competitive advantage.

7. RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

The implications of the research findings consist of two things which are the theoretical and practical implications.

7.1. Theoretical Implications

From the conducted research findings, it consistently shows that market orientation and innovation influence the competitive advantage. The implications can be explained as follows: The implications is associated with the effect of market orientation on competitive advantage is consistently expanding the study of the Dewi (2006) that there is a significant positive effect between market orientation on competitive advantage. Zhou, et al (2009) showed that the greater the customer orientation, more and more companies are able to develop a competitive advantage based on innovation and market differentiation. Suhendri (2009) showed that the orientation of the market, the quality of human resources and marketing areas management can create competitive advantage.

7.2. Practical Implications

The practical implications of this research are as follows: (a) Entrepreneurs and managers of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) embroidery in Pakis subdistrict Malang and Pasuruan Bangil need to streamline the programs that are used to meet customers’ needs. (b) Entrepreneurs and managers of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) embroidery in Pakis subdistrict Malang and Bangil Pasuruan need to develop or innovate with regard to the product.

7.3. Research Limitations

In general, this research has tried to answer the formulation and research purposes, but there are limitations to this study such as: (1) The study has only been done on small and medium enterprises (SMEs) embroidery in Pakis subdistrict Malang and Bangil Pasuruan. Therefore, there is only an interpretation of the leader and have not been able to represent the condition of the entire small and medium enterprises (SMEs) embroidery in Pakis subdistrict Malang and Bangil Pasuruan. (2) The results of this study is the perception of the leader of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) embroidery at the time of data collection, thus, it can change any time for different circumstances, especially with regard to the studied variables.

8. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

8.1. Conclusion

Market orientation affects the competitive advantage which is an indicator of competitor orientation which is considered to have the largest or most powerful contribution as a reflection of market orientation variable. These results can be explained that entrepreneurs and managers of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) embroidery in Pakis subdistrict Malang and Bangil Pasuruan will gain a competitive advantage if they will achieve competitive advantage. If the company has the ability to monitor competitor

Innovation affects on the competitive advantage which is an indicator of technical innovation that are considered to have the largest or most powerful contribution as a reflection of the innovation variable. These results can be explained that entrepreneurs and managers of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) embroidery in Pakis subdistrict Malang and Bangil Pasuruan will gain a competitive advantage if they are able to develop or innovate with regard to generate new products.

8.2. Suggestion

In order to gain a competitive advantage, then, entrepreneurs and managers of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) embroidery in Pakis subdistrict Malang and Bangil Pasuruan should develop marketing strategies through the following steps: (a) Embroidery entrepreneurs always pay attention on the orientation of the market by focusing on the ability to monitor competitors. (b) Developing or making innovation related to new products.

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