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COULD INDEPENDENT BOARD, BOARD MEETING, AUDIT COMMITTEE, AND RISK COMMITTEE IMPROVE THE ASSET QUALITY AND OPERATIONAL PERFORMANCE? A STUDY OF LISTED BANKS IN INDONESIA

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - This study examines the impact of independent board of directors, board meeting, audit committee, and risk committee on bank practise in Indonesia.

Methodology - Asset quality is measured by non-performing loans (NPL), and operational performance is measured by operational expense ratio (BOPO). While, as independent variables we used some good corporate governance variables including independent board (IB), the annual board meeting (BM), the percentage of annual board of director meeting attendance, the annual board-executive meeting (BEM), the percentage of annual board-executive meeting attendance, Audit Committee (AC), Audit Committee Meeting (ACM), the percentage of annual audit committee meeting attendance, Risk Committee (RC), Risk Committee Meeting (RCM), and the percentage of annual risk committee meeting attendance. The data are listed banks in Indonesian Capital Market during 2013-2015 using unbalanced panel data two stage least square (2SLS) regression.

Findings- The findings reveal that independent board will improve the prudence principal of the bank. While the board of directors meeting will enhance the operational performance of the bank.In addition, the number of the audit committee will make better operational performance, while the number of meeting will improve the non-performing loan.

Conclusion- Regarding these results the central bank and also the other stakeholders could maintain the role of the independent board of directors as well as the number of high quality annual meeting of the board. In addition, this study also reveals the role of the audit committee in banking business. This study supports the agency theory that monitoring activity will make the firm better performance.

Keywords: Audit committee**,** independent board, risk committee,non-performing loan, operational expense ratio.
JEL Codes: G21, G30, G34

1. INTRODUCTION

Many academicians are interested to conduct study examining the impact of good corporate governance on the firm performance (Mashayekhi and Bazaz, 2008; Munisi and Randoy, 2013; Al-Najjar, 2014; Zagorchev and Gao, 2015; Balachandran and Faff, 2015; Subramanian, 2015; Abdallah and Ismail, 2016; Akbar *et al.*, 2016; Ararat, Black and Yurtoglu, 2016; Chauhan, Lakshmi and Dey, 2016; Prommin *et al.*, 2016). Good corporate governance could reduce the agency cost and make better protection for shareholder againts uncertainty in the future (Balachandran and Faff, 2015). Moreover, some studies try to find the attributes regarding the corporate governance in developing countries. The differences condition in political, economic, technological and cultural on each developing country could make a unique corporate governance behaviour in compare to developed country (Mulili and Wong, 2011). This one of the reason why examining good corporate governance impact on firm performance is still attracted among the scholar.

The recent research suggests more research good corporate governance in the banking sector (Claessens and Yurtoglu, 2013) in order to develop corporate governance in the others sector. Bank provides an important role as the agent of another stakeholder. Then, enhancing the corporate governance of banks may be effective in improving overall

governance. Moreover, banking sector as the main sources of a financial intermediary is important for the long run economic development in ASEAN regional countries (Pradhan *et al.*, 2014). Yet, the governance mechanism in the banking industry is different with other industry. In practise, it will more focus on ownership structure and governance, and internal governance mechanisms (Tan, 2014).

In Indonesia, the corporate governance regulation in banking industry starts in 2006. The regulation is updated in 2013 (Sentral, 2013). According to the regulation that a bank has to hire at least 50% of the independent board of director, make the bodies under the board of directors, i.e.audit committee, risk monitoring committee, and the remuneration and nomination committee. The bank has to release annual report including reporting the number of meeting and attendance report of the board of directors(Indonesia, 2006). Then, as long as we know only few study aims to examine the impact of good corporate governance in banking in Indonesia. One study findings reveal that return on equity (ROE) and Size have a significant negative relationship to GCG index. While, return on asset(ROA) and fixed asset variables have a significant positive relationship to GCG index(Markonah, Cahaya and Riwayati, 2016). Meanwhile, one study mentioned that the board of directors have a negatif and insignificant effect on return on assets (ROA). Independent board has a positif and insignificant effect on return on assets (ROA). The corporate governance and leverage have simultaneously effect on return on assets (ROA) of the banking company (Hamidah, Purwati and Mardiyati, 2013). In order to extend the previous study examining the good corporate governance (GCG) in the banking sector in Indonesia, we will explore the impact of GCG on asset quality and operational performance. We hope it will shed light on the better banking industry in Indonesia.

The structure of this paper is designed as follows. The second section is literature review and hypothesis development. We will discuss on methodology in the third section and present research results and discussion on the fourth section. The last part is the conclusion of the findings including the suggestion for future research agenda.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Examining the bank performance is one of the attractive topics in finance due to the important role of the bank in economics development. The recent study noted that that non-performing loan (NPL) and operational expense ratio(BOPO)are two crucial variables in explaining the bank performance in Indonesia (Chou & Buchdadi, 2016). Meanwhile, the study exploring the impact of GCG on bank performance in Kenya indicates that better corporate governance leads to better firm performance(Mangunyi, 2011). In addition, one study mentioned globally diversified firms with higher quality corporate governance perform better and are traded at higher values. The quality of GCG implementation variables is measured by the board of directors quality, audit committee quality, and compensation committee quality (Salama and Putnam, 2013). Trying to modified both findings, in this study we will examine the impact of GCG variables on NPL and BOPO. Asset quality of the bank is measured by NPL. This variable also commonly used to measured bank efficiency. Bad management of the bank affects the process of granting loans that might lead to higher NPL (Arafat *et al.*, 2013). While operation expense ratio is also a measurement of banking efficiency. The lower the ratio of operating expenses to total assets, the more efficient a financial institution is (Staikouras, Mamatzakis and Koutsomanoli-Filippaki, 2008). So, in this study the firm performance used acutally a measurement of banking efficiency. In addition, we also used the asset as the control variabel which is commonly employed in corporate governance research (Tao and Hutchinson, 2013)

2.1 Effects of Independent Board of Directors on Asset Quality and Operational Performance

The independent director will have a better monitoring role in the firm.They will bring their connection and expertise to make the firm have the better achievement(Mashayekhi and Bazaz, 2008; Al-Najjar, 2014; Müller, 2014; Duru, Iyengar and Zampelli, 2015). In addition, We noted that board independence and number board meeting variables are positive significant to the bank performance(Liang, Xu and Jiraporn, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2015; Zhu *et al.*, 2016; Chou and Buchdadi, 2017)For examining the impact of the independent board, we modified the variable definition used by Duru et al. (2015). Despite we use the proportion of independent board for measuring the independent board variable, we use the natural logarithmic of the independent board as it used in Duru et al. (2015) for measuring board size. The reason for modifying this variable is regarding the regulation that the proportion of independent board for the bank is at least 50% (Indonesia, 2006). Then, we got the variability of this proportion is relative not high. So, we prefer to use the number of the independent board which has more variability among the bank.

Even though we found one study (Cavaco *et al.*, 2017) argue independent board is negatively correlated with operating performance; we propose the positive association regarding the board of directors in banking have to pass fit and proffer test conduct by the central bank. Then, the board of directors will have the skills and knowledge needed in the banking industry. Considering these results, we posit the first hypotheses as follow:

H1: Board independence will negativelyassociated with NPL

H2: Board independence will negativelyassociated with BOPO

2.2 Effect of Board of Directors Meeting on Asset Quality and Operational performance

One of the easiest ways to evaluate the board performance is counted their attendance at the board meeting. The more meeting they have, the more intense they do their role in monitoring and advice the firm. Bank Indonesia regulation use the attendance record as the proxy that the board member has adequate time to play the role of the board of director (Indonesia, 2006). In addition, from the previous research we noted from Chou, Chung, and Yin (2013) that board meeting has a positive impact on the firm performance. However, it is mentioned that the board should be at the meeting by themselves not by the representative.

Chou, Chung, and Yin (2013) examine the board meeting variable by using two proxies. The first proxy is the percentage of board meetings attended by a director him/herself and the second is the percentage of board meetings attended by representatives authorized by a director. Meanwhile, the regulation of Bank Indonesia stated that at least the board of director makes 4 (four) meetings annually which at least 2 (two) times attended by the whole member of the board of directors (Indonesia, 2006). From the annual report of the bank, we noted there is three information of board meeting on it. The first is the number of meeting internally of the board of director. The second is the number of meeting board of director with a board of executive. The last is the attendance level of both kind meeting mentioned before. Then, in this study we propose two proxies for these two kinds of board meetings. Inspired from Chou, Chung, and Yin (2013), we use the percentage of board attendance of internal board and board-executive meeting. Regarding the results of previous studies, we posit the hyphotheses as folow:

H3: Board of directors meeting variable will negativelyassociated with NPL.

H4: Board of directors meeting variable will negativelyassociated with BOPO.

H5: Board of directors-Executive meeting variable will negativelyassociated with bank performance NPL.

H6: Board of directors-Executive meeting variable will negativelyassociated with BOPO.

H7: The percentage attendance of board of directors meeting variable will negativelyassociated with NPL.

H8: The percentage attendance of board of directors meeting variable will negativelyassociated with BOPO.

H9: The percentage attendance of board of directors-Executive meeting variable will negativelyassociated with NPL.

H10: The percentage attendance of board of directors-Executive meeting variable will negativelyassociated with BOPO.

2.3 Effect of Committee on Asset Quality and Operational Performance

According to the bank Indonesia regulation, board of directors of the bank have to organize at least 3 committees, i.e. audit committee, risk monitoring committee, and remuneration and nomination committee (Indonesia, 2006). Both audit committee and risk monitoring committee have to build by hiring independent member that has no relationship to the bank. We noted some research examining the committee under the board of director body such as Tao and Hutchinson (2013) found that the composition of the risk and compensation committees is positively associated with risk, which, in turn, is associated with firm performance. Meanwhile, Salim; Arjomandi; and Seufert (2016) found that committee meetings have robustly significant and positive effects on efficiency. In addition, Munisi and Randoy (2013) mentioned that for publicly listed companies across Sub-Saharan African countries the audit committee sub-indices are associated positively and significantly with accounting performance. However, the audit committee sub-indices are associated negatively and significantly with market valuation. In this study, the audit committee sub-indices are including the independence of committee and reporting of the committee meeting. So, in this study we will examine the impact to firm performance similar way as board of directors meeting variable. Tao and Hutchinson (2013) used committee characteristic (size, the proportion of independent member, experience, and activity) for this variable. Meanwhile, Salim; Arjomandi; and Seufert (2016) used committee meeting for explaining the bank efficiency. So, we will use 3 (three) proxies for these three committee bodies. The first is a number of committee member, the second is the number of annual committee meetings, and the last is the percentage of committee meeting attendance. Then, the hypothesis build in this model are:

H11: The number of audit committee member will negatively associated with NPL.

H12: The number of audit committee member will negatively associated with BOPO.

H13:The number of annual audit committee meeting will negatively associated with NPL.

H14:The number of annual audit committee meeting will negatively associated with BOPO.

H15:The percentage of attendance of annual audit committee meeting will negatively associated with NPL.

H16:The percentage of attendance of annual audit committee meeting will negatively associated with BOPO.

H17: The number of risk committee member will negatively associated with NPL.

H18: The number of risk committee member will negatively associatedBOPO.

H19:The number of annual risk committee meeting will negatively associated with NPL.

H20:The number of annual risk committee meeting will negatively associated with BOPO.

H21:The percentage of attendance of annual risk committee meeting will negatively associated with NPL.

H22:The percentage of attendance of annual risk committee meeting will negatively associated with BOPO.

3. METHODOLOGY

The data are obtained from the annual report of listed bank in Indonesia Capital Market during 2013 – 2015.

We build the equation models using two stage least squares (2SLS) method. Some research mentioned that the endogenity problems could be solved by applying this model (Schultz, Tan and Walsh, 2010; Al-Najjar, 2014) .

The equation models for this study are:

$$Performance_{i,t} = \alpha + \beta_1 \cdot LNAsset_{i,t} + \beta_2 \cdot GCGVariables_{i,t} + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$

Where i indexes the bank, and t indexes the year (2013-2105). Performance is measured by non- performing loan (NPL) and operational expense ratio (BOPO).

4. RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

The results of descriptive statistic test on table 1 reveal that the samples have a big span of asset value as shown that asset average is IDR 108.891.306, 31 million with the standar deviation IDR 202,045,567.40 million. The biggest bank has IDR 910.063.409 million on asset value, while the smallest bank only has IDR 745,647 million on asset value. Furthermore, the samples on average have good non-performing loan ratio (NPL) and operating expense ratio (BOPO). The value of average NPL is 2.2%1 which is lower than 5%, the standard value of good bank according to central bank regulation. The value of average BOPO is 86.01% that is also better the criterion released by thecentral bank reference (lower than 88.5%) (Direktorat Kredit, BPR, 2011).

Table 1: Descriptive Statistic

	N	Mean	Median	Stdev	Min	Max
Asset (million IDR)	114	108,891,306.31	21,021,634.50	202,045,567.40	745,647.00	910,063,409.00
NPL	114	2.21%	1.94%	2.05%	0.00%	12.28%
BOPO	114	86.01%	87.83%	17.76%	9.27%	173.80%
IB	107	2.72	3.00	0.86	1.00	5.00
BM	94	14.28	8.00	14.60	3.00	64.00
BEM	70	12.01	12.00	7.87	2.00	38.00
%BMAtt	88	86.98%	91.83%	14.35%	50.00%	100.00%
%BEMAtt	62	84.98%	89.00%	14.40%	39.29%	100.00%
AC	108	3.91	4.00	1.10	3.00	8.00
ACM	105	12.57	11.00	8.41	2.00	43.00
%ACMAtt	93	89.62%	92.65%	12.83%	44.52%	100.00%
RC	106	4.21	4.00	1.39	2.00	8.00
RCM	103	9.49	7.00	6.78	2.00	35.00
%RCMAtt	92	89.21%	93.32%	12.51%	45.70%	100.00%

Asset in IDR million, We do not have the balance number of data regarding not all information is provided in the annual report.

In addition, the regulation of central bank noted that the independent board of direcors hired should be at least 50% of the board of directors member. Moreover, the bank has to hire at least 3 people as the board of directors(Sentral, 2013). We can note from table 1 that on average the number of independen board of direcors is around 3 which around 46.7% banks have two independent directors and 51.4% has more than 2 peopleindependent board of directors. Furhermore, in accordance with the central bank regulation the board of directors has to make 4 (four) annual meetings that at least 2 (two) times attended by the whole member of the board of directors. Then, we can note from table 1 that listed bank in Indonesia obey the regulation of the central bank which the banks have around 14 times annual meeting with the attendance level more than 80%. Furthermore, the regulation of bank central regarding the committe member it is noted that at least one independent board of director and one independent professional join in audit committee and risk

committee. The proportion of independent personel should be more than 50%. The regulation does not mention the minimal annual meeting should be conducted as it will depend on the need of each bank. Yet, The meeting could be held whether more than 50% members attend the meeting include one independent board and an independent party(Sentral, 2013). The result of descriptive test table 1 reveals that the audit committee member is around four persons with average annual meeting 12 times and the attendance level 89% annually. While the risk committee member is around four persons with average annual meeting 9 times and the attendance level 89% annually.Furthermore, we conducted some preliminary test of the data multicollinearity test, test for normality, heteroscedasticity test, autocorrelation test, Chow test, and Housman test.We conclude that there is no multicollinearity among the independent variables as it shown in table 2 all the absolut value of Pearson's correllation are less than 0.9.

Table 2: Multicollinearity Test Results

	IB	*BM*	*% BM Att*	*BEM*	*% BEM Att*	*AC*	*ACM*	*% ACM Att*	*RC*	*RCM*	*% RCM Att*
IB	1,000										
BM	0,438	1,000									
% BM Att	-0,353	-0,372	1,000								
BEM	0,217	0,519	-0,473	1,000							
% BEM Att	-0,108	-0,104	0,644	-0,267	1,000						
AC	0,432	0,353	-0,216	0,297	0,013	1,000					
ACM	0,449	0,413	-0,356	0,363	-0,221	0,139	1,000				
% ACM Att	-0,139	-0,107	0,341	-0,398	0,426	-0,318	-0,261	1,000			
RC	0,535	0,100	-0,043	0,017	0,194	0,649	0,142	-0,127	1,000		
RCM	0,379	0,572	-0,487	0,494	-0,394	0,206	0,671	-0,202	0,002	1,000	
% RCM Att	-0,225	-0,112	0,279	-0,411	0,290	-0,240	-0,165	0,618	-0,193	-0,133	1,000

4.2. Discussion

We provide the results of a regressionin table 3. From the first model, we noted that the independent board of directors have a negatif impact to the NPL. The more independent board of directors hired, the lower NPL on the bank portfolio. It means the argument that the outsider board of directors will bring the skill, knowledge, networking, and expertise to make better business is valid for the bank in Indonesia (Mashayekhi and Bazaz, 2008; Al-Najjar, 2014; Müller, 2014; Zhu *et al.*, 2016). It is reasonable as the regulation in Indonesia noted that an independent board of director have to pass the fit and proper test by the Financial Service Autorithy (OJK). The test aims to guarantee the board of director have integrity, good reputation, and competency in all aspect of the banking business.

Furthermore, the findings also reveal the board of director meeting and also the attendance level of the member has a good impact on operational performance. Both of variables will reduce the operational cost. Liang et al. (2013) mentioned that the frequency of meeting is an indication of the proactive board of directors. They supervise and do the advisory role to the top management regularly and hopefully make the better performance. This study aligns with the result of liang et al. on the relationship between board meeting and expense. While the result that board meeting will improve the quality of asset (measured by NPL) is statistically not significant. Moreover, this study also supports the argument that board of director meeting will have a positive impact whether the meeting is attended by the board of directors by themselves (Chou, Chung and Yin, 2013).

In model 3 and model 4, we try to examine the impact of the audit committee and risk committee to bank performance. The results reveal the important role of the audit committee. The audit committee variable will improve the operating perfrmance, and the audit committee meeting will enhance the asset quality. These results broaden the previous research that mentioned audit committee have a positive impact on accounting based performance (Munisi and Randoy, 2013). Yet, this study could not found the significant relationship of risk committee to the performance. Regarding the value of F test of model 3 and model 4, it needs further research to confirm these findings. Probably, the future research could use longer window period as well as the number of the bank.

Table 3: Regression Result

Variable	**NPL**	**BOPO**	**Variable**	**NPL**	**BOPO**
Model	Fixed	Fixed	Model	Random	Random
N	53	53	N	92	92
Constant	-0.168	-0.534	Constant	0.067	1.515
LN ASSET	0.018 *(0.915)*	0.093 *(1.006)*	LN ASSET	-0.002 *(-0.788)*	-0.036 *(-2.395)***
LN IB	**-0.046** ***(-3.262)******	0.085 *(1.284)*	**LN AC**	-0.030 *(-0.237)*	**-0.139** ***(-2.538)*****

LN BM	-0.014 *(-1.675)*	**-0.088** ***(-2.240)****	LN ACM	0.001 *(0.205)*	0.000 *(0.006)*
LN BEM	-0.003 *(-0.209)*	0.026 *(0.426)*	**% ACM Att.**	**-0.042** ***(-2.321)****	-0.063 *(-0.671)*
% BM Att	-0.031 *(-1.008)*	**-0.300** ***(-2.066)****	LN RC	0.008 *(0.901)*	0.053 *(1.214)*
% BEM Att	-0.009 *(-0.228)*	0.132 *(0.720)*	LN RCM	0.005 *(1.115)*	0.034 (1.338)
			% RCM Att	0.003 *(0.232)*	0.085 *(1.052)*
R^2	0.917	0.971	R^2	0.095	0.148
Adj. R^2	0.747	0.911	Adj. R^2	0.002	0.077
F	5.399***	16.388***	F	1.269	2.096*
Normality Test	39.948***	100.188***	Normality Test	430.840***	618.542
Autocorrellation Test	3.045	0.000	Autocorrellation Test	2.559	0.781
Heteroscedasticsity Test	11.702*	4.866	Heteroscedasticsity Test	9.752	7.433

***, **, * = significance at the1%, 5%, and 10% respectively. Non-performing Loan (NPL) is the ammount money of loan that is in default or clse to default. Operational expense ratio (BOPO) is a ratio between operational expense and operational revenue. LNASSET is the natural logarithmic of Total Asset. LNIB is the natural logarithmic of independent board member in the board of directors body. LNBM is the natural logarithmic of the number of board of directors annual meeting. LNBEM is the natural logarithmic of the number of annual meeting among the board of directors and executives. %BM Att is the percentage of board meeting attended by the board of directors. % BEM Att is the percentage of board and executives meeting attended by the board of directors. LNAC is the natural logarithmic of the number of audit Committee member. LNACM is the natural logarithmic of the number of the annual meeting of audit Committee. % ACM Att is the percentage of audit committee meeting attended by the member of risk committee. LNRC is the natural logarithmic of the number of Risk Committee member. LNRCM is the natural logarithmic of the number of the annual meeting of Risk Committee. % RCM Att is the percentage of RiskCommittee meeting attended by the member of risk committee Jargue-Berra test for examining the normality distibution of the residual. The results show that not all the model has normality distribution. Then, we assume that whether the data point is greater than 30, then the data would approximately follow normally distribution.

5. CONCLUSIONS

This study discuss about the impact of independent board of directors, board meeting, audit committee, and risk committee on bank practise in Indonesia. The findings reveal that independent board will improve the prudence principal of the bank. While the board of directors meeting will enhance the operational performance of the bank. Regarding these results, the central bank and also the other stakeholders could maintain the role of independent board of directors as well as the number of high quality annual meeting of the board. In addition, this study also reveals the role of audit committee in banking business. The number of audit committee will make better operational performance, while the number of meeting will improve the non-performing loan. This study supports the agency theory that monitoring activity will make the firm better performance.Yet, this study does not provide a positive impact from risk committee. We encourage further research to complement these findings to confirm and make a comprehensive findings about the role of board independence, board meeting, and committee in banking industry, especially from the perspective of developing country.

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EXAMINING NEW OPPORTUNITIES IN CHICAGO'S RESTAURANT INDUSTRY: THE CORRELATION BETWEEN SOCIAL MEDIA AND CHINESE EATING HABITS IN CHICAGO

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - This study was designed to investigate the relationship between social media usage and the eating habits of the Chinese population in the Chicago area. To be more precise, this study provides insight into what kinds of social media affect the Chinese diet in Chicago. The social media sites included Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, Myspace, LinkedIn, and Chinese social media such as WeChat.

Methodology - A self-administered online questionnaire survey was designed and used to examine the relationship between the eating habits and social media usage of the Chinese population in the Chicago area. This study involved the use of a survey that contained three sections. The first section was a demographic questionnaire. The second section was a food-related behavior questionnaire based on eating habits studies. The third section was a social media usage questionnaire constructed from consumer behavior research. The participants were Chinese individuals who were 18 years or older and living in the Chicago area. The data were collected through an online self-administered survey www.surveymonkey.com. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to analyze the data, and an alpha significance level of 0.05 was used.

Findings- Based on the data from the current study, the Chinese population in Chicago is strongly affected by Chinese culture, as 90% speak Chinese and 53.7% eat Chinese food every day. The researcher found that Chinese diet change in Chicago is significantly influenced by the number of reviews from non-Chinese friends on social media, and diet change has a significant positive correlation with the number of non-Chinese friends. This confirms that the constructs of interaction and electric word-of-mouth (eWOM) of social media marketing have a significantly positive effect on purchase intentions (Chen, Leu, & Su, 2016). In this research, the number of food reviews and non-Chinese friends represented social interaction and eWOM level on social media. The results from this research indicate that the market opportunity among the Chinese population in the Chicago area is promising. Therefore, it is worthwhile for non-Chinese restaurant owners in Chicago to invest in and develop specialized marketing strategies to attract Chinese customers.

Conclusion- Based on a quantitative analysis, this research showed that for the Chinese population in the Chicago area, the more non-Chinese friends they had, the more likely it was that their eating habits would change. This supports that interactions with friends on social media is a contributing factor to changes in eating habits.

Keywords: Eating habits, social media, restaurants, Chinese food, electric word-of mouth.
JEL Codes: M30, K11

1. INTRODUCTION

The complex question of why people eat is a research topic that can be used to investigate the relationship between lifestyle and culture background. Many professionals and policymakers advocate for changes in Americans' food practices for health, safety, or environmental reasons, yet success in achieving these planned changes is often elusive (Bisogni, Connors, Devine, & Sobal, 2002).

As a country with large immigrant population, the United States is rich in ethnic and cultural diversity, especially when it comes to food culture. Extensive research has been conducted into the eating habits of different racial groups in the United States. From the past decades of research into ethnic culture in the United States, few scholars have focused on people's eating behaviors.

As eating habits are a complex human behavior, the factors that influence people's diets are also complicated. Lee (1998) summarized the eight categories of factors that influence people's eating habit. They include social, economic status, family structure, friends, media, knowledge value beliefs, demographic features, and ethnicity (Lee, 1998).

Social media entered peoples' daily lives approximately 10 years ago, and has become an important influence on users' positive or negative attitudes toward a purchase decision (Akar& Topcu, 2011). Social media influences people's attitudes and decision-making when it comes to consumer behavior. With the development of Web 2.0 and Web 3.0, the use of online social media has become an accepted part of daily life. Social media, especially social networking sites, provides a virtual space for people to communicate through the Internet, which also might be an important agent of consumer socialization (Vinerean, Cetina, Dumitrescu, & Tichindelean, 2013). For instance, Mohr (2013) indicated that social media encourages customers to interact with luxury fashion brands. The emergence of social media has boosted interest in word-of-mouth and viral marketing among luxury brand marketers (Mohr, 2013). Also, Witkemper, Lim, and Waldburger (2012) indicated social media is a low cost and timely communication tool compared to traditional tools. Additionally, social media sites have been predicted to grow and maintain relationships between athletes and fans (Witkemper et al.,2012). Social media has transformed the interactions and communications among individuals throughout the world, causing people to be able to interact in a virtual space. In recent years, social media has affected many aspects of human communication, as well as affecting how businesses operate. Social networking has become a daily practice in some users' lives (Edosomwan, Prakasan, Kouame, Watson, & Seymour, 2011). People spend more time on social media, and social media has influenced people's daily behaviors, especially consumer behaviors.

In the 2010 U.S. Census report, the Chinese population was noted to be the largest detailed Asian group. Those who reported Chinese alone or in any combination, the largest comprehensive Asian group, was four million. There were 3.3 million people who reported Chinese alone with no additional details (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

The population of Illinois is 12,868,747 and the Chinese population is 117,600 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014c). Chicago is the third most populous city in the United States, after New York City and Los Angeles, with 2.7 million residents (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014a). In the Chicago metropolitan area (Chicago-Naperville-Joliet, IL-IN-WI Metro Area), there are 104,667 Chinese individuals (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014b).

In summary, Chinese consumer behavior and Chinese culture are important components of the social, economic, and daily life in Chicago, which is a fast growing big city. The Chinese market in Chicago is also attractive to investors. According to the 2010 Census, the median family income of the Chinese population in the Chicago area was $82,948. A total of 56.1% of the population is in management, professional, or related occupations, and 58.7% of the population has a bachelor's degree or higher. Reseearchers developed the following Research Questions

1. Is there a significant relationship between social media usage (frequency and duration) and changes in the Chinese diet in the Chicago area?
2. Is there a significant relationship between the number of non-Chinese friends' reviews on social media and changes in the Chinese diet in the Chicago area?
3. Is there a significant relationship between the number of non-Chinese friends on social media and changes in the Chinese diet in the Chicago area?

The following hypotheses were developed:

$H1_0$: There is no relationship between social media usage and the eating habits of Chinese people in the Chicago area.

$H1_a$: There is a relationship between social media usage and the eating habits of Chinese people in the Chicago area.

$H2_0$: There is no relationship between the number of non-Chinese friends' reviews on social media and the Chinese diet in Chicago.

$H2_a$: There is a significant association between the number of non-Chinese friends' reviews on social media and the Chinese diet in Chicago.

$H3_0$: There is no relationship between the number of non-Chinese friends on social media and the Chinese diet in Chicago.

$H3_a$: There is a relationship between the number of non-Chinese friends on social media and the Chinese diet in Chicago.

This study involved the use of a survey that contained three sections. This research presented a study into the impact of social media usage on the eating consumer behavior of the Chinese population in the Chicago area using a quantitative approach. The researcher studied the patterns and features of how Chinese individuals in the Chicago area used social media. The researcher also studied the demographic features of the Chinese population in the Chicago area, considering their potential impact on eating habits. Changes in eating habits were categorized by the frequency of food eaten (Chinese food or non-Chinese food), types of people with whom Chinese Chicagoans dined (Chinese friends and non-Chinese friends), and the frequency of dining in different kinds of restaurants (Chinese restaurant and non-Chinese restaurant). This study involved the use of a questionnaire to answer the research questions, addressing the following demographic factors: age, time in the United States, education level, and individual income level. Regarding social media usage, the questions surrounded the time spent on social media and frequency of social media use. For this purpose, the researcher surveyed Chinese Chicagoans with diverse backgrounds. The study received 406 qualified responses, a convenience sampling strategy was used for this research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Social Media and Social Networks

In recent years, social media has been used as a marketing strategy to influence consumer's purchasing behaviors. It is hard to study social media without encountering the phrase *social networking*. Social networks have evolved over the years to the modern day variety, which uses digital media (Edosomwan et al., 2011).

The first social networking sites were created in the 1990s. Some examples include Six Degrees, BlackPlanet, Asian Avenue, and MoveOn (Edosomwan et al., 2011). From then on into the 2000s, social media received a boost in growth by the emergence of social networking sites such as Facebook, and YouTube (Edosomwan et al., 2011). Facebook had more than 500 million active users as of July of 2010 (Edosomwan et al., 2011). YouTube, founded in 2005, is the world's most famous online video sharing community. There are more 100 hours of videos updated to YouTube every minute as of January 2015. WeChat, a Chinese social networking mobile application, had 697 million active users by 2015 (Tencent Holdings, 2015). Weibo, a Chinese version of Twitter, had 46 million active users by 2012 (Sina Corporation, 2012).

The term social media refers to the use of web-based and mobile technologies to turn communication into an interactive dialog (Baruah, 2012). It provides ways to engage with other people online and create either long-term or short-term relationships (Evans, 2010).

Social networks are defined as a "web of social relationships and the characteristics of ties among people" (Berkman & Glass, 2000, p. 145). A social network perspective was adopted as an explanation for how large-group interventions work by several social network researcherss. In this view, large group interventions work because of the ability to restructure the networks of social relationships existing within organizations (Clarke, 2014; Garcia, 2008; Tenkasi & Chesmore, 2003).

2.2. Factors Influencing Eating Habits

Eating habits relate to the cultural environment. Food habits are acts accomplished repetitively for nourishment and to complete social and emotional goals (Gifft et al., 1972). Anthropologist Margaret Mead (1943) indicated "Food habits are seen as the culturally standardized set of behaviors in regard to food manifested by individuals who have been reared in a given cultural tradition. These behaviors are seen as systematically interrelated with other standardized behaviors in the same culture." (p. 21)

The factors that influence eating habits include income, education, occupation, family structure, physiological characteristics, psychology, culture, and ethnicity (Lee, 1998). The factors influencing diet can be grouped into several categories. Khan (1981) divided them into six categories: personal, socioeconomic, educational, biological/physiological/psychological, cultural/religious/regional, and extrinsic and intrinsic.

Personal factors include individual personality, appetite, mood, familiarity, level of expectation, and influence of other persons. Socioeconomic factors are family income, food costs, symbolic meanings, and social status. Biological/physiological/psychological factors include age, gender, and sex. Educational factors include the educational position of the individual or family and nutritional education. Cultural/religious/regional factors are cultural origins, religious background, beliefs, race, and geographical regions. Extrinsic factors include environment, time and seasonal

variations, and advertisement and merchandising. Intrinsic factors relate to the food, such as appearance, flavor, odor, and food preparation methods and presentation. All of these factors are related to each other and influence individual preferences.

2.3. Chinese Eating Habits in the United States

The different flavors in Chinese cuisine reflect the diverse cultural backgrounds of the post-1965 Chinese immigrants, who are very different from the early Cantonese immigrants. Coming from Guangdong Province, early Chinese immigrants had similar dietary habits (Liu & Lin, 2009). At the turn of the 20th century, Cantonese immigrants invented dishes like chop suey and generated a stream of Americanized Chinese dishes like chow mein, General Tso's chicken, egg foo yung, and paperwrapped chicken. When hundreds of chop suey houses expanded into the American food market, in 1959, New York City alone had about 750 Chinese restaurants. The Chinese restaurants became Americanized (Liu & Lin, 2009). After that, Chinese cuisine from other parts of China was brought to the United States; however, Chinese food in the United States is generally Americanized Chinese cuisine.

Historically speaking, there was never one "national cuisine" but many regional Chinese cuisines as a result of geographical differentiation and social stratification (Anderson, 2008). The cuisine has been more satisfactorily defined in the foreign global or transnational context in today's global world. In the current research, Chinese food was used to refer to the dishes served in restaurants that had the word "Chinese" in their descriptions. A Chinese restaurant can serve localized versions of Chinese food; for instance, Panda Express serves American style fast Chinese food. This food was also considered as Chinese food.

The Chinese population has distinct eating habits in the United States. As a unique cultural group, their diet changed after their arrival in United States. Because the Chinese population has a long history living in a Chinese network, they have been influenced by Chinese eating habits and traditions. People's tastes in food are shaped by their social context and relationships with other people. Pachucki (2010) found evidence that people's tastes in food are related to the tastes of the people connected to them. Tastes in food are seen to be hemophilic between spouses, friends, and siblings.

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design

The goal of this study was to describe and investigate the relationship between the eating habits and social media usage of the Chinese population in the Chicago area. This study involved the use of a survey that contained three sections. Quantitative research was appropriate to analyze the correlation between Chinese eating habits in Chicago and possible influential factors that have already been identified by previous research, but not deeply researched. The data were collected through an online self-administered survey through SurveyMonkey. The researchers sent an e-mail invitation with permission to members of the Chinese Christian Fellowship of Chicago (CCFC) and Chinese Student & Scholars Association of DePaul University (CSSA-DePaul) in Chicago. The members of these groups completed the survey online.

3.2. Participants and Selection

The appropriate sample population size was 450 people considering the potential for missing responses. A convenience sampling strategy was used for this research. Convenience sampling is used to select the cases at hand until the sample reaches a desired, designated size (Boxill, Chambers, & Wint, 1997). This research was based on a convenience sample from the north suburbs, west suburbs, and the City of Chicago. Many have been in Chicago for more than 5 years. This sample group represented Chinese individuals who tend to stay in the United States for short duration. A self-administered online questionnaire survey was designed and used to examine the relationship between the eating habits and social media usage of the Chinese population in the Chicago area.

3.3. Descriptive Statistics

The study received 406 responses. Some of the questions in the survey did not receive valid answers from a subset of participants. However, every question received at least 317 valid answers. On average, each question received 345 valid answers. The question on gender received 362 valid answers, which included 160 males (44.2%) and 202 females (55.8%). The question on birthplace received answers from all 406 participants. According to the answers, 79.6% were born in China and 20.4% were born in the United States. A total of 90% spoke Chinese and 53.7% ate Chinese food every day.

Table 1 presents the age distribution of the research sample. The question on age received 363 valid answers out of a total of 406 participants. According to the valid answers, participants' ages ranged from 18 to over 60. Participants were categorized into nine segments, each of which had a range of 5 years. The largest group, representing 27.75% of the sample of Chinese Chicagoans, ranged from 25 to 29 years. The second largest segment ranged in age from 18 to 24,

representing 17% of the sample. The smallest segment of the sample ranged in age from 55 to 59, representing 3% of the participants. The other segments represented proportions of the whole sample ranging from 3.8% to 14.6%

Table 1: Age Distribution of Participants

Age range		*N*	Valid %
Valid	18-24	62	17.0
	25-29	100	27.7
	30-34	53	14.6
	35-39	43	11.8
	40-44	35	9.6
	45-49	21	5.8
	50-54	24	6.6
	55-59	11	3.0
	60 up	14	3.8
	Total	363	100.0
Missing	System	42	
Total		406	

Table 2 presents the distribution of participants' time spent in the United States. The question regarding time spent in the United States received 359 valid answers out of a total of 406 responses. According to the valid answers, participants were categorized into six segments, each of which represented a different duration of stay in the United States. The largest group had been in the United States for 2 to 5 years, accounting for 28.7% of the sample. The second largest group had been in the United States for over 20 years, making up 20.9% of the participants. The smallest group had been in the United States for 16 to 19 years, representing 7.5% of the participants.

Table 2: Duration in United States

Years in United States		*N*	Valid %
Valid	0-2	53	14.8
	2-5	103	28.7
	6-9	62	17.3
	10-15	39	10.9
	16-19	27	7.5
	20 up	75	20.9
	Total	359	100.0
Missing	System	47	
Total		406	

Table 3 presents the regions in Chicago in which the participants reported living. The question on region received 356 valid answers out of 406 total responses. According to the valid answers, participants were categorized into five groups. The largest group was the participants who lived in the "City" area, representing 33.4% of the sample. The smallest group was the participants who lived in the "South suburbs" area, accounting for 3.4% of the sample. The "North suburb" and "West suburb" groups represented 21.6% and 27.2% of the sample, respectively. Most of the participants lived in the first four areas listed in Table 3.

Table 3: Geographical Distribution of Participants

Geographical Location		*N*	Valid %
Valid	Chinatown and BP	51	14.3
	City	119	33.4
	North suburb	77	21.6
	West suburb	97	27.2
	South suburb	12	3.4
	Total	356	100.0
Missing	System	50	
Total		406	

Table 4 presents the participants' education levels. The question on education level received 365 valid answers out of 406 total responses. According to the valid answers, participants were divided into five segments, each of which represented

an education level. The largest group of participants possessed a master's degree, representing 48.5% of the sample. The second largest group possessed a bachelor's degree, accounting for 22.6% of the sample. Finally, 16.3% of the participants had a doctoral degree.

Table 4: Education Level of Participants

Education Level		*N*	Valid %
Valid	High school	34	9.4
	Associate degree	12	3.3
	Bachelor degree	82	22.6
	Master degree	176	48.5
	Doctorate degree	59	16.3
	Total	363	100.0
Missing	System	43	
Total		406	

Table 5 presents the participants' individual incomes. The question on income received 356 valid answers out of 406 total responses. According to the valid answers, participants were categorized into seven income brackets. The largest group was the participants who earned less than $25,000 per year, representing 38.2% of the sample. The second largest group was the participants who earned $55,000 to $84,999 per year, representing 18.8% of the sample. Two groups each reflected 7.6% of the sample: $25,000 to $34,999 and $85,000 to $99,999. Two groups each reflected 11.2% of the sample: $35,000 to $54,999 and $10,000 to $14,9999. Only 5.3% of the participants earned over $150,000 per year.

Table 5: Individual Annual Income of Participants

Annual Income		*N*	Valid %
Valid	Less than $25,000	136	38.2
	$25,000-34,999	27	7.6
	$35,000-54,999	40	11.2
	$55,000-84,999	67	18.8
	$85,000-99,999	27	7.6
	$100,000-149,999	40	11.2
	Over $150,000	19	5.3
	Total	356	100.0
Missing	System	50	
Total		406	

Table 6 presents the participants' occupations. The question on occupation received 358 valid answers out of 406 total responses. According to the valid answers, participants were divided into 16 occupation segments. The largest group was students and scholars, which reflected 25.7% of the sample. The second largest group was the occupation of computer science, which represented 14.5% of the sample. The third largest group worked in business and finance, which made up 12.8% of the sample. Details of the other groups are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Occupations of Participants

Occupation		*N*	Valid %
Valid	Management	34	9.5
	Business and finance	46	12.8
	Computer	52	14.5
	Legal	10	2.8
	Education	29	8.1
	Arts design	21	5.9
	Medical	28	7.8
	Food	9	2.5
	Office and administration	3	.8
	Construction	3	.8
	Service	7	2.0
	Manufacturing	12	3.4
	Transportation	1	.3
	Public administration	4	1.1

	Student or scholar	92	25.7
	Homemaker	7	2.0
	Total	358	100.0
Missing	System	48	
Total		406	

3.4. Pearson Correlation Analysis

The researchers conducted Pearson correlation analysis for the three research questions based on the survey answers. Research Question 1 was: Is there a significant relationship between social media usage (frequency and duration) and changes in the Chinese diet in the Chicago area?

The researchers calculated the Pearson correlation coefficient between the time spent on social media per day and non-Chinese food intake frequency based on the survey answers. The Pearson correlation coefficient was 0.027. This small number indicates there was no significant relationship between social media usage and Chinese diet change. Research Question 2 was: Is there a significant relationship between the number of non-Chinese friends' reviews on social media and changes in the Chinese diet in the Chicago area?

The researchers calculated the Pearson correlation coefficient between non-Chinese food intake frequency and the number of non-Chinese friends' food reviews on social media based on the survey answers. The Pearson correlation coefficient was 0.316. The coefficient indicated there was a significant relationship between Chinese diet change and the number of non-Chinese friends' reviews. The positive coefficient also indicated a positive relationship—the more non-Chinese friends' reviews a Chinese Chicagoan had, the more likely his or her diet would change.

Research Question 3 was: Is there a significant relationship between the number of non-Chinese friends on social media and changes in the Chinese diet in the Chicago area?

The researchers calculated the Pearson correlation coefficient between non-Chinese food intake frequency and the number of non-Chinese friends on social media based on survey answers. The Pearson correlation coefficient was 0.217. The coefficient indicated there was a significant relationship between Chinese diet change and the number of non-Chinese friends on social media. The positive coefficient also indicated a positive relationship—the more non-Chinese friends a Chinese Chicagoan had on social media, the more likely his or her diet would change.

Table 13 presents a summary of the Pearson correlation coefficients in this study.

Table 13: Pearson Correlation Coefficient

	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	Conclusion from Correlation Coefficient
Time Spent on Social Media Per Day	0.027	No significant relationship
Number of non-Chinese Friends' Food Reviews	0.316	Significant positive relationship
Number of non-Chinese Friend on Social Media	0.217	Significant positive relationship

3.5. Hypothesis Testing

The researchers conducted *t* tests regarding the Pearson correlation coefficient in Table 13. The aim of the *t* tests was to test the null hypothesis that the correlation coefficient was 0.

H0: The Pearson correlation coefficient is zero; there is no association.

Ha: The Pearson correlation coefficient is non-zero; a non-zero correlation could exist.

The statistic was calculated as below, where *r* is the Pearson correlation coefficient as shown in Table 13.

$$t = r\sqrt{\frac{n-2}{1-r^2}}$$

The researchers calculated the Pearson correlation coefficients for three pairs of variables in Table 13, and their *t* test results are presented below:

The first *t* test was with the Pearson correlation coefficient between time spent on social media per day and Chinese diet change.

$H1_0$: The Pearson correlation coefficient between time spent on social media per day and Chinese diet change is zero. There is no association.

$H1_a$: The Pearson correlation coefficient between time spent on social media per day and Chinese diet change is non-zero. A non-zero correlation could exist between time spent on social media per day and Chinese diet change.

The Pearson correlation coefficient was 0.027 between time spent on social media per day and Chinese diet change. Inputting the *r* value into Equation 1 gives a *t* that corresponds to a *p* value of 0.618. The test failed to reject the null hypothesis. There was no linear correlation between time spent on social media per day and Chinese diet change.

The second *t* test was with the Pearson correlation coefficient between the number of non-Chinese friends' reviews and Chinese diet change.

$H2_0$: The Pearson correlation coefficient between the number of non-Chinese friends' reviews and Chinese diet change is zero. There is no association.

$H2_a$: The Pearson correlation coefficient between the number of non-Chinese friends' reviews and Chinese diet change is non-zero. A non-zero correlation could exist between the number of non-Chinese friends' reviews and Chinese diet change.

The Pearson correlation coefficient was 0.361 between the number of non-Chinese friends' reviews and Chinese diet change. Inputting the *r* value into Equation 1 gives a *t* that corresponds to a *p* value < 0.001. The test rejected the null hypothesis. There was a non-zero correlation between the number of non-Chinese friends' reviews and Chinese diet change.

The third *t* test was with the Pearson correlation coefficient between the number of non-Chinese friends on social media and Chinese diet change.

$H3_0$: The Pearson correlation coefficient between the number of non-Chinese friends on social media and Chinese diet change is zero. There is no association.

$H3_a$: The Pearson correlation coefficient between the number of non-Chinese friends on social media and Chinese diet change is non-zero. A non-zero correlation could exist between the number of non-Chinese friends on social media and Chinese diet change.

The Pearson correlation coefficient was 0.217 between the number of non-Chinese friends' reviews and Chinese diet change. Inputting the *r* value into Equation 1 gives a *t* value that corresponds to a *p* value < 0.001. The test rejected the null hypothesis. There was a non-zero correlation between the number of non-Chinese friends on social media and Chinese diet change.

Table 14: Summary

	***p* value**	***t* test result**	**Conclusion from *t* test on Pearson correlation coefficient**
Time Spent on Social Media Per Day	0.618	Fail to reject null hypothesis	no association
Number of non-Chinese Friends' Food Reviews	<0.001	Reject null hypothesis	Non-zero correlation exists
Number of non-Chinese Friends on Social Media	<0.001	Reject null hypothesis	Non-zero correlation exists

3.6. Multiple Regression Analysis

The researchers used a multiple regression analysis to evaluate the significant effects of three predictors: time spent on social media, number of non-Chinese friends' reviews, and number of non-Chinese friends. The first regression (See Tables 16 and 17) analyzed the predictors' effects without control variables. The second regression analysis (See Tables 18 and 19) added four relative demographic factors—age, time in the United States, education level, and income level—as controlled variables. Without controlling for the demographic variables, Tables 16 and 17 indicate that time spent on social media (b = 0.001, p = 0.991) was not a significant predictor of Chinese Chicagoans' diet change. This result was also confirmed by the correlation analysis. The number of non-Chinese friends' reviews (b = 0.442, p < .001) and number of non-Chinese friends (b = 0.158, p < .001) were significant predicators of Chinese Chicagoans' diet change in the full model. In addition, these results were confirmed by the correlation analysis.

Table 16: Full-Model Regression Equation Predicting Chinese Diet Change in Chicago Area I

Statistic	Value
R Square	0.147
Adjusted R Square	0.142

Table 17: Full-Model Regression Equation Predicting Chinese Diet Change in Chicago Area II

	Unstandardized Coefficients		
	B	**Std. Error**	**Sig.**
Time spent on social media	.001	.012	.991
Number of non-Chinese friends' reviews	.442	.090	< .001
Number of non-Chinese friends	.158	.039	< .001

After controlling for the relative variables of age, time in the United States, education level, and individual income, the regression analysis for predicting Chinese diet change showed similar results to the findings of the first regression analysis. Tables 18 and 19 showed that the number of non-Chinese friends' reviews (b = 0.477, p < .001) and number of non-Chinese friends (b = 0.164, p < .001) were still significant predicators in the full model. In addition, after controlling for demographic variables, age emerged as a marginally significant predictor of Chinese Chicagoans' diet change (b = -0.980, p = 0.070). The regression analysis showed no significant effects of time in the United States, education level, and individual income level for predicting Chinese Chicagoans' diet change.

Table 18: Full-Model Regression Equation Predicting Chinese Diet Change with Control Variables I

Statistic	**Value**
R Square	0.168
Adjusted R Square	0.162

Table 19: Full-Model Regression Equation Predicting Chinese Diet Change with Control Variables II

	Unstandardized Coefficients		
	B	**Std. Error**	**Sig.**
Number of non-Chinese friends' reviews	.477	.089	<0.001
Number of non-Chinese friends	.164	.039	<0.001
Age	-.980		.070
Time in United States	.029		.620
Education level	.700		.485
Individual income	.060		.253
Time spent on social media	-.016		.770

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1. Implications for Restaurant Marketing

The Chinese population in the Chicago area not only goes to Chinese restaurants, they also like to go to non-Chinese restaurants. In fact, the Chinese population in the Chicago area visits non-Chinese restaurants more often than Chinese restaurants. On average, the Chinese population in the Chicago area visits Chinese restaurants only once a week, but visits non-Chinese restaurants more often during a week. This indicates the Chinese population in the Chicago area has a strong interest in non-Chinese food. In terms of the category of non-Chinese food, the data from the survey showed the top five non-Chinese restaurants. Four served Asian food and one served American food. Additionally, the participants listed Italian food as the fifth of their favorites.

Cross-cultural research has shown that cultural differences can affect consumer information processing (Aaker & Williams, 1998), decision-making (Tse, Lee, Vertinisky, & Wehrung, 1988), and quality expectations (Donthu & Yoo, 1998). The market opportunity surrounding the population of Chinese immigrants, who have very different cultural backgrounds from other local non-Chinese consumers, is very important. The results from this research indicate that the market opportunity among the Chinese population in the Chicago area is promising. Therefore, it is worthwhile for non-Chinese restaurant owners in Chicago to invest in and develop specialized marketing strategies to attract Chinese customers.

Based on this research, the researchers had the following recommendations for non-Chinese restaurants regarding their marketing strategies geared toward the Chinese population in the Chicago area. First, the researchers recommended non-Chinese restaurants encourage their American patrons who have Chinese friends to post reviews on social media. For

example, they can encourage them to post reviews by offering online coupons. Second, the researchers recommended non-Chinese restaurants target the people who have more non-Chinese friends and the younger Chinese. These are the groups of people that are more likely to change their diets, according to the research. Third, the researchers recommended using Facebook and WeChat as platforms for marketing in social media. The research showed that the most popular social media platforms among Chinese individuals in Chicago are WeChat and Facebook. Facebook is familiar to most American companies. WeChat is a popular social media platform from China. WeChat is very different from Facebook and it is important to develop a specific strategy that is suitable for WeChat. A brief introduction of WeChat is presented here for the purpose of discussing potential marketing strategies.

WeChat is a well-known mobile social media app in China. It can be used to send voice and text messages to a friend or a group of friends. It also has"Moments" functionality, which is equivalent to posting on walls in Facebook. Additionally, business accounts can be registered for both communicating with clients and posting on "Moments." According to the research, Chinese individuals in Chicago welcome food recommendations from friends and specialized accounts for food discussions on social media. Friends, interest groups, and business accounts in WeChat are all popular and good ways to promote a restaurant. Restaurants can utilize all available functionalities that fit their marketing strategies.

Last but not the least, it should be noted that the duration and frequency of social media usage were not strongly correlated to diet change. The finding indicates that excessive marketing ads that try to cover more time in social media may not be necessary. The researchers recommended restaurants focus more on the quality of their messages or ads.

4.2. Implication for Chinese Social Media Marketing

Community identification has a significantly positive influence on consumers' community trust. Consumers' community trust can positively affect knowledge sharing and purchase intentions (Chen et al., 2016). According to the survey in this research, WeChat is the most popular social media platform among the Chinese population in Chicago. Chinese individuals in this study had a very high level of trust in this platform because of its enclosed Chinese friends' community.

As of May of 2016, WeChat had over a billion created accounts and 700 million active users with more than 70 million outside of China (Tencent Holdings, 2015). Unlike the social media platforms in the United States, Chinese social media has its own features and advantages. It includes closer relationships and an online community that provides a greater sense of security. The platform has a Chinese culture-based user interface and foundations. Additionally, it has many extension functions that U.S. social media does not have. The most important component is the integrated online payment method, which allows the individual or company to send or receive payments online.

Based on this study, the researchers provided the following suggestions to restaurants or food-related companies that would like to do business with Chinese individuals in the United States and China. First, the researchers recommended the company build a reliable and responsible official account on WeChat. This is the foundation of the company's WeChat e-commerce business. The company can realize the social media marketing and customer purchase at the same time. A reliable payment process and responsible customer service are required for every WeChat e-commerce business account. The research indicated the third specialty party has a positive influence on consumer purchase intentions. In this research, 35.44% of the participants agreed that specialized recommenders gave good recommendations on food. The company can focus on how to promote an attractive and useful advertising message on the business. Moreover, the company can provide a subjective perspective from a patron to present the advantages of the company.

Second, Moments sharing (Moments is a functionality that allows the company's official account to display postings or customers' purchase reviews) may be one of the most important phases to the company on social media marketing. The researchers suggestsed that the company encourage account subscribers to share Moments on their WeChat as a means of promoting customer interactions and the company's electric word-of mouth. According to Chen et al. (2016), the constructs of entertainment, interaction, and electric word-of-mouth of social media marketing show a significantly positive effect on community identification. Community identification increases the community's trust, which helps promote consumers' purchase intentions (Chen et al., 2016). According to the results of in this research, 85.89% of the participants agreed that friends provided good recommendations for food-related products. Only 20% of the participants agreed that advertisements on social media made good recommendations. This implies that recommendations by friends are more powerful in shifting the eating habits of the Chinese population in the Chicago area. Therefore, Moments sharing by customers of the restaurant may be one of the most powerful and valuable phases in marketing the restaurant.

Third, there are three kinds of official public accounts on WeChat: subscription account, service account, and company management account. The subscription account can only send information for marketing, the service account can use the payment platform provided by WeChat, and the company management account can be used for employees' management. The researchers suggested small businesses choose the subscription account to do their marketing based on the higher demand for marketing than for online purchases. Otherwise, the company that would like to realize the online purchase can use the service account. WeChat social media marketing is a free and efferent way to promote a business. Finding out

how to use WeChat is important for restaurant owners who have an interest in exploring the opportunity to reach the market of Chinese immigrants in the United States.

5. CONCLUSION

Culture is a complicated concept. In the United States, a diversified immigration country, different cultures influence daily life. Eating habits and related consumer behaviors are good symbols of a culture. This research quantified that eating habits and consumer behaviors change over time.

The results showed that eating habit change is hard to predict but there is a relationship between eating habits and other factors. Social media usage is a good perspective with which to investigate a specific race's particular characteristics related to food consumption.

Based on a quantitative analysis, this research showed that for the Chinese population in the Chicago area, the more non-Chinese friends they had, the more likely it was that their eating habits would change. This supports that interactions with friends on social media is a contributing factor to changes in eating habits. The results also showed that the number of food reviews from non-Chinese friends had a significantly positive relationship with the diet changes of the Chinese population in the Chicago area. Moreover, most of the Chinese population in the Chicago area considers recommendations for food-related products by friends on social media to be more valuable than recommendations from advertising. Therefore, the researchers encouraged restaurants to use social media as a platform for marketing. In particular, a marketing strategy that involves interactions among friends is more likely to be successful.

This study showed that the Chinese population in the Chicago area continues to have strong ties with their Chinese culture. Many prefer Chinese food or other Asian food, though they do have an interest in non-Chinese food. As revealed from the survey, many participants visited non-Chinese restaurants frequently. It may be promising for non-Chinese restaurant owners in the United States to explore the market of Chinese immigrants.

The strong tie to the Chinese culture was also reflected in the analysis of social media usage. The most popular social media platform among the Chinese population in the Chicago area was a Chinese-based social media platform called WeChat. The researchers encouraged restaurant owners who are interested in potential Chinese customers to develop marketing strategies that utilize the specialized feature in WeChat that involves interactions among friends.

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BRAND CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS: A REVIEW ON RELATED CONCEPTS AND EMPERICAL IMPLICATION

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- The development of research on Brand Citizenship Behaviors (BCBs) has brought about some reasonable disarray about the way of the build, and made it troublesome for everything except the most enthusiastic peruses to stay aware of advancements in this area. Theory and research on Brand Citizenship Behaviors (BCB) assume BCB as an arrangement of alluring practices that adds to the brand Performance. But the antecedents of BCB are not completely researched. This paper reviews the concept of BCB in relation with related concepts and empirical implications found in the existing knowledge sphere.

Methodology- Researchers followed literature Review as the main methodology to review the existing empirical knowledge to build conceptual content to support for the proposed research directions.

Findings- The findings provides the insights on how empirical findings being shared in literature reviews connecting the concept of Band Citizenship behavior and related concepts and implications.

Conclusion- Based on the discussion, postulate the future research directions in line with the empirical knowledge gaps found within.

Keywords: Brand citizenship behavior, brand commitment, job satisfaction, internal branding, implications.
JEL Codes: M31,M16,M12

1. INTRODUCTION

Brand citizenship behavior conduct is another idea that investigates deliberate activities and activities that are outside of the official obligations of the employees in the territory of the Organization's image. Brand citizenship behavior is, extent, based on the theory of the behavior of organizational citizenship which establishes that organizations need voluntary behavior of its employees as well as their job responsibilities (Ucanok & Karabatı, 2013). In light of the possibility of "enthusiasm to corporate" and "individual innovative behavior" proposed by Barnard (1938), this documented was established by Katz (1964). Managers should furnish customers with a consoling message of their image which is conceivable through internal branding and brand citizenship behavior lastly prompts some positive outcomes for the organization. This requires a joint effort of marketing and HR administration during the time spent branding. (Porricelli, 2014).

In theoretical and experimental reviews on organization citizenship behavior, (Podsakoff et al, 2000) have distinguished seven measurements of Organizational Citizenship behavior which include: helping conduct, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual activity, social knowledge, and self-improvement. They likewise recognized four classifications of Organizational Citizenship behavior records (Job satisfaction and Organization commitment), work highlights (satisfactory work), organizational features (intelligent gatherings) and leadership values (clarification of prospect, giving a suitable model, and strengthening the gathering objectives) (Porricelli, 2014).

Brand Citizenship Behavior is a worldwide structure that incorporates the willful choices of employees to make a few practices that are outside their official and obligatory undertakings and reinforce brand identity. (Burmann and Zeplin ,

2005) Examined the 7-dimensional guide of organizational citizenship behavior recognized by (Podsakoff et al, 2000) in the zone of marketing and hence, made the idea of brand citizenship behavior. These measurements later on were rethought by (Burmann et al., 2008) and were contracted to three measurements of readiness to help (brand acceptance), brand enthusiasm (brand advertising), and propensity for further improvement (brand development) (Porricelli, 2014).

Brand citizenship behaviors have a collective beneficial outcome on organizational functioning. Brand citizenship has been defined in the literature as a multidimensional concept that includes all positive relevant organizational behaviors of employees organizational traditional role behavior, including relevant extra-role of organization behavior, prior research of the background to the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is extensive (Jain et al., 2012); (Yi et al., 2013), but BCB is limited and there are even less attention.

However the concept of BCB and its relationship with related concepts including Internal Banding has been claimed as a notion to be further examined. This argument has been specifically mentioned with reference to different services content. (Hennayake, 2017) (Dissanayake & Neel & Jinadasa, 2017.) (Shaari et. al., 2012).Therefore this paper address to review and suggest future research directions address in to the foresaid empirical gaps.

Having said that, this paper has developed the objectives of the paper as fallows. This paper attempts to review the concept of BCB in relation with related concepts and empirical implications fund in the existing knowledge sphere and to postulate the future research directions in line with the empirical knowledge gaps found within.

This study follows literature review as its main method and accordingly, extended evaluation of empirical research works was carried out to investigate the niche of BCB. Further, special focused has been made to review the antecedents of the concept of BCB and its behavioral connections with different brand related concepts. It has organized the empirical contents validate the concept of BCB as one of the needed concept to be further examined with different contexts. Additionally, we attempt to highlight the empirical research gaps postulated by different studies to direct future studies.

Taken after by the given foundation, reserchers have sorted out the paper content with objectives, system alongside therotical review on the said topic under particular sgements to give clear discusions, understanding the different discoveries delivered by various observational reviews identified with the precursors of BCB and finnaly it has given a conlusion before displaying the recommendations for future reviews and practices.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The Literature is starting broadly with a discussion of the concept of Brand Citizenship Behavior, followed by an insight within the dimensions of Brand Citizenship behavior and antecedents of BCB, its importance, empirical gaps and investigations.

2.1.Concept of Brand Citizenship Behavior (BCB)

Brands are not just visual or enthusiastic images. A brand is an identifiable item, organization or administration, including the total delivered and experienced (Argenti and Druckenmiller, 2004). To support the corporate brand, emplyees should demonstrate a behavior that is conceptualized as a Brand Citizenship Behavior (Burmann and Zeplin, 2005).BCB suggests the “advancement of an aggregate that describe a progression of generic behaviors (brand or autonomous industry) emplyee that redesign brand personality (Burmann and Zeplin , 2005) toward the day's end, BCB delineates the purposeful behavior of demployees outside the yearnings of part and for the brand”. This incorporates the behavior that spotlights on subjects intra-organizational (like not complaining and help collaborators, without desires of rewards (organ, 1988) and additionally behavior is remotely coordinated (Burmann and Zeplin,, 2005).

The conceptualization of brand citizenship behavior is based on the concept of conduct of organizational citizenship (OCB) (Burmann and Zeplin , 2005). It is related to the behavior of employees, which is not a part of formal or rewarded function required directly by the Organization (organ, 1988). OCB is considered to have an internal focus where BCB includes the behavior which is directed to external recipients, thus, BCB is broader than the OCB. On the other hand, BCB has a focus more narrowly than the OBC by concentrating on the brand instead of organization (Burmann and Zeplin , 2005).

Brand citizenship conduct was initially presented by German researchers i.e. (Burmann and Zeplin , 2005). It was based on the hypothesis of Organization Citizenship Behavior (OCB). The behavior of employees in brand building has picked up consideration of researchers from the Western nations, for example, (Burmann and Zeplin , 2005), (Burmann et al., 2008), King and Grace (2008), and (Punjaisri and Wilson, 2007). This may lead to limited understanding about what are the reall features of employee behavior that enhance the brand performance.(Baumgarth and Schmidt, 2009; (Burmann and Zeplin, 2005). In this manner, (Burmann and Zeplin,, 2005)had presented seven employee behavior that could clarify employees brand citizenship behavior.

Basically, BCB is characterized as "the employees deliberate premise to extend various non-specific behavior practices that improve the brand identity" (Burmann and Zeplin , 2005). The scientists additionally affirmed that BCB is a measure of the representative readiness to apply additional exertion that goes past its fundamental capacities i.e. anticipating the brand citizenship behavior. As per (Burmann and Zeplin , 2005), BCB is altogether not the same as OCB. BCB is a piece of OCB, as well as goes past the extent of OCB. This is on the grounds that BCB additionally consider the remotely focused on practices, for example, fortifying the nature of brand-customer relationship (satisfaction, loyalty and retention). Then again, OCB is something centered Intra-association is more execution related work (Burmann and Zeplin, 2005). (Burmann and Zeplin, 2005) Suggested, that, BCB comprises of seven measurements in particular (1) helping behavior, (2) brand consideration (3) brand enthusiasm (4) sportsmanship, (5) brand endorsement, (6) self-improvement, and (7) brand advancement.

Literature suggests that workers who are committed to the brand are having the capacity to show good state of attitude and behavior toward the brand, in this manner expanding the external customer satisfaction. (Burmann and Zeplin , 2005). Employees in a soul of high brand citizenship will offer “everything” to accomplish individual fulfillment and destinations of the organization. For instance, these employees show high state of behavior and adherence to the estimations of brand, enthusiastic help, exhibit to deliberate brand commitment, looking for self-development in the brand's qualities and to communicate positive words about the brand (Burmann and Zeplin,, 2005); (Ind, N., 2001). Such behavior additionally demonstrates that employees are exceedingly conscious, fulfilled, committed, and faithful to the brand (Punjaisri and Wilson, 2007). Accordingly, employees with need such components not exclusively are disappointed and out of line to brand, likewise potentially weaken the overall performance of the brand particularly in the satisfaction of the brand promise to outer customers. In the initial study conducted by Burmann et. al., (2008), BCB is clarified by three principle measurements specifically; helping behavior, brand development, and brand enthusiasm. Nevertheless, they considered their study as a “first exploratory step towards the aim of providing a model of the BCB concept”

Moreover, the latest studies (Burmann et al., 2009) recommended further investigation within a quantitative data set. Therefore, a large-scale quantitative validation of the dimensions was done by Shaari et. al.(2012). They identified four dimensions of BCB: helping behavior, sportsmanship, self-brand development and brand endorsement. Since (Shaari et. al., 2012) work represents the most current and quantitative largest investigation of BCB, this study draws on the BCB-dimensions of the authors. In light of the discoveries, the scientists saw that BCB origination seen as ailing in term of prevalence when contrasted over OCB and need with be tried with new data. In that capacity, the present review utilized the first seven measurements of BCB as proposed before by (Burmann and Zeplin , 2005) basically to affirm the build construct validity and to give better comprehension of what constitute behavior of employees brand citizenship.

2.2.Dimensions of Brand Citizenship Behavior

In view of the literatures, brand citizenship behavior ordinarily talked about in view of two noteworthy streams, in particular (i) in-role brand behavior and, (ii) extra-role brand behavior. For example, Kimpakorn and Tocquer (2009), King and Grace (2008) and Punjaisri and Wilson (2007) highlighted brand citizenship behavior as additional toward in-role brand behavior while Morhart, Herzog and Tomczak (2008) and Burmann et al. (2008) expressed that brand citizenship behavior is best portrayed as extra-role brand behavior.In any case, there is no reliable phrasing utilized for both ideas of brand citizenship behavior. Another significant issue worried with such idea (in-role and extra-role brand behavior) is in regards to un-dimensional versus multidimensional of workers' image reliable behavior. In this way, the current learn will look at whether such employees brand citizenship behavior is un-dimensional or best clarified by multidimensional idea.

Generally, in-role brand behavior is identified with a capacity of employees to convey the brand promise. As per Morhart et al. (2008), in-role behavior is meeting recommended brand roles while Burmann et al. (2008) named this as brand compliance. In-role behavior would be effectively satisfied by generally organization. Extra-role brand behavior alludes to employee’s eagerness to take additional miles in the interest of the organizations brand.

This incorporates occupation or task or behavior that goes past formal recommended brand roles, for example, positive word of mouth, participation, helping behavior, sportsmanship, brand enthusiasm and other workers' extra brand effort(Burmann et al. 2008; Morhart et al. 2008). In view of the presumption that organization supported their brand competitive advantage through differentiation strategy, hence, extra-role brand behavior would be the best practice for brand differentiation.

This is on account of, to draw in employees with extra-role brand behavior that goes past their brand role is not effortlessly found in each association/brand. Additionally, Burmann et al. (2008) recommended that extra-role brand behavior is better than in-role brand behavior animating positive brand identity. Thusly, extra-role brand behavior will be inspected in this review which is conceptualized as brand citizenship behavior.

Employee brand citizenship behavior (BCB) is a moderately new idea that clarifies how employees could enhance their conveyance performance brand by adjusting their attitude and their behavior to the Organization's brand. Basically, brand

citizenship behavior refers to the deliberate way of the specialists to extend a progression of utilized nonexclusive behaviors that enhance brand identity (Burmann and Zeplin , 2005).

BCB started from behavior of organizational citizenship that perceives the internal workings of micro level (the operation of the employee brand) to outer beneficiaries rather than full macro level performance (work and performance of the Organization) as it were. (Burmann et al., 2008), BCB is made out of seven building that is accepted to speak to the behavior identified with the brand of employees to enhance the accomplishment of the Organization's brand and later to hold competitive advantage of the organization. The structures are as per the following:

Helping Behavior. Help behavior is related with inspirational attitude, sensitivity, kindness and compassion towards the customer, internal and external, assuming responsibility for assignments outside their area of the city if important, as a follow-up to the dissensions.

Sportsmanship. Sportsmanship is related without any grievances, regardless of the possibility that the brand commitment to bring about inconvenience; willingness to engage to draw in to for the brand even in the open door cost.

Brand Endorsement. Brand support alludes to the suggestion of the employees of the brand to others likewise in circumstances inconsequential to work for instance, companions; Thus the brand identity for the newcomers in the organization.

Brand Enthusiasm. Brand enthusiasm speaks to employees' capacity to show additional works while taking part in brand-related behavior.

Brand Consideration. Consideration of brand refers to the grip of the employee to examples of behavior identified with the brand and the impression of the effect of brand before convey or act in any circumstance.

Self-development. Self-development speak to employees readiness to consistently enhance brand related

Brand-advancement. Advancement of brand alludes to the commitment of the employees to the adjustment of the idea of branding to the changing needs of the market or new organizational skill, as setting off to the customer or produces innovative thoughts.

By and large, the development of secured thought of employees towards the brand that goes past its formal work recommended for the most part conveying the brand promise in a fitting way. Along these lines, in light of the understanding of the work of brand behavior proposed by (Burmann and Zeplin , 2005), It will be balanced in light of the way that it gives a fantasy all the more all encompassing viewpoint of the performance of the brand with respect to employees not at all like distinctive works.

In any case, the aftereffects of the examination of (Burmann et al., 2008) uncovered that exclusive three of the seven structures (i.e. helping behavior, brand development and brand enthusiasm) clarified brand citizenship behavior altogether. In that capacity, it is the need to test the new dataset development for the most part to build the predominance of the development.

Table 1: Conceptualizing Employees Brand Citizenship Behavior- Dimension Based on Zeplin (2006) and Maloney (2007) Adopted from Internal Brand Management in an International Context book

Author	Definition	Helping Behavior	Sportsmanship	Org.LoyaLty	Org.Compliance	Civic Virtue	Individual Initiative	Self Development
Burmann et.at (2008a), Burmann/ ziplin (2005) Burbunn et al (2007c)(2 009c), Ziplin (2006)	Brand Citizenship behavior is a total build which depicts various generic(br and or industry independe nt)employ ee practices that improve the brand personalit y dormant develop	Helping behavior uplifting disposition support and compassion towards inner and outside clients Going well beyond the employment	Sportsmanship no griping regardless of the possibility that engagement for the brand causes in accommodations : readiness to draw in with the brand even at higher open door cost	Brand endorseme nt suggestion of the brand to others additionally in non-work related circumstanc es for instance to companions passing on the brand personality to new comers in the association.	Brandconsideratio n adherence to brand related behavior rules and impression of brand effect before correspondence or talking activity in any circumstance.	Brand advancement commitment to the adjustment of the brand personality idea to changing business sector needs or new authoritative capabilities for instance by passing on client input or creating inventive business thought	Brand enthusiasm Showing additional activity while drawing in brand related practices	Self-Development eagerness to ceaselessly upgraded brand related aptitudes

Koning (2010),Maloney (2007), Piehler (2011)	Brand Citizenship behavior characterized as a worldwide idea which incorporates all brand significant behavioral expectations of a channel advertiser that reinforces the brand personality of the produce accumulated build.			brand missionary (external)honest reliability to all parts of a producers brand including all conduct the best speak to the makers brand Character to outsiders.	Brand acceptence acceptence and consistence with guidelines and directions include sing all practices that portray formal tenets and prerequisite of produces brand	Brand advancement (inside) depicts all practices that affect the administration of the makes brand with a specific end goal to additionally fortify brand and furthermore urge the person to proactively look for the headway of their abilities and information		

2.3.Brand Citizenship Behavior (BCB)-Antecedents

2.3.1.Internal Brand Management Concept

Podsakoff et al. (2000) Identify estimations of authority as an antecedent to the OCB. This incorporates, verbalize the vision, giving an appropriate model and advance the acknowledgment of the Group's objectives. As far as promoting, inside brand Management (IBM) covers these ideas and it might be contended that a antecedent to the BCB truth be told, the greater part of the recognized reviews (Burmann et al., 2009) (Chang et al, 2012) (King and Grace , 2012); (Shaari et al, 2012) utilize some type of IBM as a forerunner to BCB. IBM is a subset of interior showcasing that spotlights on the advancement, fortifying and support of the Organization's image. It is an idea that emerged in the mid 1970's when Berry et al (1976) suggested that representatives are inside customer who must be fulfilled. The idea has advanced in the course of recent decades to wind up plainly a multidimensional idea (Gezen et al., 2007). While a few creators trust that the inside advertising is operationalized through inner correspondence (Chang et al., 2009); (Punjaisri and Wilson, 2007), others trust that the most vital measurement is the Training (Farzadetal., 2008; (Gezen et al., 2007), but then others propose look into inward promoting as the significance of the measurement (Lee and Wen-Jung, 2005); (Wilde and, Parks, 2005). All things considered, will be considered fundamentally a HR capacity that incorporates the preparation and training of inner promoting (Gray, 2006); (Zampetakis &.,Moustakis, 20007) 20007), fulfilling and rousing (Lee and Wen-Jung, 2005), and the enlistment of workers (Arnett and Laverie and McLane, 2002). These starts are intended to help employees to adequately communicate with customers.

As per the view of Burmann and Zeplin (2005),IBM as a blend of three levers. Initially, centered on the brand, HR administration guarantees an identity personal brand fits through recruitment, selection and advancement of employees. This is taken after the organizational socialization of employees by method for direction, training, social functions and programs of guide for the casual transmission of brand identity. The second lever is to fortify the brand among employees producing familiarity with brand and under changeless through internal communication, the more traditional part of internal branding. Leadership of the brand that is energized at all levels of the Organization so that employees “living the brand”. (Burmann and Zeplin,, 2005)They contend that IBM made with these levers in the games amusement, BC, which thus brings about the BCB. After (Burmann et al., 2009), internal brand management is displayed as a moment arrange preparing gave by three levers, as a brand identity (BId), brand communication (BCom) and brand leadership (BLead).

According to King and Grace (2012) ,the part of organizational socialization of IBM, yet contend that the orientation relationship (between the Organization and its employees), and receptivity of the employee (the psychological characteristic of the employees) are extra segments. Again they build up a model of rivalry in which the segments of IBM make (BC) and in this manner BCB), as well as make BCB straightforwardly, i.e. BC mediates the Relationship amongst IBM and BCB. Additionally Brand Knowledge and Brand Rewards have been recognized as huge factors observed with in Internal Branding to be tried with BCB.

2.3.2.Brand Commitment

Podsakoff et al. (2000) Said, that the investigation of the Organizational Commitment is known in the area for the direct of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. On account of corporate branding Brand Commitment (BC) is synonymous with Organizational Commitment (Porricelli, 2014) the Brand Commitment is a key component in the Organization success of numerous enterprises, for example, tourism and hospitality (Ahn and Kim& Lee, 2016). The vital thing in this exploration is the idea of commitment to employees with the Organization's brand. As per Kimpakorn and Tocquer (2010), this review characterizes employees BC as a dynamic association with the organization that makes employees willing and glad to share their brand knowledge to others. Such employees are mentally and affectively dedicated to supporting the brand. Miles and Mangold (2004) proposed that absence of employee commitment to a brand may bring negative word of mouth concerning the endeavor or inability to convey the client encounter determined by the BC.

Meanwhile, Kimpakorn and Tocquer (2010) proclaimed that, in the administration business, employees need to comprehend the significance of the corporate brand in the brains of customers at the same time, more essentially, employees must be committed on supporting the brand and passing on a predictable brand experience to customers. In the service area specifically, employees convey the brand understanding to customer through their services, which must not just viably make the brand soul and values in the psyches of customer additionally permit clients to build up an emotional connection with the brand. An extended thought has been highlighted by Dissanayake & Hamid (2017) referring employee commitment nourished through the internal marketing leads higher level of service quality experience to customers. The brand commitment has been characterized as the mental and emotional connection with the brand. Truth be told, brand commitment is the powerful urge of the Organization's employees to ensure the brand. (Burmann and Zeplin , 2005) Define the brand as a mental obsession of the employees to the brand, the propensity of the employees of the brand commitment to and endeavor to accomplish the objectives and procedures of the brand. The making of the idea of the brand commitment is a critical component in strengthening and achievement of internal brand (Ahn and Kim& Lee, 2016). (Podsakoff et al, 2000) report that OC is the most normally distinguished antecedent of OCB .For the situation of corporate brands, for example, that, BC is viewed as synonymous with OC (Burmann and Zeplin , 2005); (Burmann et al.,, 2009); (King and Grace , 2012); (Shaari et al, 2012).In expansion to that Brand commitment measures (Porricelli, 2014) (Bagher ,Masoume and Milad, 2016) as found in most recent reviews.

2.3.4.Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the phenomenon created in fact several factors. Job satisfaction is an independent variable in depending on variables such as productivity, absenteeism, and return, behavior of the person in the society. Behavior of the person in family and in part on the individual attitude towards the political social, Cultural environment. Job satisfaction is a positive emotional state causes the evaluation of the job or work experience. In other words job satisfaction is related to level of satisfied expectation of the work. In additions job satisfaction affected some variables as age work experience, gender education and job classification. Job satisfaction is a combination of cognitive satisfaction and emotional satisfaction. Cognitive satisfaction is based on logical and rational evaluation of condition of works. Therefore cognitive satisfaction is an evaluation based on comparisons without relying on emotional judgment considering opportunities and revenues while emotional satisfaction general evaluation of person towards. This satisfaction can be seen within the positive and good mood and feeling of individual when they are at work. (Ismaili & Renani, 2007)

Job satisfaction can be characterized as the passionate sentiment delight that is experienced by an employee because of many components of work (Evans, Pucik & Bjorkman, 2011; Intaraprasong, Dityen, Krugkrunjit & Subhadrabandhu, 2012; Mohammad, Habib & Alias, 2011; Narang & Dwivedi, 2010; Swaminathan & Jawahar, 2013). Satisfaction of work as a motivational component could contribute towards positive organizational factors elements, for example, performance and commitment (Özturk, 2010). Work fulfillment has been observed to be a powerful element to the OCB by different looks into (Özturk, 2010). Diverse investigates use and characterize the measurements of job satisfaction variably.

Be that as it may, the most prevalent are to be specific: pay, the work conditions, promotional opportunities, supervision and colleagues. These pointers are likewise considered as situational elements of the association. Work conditions incorporate the work itself and the everyday operations that every representative would need to experience. Supervision as an estimation a employees relationship with his/her predominant and colleagues as an estimation of the worker's association with different employees in the organization. None of the recognized reviews utilized job satisfaction (JS) as an antecedent of BCB. Be that as it may, as per (Podsakoff et al, 2000), it is a settled antecedents of OCB under the category of employee characteristics. Both the reviews by van Dyneetal (1994) and (Bettencourt et al, 2001) which were utilized as a part of the conceptualization of BCB utilized JS as an antecedent of OCB.

2.3.4.Importance of Brand Citizenship Behavior

The basic role of internal branding is to transform employees into brand ambassadors through brand identity based behaviors. Brand citizenship behavior is a "worldwide idea that outlines all brand relevant behavioral performance of internal partners that are steady with the brand identity and the brand value proposition and strengthen the brand". Regardless of the thought that employee brand aligned behavior is spoken to similarly in different internal brand management conceptualizations, the current state of research on brand citizenship behavior is still in its outset.

Emplyee behavior consist the target or endogenouse variable of internal branding, (Vallster and De Chernatony, 2006) and brand Citizenship Behavior is a fundamental to fulfillment of the brand guarantee, emplyees who are accountable for fulfilling the brand guarantee must pass on the organization dependably to accomplish and keep up the pined for character with the brand. (Punjaisri and Wilson, 2007) Most internal brand models mirror a general comprehension of the significance of employee Citizenship Behavior. In-sights into the way toward accomplishing and keeping up employee brand-related behavior and improvement of a particular definition are recent" brand citizenship behavior is potentially the most predominant conceptualization.

Meanwhile, Brand Citizenship Behavior has been highlighted in the recently held studies as to examine with some of the brand evaluation contexts namely brand attitude, brand trust and brand love specially referring to the services sector organizations including baking segment (Dissanayake,2015;Dissanayake & Ismail, 2015). Further, BCB has been mentioned as research directions to be examined with brand evaluation contexts in the services brands including g financial services (Dissanayake & Neel & Jinadasa, 2017.) (Hennayake, 2017)

3. CONCLUSION

Explore on the point of Brand Citizenship Behaviors has significantly expanded over the previous decade. In any case, this quick development in research has brought about the advancement of a few issues, including the requirement for better comprehension of the conceptual similarities and differences between various types of behavior of brand citizenship, and in addition antecedent and results of its nature. In this paper, attempted to address these natures and antecedents, and in addition recognize valuable roads for future research. All in all, it is an energizing and element field of research and the expectation that this paper will help speed advance here by highlighting a few key issues that need consideration.

Antecedents to BCB are the variables that upgrade or obstruct the level of employees brand performance in an organization. It is uncovered from the different observational reviews that there is a positive connection amongst BCB and the performance of the organization (Shari et al, (Punjaisri and Wilson, 2007) (Burmann and Zeplin , 2005). For rehearsing chiefs, the fundamental ramifications of the present review is that knowing the antecedents' managers could be better ready to cultivate employees OCB. Aside from the traditional measures of employee profitability, it is essential for managers to screen that arrangement of work behaviors that goes past the part depiction additionally are imperative supporters of the viability of the organization. Accordingly, it was noticed that BCB has been studied subject to multiple antecedents. Thus, antecedents of BCB could be examined with empirical rationales made on research gaps found in different service sectors, working conditions and country perspectives depending on the application intensity (Dissanayake, 2015); (Dissanayake and Ismail, 2015). Therefore, testing these recommended precursors in distinctive hierarchical setting direct researchers to advance the comprehension of how different work conditions influence employees engaging to take part in BCB.

With reference to the empirical research perspectives, BCB could be examined in the difference services sectors including financial services to investigate how it does influence the brand evaluation contexts (Dissanayake and Ismail, 2015) (Dissanayake & Neel & Jinadasa, 2017.) (Hennayake, 2017). Alongside, this study reveals several dimensions of BCB being researched in the empirical studies whilst highlighting the relationships amongst other related concepts. Further the concept of BCB could be hypothesized with Internal Branding Variable such as Brand Knowledge and Brand Rewards in link with postulated research gaps this argument is supported by the contribution made by (Shaari et. al., 2012), it could postulate that BCB as one the concepts yet to be researched in line with the well-supported empirical research gaps alongside the other related concepts as justified whilst managerial implications could be proposed accordingly. Thus, we suggest that effect of brand citizenship behavior has to be further examined with supported variables and measuring factors as demanded by the empirical gaps and practice-related significance including services (Dissanayake, 2015). The contribution made by Shaari et. al.(2012) directs a critical pace to foresaid argument in hypothesizing future studies. This paper has highlighted some research contexts to be examined with BCB namely Banking, Insurance, media transmission and hospitality segments as rising service segments in the vast majority of developing countries, for instance, suggestions given by Dissanayake (2015) Dissanayake & Ismail (2015) Hennayake (2016). Accordingly, this paper patterns to be a review of the concept of BCB as a researchable notion in line with the rationalized empirical gaps in different business sectors and economies.

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A COMPARISON BETWEEN MALAYSIA AND INDONESIA IN ISLAMIC BANKING INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- This paper aims to compare Malaysia and Indonesia in terms of current circumstances in the Islamic banking industry. This is very interesting because of several factors. Firstly these two countries are neighbors. Secondly, both countries have expressed their aspiration to be the center for the Islamic banking industry not only in the region but also in the world. Thirdly, both countries have significant differences in demographics and economic conditions. It is therefore very interesting to see which country is in a better position than other in the Islamic banking industry at present. This will help researchers to predict which country will achieve the target first if it occurs.

Methodology- The comparison will focus on five selected items in Islamic banking institutions ie legal framework, court jurisdiction, capital growth, products offered and shariah governance. For legal frameworks, court jurisdiction and shariah governance analysis will be made on the basis of provisions in legislations and statutes in both countries. Comparison of the products offered will be analyzed based on the list of products and the amount involved. However, since profit sharing activities are regarded as a key feature of an Islamic banking system as argued by many authoritative scholars in this area, the involvement of Islamic banking institutions in profit sharing based products in both countries will be the main focus in the analysis. Capital growth is chosen because according to Sula (2011) the development of a bank, should be seen from the market share because the market share reflects the portion from the sale of industrial goods or services carried out by an industry. Prior to that, Shaffer (1993) reported that market share is important, because it reflects the performance associated with bank's competitive position in the banking industry.

Findings- The study shows that although both countries are making good progress in the Islamic banking industry, no country is far ahead of another. While Malaysia is ahead of Indonesia in some items, Indonesia is ahead of Malaysia in some other items.

Conclusion- This paper concludes that both countries have advantages and disadvantages of others in the Islamic banking industry. Hence both should overcome their weaknesses and continue to build from their strengths to make their aspirations a hub in the Islamic banking industry as a reality

Keywords: Islamic banking, shariah compliance, Indonesia, Malaysia, banking industry.
JEL Codes: K00, K19, K20

1. INTRODUCTION

Islamic bank in Malaysia was commenced in 1983 with a single fully fledged Islamic banking institution namely Bank Islam Malaysia. Since then Islamic banking industry in Malaysia has been growing tremendously well through four different phases and at this moment there are 16 fully fledged Islamic banking institutions in operation in Malaysia (Md Nor, M.Z. et.al., 2016, p.601-604). With the strong growth in the number of banks, capitals and products, it is no surprise that Malaysia aspires towards becoming the main player in Islamic banking in this region. Lately though, the position of Malaysia as the main Islamic banking market in South East Asia has been challenged by Indonesia. Considered as a late comer, Indonesia started it Islamic banking industry in 1992, almost a decade behind Malaysia through the establishment of Bank Muamalat Indonesia (BMI). The growth has not been too bad since then and in 2015 the Islamic banking industry of Indonesia comprised of 12 general sharia banks, 22 shariah business units of conventional banks and 161 sharia people's credit banks (rural Islamic banks) with significance growth in capital as well (Sobol, I.,2016, p.171-173). Nevertheless, the product and the capital growth are somewhat slow moving when compared to Malaysian Islamic banking industry. At the

outset, the fact that Malaysia with more or less 30 million people and only 60% are Muslims make it look like a miniature compared to Indonesia as a giant with over 270 million people and over 90% are muslims. Some observers aptly put it 'Islamic banking in Indonesia is a giant waking up' (Global Business Guide:2015) or a 'sleeping giant stirring' (New Horizon:2012).

This paper discusses comparisons between Malaysia and Indonesia about the current situation in the Islamic banking industry with a focus on five key items, namely legal framework, court jurisdiction, capital growth, product offerings and shariah governance. For this purpose, initially this paper will present the true reality of these five items in Malaysia and Indonesia based on the available facts and figures separately. Next is followed by comparative discussion and analysis between the Islamic banking industry in both countries on the five items. In the end, a conclusion will be made to show the position of both countries in the Islamic banking industry.

2. THE CURRENT STATE OF ISLAMIC BANKING INDUSTRY IN MALAYSIA AND INDONESIA

2.1.Legal Framework

By legal framework it is meant a broad system of rules that governs and regulates decision making, agreements, laws etc. The development of Islamic Financial Industry in Malaysia is based on top-down approach or "government-driven" approach where both regulators and the players were initiated and backed by strong political will.(Yussof, S.A., 2013, p.391) There were at least ten pieces of legislations which form the legal framework for the establishment and operation of Islamic banking system in Malaysia. These were Islamic Banking Act 1983 (IBA), Banking and Financial Institution Act (BAFIA 1989), Takaful Act 1984, Central Bank of Malaysia Act (CBMA 1958), National Land Code 1965, Hire Purchase Act 1967, Stamp Duty Act 1949, Property Gains Tax Act 1979 and Islamic Financial Services Act (IFSA 2013). The earliest legal foundation for the Islamic banking industry in Malaysia was Islamic Banking Act 1983(IBA). This act paved the way for the establishment of the first Islamic banking institution in Malaysia and it also authorised the central bank or Bank Negara Malaysia (BNM) to supervise and regulate Islamic banks, similar to the existing licensed banks. Although the IBA is considered as too general and non-comprehensive consist of 60 sections, it is acknowledged though that it creates healthy flexibility to Islamic financial institutions (Hasan, Z., 2006, p. 4). Six years later in 1989 Section 124(7) of the existing Banking and Financial Instutitution Act 1989 (BAFIA) was then introduced. The introduction of this section allows conventional banks to open Islamic counter to offer Islamic banking products (Hassan, R., 2006, p.2). This section also required them to establish the Shariah Committee in order to advise them any matter related to Islamic banking business or Islamic financial business. Initially this scheme is known as Interest Free Scheme Banks or Skim Perbankan Tanpa Faedah (SPTF) and later on changed to the Islamic Scheme Banks or Skim Perbankan Islam(SPI) until now. Arguably the introduction of section 124(7) of BAFIA promotes healthy competition amongst Islamic banking players(Hasan,Z., 2006, p.5). Apart from the IBA and the BAFIA, the Central Banks Act 1958 (CBA) also plays a crucial role in term of regulating the aspects of supervision and monitoring of the implementation and operation of Islamic banking. This can be seen in the case of the amendment of section 16B of the CBA in 2003. This amendment was made in order to enhance the role of the Shariah Advisory Council of BNM in supervising the operations of every individual Islamic banking institution in this country (Hassan,R., 2006, p.5).

To ensure the smooth and safe operation of financial institutions and to promote stability in financial and payment systems, the BNM conducts a yearly assessment of risks and challenges faced by the financial system.(Yusuff, S.A., 2013, p.393) This assessment also enable the BNM to evaluate the strength of its regulatory and supervisory measures. This assessment exercise produced the Financial Stability and Payment Systems Report in 2012. This report has prompted the government to enact the brand new "Islamic Financial Services Act (IFSA) 2013 and its conventional counterpart the Financial Services Act (FSA) 2013 in order to reinforce the BNM's mandate to safeguard financial stability and strengthen the foundations for a regulatory and supervisory framework that is effective, transparent and contributive towards an efficient and resilient financial system. The new laws also strengthen the oversight on the market conduct of financial service providers, promote effective oversight of payment systems and payment instruments, and support preconditions for the development of the financial sector. The IFSA is considered as the most comprehensive piece of legislation in the realm of Islamic banking sector (The Star, 6 February 2013). This is due for several reasons. First, its introduction in 2013 means that a number of existing Islamic banking related legislations are repealed and replaced. Second, this new legislation also provides a comprehensive regulatory framework of the various Islamic financial contracts and their application in the offering of Islamic financial products and services by Islamic financial institutions. Third, the contract-based regulatory framework provided in IFSA also gives regulators greater oversight and powers to further scrutinize financial holding companies and non-regulated entities if they pose a risk to financial stability. Fourth, the IFSA governs all IFIs including Islamic banks, takaful operators, international Islamic banks, international takaful operators as well as operators of payment systems which enable the transfer of funds between Islamic bank accounts or which enable payments to be made by means of Islamic payment instruments, issuers of Islamic payment instruments, takaful brokers and Islamic financial advisors. In short, this act which is destined to ensure end-to-end shariah compliance covers whole range of shariah governance right from shariah standard, operational standard, oversight functions and regulation. In addition to IFSA, Islamic banking institutions in Malaysia are

also bound by some guidelines issued by BNM in 2013 as a measure to consolidate Islamic finance industry namely, capital adequacy framework for Islamic banks, capital adequacy framework for Islamic Banks (capital components), financial reporting for Islamic banking and Islamic financial institutions and guidelines on ibra (Rebate) for sale-based financing.

Furthermore, to boost up the operation of Islamic banking, the Law Harmonization Committee Report 2013 formulated four recommendations namely, to introduce provisions in court rules on imposition of late payment charges on judgment debts, to allow better access to Islamic financing for consumers through recommended amendments to reserve land legislations in all states, to facilitate Islamic financing involving landed property through recognition of Islamic finance in the National Land Code 1965 and to amend the Companies Act 1965 in order to facilitate the effort to offer globally accepted Shariah compliant product structures for the Islamic money market.(Hassan, Z., 2014)

In 1992, to open the door for the establishment of Islamic banking institutions, the government of Indonesia through parliament has enacted and passed the Banking Act No.7 which recognizes the existence of two banking systems namely the conventional banking system and the Islamic banking system together to serve the economy. By virtue of this act, the first Islamic bank in Indonesia, Bank Muamalat Indonesia was established in 1992 (Sobol, I., 2016, p.171). During its early years, Bank Muamalat, as the only Islamic bank in Indonesia, faced some difficulties as the existing financial environment in the country then was not conducive enough for the operation and development of a new banking system. For example, there was no supporting network in the industry like market instrument, alternative for liquidity management and central bank facilities that comply with Islamic principles. In 1998, to overcome this problems and to encourage network expansion, the government amended the existing Banking Act no. 7 with a new act, called Act No. 10, to provide a wider opportunity and a stronger legal foundation for Islamic banking. Act No. 10 can be considered as the legal foundation for Islamic banks, as it provides assurance to investors, bankers, and the general public. This act does not only provide networking assistance to the existing Islamic banking institution but it also open the door for conventional banks to establish Islamic banking units within the conventional banking institutions (Siregar M.E. and Ilyas N., 2011, p.2). A few years after that, in 2004 the parliament amended Central Bank Act 1999(Act No.23)that resulted in the birth of Act No.3. Through this amendment, the central bank allowed monetary control with instruments based on Islamic principles. Since then the industry has steadily progressed and expanded. The Act No.3 also strengthens the legal foundations for Islamic banking industry further. Furthermore in 2008 the Islamic banking Act (Act No.21) was passed. In the beginning, this act mentions some of the reasons for its existence such as to achieve justice and virtue in society based on economic democracy, to develop an economic system based on values of justice, equality and well-being in accordance with the principles of shariah, to meet the needs of Indonesian society to Islamic banking services, to comply the rules of the Islamic banking system and to have a more specific legislation relating to Islamic banking than what has been provided in Act No 7 of 1992 and Act Number 10 of 1998. However according to Lindsey (2012), the main aim of this legislation was to gather all the previous regulations in one act and to eliminate any existing inconsistencies. It has also provided a more adequate legal base to the development of Islamic banking in Indonesia and consequently accelerate the growth of the industry. Since than, there is no further development in the legal foundation of Islamic banking in Indonesia despite of the numerous changes and dynamism of the Islamic banking industry locally and internationally.

2.2.Court Jurisdiction

In Malaysia, like in most of the Muslim countries around the world, Islamic finance cases fall under the jurisdiction of civil courts and legislations. Since the civil courts hear Islamic banking matters, those matters will, without doubt, be governed by principles of English common law or civil law. Many cases have been decided that deny shariah court the power to hear Islamic finance cases. For example, in the case of Bank Islam Malaysia Berhad (BIMB) v Adnan bin Omar (1994), there was a preliminary objection raised by the Adnan (defendant) who argued that since BIMB (plaintiff) is an Islamic bank, the Civil Court has no jurisdiction to hear the case in view of Article 121 (1A) of the Federal Constitution 1957.[1] The judge overruled that objection and submitted that the matter was rightly brought before the Civil Court (Hassan,H., 2016, p.34). Among the arguments was that since BIMB is a corporate body, it does not have a religion and therefore is not within the jurisdiction of the Shariah Court. To create a more comprehensive and constructive environment for the development of the Islamic financial system in this country, BNM in the Malaysian Financial Master Plan 2001-2010 has made a recomandation for the establishment of a specialized shariah court to resolve cases involving Islamic banking institutions. Consequently on February 2003, the Chief Judge of Malaya has issued a Practice Direction No. 1 of 2003 whereby a Muamalat Court called Dagang 4 was set up under the Commercial Division of the Kuala Lumpur High Court to hear Islamic banking cases(Hassan, Z., 2007, p.11; Hassan, H., 2016, p.40). Subsequently, the said Practice Direction was replaced by Practice Direction No. 4, 6 and 7 of 2013. It is stipulated in these Practice Directions that this special high court or also known as Muamalat Bench of high court will only hear cases involving Islamic banking institutions. Prior to that, in 2009 the Central Bank of Malaysia Act 1958 was amended, which require the court or the arbitrator to take into consideration any published rulings of the Shariah

[1] Article 121(1A) of the Federal Constitution of Malaysia 1957 mentions that "the courts referred to in Clause (1) shall have no jurisdiction in respect of any matter within the jurisdiction of the Syariah courts".

Advisory Council(SAC) of BNM or refer the matter to the SAC for its ruling if a question concerning a shariah matter arises in any proceedings relating to Islamic financial business. This is very reasonable since the background of the judges are from English law and not from shariah law aspects.

Not different from the situation in Malaysia, in Indonesia business and finance are not under the jurisdiction of Islamic court. Even the Religious Court Act, Act No 7 1989 clearly mentioned that religious court only enjoy the jurisdiction over matters related to Muslim family affairs namely marriage, divorce,repudiation, inheritance, bequest, gift (Hasnul Arifin Melayu, 2012, p.69). However, with the amendment made to the Law No. 7 of 1989 of the Religious Court and replaced by the Law No. 3 of 2006, the jurisdiction of the religious court has been extended to cover all aspects of Islamic economic matters, including Islamic banking(Melayu, H.A., 2012, p.69; Dewi,G., and Wirdyaningsih, 2014, p.41) . Later on in 2008, the jurisdiction of Religious Court to settle Islamic banking disputes was further consolidated in section 55 (1) of Law No. 21 of 2008 concerning sharia (Islamic) banking. This new law clearly mentioned in section 55 that dispute settlement of Islamic banking is carried out by a commercial court in the Religious Court structure. In the case that the parties have already agreed to the settlement of disputes through other than Religious Court structure, the settlement of dispute shall be carried out according to the proper akad (contract) content. In this case, the settlement of disputes may not be contrary to the shariah principle. Besides the religious court, the act also provides an alternative institution which has the authority to resolve Islamic banking and finance disputes namely the National Shariah Arbitration Body or Badan Arbitrase Shariah Nasional (BASYARNAS). This Islamic arbitration body in Indonesia was established in 1993 by the initiative of the influential Indonesian Ulama Council (MUI) with the objective of resolving muamalat disputes (Dewi,G., and Wirdyaningsih, 2014, p.41). This means that there are two authoritative institutions that enjoy the legal authority in financial dispute settlement in Islamic banking in Indonesia, one is the shariah court and two, is BASYARNAS as the mediation institution out side the formal judicial system hirachy.

2.3.Capital Growth

The capital growth here refers to the appreciation in the value of an asset over a period of time. The Islamic banking asset growth in Malaysia has been phenomenal. In 2004, twenty years after its inception the Islamic Banking assets in Malaysia amounted to RM89 billion, accounting for 9.9 per cent of total banking asset in this country. The Islamic banking industry, that consists of both full fledged Islamic banks and Islamic banking schemes in the conventional banks, has shown a good performance with profitability and assets surpassing for the first time the threshold of RM1 billion and RM100 billion respectively at the end of 2005. This figure continues to increase to RM495 billion in 2012, RM685 billion in 2015 and RM742 billion in 2016. In term of market share of the total financing of the banking sector, in 2016 Islamic financing accounted for a third of all bank financing at RM550 billion — some RM55 billion up from the previous year(NST, April 3, 2017). The same is true for the market share of Islamic deposits and investment accounts, which stood at RM602 billion, or 31.8 per cent. From the overall economic impact to the country as a whole the Islamic banking sector has become a major contributor to the overall economic growth, with assets equivalent to nearly 25% of the country's gross national product. According to Bank Negara in 2016, with 27 players offering more than 100 financial products , Islamic banking assets in Malaysia now stand at more than a quarter, or 27 per cent, of the total banking system, surpassing the targeted 20 per cent under Bank Negara Malaysia's financial sector master plan. Therefore, it is not surprising that Malaysia, has become one of the global leaders of the Islamic finance industry. According to a research conducted by Kuwait Finance House Research, in 2013 Malaysia was ranked second just after Saudi Arabia of the nine Muslim majority countries in term of the volume of Islamic market. BNM aspires for Islamic banking to achieve 40% of market share in term of total banking asset by 2020. Presently, Malaysia's Islamic banking assets reached USD173.9 billion with an average growth rate of 18-20% annually. Islamic banking in Malaysia contributes 22% of total shares of Islamic banking in the six main Muslim countries that provide Islamic banking system namely Qatar, Indonesia, Saudi Arabia, Malaysia, United Arab Emirates and Turkey (QISMUT) and in term of global share, Islamic Banking Assets in Malaysia constitutes 8% of global share of the Islamic banking system(NST, April 3, 2017).

According to statistics published by the Indonesia's Financial Service Authority or Otoritas Jasa Keuangan (OJK), as of 2015 the Islamic banking industry of Indonesia comprised of 12 general Islamic banks, 22 Islamic business units of conventional banks and 163 Islamic people's credit banks (rural Islamic banks). For three consecutive years, the market share of the sharia banks in Indonesia stood still at less than 5 percent. Despite of having the largest Muslim population in the world Indonesia has less than 4% shares Islamic banking assets in the QISMUT and less than 2% of global Islamic finance assets. Domestically, only about USD21 492M or 4.8% of its total domestic banking assets are Shariah compliant. According to the Global Advisors' Islamic Finance Outlook Report for 2016, no Indonesian Islamic banks were ranked in the top five largest banks based on assets in Southeast Asia. The performance of the Islamic banking industry in Indonesia has yet to satisfy the public's expectations. Although with a market of more than 200 million Muslims, Islamic banks in Indonesia still face difficulties luring more customers and increasing their assets. Islamic banks in Indonesia was ranked as eighth out of the nine Muslim-majority countries evaluated in 2011-2012. The country ranked first was Saudi Arabia, followed by

Malaysia(Kuwait Finance House Research, 2013). The market shares of Islamic banks in Indonesia is 20% lower than Islamic bank market shares of Malaysia (Jakarta Post, July15, 2016).

In order to spur Indonesia aspiration to become global hub for Islamic finance, OKJ developed and launched a five-year roadmap in early 2015. The government also launched a program called "I Love Shariah Finance Program"(ILSFP) in Jun 2015. The ILSFP aims to increase the Islamic finance industry's current 4.88% share of Indonesia's total banking and finance market to 15% by 2023. On of the steps that has been taken place to achieve the target is the merger of the existing Islamic units of state-controlled banks Bank Rakyat Indonesia (BRI), Bank Mandiri and Bank Negara Indonesia (BNI). This merger resulted in a huge USD8B sharia bank asset. According to OJK this mega Islamic bank would also quadruple Islamic banks' market share in Indonesia to 20 percent by 2018. The three aforementioned banks together currently account for about 40 percent of Indonesia's Islamic banking assets. While some see this goal as overly optimistic, Indonesia's Islamic banking assets grew at a compounded annual growth rate of 29.2% between 2010 and 2014, giving credence to the possibility of achieving a 15% market share by 2023. Thus the New Horizon Global Perspective on Islamic Banking and Insurance (2012) referred to Islamic banks in Indonesia as "the sleeping giant stirring".

2.4.Products Offered

Islamic banking in Malaysia has been accused of using many controversial debt-based financing. In Malaysia, debt based financing is widely used since the first Islamic bank was introduced in 1983. This debt based financing is called variety of names using different kinds of Islamic business contracts such using either al-bay' bi thaman ajil (BBA) or murabahah or al-ijarah thumm al-bay' (AITAB) or al-ijarah al-muntahiyah bi al-tamlik (IMBT), bay al-dayn and bay al-innah, bay' al-tawarruq contracts (Jusoh, M. and Khalid, N., 2013, p.33) which the amount of financing facility could be paid by the customers to the banks on a deferred payment basis agreed upon by both parties throughout the tenure of the financing and it is normally on the fixed payment monthly instalment. On the other hand, the equity-based financing especially musharakah mutanaqisah or diminishing partnership is rather new when it was introduced by foreign bank such as Kuwait Finance House (Subky K.H.M. et. al. 2017, p.18) after the liberalisation of Islamic financial sector that allow the entry of foreign players in Malaysia. According to Bank Negara Malaysia's (BNM) Feb 2014 monthly statistics, the total aggregate financing of Islamic banking system in Malaysia through musharakah and mudharabah contributed only less then 6 per cent of the total aggregate financing despite of their noble concepts and philosophy in helping the community to achieve fair and equitable distribution of profit and reduce the gap between the rich and the poor.

Indonesia, unlike its neighbor, only use some contract that are non controversial, in their perspective such as mudaraba and musharaka (equity-based products), murabaha, salam and istisna'a (debt-based products). In Indonesia, although the debt based financing also form the lion shares in Islamic banking total business portfolio, due to the relatively early stages and lack of supportive infrastructure, the percentage of Islamic equity based financing is much bigger if compared to the percentage in Islamic banking in Malaysia. The involvement of Indonesia's Islamic banking institutions in profit-and-loss sharing contracts namely mudarabah and musgharakah forming 22.2% with musharaka 2.6% and mudaraba 19.6%. while debt financing (i.e., murabaha), formed 69.3% of all Islamic banks financing portfolios at the end of 2001 (Siregar,M.E., and Ilyas,N., 2011, p.) By 2013, the financing volume released in the form of murabahah financing amounted to IDR 106,779 billion or 60.2 percent compared to the financing volume released in the form mudarabah and musharakah which slightly increase from the amount in 2001 to IDR 50 079 billion or 28.23 percent.

2.5.Shariah Governance

Shariah governance framework is a set of organisational arrangements through which Islamic financial institutions ensure effective oversight, responsibility and accountability of the board of directors, management and shariah committee. The framework serves as a guide towards ensuring an operating environment that is compliant with shariah principles at all times. There are two different models of shariah governance supervision framework implemented by Islamic banking institutions in the world, namely the centralised model as implemented by Malaysia and disentralised model or 'minimalist approach' as implemented by most of the Gulf Countries (Yussof, S.A., 2013, p. 392). In Malaysia, The Islamic Banking Act of 1983 provides for the establishment of the institutional shariah body or shariah comittee at every Islamic banking institutions. Furthermore, The Central Bank of Malaysia Act 1958 provides for the setting up of the Shariah Advisory Council operating under the flagship of the Central Bank of Malaysia (BNM) which plays the role of a shariah apex body. This means that there are two-tiered shariah governance structure has been established, comprising an apex shariah advisory body at the BNM and a supervisory shariah committee formed at the respective Islamic financial institutions. The supervisory shariah comittee of the respective Islamic banking institution is however bound by the resolutions issued by the Shariah Advisory Council of the BNM. In 2011 BNM has introduced the guidelines for Shariah Governance Framework for Islamic Financial Institutions(IFIs). The guidelines provide road map for IFIs to develop sound shariah governance and to reinforce the regulators expectation on effective and efficient IFIs governance system. Among other aspects, the emphasis is on the independence of the Shariah Committee in ensuring sound shariah decision-making and on the role of the board of directors in recognizing the independence of the Shariah Committee. The ultimate goal of this framework is to ensure

continuous public confidence on the strength and credibility of Islamic finance industry. Furthermore, the Islamic Financial Services Act of 2013 was enacted to reinforce the BNM's mandate to safeguard financial stability as well as to statutorily monitor and enforce Shariah compliance. IFSA 2013 went as far as given the Central Bank the locus standi to initiate civil actions in court against financial institutions. In addition to local guidelines and legislation, all Islamic banking institutions in Malaysia recognize and comply with shariah guidelines and accounting and auditing standards issued by Dubai based the Accounting and Auditing Organization for Islamic Financial Institutions(AAOIFI) and Malaysian based the Islamic Financial Services Board(IFSB).

In their recently legislated Shariah Banking Act, Indonesia has molded its shariah governance framework similar to the Malaysian model, namely the centralised model of Islamic finance supervision . The National Shariah Board of the Indonesian Council of Ulema is responsible for issuing fatwas in financial matters which are considered binding upon the shariah boards of each Islamic banking institution. The shariah boards of individual banks have to refer to the National Shariah Board for the final fatwas. The national board includes the highest authorities in shariah. However, shariah board members of individual banks have to be highly qualified in order to understand the fatwas, the source of the fatwas and to produce contracts and agreements in compliance with the fatwas. On 11 November 2014, the OJK signed a memorandum of understanding with the National Shariah Board of Indonesian Ulema Council (DSN-MUI), laying the groundwork for cooperation in achieving the stable and sustainable development of the Indonesian shariah financial services sector in accordance with Shariah principles (Lawrence,J., 2014) Through this MOU the role of DSN-MUI is further enhanced to not only issue fatwas but also to oversee their implementation. Specific objectives of the MOU include supporting the strengthening of regulation and supervision of the Islamic financial services industry and enhancing Islamic financial literacy and protecting consumers in the sector. The MOU's scope encompasses preparing regulations, supervising the implementation of fatwas and reciprocal consultation. Like the case in Malaysia, besides the the fatwas and rulings issued by DSN-MUI, Islamic banking in Indonesia also adopted the rulings and regulations of the AAOIFI and IFSB.

3.DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

3.1.Legal Framework

The legal and regulatory framework of Malaysia's Islamic banking has been praised by many and has been credited for the smooth and phenomenal development of Islamic banking industry in Malaysia. Right from 1983 with the introduction of IBA, legal and regulatory framework of Malaysia's Islamic banking industry consistently evolving and improving in term of its clarity, scope, and robustness. The introduction of IFSA in 2013 was a testimony of the continuous effort to improve and strengthen the effectiveness of Islamic banking legal and regulatory framework in Malaysia. IFSA destines to regulates end-to end shariah compliance activities within the Islamic banking sector as well as overall Islamic financial sector in Malaysia. Despite of some reservations by industries on some provisions in IFSA, generally though, we can say that IFSA has been the pride of Malaysia's Islamic financial system as this legislation makes the Islamic banking activities strictly adhere to the Shariah rules and principles through a close monitoring and supervision by the regulators. Therefore IFSA arguably marks a new face in the history of the Islamic banking and financial legislation in Malaysia. Having said that, Indonesia is also not very far behind in term of implementing a comprehensive and clear cut legislation that provide and monitor the operation and development of Islamic banking over there. The Islamic Banking Act (Act No. 21) that was introduced in 2008 is a good step in the right direction in order to stimulate the performance of Islamic Banks in Indonesia. According to some critics nevertheless, so far, it had not shown the improvement yet. It is argued that the regulator should really prepare other tools to support the Act No. 21 on Islamic Banking by creating a financial environment that is supportive for the smooth development of Islamic banking in Indonesia. In this sense, Malaysia is still ahead with a comparatively condusive and constructive environment for Islamic financial system to flourish.

3.2.Court Jurisdiction

While the establishment of The Muamalat Bench in Kuala Lumpur High Court could be praised as a good step to address the issue of Islamic finance court litigation, it however, raised some pertinent concerns. Firstly, it means that Islamic banking cases will be adjudicated by the court which operate within the ambit of conventional civil court structure. This means that there is no designated court being assigned with exclusive jurisdiction under the federal laws to adjudicate Islamic financial disputes. Instead, Islamic finance cases are filed at all levels of civil courts namely Magistrates' courts, Sessions courts and High Courts based on amount of claim involved even though not all the courts have dedicated judges who are well versed in Islamic law. It also means that there is no dedicated judges trained in Islamic banking and shariah to hear cases involving shariah matters. Secondly, it has a very limited geographical jurisdiction of hearing Islamic finance cases filed within the local jurisdiction of Kuala Lumpur High Court only. Hence, this situation suggests that litigants may do 'forum shopping' and elect to file their Islamic finance cases outside the Kuala Lumpur High Court jurisdiction. Thirdly, the function of Muamalat Bench is also very limited and does not cover all legal proceedings arising from Islamic financial transactions. For example, after judgment is recorded, the execution proceedings such as winding up proceedings (Code 28) and bankruptcy

proceedings (Code 29) will be heard by other civil courts in commercial division. These civil courts are not bound to implement Islamic law of finance in their adjudication process. Fourthly, any appeal from the Muamalat Bench will goes up all the way to Court of Appeal and Federal Court which, for the time being, do not have specialised panel of judges in the area of Islamic finance. In this sense, Indonesia can be said as way ahead of Malaysia. Section 55 (1) of Act No. 21 of 2008 concerning shariah (Islamic) banking clearly provides that the Islamic banking cases must be adjudicated by commercial court under the Religious Court structure. It also provides that any dispute settlement of Islamic banking must by based on the Islamic law of finance. This is so regardless of the place or mechanism through which the settlement is achieved iether through the commercial court of the Religious Court structure or through other than Religious Court structure such BASYARNAS. In any situation, the settlement of disputes may not be contrary to the shariah principle.

3.3.Capital Growth

It is very clear from the figures above that Malaysia is very far ahead of Indonesia in term of Islamic banking asset growth. This can be attributed to many factors. According to Moody's Investors Service, this is down to the fact that Islamic banking in Malaysia has more established franchises, deeper market penetration, and long-standing regulatory support. Although banks in both countries have been experiencing slower growth in Islamic financing since the last couple of years, the lowdown in Indonesia was far more manifested. There is also a more diversified portfolio mix in Malaysia. This situation reflects in turn Malaysia's pioneering role in establishing comprehensive legal, tax and regulatory frameworks to facilitate Islamic finance development. Compared with other major Islamic finance markets such as Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates, Qatar and Kuwait, the Malaysian market differs in a crucial way in that it is as comprehensive and holistic as its conventional counterpart. Indonesia on the other hand, according to some researchers, needs to improve in many ways in order to raise to a more prominent position in Islamic banking sector in the world, Indonesia's. Firstly, competitiveness especially in term of economic benefits such as return on equity, service quality, efficiency and shariah compliance assurance. Secondly, service quality and products information. Surveys conducted show that customers consider Indonesia's Islamic bank's service quality and product information are inferior to those of conventional banks. Thirdly, given their current size and legal lending limits, Islamic banks faced difficulties in serving corporations, except through syndication of financing and fourthly, there is a need to have a proactive approach by Islamic bankers to promote their products and services to corporate customers.

3.4.Products Offered

In term of the number of Islamic banking products, it is so obvious that Malaysia's Islamic banking institutions offer greater number of banking products compared to Indonesia. In this sense, conventional banking products are actually the mirror of the Islamic banking products, different only in term of their contracts involve and the branding, using more Arabic terminologies. Therefore, Islamic banking in Malaysia has been accused of using many controversial debt-based financing. This debt based financing is called variety of names using different kinds of Islamic business contracts such as al-bay' bi thaman ajil (BBA), murabahah, al-ijarah thumm al-bay' (AITAB), al-ijarah al-muntahiyah bi al-tamlik (IMBT), bay' al-'inah, bay' al-tawarruq, bay' al-dayn. Besides some fiqhi issues associated with the implementation of these technics of financing, such as the issues of back door to riba (interest) and complete transfer of ownership, the situation become worse due to the fact that through debt based financing, Islamic banks tend to choose risk avoidance strategy which prompt many to accuse the removal of morality from the banking business (Rosly, S.A., and Bakar, M.A., 2003, p.1262). The Islamic banking market is nevertheless, different in Indonesia because there are far fewer products used. This limited product development is due to restricting contracts to those that are "all conformed with shariah". Indonesia, does not approve some debatable contracts such as bay al dayn, bay al innah, tawarruq and bay al arbun and more comfortable with contracts such as mudaraba and musharaka (equity-based products), murabahah, salam and istisna'a (debt-based products). These limited products are useful in many aspects of Islamic finance, but restrict the variety of products that can be offered by banks. This is not necessarily always detrimental because it can check the growth of controversial products from Islamic muamalat point of view.

It is argued therefore, that Islamic banking in Malaysia in particular needs to improve more in term of equity and profit loss sharing ventures. It is the point of agreement among scholars that the profit sharing principle is the main feature of Islamic banking system as it can play critical role in helping the alleviation of the living standard of society through business activities promoted by Islam (Antonio,M.S., 2001:137; Ahmad, A., 1993, p.19; Errico,L., and Farahbarksh,M., 1998, p.6; Chapra, M.U.,1985, pp.68-72; Siddiqi,M.N., 1985, Usmani, M.T., 2002 & 2007; Ali, M.A. and Hussain, T, 2016, p.121; Obaidullah M.,2005, p.57; Siddiqui, S.H., 2002, p.15). It is also argued that lack of equity based or profit and loss sharing financing phenomena around the world may result in the negative public perception on Islamic banking(Sholikhah,Z., et.al., 2017, p.30). Several studies highlighted that almost exclusive reliance on debt-based financing is one of the serious problems facing the Islamic banking industry today(Ahmed,A., 2010, p.308; Beck, T., et al., 2012, p.435). Among others, many Islamic banks rely on interest rate as a benchmark in deciding the profit rate. Additionally, the heavy reliance on debt-

based financing is also not advisable as it can lead to issues in getting the instalment paid on time to Islamic banks, which later lead to charging of penalty for late payment.

It is easy to understand the reason behind the lack on interest among commercial banking sector to get involved heavily in equity and profit loss sharing based ventures. However as argued by many researchers before, Islamic banks should not only be profit-oriented, but should also be promoting Islamic values and norms as a whole without undermining commercial viability. Toward this goal, the regulator such as BNM must take proactive action. It is suggested that the regulators imposes a maximm amount of murabahah and other debt based financing to certain percentage only and encourage more profit and loss sharing based financing, such as mudarabah and musyarakah.

3.5.Shariah Governance

The effort of Malaysia in drafting specific and clear cut guidelines and legislations to ensure a systematic structure and smooth operation of shariah governance framework is a commendable move. The Shariah Governance Framework of 2011 for Islamic Financial Institutions (IFIs) is very important in order to consolidate the Shariah governance framewok in IFIs in Malaysia. This is because it gives a strong emphasis on two very critical points namely the sound shariah decision-making by the shariah comittee of every individual IFIs and the role of the board of directors in recognizing the independence of the shariah committee. The ultimate goal of this framework is to ensure continuous public confidence on the strength and credibility of Islamic finance industry. Furthermore, the Islamic Financial Services Act of 2013 was enacted to reinforce the BNM's mandate to safeguard financial stability as well as to statutorily monitor and enforce shariah compliance. While critics argue that the new legislation does not make major changes to the shariah governance system in Malaysia as it does is to reorganize the system and monitoring measures to ensure a comprehensive shariah compliance especially in relation to the shariah governance processes and product execution, it is a fact though that this legislation has made major improvements to the Islamic Banking Act 1983 and the Takaful Act 1984. At first glance, the new act provides a comprehensive regulation and supervision of Islamic financial institutions, payment systems and other relevant entities. In comparison with Malaysia, the shariah governance model of Bahrain, Kuwait, UAE, Qatar and Oman is based on a "minimalist approach", in which the regulatory authorities expect IFIs to have a proper shariah governance system without specifying the requirements in detail. The more centralised of approach in shariah governance framework as implemented in Malaysia is no doubt makes the development of Islamic financial system is more systematic and transparent. Therefore it is not surprising that Indonesia decided to follow the Malaysian approach in the shariah governance of its IFIs. Moreover, it was reported that Dubai has recently switched over to a centralised shariah board after seeing the benefits of legal and regulatory clarity offered by centralised governance. However although the Malaysian shariah governance model displaying some semblance of uniformity, it still in need of some fine tuning, as the general wisdom goes "no system can be perfect" as Yussof S.A. (2013) has put it. The table below summarize the above discussion.

Table 1: Comparing Malaysia to Indonesia for Islamic Banking Industry

Items Countries	**Malaysia**	**Indonesia**
Legal framework	Constructive environment with many related legislations have been put in place to support Islamic banking industry. IFSA 2013 regulates end-to end shariah compliance activities within the Islamic banking sector and makes the Islamic banking activities strictly adhere to the shariah rules and principles through a close monitoring and supervision by the regulators.	Need to create more supportive environment by creating other tools and introducing and implementing related legislations.The enactment of the Islamic Banking Act No. 21 of 2008 is a good step to stimulate the performance of Islamic Banks in Indonesia. After almost a decade the act needs some improvement.
Court jurisdiction	Cases involving Islamic finance are under the jurisdiction of conventional civil courts. The introduction of Muamalat Bench in Kuala Lumpur High Court should have been a first step not the end of the road. Unfortunately no significant improvement afterward.	Act No 21 of 2008 clearly provides the jurisdiction for the Religious Court to adjudicate all cases involving Islamic finance. Settlement through arbitration must adhere to the Islamic principles
Capital growth	In 2013 Malaysia was ranked second just after Saudi Arabia of the nine Muslim majority countries in term of the volume of Islamic market. In 2016, Islamic banking assets in Malaysia stand at 27 per cent, of the total banking system. Presently, Malaysia's Islamic banking assets reached USD173.9 billion with an average growth rate of 18-20% annually. Islamic banking in Malaysia contributes 22% of total shares of Islamic banking in the	The market share of the shariah banks in Indonesia stood still at less than 5 percent. Indonesia has less than 4% shares Islamic banking assets in the QISMUT and less than 2% of global Islamic finance assets. According to the Global Advisors' Islamic Finance Outlook Report for 2016, no Indonesian Islamic banks were ranked in the top five largest banks based on assets in Southeast Asia. Islamic banks in Indonesia was ranked as eighth

	six main Muslim countries namely Qatar, Indonesia, Saudi Arabia, Malaysia, United Arab Emirates and Turkey (QISMUT) and in term of global share, Islamic Banking Assets in Malaysia constitutes 8% of global share of the Islamic banking system	out of the nine Muslim-majority countries evaluated in 2011-2012. The market shares of Islamic banks in Indonesia is 20% lower than Islamic bank market shares of Malaysia
Product offered	Debt based financing is widely used since the first Islamic bank was introduced in 1983. On the other hand, the equity-based financing especially musharakah mutanaqisah or diminishing partnership is rather new when it was introduced by foreign bank such as Kuwait Finance House. According to Bank Negara Malaysia's (BNM) in 2014, the total aggregate financing of Islamic banking system in Malaysia through equity based musharakah and mudharabah contributed only less then 6 per cent of the total aggregate financing.	Indonesia only use some contract that are non controversial, in their perspective such as mudaraba and musharaka (equity-based products), murabaha, salam and istisna'a (debt-based products). The involvement of Indonesia's Islamic banking institutions in profit-and-loss sharing contracts forming 22.2% of all Islamic banks financing portfolios at the end of 2001 with musharaka 2.6% and mudaraba 19.6%. By 2013, the financing volume released in the form of mudarabah and musharakah increase from the amount in 2001 to IDR 50 079 billion or 28.23 percent.
Shariah governance	There are two-tiered shariah governance structure have been established, comprising an apex shariah advisory body at the BNM and a supervisory shariah committee at the respective Islamic financial institutions. The supervisory shariah comittee of the respective Islamic banking institution is however bound by the resolutions issued by the Shariah Advisory Council of the BNM. In 2011 BNM has introduced the guidelines for Shariah Governance Framework for Islamic Financial Institutions which emphasis on the independence of the Shariah Committee. Islamic Financial Services Act of 2013 was enacted to reinforce the BNM's mandate to statutorily enforce shariah compliance to the extent initiating civil actions in court against errant financial institutions.	The National Shariah Board of the Indonesian Council of Ulema(DSN-MUI) is responsible for issuing fatwas in financial matters which are considered binding upon the shariah boards of each Islamic banking institution. Shariah board members of individual banks have to be highly qualified in order to understand the fatwas, the source of the fatwas and to produce contracts and agreements in compliance with the fatwas. In 2014 with the MOU between DSN-MUI and OJK the role of DSN-MUI is further enhanced to not only issue fatwas but also to oversee their implementation, supporting the strengthening of regulation and supervision of the Islamic financial services industry and enhancing Islamic financial literacy and protecting consumers in the sector.

4. CONCLUSION

In conclusion Malaysia probably ahead of Indonesia in three aspects, namely legal framework, asset growth and shariah government while Indonesia has took over Malaysia in term of court jurisdiction and products offered. It is acknowledged that Malaysia imposes more authoritative regime in term of legal framework and shariah government to ensure smooth and systematic development of Islamic banking sector and to avoid any factor that could destabilise financial eco-system in this country. This is probably a lesson learnt from past experience where many financial researchers argues for a more dicipline and well-regulated banking and financial system. In this sense the U.S subprime mortgage criss in 2008 can always be referred to. In term of asset growth, the area that Malaysia is claimed to perform extremely well it appears however, there are many corners are cut with its heavy involvement in many debatable muamalat business contracts. Indonesia's approach in this respect is rather more cautious by limiting its products only on sound contracts from muamalat perspective. Thus slow growth is understood. As far as the court jurisdiction is concerned, Indonesia is seen to have a more consistent and coherent court structure to deal with cases involving Islamic banking system disputes. In short, although Malaysia is a decade ahead of Indonesia in term of the first to have the Islamic banking system, but it is not running away too far as Indonesia is slowly but surely closing the gap.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT AND UNETHICAL PRO-ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR: THE ROLE OF MORAL DISENGAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - As one of the few studies on unethical pro-organizational behavior (UPB), this study hypothesizes that affective commitment predicts UPB through the mediation of moral disengagement. It was also proposed that ethical leadership affects the hypothesized relationship.

Methodology - 208 employees (98 males and 110 females) from different companies located in Istanbul, Turkey formed the sample of this study. A multidimensional questionnaire with seven-point interval scale was applied to measure all substantive variables used in this study.

Findings- The results of mediation analysis revealed that people with higher affective commitment engaged in more UPB, and that this effect was mediated by moral disengagement. In addition, the results of moderated mediation analysis showed that the mediation relationship was stronger when employees perceived a lower level of ethical leadership in the organization.

Conclusion- We found that affective commitment encourages UPB through the mechanism of moral disengagement. Besides, this effect is stronger when the ethical leadership is perceived to be low as opposed to being high. Our results extend knowledge of UPB by highlighting the importance of ethical leadership, and open up new avenues of research on the ethical challenges of prosocial motives, attitudes, and behaviors. Further theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

Keywords: UPB, affective commitment, moral disengagement, ethical leadership.
JEL Codes: D22, D23, C00

1. INTRODUCTION

Unethical conduct in the workplace, which has been defined as behavior contrary to the accepted moral norms of society (Treviño, Weaver, & Reynolds, 2006), has received attention from scholars recently (Martin, Kish-Gephart, & Detert, 2014), especially the question of what leads to such behavior. In addressing this issue, previous studies have identified several individual, interpersonal, and organization level factors that help explain why employees behave unethically (Chen, Chen & Sheldon, 2016). Interestingly, however, most such research studies have focused on behaviors undertaken to benefit the self (e.g., Thau et al., 2015; Treviño, den Nieuwenboer, & Kish-Gephart, 2014), implying that unethical behaviors are driven primarily by self-interest. At the same time, this line of research generally assumed that prosocial behaviors are ethical, driven by benevolent motives to help others. While these assumptions may be understandable, recent studies have begun to question them, showing that in fact, employees commonly engage in unethical behaviors to serve the interests of their organization, behaviors such destroying incriminating information to save one's organization's standing, giving false or exaggerated information to people, (Umphress & Bingham, 2011) or creating moral hazards not only for employers, but for society as a whole (Cialdini, Petrova, & Goldstein, 2004). Therefore, a growing number of organizational scholars have begun to systematically explore and theorize about the phenomenon of unethical pro-organizational behavior (e.g., Gino, Ayal, & Ariely, 2013; May, Chang, & Shao, 2015; Miao et al., 2013; Thau et al., 2015). Indeed, there is an emergent field of business ethics research that now focuses squarely on the moral challenges of positive constructs, including beliefs, values, and behaviors, traditionally regarded as purely prosocial and altruistic (e.g., Levine & Schweitzer, 2014). This emergent literature

greatly expands the extant business ethics research by not only enhancing our understanding of factors leading to unethical behavior, but also broadening our theoretical perspectives for understanding such behavior (Chen et al., 2016).

In an effort to contribute to this emergent field, we conducted a study in Turkey to further our understanding of factors that give rise to UPB in the workplace. In our first two hypotheses, we examined whether there exists a positive relationship between affective commitment and UPB, due in part to moral disengagement among people with higher affective commitment. We also examined the potential role of a key moderator: ethical leadership.

Our theoretical perspective and empirical findings make four contributions to the extant organizational literature. First, prior research has showcased the positive side of affective commitment (e.g., Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Wang et al., 2014), largely to the neglect of its dark side. Our research is among the first to generate evidence for the link between affective commitment and unethical behavior, drawing attention to the ethical challenges of employees with higher affective commitment in the workplace. Second, we contribute to the emergent research on UPB by shedding light on a key psychological mechanism, moral disengagement. While a similar mechanism (labeled moral neutralization) appeared in Umphress and Bingham's (2011) early theoretical model, subsequent empirical research has focused predominantly on distal antecedents, paying less attention to underlying psychological processes (May et al., 2015; Thau et al., 2015). Our research is among one of the first empirical evidence for Umphress and Bingham's (2011) contention that moral disengagement underpins not only proself but also UPB.

Third, this study contributes to the UPB literature investigating the role of ethical leadership on UPB. This contextual factor may help explain why affective commitment sometimes fails to predict UPB (Umphress, Bingham & Mitchell, 2010) and, more importantly, adds a key boundary condition to Umphress and Bingham's (2011) theoretical model. Taken together, exploring the effects of a key underlying mechanism as well as a key boundary condition of UPB broadens the scope of research on unethical behavior in the workplace and deepens our current understanding of why and how employees engage in UPB (Treviño et al., 2014). Last and most importantly, this study can both motivate and facilitate the growth of research on UPB in Turkey. By focusing on a sample from Turkey, this study will help to internationalization of research on UPB and a better picture of the attribute in different cultures. Furthermore, the Turkish versions of four related instruments are also examined, hence motivating further research on UPB in Turkey.

The paper is presented as follows. First, a brief review on affective commitment and unethical pro-organization behavior along with the effects of moral disengagement and ethical leadership is provided. The next part focuses on methodology. Results and discussions are presented in the following parts. Conclusions and implications of the study form the last part of the article.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Affective Commitment and Unethical Pro-Organizational Behavior

Umphress and Bingham explained UPB as "actions that are intended to promote the effective functioning of the organization or its members and violate core societal values, mores, laws, or standards of proper conduct" (2011, p. 622). For instance, employees sometimes exaggerate or fabricate the accomplishments of the company to boost its reputation or to maintain its competitive advantage over other companies (Cialdini et al., 2004). Essential to this definition are the dual qualifications that the act is performed with the intention to help the employing organization and yet is in violation of hyper moral standards of the society (Chen et al., 2016). For a pro-organizational act to be ethical, it must be in line with the ethical standards at the societal level, referred to as "hyper norms" (Warren, 2003). UPB therefore opens up existing business ethics research by directing our attention to ethical challenges posed by otherwise positive values, motives, and behaviors. In this article, we study affective commitment as an antecedent of UPB.

Organizational commitment is a psychological trait which deals with employees' relationship with their organization and it has to do with whether or not employees desire to stay in the organization (Matherne & Litchfield, 2012). Porter et al., (1974), defined organizational commitment as "the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (p. 604). Three components of organizational commitment have been introduced: affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Affective commitment is related to an employees' emotional attachment to their organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990), continuance commitment has to do with the employees' perceptions of the costs associated with leaving the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990), and normative commitment deals with an employees' perception of their obligation to continue their work with the company (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The current study is concerned with the workers' activities that are unethical, but seen as beneficial, to the organization. Considering this, affective commitment is the most relevant dimension of organizational commitment in this study. Allen & Meyer has defined affective organizational commitment as "the employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organization" (1990, p. 1). Previous research has focused mainly on commitment as an emotional, or

affective, bond to an organization "such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 2).

Employees having higher levels of organizational commitment have been reported to identify more strongly with the organizations and companies they work for (Cullinan et al., 2008). Consequently, these individuals try to maintain that strong identification and desire to avoid causing harm to their organizations and companies. Therefore, it seems credible that people having higher levels of organizational commitment are less likely to engage in behaviors that may have negative effects on their organization (Cullinan et al. 2008). But, more investigation is needed to understand whether or not employees having higher levels of organizational commitment are more, or less, likely to show behaviors that are ethically unacceptable, but are performed to benefit the organization (Cullinan et al., 2008). It can be said that individuals having higher levels of affective organizational commitment have different reactions to the situations in which the organization would benefit from unethical behaviors that are questionable.

It seems credible to state that people having higher organizational commitment are prone to misreport the information to make sure that their organizations reach their goals. In other words, since employees with higher levels of affective commitment have a stronger sense of identification with their organizations, they are more likely to behave unethically to benefit their organization. It is as a way for them to maintain their commitment to the objectives of their organization. Consequently, it can be hypothesized that:

H1: Affective commitment has positive effect on unethical pro-organizational behaviors.

2.2. Mediating Role of Moral Disengagement

According to social– cognitive theory, moral disengagement comprises a set of cognitive justification mechanisms that allow an individual to perform unethical acts while disengaging from the moral norms and self-sanctions that ordinarily inhibit such acts (Bandura et al., 1996; Detert, Treviño & Sweitzer, 2008). In particular, Bandura and colleagues (1996) mentioned three broad cognitive mechanisms through which moral disengagement occurs. The first is to reconstrue unethical acts so as to make them appear amoral, less immoral or even respectable. The second is to obscure or distort both responsibility for and the consequences of such conduct. And the third is to devalue the target of unethical acts. Because these different mechanisms all aim to justify morally suspect conducts, researchers have operationalized moral disengagement as a single overarching concept (Duffy et al., 2012). A few points are worth noting about the moral disengagement theory (Bandura et al., 1996) before applying it to the relationship between organizational identification and UPB. The theory is based on the idea that most moral transgressors are not inherently or globally immoral people. Rather, like all others, they hold self-regulatory standards that are largely consistent with societal norms. Unethical conduct occurs when self-regulatory moral standards get disengaged, that is, when transgressors find ways of justifying their unethical behaviors. Furthermore, moral disengagement is theorized as a pretransgression justification rather than posttransgression rationalization, even though the latter is also possible (Ribeaud & Eisner, 2010). This pretransgression conceptualization makes moral disengagement a potent mediator between more distant antecedents and unethical behavior. Consistent with the above two viewpoints, recent research shows that various situations (e.g., incentive systems) can activate moral disengagement in turn leading to immoral acts (Kish-Gephart et al., 2014), though prior work also reveals that there exists a general predisposition to morally disengage (Moore et al., 2012). Drawing upon moral disengagement theory, it can be stated that when employees face moral dilemmas in which the organization's interests are at stake, organizational identification can lead to UPB by activating moral disengagement, which in turn eliminates self-deterrents to harmful behavior and encourages self-approval of the unethical act (Brief, Buttram, & Dukerich, 2001). All three mechanisms of moral disengagement noted above help explain how moral disengagement more generally might mediate the effect of organizational identification on UPB. First, people with stronger affective commitment are more likely to reframe UPB as a necessary and even righteous conduct that serves the greater good of the organization (Umphress & Bingham, 2011), hence making it personally or socially acceptable (Bandura et al., 1996; Detert et al., 2008; Duffy et al., 2012). Second, organizational identification allows people to blur the accountability boundary of individual and organization and establishes the shield of anonymity for employees who violate moral principles in the name of the company (Umphress & Bingham, 2011). Specifically, the stronger the affective commitment, due to greater oneness of the self and organization, the more diffuse the responsibility for the unethical acts (Wildschut, Insko, & Gaertner, 2002).

Taken together, the above observations thus lead us to predict that to protect organizational interests, people with stronger affective commitment are more likely to resort to moral disengagement for preact justification of UPB, due to the relative ease with which moral disengagement is activated. We therefore hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: Moral disengagement mediates the positive relationship between affective commitment and UPB.

2.3. Moderating Effect of Ethical Leadership

Ethical leadership, with its emphasis on ethical component, is different from related forms of leadership (Brown, Treviño & Harrison, 2005). On one side, this kind of leadership includes attributes such as honesty, truthfulness, concern for others, fairness and behaving ethically (Treviño et al., 2003; Treviño & Brown, 2004). However, these attributes do not present the whole picture of ethical leadership. Another important part of ethical leadership, called as the moral manager by Treviño et al. (2003), deals with activities and behaviors to influence the ethical behavior of subordinates. In this way, ethical managers use punishments and rewards to promote desired behaviors, deliver the importance of ethics to their employees and play the role of ethical models (Matherne & Litchfield, 2012).

People learn by watching and then imitating the activities and behaviors of the individuals that are considered as reliable and credible (Bandura, 1977, 1986). Managers of an organization often serve as role models for their employees to judge which behaviors are appropriate and which not. Managers and leaders of organizations influence their employees to act ethically in two ways. First, since leaders are decision makers in the organization and due to their position, they are seen as legitimate models to be followed by employees. In other words, employees observe their leaders' behaviors and they use them as cues for ethical behavior. Second, the way managers and leaders reward appropriate behaviors and punish unethical ones influences the subordinates' engagement in ethical or unethical activities.

The effect of ethical leadership on subordinates can also be explained by social exchange processes (Blau, 1964). Social exchange is based on reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), stating that good behavior of one partner to the other one creates an obligation to reciprocate good behavior (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Ethical leaders affect the behaviors of subordinates through socioemotional exchange because these leaders engender high levels of trust and encourage their employees to show ethical behaviors (Brown & Treviño, 2006).

In organizations where ethical leadership is perceived to be low, we propose that people with higher affective commitment will be more motivated to engage in UPB, making justifications for engaging in UPB even more compelling. On this basis, we thus hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3: Ethical leadership moderates indirect positive relationship between affective commitment and UPB through moral disengagement

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. Participants

208 employees (98 males and 110 females) from different companies located in Istanbul formed the sample of this study. Respondents participated in the study on a voluntary basis. Paper-based surveys in Turkish were used and total completion time for respondents ranged from approximately 13 to 35 minutes. Two hundred fifty copies of the surveys were distributed. Of these, 208 were completed, resulting in a response rate of 83%. Samples age ranged between 21 to 37 with mean 26.5 and standard deviation 3.94. Respondents were highly educated.

3.2. Measures

We used 7-point interval scales (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) for all substantive variables measured in this study. All materials were presented in Turkish, and were translated from their original English versions using translation and back-translation procedures (Brislin, 1986).

Affective Commitment was assessed using a six-item scale developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993). Sample items are, "I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own," and "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me."

Moral disengagement was assessed with the eight-item scale developed by Moore et al. (2012). Sample items are, "It is okay to spread rumors to defend those you care about" and "People shouldn't be held accountable for doing questionable things when they were just doing what an authority figure told them to do."

UPB was assessed using the six-item measure developed by Umphress et al. (2010). Sample items are, "If it would help my organization, I would misrepresent the truth to make my organization look good," and "If it would help my organization, I would exaggerate the truth about my company's products or services to customers and clients."

Finally, *ethical leadership* was assessed with the fifteen-item instrument developed by Yukl et al. (2013). Sample items are "My boss shows a strong concern for ethical and moral values," and "My boss communicates clear ethical standards for members."

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1. Exploratory Factor Analyses

Prior to hypotheses testing, a series of exploratory procedures were conducted to examine the factorial validity of the instruments. The KMO indices were higher than 0.6 and the results of the Bartlett's test of sphericity were significant ($p<0.05$). The results of the exploratory factor analyses were satisfactory for all the four instruments on their hypothesized scale. Internal consistency analyses (alpha reliability coefficient) were also performed on the instruments. The results suggested all scales were reliable (alpha coefficient > 0.75). The results of exploratory factor analyses have been presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Results of Exploratory Factor Analyses on the Four Scales Used in This Study

Scale	Item number	Explained variance %	Reliability	Mean	Standard deviation
Affective Commitment	6	60.01	0.76	3.84	0.76
Moral Disengagement	8	63.32	0.89	2.44	1.06
UPB	6	64.5	0.87	2.8	1.35
Ethical Leadership	15	70	0.96	4.77	1.39

4.2. Hypotheses Testing

As shown in Table 2, regression analyses revealed that affective commitment was positively related to both UPB (B = .22, SE = .12, p = .002, Step 1) and moral disengagement (B = .21, SE = .09, p = .003, Step 2). We also found that moral disengagement was positively related to UPB (B = .9, SE = .67, p = .00, Step 3), and that when both affective commitment and moral disengagement were included in the model (Step 4), the effect of moral disengagement remained significant (B = .89, SE = .06, p = .00) while that of affective commitment did not (B = .02, SE = .09, p > .05 and not significant). Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 were thus supported.

Table 2: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses with Unethical Pro-Organizational Behavior and Moral Disengagement

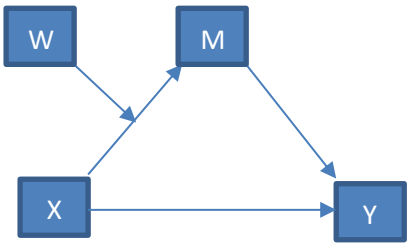
Step 1:	**B**	**SE**	***t***	R^2	***F***
Affective commitment	.22*	.12	3.19	.05	10.23*
Dependent variable: Unethical pro-organizational behavior					
Step 2:	**B**	**SE**	***t***	R^2	***F***
Affective commitment	.21*	.09	2.99	.04	8.99*
Dependent variable: Moral disengagement					
Step 3:	**B**	**SE**	***t***	R^2	***F***
Moral disengagement	0.9*	0.67	13.69	0.49	187.61*
Dependent variable: Unethical pro-organizational behavior					
Step 4:	**B**	**SE**	***t***	R^2	***F***
Affective commitment	.02	.09	1.84	.52	107.92*
Moral disengagement	.89*	.06	13.48		
Dependent variable: Unethical pro-organizational behavior					

*Note. N = 208, *p < .05.*

Although the three-step procedure described above (proposed by Baron & Kenny, 1986) is one common method of assessing statistical mediation, indirect effects tests require the calculation of compound coefficients, which are not normally distributed (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). We also reexamined the predicted linkages (affective commitment, moral disengagement and UPB) using bootstrapping (Preacher and Hayes, 2004). Bootstrapping makes is possible to assign measures of accuracy (defined in terms of variance, bias, prediction error or confidence intervals) to sample estimates (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). This technique uses random sampling methods and makes it possible to estimate the sampling distribution of almost any statistic (Varian, 2005). Generally, it falls in the broader class of resampling methods. Consistent with our first test, results of this follow-up test indicated that the indirect effect of affective commitment on UPB via moral disengagement was significant (B = 0.26, SE = 0.089, 95% bias corrected confidence interval [CI] [-.03, .55], suggesting that moral disengagement fully mediated the relationship between affective commitment and UPB.

Finally, we tested whether moral disengagement mediated the above moderating effect of ethical leadership by performing a moderated mediation analyses (Preacher et al., 2007). Figure 1 illustrates the model. As can be seen in Table 2, a subsequent bootstrapping analysis (5,000 random samples) (Preacher and Hayes, 2004) showed that the indirect effect of affective commitment on UPB via moral disengagement was stronger in the lower ethical leadership condition (*B* = .09, SE = .10, 95% bias-corrected CI [-.11, .32], excluding zero) than in the higher ethical leadership condition (*B* = .49, SE = .26, 95% bias-corrected CI [–.01, 1.01], including zero). The difference between the indirect relationships was significant (*B*diff = 1.07, SE = .39, 95% biascorrected CI [.38, 1.86]). Taken together, the above results thus provide support for our entire model.

Figure 1: The moderated mediation model



Note: X = Affective commitment, M = Moral disengagement, Y = UPB and W = Ethical leadership

Table 3: Results of Conditional Indirect Relationships

Relationships	B	SE	95% biascorrected CI
Conditional indirect relationships			
lower ethical leadership condition	.09	.10	[-.11, .32]
higher ethical leadership condition	.49	.26	[-.01, 1.01]
Difference	.40	.16	[.10, .69]

Note. N = 283. UPB = unethical pro-organizational behavior; CI = confidence interval. The conditional indirect effect tests were based on 5,000 bootstrapping resamples.

5. CONCLUSION

We found that affective commitment encourages UPB through the mechanism of moral disengagement. We also found that this effect is stronger when the ethical leadership is perceived to be low as opposed to being high. Our results thus extend knowledge of UPB by highlighting the importance of ethical leadership, and open up new avenues of research on the ethical challenges of prosocial motives, attitudes, and behaviors.

This research makes several theoretical contributions. As noted at the outset, prior organizational research has focused overwhelmingly on unethical behaviors motivated by selfinterest (Greenberg, 2002; Kish-Gephart et al., 2010; Reynolds, 2006; Thau et al., 2015), implicitly assuming that selfish motives and behaviors are the major source of unethical conduct. However, as part of the emergent literature on ethical challenges of pro-organizational motives and behaviors (e.g., Thau et al., 2015; Umphress et al., 2010), the present work demonstrates that organizational identification can likewise be a powerful motivator of unethical behavior. It is not surprising that pro-organizational behaviors have a dark side and in fact social identity theory and research have long established the dark side of ingroup favoritism and outgroup derogation (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Nevertheless, in view of the growing influence of work organizations in people's lives and on their well-being, it is important to explore how social psychological identification with an organization can lead to negative consequences, including social and moral hazards. At the same time, our research also sheds light on the specific psychological mechanism through which organizational identification relates to UPB. Establishing the mediating mechanism is important, as it helps explain the paradoxical phenomenon of benign (moral) intentions leading to unethical conduct.

Unethical behaviors have been shown to be costly for organizations (Cialdini et al., 2004), especially when those behaviors are performed in the name of the organization and undermine stakeholders' trust or even cause the collapse of an organization. In other words, employees may engage in unethical conducts in order to protect their organizations. Behaviors such as hiding incriminating information to save an organization's face and giving false information to people, (Umphress & Bingham, 2011) harm not only the employers, but the society as well (Cialdini et al., 2004).

Considering this dark aspect of organizational identification, organizational leaders should be careful about blind allegiance and loyalty of their employees to the organization and always emphasize how social responsibility and caring for all stakeholders are important. The link between organizational identification and moral disengagement shown in this study suggests that loyal employees are under higher pressure to relax their moral reasoning, especially when ethical leadership is

perceived to be low in the organization. To decrease the tendency toward moral disengagement, organizations and managers need to emphasize how hyper ethical values in organizational policies are vital and apply these ethical standards in their decision-making. At the same time, social responsibility should be enhanced in organizations to reduce UPB (May et al., 2015) and promote ethical pro-organizational behavior.

Last but not least, we would be remiss if we did not acknowledge a few limitations of the present work worth addressing in future research. First, the findings of the study are limited with the sample. The findings are not easily generalizable and should be tested further both in Turkey and in other cultures. Second, the findings may differ in different sectors. Further research in private or public sector or service industry and manufacturing can clarify this and provide a better picture of the mechanisms underlying UPB.

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USAGE PATTERN OF SALES PROMOTION IN THE KOREAN MARKET

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - An increasing number of retailers and manufacturers are relying on sales promotions to boost sales, extend market share, and clear excess inventory. Previous research on sales promotions primarily focus on the effect of this approach on two main perspectives: firm level, which includes sales, market share, and firm performance; and customer level, which involves perceived quality of product/service, change in reference price, and purchase/repurchase intention. To help subsequent and new research on these issues, this research note focuses on finding patterns of sales promotions conducted in various sectors of industry in the Korean market.

Methodology - A survey on the sales promotion usage pattern of a company was conducted with 74 decision makers in various companies followed by a small group interview.

Findings- Results indicated that price off and bonus pack sales promotions were the main types of sales promotions conducted and considered in most sectors of industry in Korea. Decision makers were also found to have knowledge on the long-term disadvantage of sales promotions. Despite this advantage, two main reasons were pointed out for the continuing conduct of sales promotions: reaction to the sales promotions of competitors and expectation of other members of the organizations.

Conclusion- This research on the usage pattern of sales promotions in Korea can contribute to the choice of the next sales promotion research topic in Korea and in other nations.

Keywords: Sales promotion, price off, bonus pack, long-term effect, survey.
JEL Codes: M31, D91, C83

1. INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this research note is to provide researchers some ideas of the sales promotion usage pattern of firms operating in Korea. Knowing the usage pattern of sales promotions used in the actual market will help researchers in deciding their research topic concerning sales promotion and its related area. This research note tackles two main issues. First, it identifies sales promotion types that are used the most, and vice versa, in the actual market. This issue includes sales promotions that are most widely used by companies and their competitors and that decision makers had trouble choosing in the past. Second, this research notes attempts to determine the reason for this usage pattern in Korea. It attempts to ascertain if the marketers who decide on whether or not to conduct sales promotion have knowledge about the down side of the sales promotion. If they know the downside and are still willing to conduct the sales promotion, then there must be a great advantage offsetting the downside. The present research will try to identify those advantages or, if there are none, the other reasons for conducting the sales promotion.

This article is organized as follows: First, relevant literatures are reviewed. Second, we describe the data and methodology we used in this study. Finally, we discuss the implications of our finidngs and explore directions for future research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Research on sales promotions has played an important role in marketing research since the 1960s. Many researchers have identified the short-term and long-term advantages of sales promotions to firms, such as increasing store traffic, boosting sales, clearing excess inventory, and extending market share (Guadagni and Little 1983; Kuehn and Rohloff 1967; Neslin and Shoemaker 1983; Neslin et al. 1985). These advantages can be attributed mainly to the nature of sales promotions, which act as a strong purchase incentive for customers (Blattberg and Neslin 1990; Blattberg et al. 1981; Blattberg and Wisniewski 1989; Doob et al. 1969; Guadagni and Little 1983; Kuehn and Rohloff 1967; Moriarty 1985; Neslin and Shoemaker 1983; Neslin et al. 1985; Woodside and Waddle 1975). For this reason, an increasing number of retailers and manufacturers are relying on sales promotions, and even supposedly recession-proof retailers are starting to offer customers sales promotions, such as deep discount coupons to drive traffic to stores (Pacheco and Rahman 2015).

Several researchers, however, argue that sales promotions can decrease sales and market share in the long term by affecting the internal reference price and repurchase intention of consumers in a negative way (Alba et al. 1994, 1999; DelVecchio et al. 2007; Diamond and Campbell 1989; Dodsen et al. 1978; Kalwani et al. 1990; Kalwani and Yim 1992; Lattin and Bucklin 1989; Mayhew and Winer 1992; Scott 1976). Sales promotion results in negative effects because it reduces the consumer's cognitive value of the product and decreases brand equity by lowering the reference price of the products; thus, the sales decline in the long run even though sales promotion increases the short-term sales (Diamond and Campbell 1989; Liefeld and Heslop 1985; Prentice 1975; Sawyer and Dickson 1984; Strang 1976).

In the 1990s, advertisement was the most frequently used marketing communication tool and was known as the most effective method to prop up firm sales. However, in the 21st century, the usage of advertisement declined and was replaced by sales promotions as the most frequently used marketing communication tool. The most recent reason for this increase is the emergence of smart phones. Since the launch of the iPhone in 2007, consumers have started to use their smart phones for shopping and for searching information on the product they want. Through their smart phones, consumers can easily compare the features, prices, and sales promotions of products. Thus, sales promotions have become the most effective way to dazzle consumers, whose price sensitiveness increased significantly because of the emergence of smart phones. This shift is one of the reasons firms started to develop new and unique sales promotion types, such as co-sales promotions between retailers and distributors, regular sales promotion weeks provided by credit card firms or distributors, gambled price discount, and so on. Regular sales promotion weeks include fashion weeks and gourmet weeks, among various others. A gambled price discount is a new sales promotion type whereby the customer receives a discount contingent on the outcome of a probabilistic gamble (Alavi et al. 2015).

Even with the increased usage of these new types of sales promotions increases, the traditional sales promotion types are still being frequently used in the market. The most frequently used sales promotion type is price cut. The term “sales” frequently used by retailers means price cut, which refers to a temporary decrease in the price of the product compared with the original price. These days, almost every distributor, such as supermarkets, category killers, and department stores, tempt consumers with loss-leader sales promotion, a pricing strategy where a product is sold at a price below its market cost to stimulate the sales of other more profitable goods or services. Loss leader is currently one of the most frequently used price-off sales promotions in distributing firms. Besides the price offs, bonus pack sales promotion is also a frequently used sales promotion in the market. Some examples of bonus pack sales promotions are the 1+1 or 2+1 promotion and a bigger package to provide more value to the customers compared with the regular price. Other classic sales promotions are coupon, sampling, premium, contest, sweepstake, and rebate.

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

In this study, a survey was conducted to identify the sales promotion usage pattern in a real market. Prior to the survey, a small group interview was conducted from October 1–2, 2014 to obtain a guide for the examples in Section 6 of the survey. The group consisted of five participants (i.e., 2 CEOs, 1 CMO, and 2 product managers).

Current domestic decision makers who conduct sales promotions were surveyed by questioning them from October 20–21, 2014 at Yonsei University, where a total of 111 marketers were taking a night-class MBA program. A seven-point Likert Scale was used to determine 19 questionnaires about within-company sales promotion decision making. The respondents’ position in their companies was asked using only 1 question. A total of 29 respondents scored 4 points or below in the decision-making questionnaire, and 8 copies were excluded because these were incomplete. Thus, a total of 74 copies of samples were used as data. The survey consists of six sections, as shown in <Table 1>. The second, third, fourth, and fifth sections were measured using a seven-point Likert scale, while in the first and sixth sections, the respondents were asked to choose from examples.

Table 1: Construct of Survey

Section	Topic	Question
1	Position in the company	1. Position in the company
2	Strategic marketing decision making	1. For engaging in the strategic decision-making process
		2. Involvement in strategic decision making
		3. Acknowledgement of current strategic decision making
		4. Acknowledgement of previous strategic decision making
		5. Acknowledgement of future strategic decision making
		6. The extent to which strategic decision-making is informed
3	The extent to which strategic decision making is informed	1. The extent to which sales promotion decision making is engaged
		2. Acknowledgment of current sales promotion decision making
		3. Acknowledgement of previous sales promotion decision making
		4. Acknowledgement of future sales promotion decision making
		5. The extent to which sales promotion decision making is informed
4	Sales promotion usage pattern	1. The types of sales promotions mostly used for their company products
		2. Second most used sales promotion
		3. Most agonized sales promotion when planning
		4. What rival companies use for their sales promotion
		5. What sales promotion to use in the future
5	Acknowledgment of long-term downside of sales promotion	1. Experience of fall in the sales after sales promotion
		2. Experience of fall in the market share after sales promotion
		3. Experience of fall in the brand equity after sales promotion
6	The reason for conducting sales promotion	1. The reason for conducting sales promotion when the downside is known

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The industries the respondents were affiliated to were banking/insurance/stock (2 people, 2.7%), IT (4 people, 5.4%), semiconductor (1 person, 1.4%), automotive (3 people, 4.1%), machinery (2 people, 2.7%), electrical/electronic (9 people, 12.2%), pharmaceutical (4 people, 5.4%), chemical (2 people, 2.7%), paper (1 person, 1.4%), cosmetics (6 people, 8.1%), household goods (14 people, 18.9%), food (11 people, 14.9%), retail (5 people, 6.8%), entertainment (5 people, 6.8%), other manufacturing (1 person, 1.4%), and other services (4 people, 5.4%). More than half of the respondents (54.1%) were working in the electrical/electronics, cosmetics, household goods, and food industries. The respondents held the following positions in their company: CEO (13 people, 17.6%), executives (6 people, 8.1%), department head (8 people, 10.8%), deputy department head (30 people, 40.5%), and section chief (17 people, 23.0%).

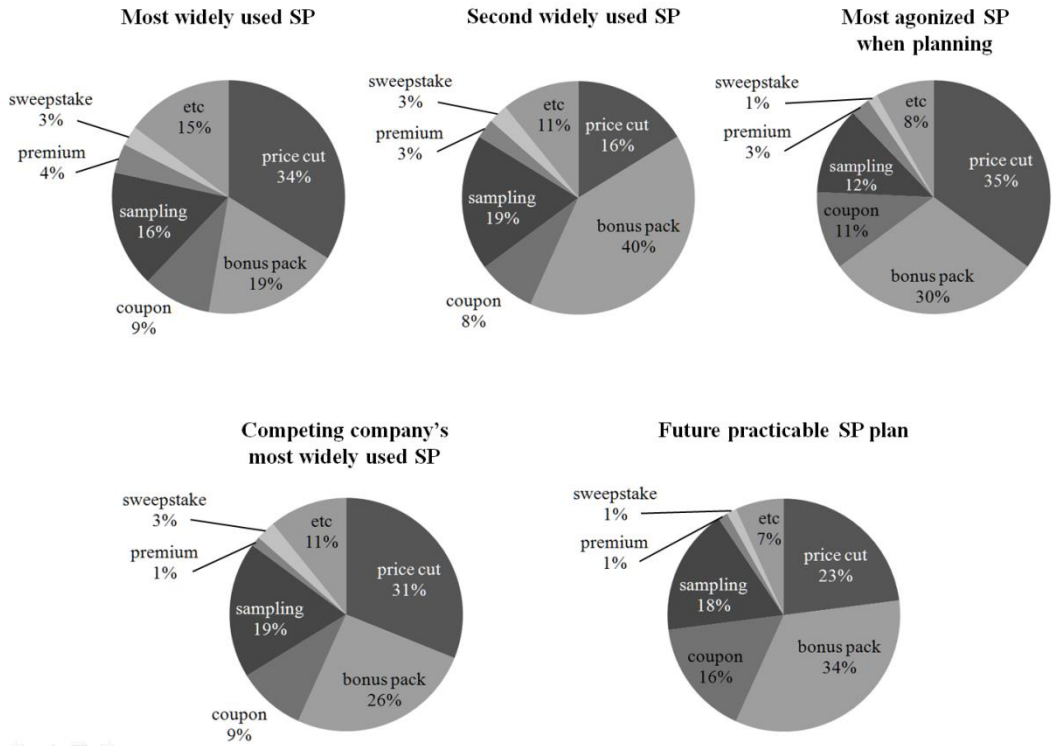
The average seven-point Likert scale for six responses about strategic marketing decision making was M=4.75, which means sample extraction was rather successful. The other averages were as follows: M=4.85 for engaging in the strategic decision-making process, M=4.57 for involvement in strategic decision making, M=4.78 for acknowledgement of current strategic decision making, M=4.54 for acknowledgement of previous strategic decision making, M=4.71 for acknowledgement of future strategic decision making, and M=5.07 for the extent to which the strategic decision-making is informed. The decision making for the sales promotion of their products also came out to be M=5.14, which was successful. Results indicate that engaging in sales promotion decision making was M=5.15, acknowledgment of current sales promotion decision making was M=4.69, acknowledgement of previous sales promotion decision making was M=5.16, acknowledgement of future sales promotion decision making was M=5.12, and the extent to which sales promotion decision making is informed was M=5.53. The average point for 12 questions about the company's strategic marketing decision making and product sales promotion decision making was 4.95.

The responses to the first question regarding the types of sales promotions mostly used for their company products were 25 price cut (33.8%), 14 bonus pack (18.9%), 7 coupon (9.5%), 12 sampling (16.2%), 3 premium (4.1%), 2 sweepstake (2.7%), and 11 others (14.9%). For the question regarding the second most used sales promotion, the results were 30 bonus pack (40.5%), 12 price cut (16.2%), 6 coupon (8.1%), 14 sampling (18.9%), 2 premium (2.7%), and 8 others (10.8%). The question regarding the most agonized sales promotion when planning obtained the following results: major types were 26 price cut (35.1%) and 22 bonus pack (29.7%), while the minor ones were 8 coupon (10.8%), 9 sampling (23.0%), 2 premium (2.7%), 1 sweepstake (1.4%), and 6 others (8.1%).

The question regarding what rival companies use for their sales promotion showed the following results: 23 price cut (31.1%), 19 bonus pack (25.6%), 7 coupon (9.5%), 14 sampling (18.9%), 1 premium (1.4%), 2 sweepstake (2.7%), and 8 others (10.8%). The responses for the question regarding what sales promotion to use in the future were 17 price cut (23.0%), 25 bonus pack (33.8%), 12 coupon (16.2%), 13 sampling (17.6%), 1 premium (1.4%), 1 sweepstake (1.4%), and 5 others (6.8%). Details are shown in <Figure 1>. When all the survey results are combined, we find that current field marketers mostly use and encounter trouble choosing between price cut and bonus pack sales promotion.

Regarding the question in Section 5, respondents were asked to choose "Yes" or "No" for all three questions about the acknowledgment of the long-term downside of sales promotion. If any question was marked "Yes," then the respondents were asked to move to Section 6 and reply to the question about the reason for conducting the sales promotion even though they already knew its long-term downside. If none of the three questions was marked "Yes," then the respondents were asked to quit the survey. The responses to the first question regarding the experience of a fall in the sales after the sales promotion were Yes =67.6% and No=32.4%. The responses to the second question regarding the experience of a fall in the market share after sales promotion were Yes=54% and No=45.9%. The responses to the third question regarding the experience of a fall in brand equity after the sales promotion were Yes=43.2% and No= 56.7%.

Figure 1: Result of Pre-test 1



In Section 6, one question was asked about the reason for conducting sales promotion even when the downside of conducting it was known. Seven examples were shown in this question, and respondents were asked to choose one. The examples were chosen in reference to the small group interview conducted before the survey. The results were as follows: (1) Although the downside is huge, the amount of prop up of the sales during the sales promotion is too significant compared to the long-term downside: 2.7% (N=2). (2) The downside is small compared to the advantage of the sales promotion: 1.4% (N=1). (3) The members of the company expect the company to conduct the sales promotion and take the advantage of it: 10.8% (N=8). (4) The short-term advantage is more important than the long-term downside for firm performance: 29.7% (N=22). (5) We have no choice because our competitors conduct sales promotion: 32.4% (N=24). (6) We can conduct a sales promotion again when the downside is big: 17.6% (N=13). (7) The long-term downside is none of my business: 5.4% (N=4). Examples 4 and 5 accounted for more than half of the respondents (62.6%). Thus, those two reasons were considered the biggest reasons for conducting sales promotions even when the managers knew the long-term downside of the sales promotion.

5. CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this research is to provide researchers some ideas of sales promotion usage pattern of firms operating in Korea. It also aims to identify the reason firms continue to conduct sales promotion despite the fact that the managers acknowledge in advance the downside of the sales promotion, such as declining sales and market share and falling brand equity. The contributions of this research can be summarized into two aspects. First, in identifying the sales promotion usage pattern in Korea, the present work can provide researchers a practical hint in deciding on their follow-up research topic concerning the sales promotion and its related area. Various research argue the short-term and long-term advantages of sales promotion, as well as its short-term and long-term disadvantages, and they all identify the advantages and disadvantages of various types of sales promotion in different contexts (Alba et al. 1994, 1999; Blattberg and Neslin 1990; Blattberg and Wisniewski 1989; Blattberg et al. 1981; DelVecchio et al. 2007; Diamond and Campbell 1989; Dodsen et al. 1978; Doob et al. 1969; Guadagni and Little 1983; Kalwani et al. 1990; Kalwani and Yim 1992; Kuehn and Rohloff 1967; Lattin and Bucklin 1989; Liefeld and Heslop 1985; Mayhew and Winer 1992; Moriarty 1985; Neslin and Shoemaker 1983; Neslin et al. 1985; Prentice 1975; Sawyer and Dickson 1984; Scott 1976; Strang 1976; Woodside and Waddle 1975). The present research indicated that managers have and will conduct two main sales promotion types, namely, price cut and bonus pack, regardless of the various kinds of sales promotion that can be implemented. Previous research from other researchers noted that price cut is the most powerful sales promotion type to prop up sales and extend the market share while conducting the sales promotion (e.g., Nusair et al. 2010). Numerous experimental studies have also compared the negative effects of price cut sales promotions and bonus pack sales promotion (Campo and Yague 2006; Ogilby 1983, Kahneman and Tversky 1979; Hardesty and Bearden 2003; Diamond and Campbell 1989). Issues in sales promotion research are endless because we live in a world that is flooded with sales promotions. The effect of various types of sales promotion on sales, brand equity, perceived quality of product, customer's reference price, repurchase intention, and firm performance can be investigated in various marketing contexts. In the current context, this research note will have a meaningful contribution for researchers who study the sales promotion topic and aim to identify their research question and topic.

The second contribution is by conducting a small group interview and using the information to construct the survey that will ask the reason for conducting the sales promotion. Therefore, the research could identify the reason for conducting sales promotion despite the fact that many of the managers have experienced the long-term disadvantage of the sales promotion. The result of Section 5 in the survey indicated that 67.6% of the managers acknowledge the future possibility of a fall in the sales, 54% acknowledge the future possibility of a fall in market share, and 43.2% have experienced a fall in brand equity. We may not be able to say that managers fully understand the disadvantage of the sales promotion, but at least they acknowledge of it. This finding may mean that the large numbers (M=54.9%) of managers may already recognize the future possibility of the disadvantage in sales, market share, and brand equity. However, they still expect to use sales promotion to prop up the sales of their products or services, especially price cut, which is known to be the most powerful but also the most harmful way that leads brands into the endless loop of sales promotion. In fact, the main reason for conducting the sales promotion despite the acknowledged disadvantage was the reality that they should do it because the competitors do it (32.4%). This finding means that the companies choose the dark side of sales promotion rather than lose market share in the competitive market, in which their competitors conduct aggressive sales promotion and win the market share. This strategy is in line with the second main result that 29.7% of the respondents replied to; they conduct the sales promotion because the short-term advantage is more important than the long-term disadvantage for firm performance. Although the respondents acknowledge that a big fall may occur in the brand equity or reference price after the sales promotion ends, managers are forced to win the market share now and prop up the sales compared to the performance of their competitors. Worst of all, the percentage of respondents who answered that they can conduct sales promotion again when the long-term disadvantage is big was 17.6%, which means that many firms are playing prisoner's dilemma in a highly competitive current market. In fact, many companies in Korea are conducting more than 50% price cut sales promotion, and even 90% discount, to increase store traffic in numerous social commerce sites. These methods can lead to the endless loop of sales promotion, that is, if there is no sales promotion, the customers will not come to the store or buy the products or services, or wait until the sales promotion starts again. Thus, the companies have no choice but to start the deep sales promotion again. Companies will not be able to survive on their own, and they have no choice but to rely on the deep sales promotion or on websites that offer 365 days high sales promotion. Thus, this reality will clearly lead to the decline of firm performance in the end.

The limitations of this study are as follows. First, this study mainly focuses on sales promotion conducted in the Korean market; thus, substitution to the worldwide case must be limited. The result of this study in the Korean market can be extended to worldwide research to identify the difference between countries and the reason for the difference in the context of the cultural aspect. The Korean market is known to be very competitive and unique compared to other Asian countries. Researchers can figure out the reason for this highly competitive market, such as the speculation that Korean consumers are highly price sensitive compared to other countries' consumers. This kind of research can provide advice on

the implementation of sales promotion to companies operating in countries with consumers that are as highly sensitive to price as the Korean market or vice versa. Second, it was impossible to identify the different reasons for implementing the sales promotion, although different kinds of sales promotion have different sizes of long-term disadvantages after the sales promotion, as mentioned above. Why do firms conduct price cut sales promotion when it will clearly lead to a sharp downturn on the sales? What about other sales promotions? Researchers can deal with these issues in subsequent studies. Third, the respondents of the survey conducted in this study were affiliated to various kinds of sectors, such as IT, banking, automotive, machinery, and electronic, and the obtained results may be very different in the conduct patterns of sales promotion. Although the sample size was enough for the analysis, classifying the sales promotion usage pattern into individual sectors was impossible because the sample size was too small for each individual sector. Thus, a subsequent study is needed to complement these problems, identify the sales promotion usage pattern in individual sectors, and investigate the strategic implications for the marketers.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COMPULSORY CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR AND LEADERSHIP: A RESEARCH BY ACCOMMODATION BUSINESSES

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- Compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) is a disparate and new topic recently presented in management literature. Organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB), being expected to have positive impact on organizational success, having been transformed to CCB as a result of various administrative and social pressures may cause several negative results due to employers and organization. The basic problem of studying within this framework is to reveal the relation between compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) -being evolved from volunteering to obligation (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006)-and leadership styles by focusing on the negative effects of CCB within the organization. The primary objective of our research is to establish a general framework for Compulsory citizenship behaviour in accommodation businesses sector of Turkey and to present a perspective on how leadership affects compulsory citizenship behaviour. In this way, it is aimed to provide a perspective to leaders to develop solution proposals.

Methodolgy- A five-item scale is benefited in the study, which is adapted by Compulsory Citizenship Behaviour Scale (CCBS) of Gadot (2007) in order to evaluate the compulsory citizenship behaviours of the participants. Within this scope, three hypotheses are tested based on the theoretical implications of the variables in our study.

Findings- The findings acquired within the study indicate that compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) has a positive relation with despotic leadership while CCB has negative relations with transformative leadership and rewarding leadership. Additionally; there is a positive and significant relationship between transformative leadership and rewarding leadership while a negative relation is revealed with despotic relation. There is a negative relationship found between despotic leadership and rewarding leadership. By evaluating the findings of regression analysis in general; it is understood that compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) is quite effective to explain despotic leadership, a style of leadership that is often described as negative by employees. The environment in which CCB is developed can be achieved more easily via this leadership style. Besides; though it has negative effect on rewarding leadership style, the mentioned effect is limited. In this context; CCB is suggested to have significant effect on leading styles.

Conclusion- By analysing the findings; despotic leadership has a significant impact on CCB. In the context of the study; while the negative impact of transformative leadership on CCB is detected, it is surprising that the same negative impact of rewarding leading style is limited on CCB.

Keywords: Compulsory citizenship behaviour, citizenship behaviour, leadership styles.
JEL Codes: M10, M12, M19

1. INTRODUCTION

Organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) topic has been studied for years within management and organization literature. Hundreds of research held relating the issue have revealed that mentioned behaviours can produce beneficial results for

the organization without any additional cost and the situation has caused the interest about the topic being increased much more each day. Organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) suggested to include the positive behaviours such as volunteering, altruism, loyalty and helping (Organ, 1988), is taken into account as an important subject to increase the organizational performance, effectiveness and productivity (Podsakoff and others., 2000; Turnipseed and Murkison, 1996).

But the perspective developed for organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) over the years has not considered the deviations sufficiently and OCB has ignored the other side of medallion. Whereas several researches reveal that the organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB) done voluntarily within the organization may be used as a pressure tool in time by some stronger people (boss or colleagues) even it may become a part of the mission by deviating from the basics of volunteering (Bolino and others., 2004; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007).

The basic problem of studying within this framework is to reveal the relation between compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) -being evolved from volunteering to obligation (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006)-and leadership styles by focusing on the negative effects of CCB within the organization.

The research is designed to be composed of four parts. In the first part, literature review of OCB and leadership, in the second part data and methodology, in the third part the findings and in the final section, conclusions were included.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. From Organizational Citizenship to Compulsory Citizenship

Organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is first studied by Smith, Organ and Near (1983). By this study; OCB concept is stated as “exactly based on volunteering, helping the individuals due to organization’s interests and supporting the organization”. Organ (1988) defines OCB in another study as “the behaviours done by individuals voluntarily also behaviours ignored for the promotions being beyond definition”.

Organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is named by various forms within the literature such as “Good soldier syndrome” (Organ, 1988; Turnipseed and Murkison, 1996), “Extra-role behaviours” (Van Dyne and Lepine, 1998), “Contextual performance” (Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994) or “Prosocial organizational behaviour” (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986). In this case OCB includes positive behaviours such as being sensitive while reacting the mistakes, solving the matters by discussing, accomplishing the business just in time and supporting the colleagues (Kidwell and the others 1997; Podsakoff and the others, 2000).

Many dimensions belonged to organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) are observed to be researching topics while studying the literature. It is stated by Podsakoff (2000) that nearly 30 dimensions of OCB are studied. One of the most important studies herein; Organ (1988) defines the 5-dimensional structure of organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) as kindness, altruistism, being conscientious, gentility and civil virtue. Besides the 2-dimensional study by Williams and Anderson (1991) is benefited in common.

Gadot (2006) debates the concept of compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) by questioning the border between the success of organization and feeling obliged to work in order to achieve organizational success for employees. Gadot, by arguing about the compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) due to the compulsive chief, states that compulsive behaviours can affect organizatinal behaviours in negative manner such as work stress or burnout. Gadot (2006), stating that behaviours occurred by force cannot be defined as organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) because it is based on the individual’s volunteering preference, mentions the concept of compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB).

Gadot (2006: 85) defines the compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) as “Doing some behaviours being on the basis of volunteerism coercible, due to forcing; as a result of the pressure within organization,”. In other words; these behaviours can be called as CCB when the individual have to display prosocial behaviours in the business environment. For the formation of compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB); obedience of employees are required to environmental conditions besides they have to show positive behaviours beyond their role out of duty (Gadot, 2007). Certainly; every kind of behaviours beyond role are not to be evaluated as compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB). If an employee accepts, someone else’s duty while his/her absence voluntarily or helps him/her for any matter willingly; this type of behaviour cannot be described as CCB. However; whether an employee has to display that kind of behaviours due to the pressure via boss / the chief or if he/she is obliged to do so, compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) can be mentioned. As an example, if boss or the chief forces any employee to work on his/her own also request them to train a new colleague at the same time that kind of behaviour can be defined as CCB. As a result; the employee has to set balance between his/her own duty’s necessities and the request by the chief.

An aggressive manager or coercive persuasion behaviour within the literature are admitted as the basic premise of compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) (Gadot, 2006). According to Tepper (2000: 178) aggressive manager behaviour is defined as “the manager's hostile attitude by verbal or varied behaviours without physical contact”. That kind of behaviours

are observed to be displayed to subordinates for the managers who are anxious about losing their jobs and cannot dare to face negative consequences (Tepper and the others, 2004). Encouraging the organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) within the organization in order to create a positive working environment and obtain high productivity is quite important. However; expressing this situation intensively and forcing the employees makes organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) to be transformed into compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB).

By his research relating the outputs of CCB; Gadot (2007) studies the relationship between compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) of several teachers working in Israel and various organizational outputs such as job stress and their satisfaction. Most of the participants stated that they feel enormous pressure to display CCB. The findings of Gadot indicate that compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) may be more common within business environment than they are suggested. Gadot (2007) finds out that compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) is positively correlated with the variables such as job stress, organizational policy, intention to leave work and burnout while CCB has negative correlation with innovation, job satisfaction and business performance. In this framework; the aim of the study is contributing the developing literature of the field by studying the dynamics of compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) within another culture and sector.

2.2. Leadership and Compulsory Citizenship Relation

Even if leadership studies analyse mostly the relations between manager and subordinates, the leaders are not managers as well. According to Akgemici (1997) leadership can be defined as leading and managing specific people or groups to achieve their goals. Morden (1997) concludes that leadership is doing business via others. Leadership is a dynamic process including the influencing of individuals in order to contribute the others and groups to achieve their duties. The mentioned influencing will be absolutely justified and reasonably accepted by those who react positively to the leadership process.

Observing various leadership styles within the literature is possible. Leadership styles are the main reasons for the individual supporting to design their own attitudes (Larson and Kendrith, 1974). Researchers are in the exertion of classifying in the context of leadership theories. One of the most observed classifying is being held due to group's size, their situation and their understanding and behaviours. In this study; especially transformative, despotic (autocratic) and rewarding leadership styles are studied.

2.2.1. Transformative Leadership

It is one of the most effective leadership styles. Transformative leadership style is observed to be closely related with individual's development in the cause of analysing the literature (Çelik, 1999). Transformative leaders create a relationship that can transform employees into leaders and the leaders into ethical value followers through their mutual understanding and appropriate environment (Sosik ve Shelley, 1997). The transformative leaders try to teach their followers the importance of taking their interests on the second plan in the name of the interests of the group or business. By enhancing the self-confidence, competence and effectiveness of followers, they have a positive impact on self-promotion, motivation and job performance (Jung and Avolio, 1999).

2.2.2. Despotic Leadership

Despotic leadership within the literature is identified with an oppressive and aggressive attitude. Subordinates cannot do anything without an exact order of their despotic leader. The leader, on his own, is the only decision maker (Altun, 2000). Despite of being an old style of leadership, it still maintains its validity today. Both the management and the decision-making authorities are solely belonged to the leader.

According to Bakan and Büyükbeşe (2010) it has utilities such as meeting the expectations of the group members within the autocratic and bureaucratic societies additionally allowing the leader to make more efficient and faster decisions by providing them an independent movement area owing to having faith and confidence; while despotic leadership may cause the leader to behave extremely selfish also it may result a decline in the motivation, job satisfaction and creativity of group members by not allowing them to express themselves. Despotic leadership often leads to repressed anger and hostilities which is reducing performance and job satisfaction (Baumgartel, 1957).

2.2.3. Rewarding Leadership

Transactional (rewarding, interacting) leadership is defined as leaders who motivate their employees always on reward basis (Burns, 1978). The typical characteristic of rewarding leaders is setting goals, clarifying the relationship between reward and performance, and providing constructive feedback to employees (Jung ve Avolio, 1999).

Though the type of leadership subject is often discussed within the literature; the most common view admitted by management scientists states that the leadership type is detected due to organizational environment, the structure of management and the duties, conditions and characteristics of the leader. In the recent studies, leadership styles have been associated with many different variables. Chapman (1975) studies the styles of women and men leaders, Delbecq (1964)

analyzes managerial leading types, Helmich and Paul (1975) examine leadership styles and the needs of the leaders, Rotemberg and Saloner (1993) study on leadership and incentives.

Several organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) studies figure out findings about the relation between leader's attitudes and OCB factors. The leadership styles are revealed to help setting stronger reciprocal relations in the business within the mentioned studies (Graham, 1990). Podsakoff and the others (2000) have a study analyzing the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and leading styles. According to the results; there is a negative relationship found between directing leadership and OCB also a positive one between supporting leadership style and OCB (Euwema and the others, 2007).

Although the relation between organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and leading styles are studied; any study has not been met about the relationship between leadership styles and compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB). The aim of this study is studying the relations between leadership styles and compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) to meet the mentioned need within the literature.

Compulsory citizenship behaviour is a quite new topic within both national and international literature. Thus; the amount of studies about the subject is reasonably limited. The only applied research relating the topic is held by Gadot (2007) on a group of teachers in Israel; a positive correlation is revealed within the study between compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) and job stress, organizational politics, intent to leave work, negligent behavior and burnout furthermore the CCB concept is found to have negative correlation with innovation, job satisfaction, group-level, OCB and duty performance. In this framework; several variables as leading styles, that Gadot (2007) has not studied their relations with CCB, are analyzed in this research in order to reveal the relations between leadership styles and compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB). The hypothesis formed in this framework are as follows:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between despotic leadership and CCB.

Hypothesis 2: There is a negative relationship between transformative leadership and CCB.

Hypothesis 3: There is a negative relationship between rewarding leadership and CCB.

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

An amount of 635 working people from various accommodation businesses are participated in the study. The participants herein are between 18 and 63 ages (Average=26.96 and Standard Deviation=7.73); their duration spent in the firm is between 1 and 33 years (Average=4.70 and Standard Deviation=5.65). 36.2% of the participants are women and 63.7% are men. Data obtained from those 635 questionnaires were analysed through the SPSS statistical packet program and three proposed relations were tested through regression analyses

A five-item scale is benefited in the study, which is adapted by Compulsory Citizenship Behaviour Scale (CCBS) of Gadot (2007) in order to evaluate the compulsory citizenship behaviours of the participants. Marking of the participants about what extent they agree relating the expressions mentioned in the forms on Five-point Likert scale (1- I never agree; 5- I completely agree) is requested. Reliability coefficient of the scale (Cronbach alpha) is measured as .94 within the study.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The correlation findings acquired within the study indicate that compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) has a positive relation with despotic leadership (r=.54, p>.01) while CCB has negative relations with transformative leadership (r=-.19, p>.01) and rewarding leadership (r=-.12, p>.01). Additionally; there is a positive and significant relationship (r=.59, p>.01) between transformative leadership and rewarding leadership while a negative relation (r=-.23, p>.01) is revealed with despotic relation. There is a negative relationship (r=-.19, p>.01) found between despotic leadership and rewarding leadership. The results of the analysis are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1:Averages, Standard Deviation and Correlations

Variables	Average	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4
1.Compulsory citizenship	2,88	0,89	(0,91)			
2.Transformative leadership	3,76	0,79	-0,19**	(0,89)		
3. Rewarding leadership	3,68	0,90	-0,12**	0,59**	(0,88)	
4. Despotic leadership	2,48	0,97	0,54**	-0,23**	-0,19**	(0,90)

In order to detect the effect of CCB on dependent variables; hierarchical regression analysis is held in the study. Firstly; the demographic variables such as "age" and "duration spent in the firm" are included in the study at the first stage within the regression analysis and their effects are controlled. At the second stage; the effect of CCB are examined.

Table 2: Compulsory Citizenship Behavior Regression Results

Variables	***β***	R^2
Stage 1		0,02
Age	-0,09*	
Duration spent in firm	-0,05	
F	3,551**	
Stage 2		0,31
Age	-0,07	
Duration spent in firm	-0,08	
Transformative leadership	-0,07*	
Rewarding leadership	0,02	
Despotic leadership	0,52***	
F	40,582***	

Hypothesis 1 tests a positive relation between CCB and despotic leadership. The findings reveal that despotic leadership has a significant effect on CCB (β = .52, p > .001). Hence; Hypothesis 1 is accepted.

Hypothesis 2 tests a negative relationship between CCB and transformative leadership. According to the results obtained; transformative leadership has a negative effect on CCB (β = -.07, p < .10). Consequently; Hypothesis 2 is accepted.

Hypothesis 3 tests a negative relationship between CCB and rewarding leadership. Due to the findings; it is revealed that rewarding leadership has not a significant effect on CCB (β = -.07, p < .10). So that Hypothesis 3 is rejected.

By evaluating the findings of regression analysis in general; it is understood that despotic leadership is quite effective to explain compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB), a style of leadership that is often described as negative by employees. The environment in which CCB is developed can be achieved more easily via this leadership style. Besides; though it has negative effect on rewarding leadership style, the mentioned effect is limited. In this context; leading styles is suggested to have significant effect on CCB.

5. CONCLUSION

The basic aim of the study is to reveal the relation and reciprocal interaction of compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) -a limited studying topic- with various leadership styles. Within the study held via reliable and valid scales detected; the single factor structure of organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) scale and 3-factors structure of other scales are confirmed. According to the results of correlation analysis; a positive relation exists between CCB and despotic leadership besides there are negative relations between CCB and transformative also rewarding leadership styles. Furthermore due to the findings; positive and significant relations exist between transformative and rewarding leadership styles besides there is a negative one between transformative and despotic leading style. Additionally a negative relationship exists between despotic and rewarding leadership.

By analysing the regression findings; although it is not surprising that despotic leadership has a significant impact on CCB which is perceived as negative by employees (β = .52, p > .001), revealing herein the explanation ability of CCB about the mentioned leading style is important. In other words; that kind of working environment -in which CCB can develop and provide itself a legitimate basis- may be obtained by that leadership style. Owing to the findings acquired; it is concluded that CCB would be met frequently in the working environment where the despotic leadership is concerned.

As it is mentioned at the beginning of the study; general acceptance within the literature is as follows: Compulsory citizenship behaviour (CCB) has positive relations with the leadership and attitude styles perceived as negative notions further CCB has negative relationship with the leading and attitude styles which are perceived as positive. In the context of the study; while the negative impact of transformative leadership on CCB is detected, it is surprising that the same negative impact of rewarding leading style is limited on CCB.

The study include several limitations. The most important limitation is the problem of generalization issue. Because the sample benefited within the study includes solely a certain amount of middle level managers. A research including a more expanded sample will provide better results. Further studies are to examine the limitation of rewarding leadership style effect on CCB's by benefiting an expanded sample.

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AN EMPIRICAL ASSESSMENT ON ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS OF SCHOOL MANAGERS AND TEACHERS AS STAKEHOLDER OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- It is clear that researches on stakeholders of education contribute to responsible living in order to better understand the current situation and design sustainability. Identification of problems will contribute to the solution of problems of educational stakeholders. Education on responsible leaving is a learning process that increases student's knowledge and awareness and prepares learners to change their attitudes, then behaviors. Although there is a great deal of research on students, few empirical research attempts have been made to search environmental awareness of teachers and school managers who are most powerful stakeholders for bringing changes in education system.

Methodology- This paper will be an attempt to study an environmental awareness of teachers and school managers in private schools by their demographical qualities. In order to stimulate debates that demographical qualities influence teachers and school managers environmental awareness, a total of 418 teachers and managers were selected and an environmental awareness scale was employed to assess their knowledge, attitude and behaviors.

Findings- The results of the research show that there is significant difference between demographical qualities of school managers/teachers and their environmental awareness in terms of knowledge, attitude and behaviors.

Conclusion- Based on these researches findings, institutions should do more to promote environmental awareness programs in teacher education curricula by taking into consideration teachers and administrators demographical qualities. Instead of transmissive teaching methodologies, it is expected that institutions start to use new techniques like transformative methodologies that go beyond the teaching method to also reflect the philosophy and purpose of sustainability education

Keywords: Environmental awareness, school managers, teachers, stakeholders.

JEL Codes: I20, Q01, M10

1.INTRODUCTION

Education and research about environment fall within the realm of sustainable development which has been a primary purpose and overarching principle of EU and UN policies since the early 1990's. The history of environmental researches goes back to 1890s (McCrea, 2006) and environmental education to 1920s. (Ford 1986). 'Environmental Education' (EE) refers to organized efforts to teach how natural environments function and particularly, how human beings can manage behavior and ecosystems to live sustainably. Environmental education is the teaching of individuals and communities in transitioning to a society that is knowledgeable of the environment and its associated problems, aware of the solutions to these problems and motivated to solve them. (Stapp et al. 1969). The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) states that EE is vital in imparting an inherent respect for nature amongst society and in enhancing public environmental awareness.

Internationally, EE gained acknowledgement when the UN Conference on the Human Environment held in Stockholm, Sweden, in 1972, declared environmental education need be used as a instrument to address global environmental problems. In response to approval by 96 of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment, in 1975 as a United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) project, UNESCO/UNEP International Environmental Education Programme (IEEP) has been

started. Its actions can be seen in following three initial stages so far (https://www.uia.org/s/or/en/1100055846 access : 09.06.2017):

i. *1975-1977 - Development of a general awareness of the necessity of environmental education : Specific activities included a series of international and regional meetings and the setting up of an international newsletter 'Connect'. Development of general awareness remains to be a principal concern.*

ii. *1978-1980 - Development of concepts and methodological approaches : A series of studies and pilot projects was initiated, stressing an interdisciplinary approach. Organization of Intergovernmental Conference on Environmental Education, 1977, Tbilisi.*

iii. *1981-1983 - Efforts to incorporate an environmental dimension into educational processes of UNESCO Member States. Organization of International Congress on Environmental Education and Training, 1987, Moscow (Russia), endorsing the International Strategy for Action in the Field of Environmental Education and Training for the 1990s. So far over 150 countries have been involved in IEEP events, including more than 250,000 pupils and about 12,000 teachers, from over 1,700 schools and 130 training schools and research centers. Over 60 of these countries now include environmental education throughout school curricula.*

In Turkey, the precious improvements upon being constituted different foundations in order to bend the environmental problems have taken place in the recent three decades. In 1982 Turkish Constitution stipulates that every citizen has the right to live in healthy and balanced environmental standard. In 1983, the environmental law was constituted and in 1991 Ministry of Environment was founded. Due to increasing environmental problems in Turkey, environmental awareness has become a necessity. EE and researches on environment has recently become more popular in the field of education. However, despite of all these developments, researches haven't been sufficiently internalized yet. Some of these studies were undertaken with pupils, university students and graduates and prospective teachers.

This study firstly gives information about the increasing importance of education and research about environment in the world . Following the introduction, it's given the short list of recent researches in abroad and Turkey about environmental awareness. Secondly its explained the reason why teachers and school managers have been selected for this study as stakeholder of the education system , then its proposed a research model for the study. After explaining the methodology and analyzing all the findings, conclusions and recommendations have been made as the result of the research.

2.LITERATURE REVIEW

In Turkey in the last decades, Şama (1997) has made research called "university youth's attitudes towards environmental and environmental issues" , Ayhan (1999) has examined "effecting factors on environmental awareness of students in primary school", Haktanır (2000) has worked on environmental perception of children in preschool period, Ürey(2009) has compared the environmental academic achievements and environment and human-centered attitudes of the prospective teachers . Yücel and Morgil in 1998 have found out the results on knowledge about environmental concepts and problems of secondary and higher education students (Yılmaz, Morgil, Aktuğ, Göbekli, 2002) and finally Erten (2003, 2004, 2005, 2007) has published many researches and scale studies about environmental attitudes and environmental education. In 2008, Erten has published a comparisons between German and Turkish teacher's insights to egocentric, anthropocentric and antipathetic attitudes towards environment. Baş (2011) and Bükük (2012) has completed their master thesis about "environmental consciousness levels of the teachers and school managers in secondary education public schools".

In abroad , environmental awareness is the focus of the research area for many years. For example, in 1999 Eagles, Paul and Demare (1999) made a research about factors influencing children's environmental attitudes. In Holland Kuhlemeıer, Van Denberg and Lagerwejg (1999) have worked on more than 9000 students about their environmental knowledge, attitudes and behavior in Dutch secondary education , Ma and Batesone (1999) have published their study called multivariate analysis of relationship between attitudes toward science and attitudes toward the environment. The results of these students pointed out that students' gain on knowledge, attitude and behavior regarding the environment improved as a results of environmental education. The importance of EE that the main actor in efforts to prevent environmental problems is to educate all the stakeholders of environmental education.

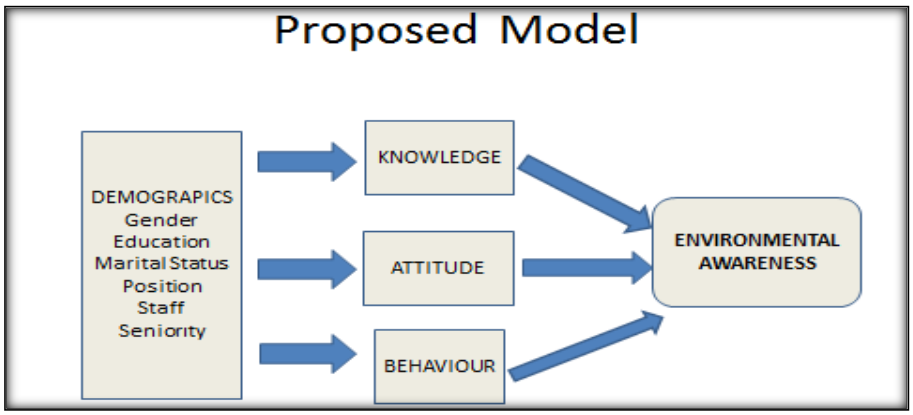
Since teachers could affect many students' knowledge, attitudes and behavior towards the environment, they are chosen as the participants for this study. The most important reason for including school managers in the study is the fact that school managers are more active in the decision making process respectively in environmental education. Istanbul is chosen for the sample which is regarded that it represents overall Turkey in many researches. Although there is a great deal of research on students, few empirical research attempts have been made to search environmental awareness of teachers and school managers who are most powerful stakeholders for bringing changes in education system. Thus, the main purpose of this study

is to assess environmental knowledge, environmental attitude and responsible environmental behavior of managers and teachers at private schools by means of a scale which is used by Sherenk (1994) and later adapted to Turkish by Erten (2002-2003).The scale's reliability analysis was carried out according to samples and Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients of the questionnaire were calculated as 0,678 in this study.

It is obvious that there are many factors that have been found to have influence to some extent, positive or negative on environmental awareness such as demographic factors, external factors like institutional, economic, social and cultural and internal factors such as motivation, knowledge, values, attitudes, emotion, locus of control, responsibilities and priorities. Many theoretical models have been developed so far to explain the relationships between all this factors and the environmental awareness in many studies. (Kohlberg, 1969; Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002; Thoresen, 2005; Dirk and Crane, 2005). Some of these models from the early 1970s were proven to be wrong. Researches showed that in most cases, increases in knowledge did not lead to environmental behavior. (Kollmuss & Agyeman 2002).

It is not easy task to identify only one factor alone and measure its effects on environmental awareness due to many of the variables related and interdependent to differing degrees. This could be considered as the limitation of this study. It is however following proposed model can be offered to demonstrate relations between demographical variables and environmental awareness consist of knowledge, attitude and behavior. These variables are based upon prior models (Kollmuss.&Agyeman, 2002) in different environment researches and do not claim a comprehensive theoretical framework, instead, it suggests some further development and research. It is expected that could add to the conceptual base to develop studies for the future investigation of other stakeholders of environmental education .

Figure 1: Proposed Model of the Study



Resource : The Authors

Based on the above proposed model , the research problem and related hypothesis investigated in this study are:

What are the profiles of teachers and school managers in private schools regarding environmental awareness in terms of attitude, behavior, knowledge ?

H1: There is significant difference between demographical qualities of school managers/teachers and their environmental awareness.

3.DATA AND METHODOLOGY

Managers and teachers working in private schools in Istanbul constitute the universe of this study. A judgmental/purposive sampling method was used to determine the sample of the research was composed with the list of Istanbul Provincial Directorate for National Education and also with the help of Private School Association. Both institutions supported the research by sending the questionnaire to directors of private schools in Istanbul to be distributed and responded.

After obtaining the necessary permits for research from the local authorities "personal information form and environmental awareness check list" developed by Erten in 2003 was applied. In this scale called environmental awareness screening list, there are 60 statements related with cognitive (knowledge) , sensorial (attitude) , psychomotor behavior (behavior) towards environment. This list of scanning questions has been used in an earlier study in Germany by Sherenk in 1994 and in Turkey in two studies by Erten in 2002 and in 2003 with small changes.

An online questionnaire is used to gather preliminary data. Each determinants of the scale has 20 items. Five points Likert as an interval scale is mainly used for the constructs of the research model. Nominal and ratio scales are also used to measure socio-demographic and economic characteristics of the sample. The propositions are from positive to negative (completely agree, agree, slightly agree, disagree, strongly disagree, with the very frequently, frequently, occasionally, very little, never). 418 informants contributed the research and 396 out of them were completely answered all questions hence five percent of the questionnaires being equal to 22 units were accepted invalid and the data analysis was realized with 396 ones. The valid response rate of the study is 94.7 per cent. The online investigation was started on February 8 th, 2017 and surveyed till April, 13 2017. The data has been analyzed with SPSS 21. program to obtain statistics.

In the first stage the data from "personal information form" which is filled by each manager and teacher in the survey , then the scores that were taken from the “list of environmental scanning” were processed . After completion of the rating process, the statistical package program SPSS for windows 21.0 was carried out to process all raw data in order to make necessary statistical analysis. Independent group t- tests were carried out in order to find out whether the environmental awareness vary significantly on gender, marital status, education level, employment positions, employment status. In case of normal distribution of categories that are more than two, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out in order to find out whether the responsibility levels vary significantly on the professional seniority of the sample group. In cases where meaningful difference found, complementary Scheffe tests was applied in order to find out which group is the reason of the difference .

In order to conduct factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistic that explains how the sample presents the population and Barlett’s Test of sphericity that indicates coherent relationships among sub variables to present the factor with minimum 0.05 statistical significance, are reviewed. Measures of sampling adequacy (MSA) values in the anti-image matrices and factor loading values in rotated component matrices were checked. Finally, Cronbach’s Alpha statistics performed to measure reliability of items that compose a factor.

In relation to the first part of the scale, the data of frequency and percentage distribution is taken. In order to determine the attitudes of teachers and managers, arithmetic mean and standard deviation were used. To elucidate the differences between the attitudes, in binary comparisons for independent groups "t" test, and in comparison of more than two groups, one-way analysis of variance variable analysis were used. Opinions on whether there is a significant difference between the $\alpha = 0.05$ significance level was tested. The findings of the study are as follows ;

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Below are tables that have compiled responses from the survey , frequency and percentage of the demographical qualities (gender, marital status, education , professional position, employment status , job seniority) of the research group, has been set. Frequency and percentage distribution of the research group is given in Table 1.

Table 1: Frequency and percentage on the basis of gender, marital status, education , professional position, employment status , job seniority

GROUPS	Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Female	285	72,0	72,0	72,0
Male	111	28,0	28,0	100,0
Single	123	31,1	31,1	31,1
Married	273	68,9	68,9	100,0
Graduates	274	69,2	69,2	69,2
PostGraduates	122	30,8	30,8	100
Administrator	52	13,1	13,1	13,1
Instructor	344	86,9	86,9	100
Regular Staff	262	66,2	66,2	66,2
Contractual Staff	122	30,8	30,8	97,0
Paid Staff	12	3,0	3,0	100,0
Seniority				
<=5years	108	27,3	27,3	27,3
6-10 years	72	18,2	18,2	45,5
11-15 years	94	23,7	23,7	69,2
>=16 years	122	30,8	30,8	100,0
TOTAL	396	100,0	100,0	

As seen in Table 1, 72 per cent of the sample group is female and 28 per cent is male. 31,1 per cent of the attendants is single and the rest (68,9 per cent) is married. Again table 1 presents that 69,2 per cent of the sample group has bachelor's degree and and 30,8 per cent has post graduate degree. The majority of the group(86,9 per cent) is composed by instructors (teachers). As seen in table 1, 262 attendant (66,2 per cent) are regular staff, 122 respondents (30,8 per cent) are contractual staff, and the rest 12 (3 per cent) are paid staff. 27,3 per cent of the sample has been working less than 5 years, 18,2 per cent has been working between 6-10 years and 23,7 per cent of them has been working 11-15 years and 30,8 has been working more than 16 years .

4.1 Factor Analyses of Knowledge, Attitude and Behaviour

Factor analysis performed in order to determine under which dimensions the respondents perceived environmental knowledge, attitude and behavior .

In order to conduct factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin(KMO) statistic that explains how the sample presents the population and Barlett's Test of sphericity that indicates coherent relationships among sub variables to present the factor with minimum 0.05 statistical significance, are reviewed.

As the following step, Measures of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) values of each items are checked in the anti-image matrices. Durmuş et al. (2010) recommended that "KMO evaluates integrated coherence of items for a factor whereas MSA measures individual appropriateness of each item/statement. Any item with MSA below 0.50 should be dismissed from the analysis"(p.81).

The next check point is the rotated component matrix. In this matrix, it is possible to review items with their factor loading value that means their representative skills for each factor. Meanwhile, the items are sorted based upon their representative skills under each factor. Hence, items with a factor loading beyond 0.50 are accepted as meaningful to explain this factor. Nevertheless, an item could explain more than one factor thus any item that is loaded with close values under more than one factor should be determined and loading difference less than 0.1 should not be accepted and this item should be removed from the analysis (Durmuş et al. 2010).

As a consequence of all these controls, the reliability of the scales with statistically meaningful items/statements should be examined in terms of reliability by means of Cronbach's Alpha statistic that shows the overall reliability of the items/statements within a factor. Cronbach's Alpha value beyond 0.70 means that the construct/variable is reliable. However Alpha statistics 0.60 reliability could also be accepted as a threshold for factors with a few items not less than two (Durmuş et al. 2010, p. 89).

Although the original attitude scale has twenty items in Erten(2003)'s study, the factor analysis is concluded with six items under two components that cautiousness with four items (E11, E12, E15 and E14) and concern with two items (E6 and E7). All these items have necessary correlation within themselves to explain attitude with an acceptable KMO value 0,668 and Barlett's test is 0.00 being less than 0.05, signing appropriateness of two dimensions and their related items to conduct factor analysis. Cautiousness explains 35,20 per cent variation in an environmental attitude while concern does 32,30 per cent , in other words these two attitude factors with six items clarify 67 per cent of attitude.

There is no MSA value less than 0.5 in the anti-image matrices and there is no loading value less than 0.5 within the items of two dimensions in the rotation matrix and also there is no item has approximate loading for more than one component. The Alpha values of two extracted factors statistically explain well environmental awareness with Cronbach Alpha values of 0,728 for cautiousness and of 0,834 for concern that mean highly reliable results.

Erten(2003)'s scale measure environmental behavior with twenty items but the factor analysis of this study ended up with five items under two components . The respondents perceive environmental behavior as factors of communication (V19, V20 and V14) and consciousness (V18 and V17) . All these items have necessary correlation within themselves to explain behavior with an acceptable KMO value 0,611 and Barlett's test is 0.00 being less than 0.05, pointing out appropriateness of two dimensions and their related items to perform factor analysis. Communication explicates 36,90 per cent variation in an environmental behavior while consciousness does 32,60 per cent , in other words these two factors with five items explain 69 per cent of environmental behavior. Another variable in Erten (2003)'s scale is knowledge. This research shows that the attendants perceive knowledge within one dimension with five items, instead of twenty of the original one. These five items explain 47,34 per cent variation of the environmental knowledge with a good KMO value 0.751and Barlett's test is 0.00 being less than 0.05, signing appropriateness of five items to conduct factor analysis.

There is no MSA value below 0.5. Since the scale is one dimension, one component extracted hence the solution cannot be rotated. The scale is acceptably reliable with 0,678 Cronbach Alpha value.

The coming analysis of this study will continue with above five extracted factors as cautiousness, concern, communication,

consciousness and knowledge that appeared as the environmental awareness of private school teachers and administrators.

4.2 Means Comparison Analysis

To clarify the changes in five factors of this study based upon the demographic variables of the respondent instructor and managers of private school; t-test is conducted to statistically compare two different groups while one-way ANOVA is applied for independent groups larger than two. Factor analyses of behavior, attitude and knowledge is given in Table 2a, 2b and 2c.

Table 2a: Factor Analyses of Knowledge

FACTOR ANALYSIS of KNOWLEDGE				
FACTOR NAME	STATEMENT	FACTOR LOADING	FACTOR EXPLANATION (%)	RELIABILITY
	W10: Recycling paper is very important for environmental protection.	0,735		
	W14: Garbages should be classified and separately picked up as glace, plastic, paper, specific waste and others.	0,731		
KNOWLEDGE	W12: A label should be placed in a product to explain whether the product is environmental friendly or not.	0,675	47,340	0,678
	W11: Compost is the transformation of kitchen garbage into manure.	0,654		
	W8: Recycling is a transformation processof garbages .	0,641		
		TOTAL	47,340	
		KMO Kaiser-Meyer Olkin	Scale Validity	0,751
		Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	359,546
			df	10
			significance	0,00

Table 2b. Factor Analyses of Attitude

FACTOR ANALYSIS of ATTITUDE				
FACTOR NAME	STATEMENT	FACTOR LOADING	FACTOR EXPLANATION (%)	RELIABILITY
	E11: I would also like to do something to prevent environmental pollution	0,839		
CAUTIOUSNESS	E12: I would also like to do individually something to avoid air pollution.	0,822	35,180	0,728
	E15:I would like to volontarily join activities to clean environment	0,614		
	E14: I spend time to interest in animals and plants.	0,563		
	E6: I concern not to find clean water in the future	0,872	32,268	
CONCERN	E7: People could have diseases, even die due to air pollution, in the future.	0,845		0,834
		TOTAL	67,448	
		KMO Kaiser-Meyer Olkin	Scale Validity	0,668
		Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	870,628
			df	15
			significance	0,00

Table 2c: Factor Analyses of Behavior

FACTOR ANALYSIS of BEHAVIOUR				
FACTOR NAME	STATEMENT	FACTOR LOADING	FACTOR EXPLANATION (%)	RELIABILITY
	V19: I frequently attend events about environmental protection	0,843		
COMMUNICATION	V20: I informed responsible people in order to prevent environmental pollution	0,790	36,897	0,685
	V14: I talk with my friends on environmental pollution	0,707		
	V18: I am keen on put off electricity and electronic divices when I do not use them.	0,872		
CONSCIOUSNESS	V17: I carefully turn off tap.	0,845	32,258	0,691
		TOTAL	**69,155**	
		KMO Kaiser-Meyer Olkin	Scale Validity	0,611
		Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	386,385
			df	10
			significance	0,00

4.2.1 T Tests

Since gender, marital status, education and position variables are measured with two groups nominal scales and concern, cautiousness, communication, consciousness and knowledge are measured with a five point likert scale , t-test are conducted to determine difference between the means of two groups as seen the below tables 3. Equality of variance affects the result of t-test. Therefore , an homogeneity test-"Levene's test " is applied first to clarify the equality of variances of two groups. Following hypothesis are questioned at the beginning of each t-test.

Ho_v: The variances of two groups are the same.

Hı_v: The variances of two groups are different.

To test the above start-up hypothesis, F values are observed. If significance value of F is greater than 0,05, Ho should be accepted otherwise should be rejected (Durmuş 2010, p.118). In case of the acceptance Hov, first row significance is considered in t-test table otherwise in case of Hov rejection, the second row is.

Following the variance equality, independent group t-test hypothesis below are questioned.

H_{0_t}*: Means of two groups are equal (the same)*

$H_{ı_t}$*: Means of two groups are not equal (are different)*

If significance is greater than 0.05 , H0 is accepted , meaning that there is no difference between the means of two groups. If significance is less than 0.05, the difference between means are arise to be confirmed in the t-test tables.

4.2.1.1 Gender

An independent group t- test was carried out in order to find out whether the environmental concern, environmental

cautiousness, communication on environment, consciousness in environment and environmental knowledge, vary significantly on the basis of gender; and it was seen that there are significant differences between female and male teachers and administrators in terms of environmental concern and knowledge. Both knowledge and concern about environment of Females private school teachers' environmental knowledge(4,54) and concern(4,75) are higher than males' averages(4,33 and 4,50). There is no difference between female and male groups in terms of environmental cautiousness, consciousness and communication.

Women who have more knowledge on environment, could understand and imagine the dangerous results of unprotected environment, accordingly could have more environmental concern.

Table 3.a: Environmental Concern, Cautiousness, Communication, Consciousness and Knowledge on the Basis of Gender

						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
													Confidence Interval of the	
Point	Sex	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Concern	Female	285	4,751	0,546	0,032	2,641	0,105	1,483	394	0,139	0,108	0,073	-0,035	0,251
	Male	111	4,500	0,710	0,067			1,427	185,903	0,155	0,108	0,076	-0,041	0,257
Cautiousness	Female	285	4,3623	0,633	0,037	2,641	0,105	1,483	394	0,139	0,108	0,073	-0,035	0,251
	Male	111	4,2545	0,691	0,066			1,427	185,903	0,155	0,108	0,076	-0,041	0,257
Communication	Female	285	2,793	0,805	0,048	0,133	0,715	-2,945	394	,003	-,27008	,09170	-,45037	-,08980
	Male	111	3,063	0,856	0,081			-2,867	190,171	,005	-,27008	,09419	-,45588	-,08428
Conciousness	Female	285	4,761	0,496	0,029	4,520	0,034	1,558	394	0,120	0,095	0,061	-0,025	0,214
	Male	111	4,667	0,651	0,062			1,384	162,025	0,168	0,095	0,068	-0,040	0,230
Knowledge	Female	285	4,5354	0,459	0,027	20,640	0,000	3,476	394	0,001	0,206	0,059	0,089	0,322
	Male	111	4,3297	0,677	0,064			2,948	150,964	0,004	0,206	0,070	0,068	0,344

4.2.1.2 Education

Managers' and instructors' environmental concern, environmental cautiousness, communication on environment, consciousness in environment and environmental knowledge have been questioned on the basis of education as it is presented in table 3.b. Any difference is not seen between graduate and post-graduate teachers in terms of environmental concern, cautiousness, communication, consciousness and knowledge.

Table 3.b: Environmental Concern, Cautiousness, Communication, Consciousness and Knowledge on the Basis of Education

						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
													Confidence Interval of the	
Point	Marital Status	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Concern	Graduate	274	4,666	0,637	0,038	2,289	0,131	-0,712	394	0,477	-0,047	0,066	-0,177	0,083
	Post-Graduate	122	4,713	0,534	0,048			-0,762	274,202	0,447	-0,047	0,062	-0,169	0,075
Cautiousness	Graduate	274	4,343	0,635	0,038	1,786	0,182	0,504	394	0,615	0,036	0,071	-0,104	0,175
	Post-Graduate	122	4,307	0,685	0,062			0,489	217,449	0,625	0,036	0,073	-0,108	0,179
Communication	Graduate	274	2,883	0,815	0,049	0,229	0,632	0,523	394	0,601	0,047	0,090	-0,130	0,224
	Post-Graduate	122	2,836	0,857	0,078			0,513	222,046	0,609	0,047	0,092	-0,134	0,228
Conciousness	Graduate	274	4,754	0,500	0,030	3,772	0,053	1,030	394	0,304	0,061	0,059	-0,056	0,178
	Post-Graduate	122	4,693	0,635	0,057			0,940	190,554	0,348	0,061	0,065	-0,067	0,189
Knowledge	Graduate	274	4,474	0,507	0,031	0,719	0,397	-0,185	394	0,854	-0,011	0,058	-0,126	0,104
	Post-Graduate	122	4,485	0,599	0,054			-0,173	201,612	0,863	-0,011	0,062	-0,134	0,112

4.2.1.3 Position

Teachers' environmental awareness has been investigated according to their position. Both administrators and instructors have the same levels of concern, cautiousness, consciousness and knowledge about environmental issues whereas communication on environment differs between these two groups. Managers (with a mean of 3,2051) communicate more on environmental issues than instructors (with a mean of 2,8178).

Table 3.c: Environmental Concern, Cautiousness, Communication, Consciousness and Knowledge on the basis of Position

						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
													Confidence Interval of the	
Point	Marital Status	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Concern	Administrator	52	4,692	0,487	0,067	0,932	0,335	0,150	394	0,881	0,014	0,090	-0,164	0,191
	Instructor	344	4,679	0,623	0,034			0,179	78,713	0,858	0,014	0,075	-0,137	0,164
Cautiousness	Administrator	52	4,308	0,602	0,083	0,083	0,773	-0,290	394	0,772	-0,028	0,097	-0,219	0,162
	Instructor	344	4,336	0,658	0,035			-0,310	70,788	0,758	-0,028	0,091	-0,209	0,153
Communication	Administrator	52	3,205	0,557	0,077	9,471	0,002	3,182	394	0,002	0,387	0,122	0,148	0,627
	Instructor	344	2,818	0,850	0,046			4,313	91,588	0,000	0,387	0,090	0,209	0,566
Conciousness	Administrator	52	4,808	0,385	0,053	4,122	0,043	1,035	394	0,301	0,084	0,081	-0,075	0,243
	Instructor	344	4,724	0,564	0,030			1,363	88,043	0,176	0,084	0,062	-0,038	0,206
Knowledge	Administrator	52	4,442	0,548	0,076	0,060	0,807	-0,511	394	0,609	-0,041	0,080	-0,198	0,116
	Instructor	344	4,483	0,535	0,029			-0,502	66,566	0,617	-0,041	0,081	-0,203	0,121

4.2.1.4 Marital Status

Teachers' and administrators' levels of environmental concern, environmental cautiousness, communication on environment, consciousness in environment and environmental knowledge, based upon marital status have been presented in table 3.d. No difference between married and single teachers appears in terms of environmental concern, cautiousness, communication, consciousness and knowledge.

Table 3.d: Environmental Concern, Cautiousness, Communication, Consciousness and Knowledge on the basis of Marital Status

						Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
													Confidence Interval of the	
Point	Marital Status	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Concern	Single	123	4,7114	0,587	0,053	1,154	0,283	0,678	394	0,498	0,045	0,066	-0,085	0,174
	Married	273	4,6667	0,616	0,037			0,691	245,982	0,490	0,045	0,065	-0,083	0,172
Cautiousness	Single	123	4,327	0,659	0,059	0,046	0,831	-0,099	394	0,921	-0,007	0,071	-0,146	0,132
	Married	273	4,334	0,648	0,039			-0,099	231,518	0,922	-0,007	0,071	-0,147	0,133
Communication	Single	123	2,856	0,858	0,077	0,291	0,590	-0,199	394	0,843	-0,018	0,090	-0,195	0,159
	Married	273	2,874	0,815	0,049			-0,195	225	0,846	-0,018	0,092	-0,199	0,163
Concioussness	Single	123	4,683	0,581	0,052	3,306	0,070	-1,274	394	0,203	-0,075	0,059	-0,191	0,041
	Married	273	4,758	0,527	0,032			-1,228	216,015	0,221	-0,075	0,061	-0,196	0,046
Knowledge	Single	123	4,504	0,499	0,045	1,491	0,223	0,654	394	0,513	0,038	0,058	-0,076	0,153
	Married	273	4,466	0,553	0,033			0,680	258,439	0,497	0,038	0,056	-0,072	0,149

4.2.2 Seniority

Since teachers' seniority is measured with four groups one-way ANOVA test conducted to determine difference between the means of four groups as seen the below Table 4.a. No difference appeared among groups in terms of environmental concern, environmental cautiousness and environmental knowledge. The means of these groups are approximate for these factors.

Nevertheless, environmental communication and environmental consciousness vary according to the years of seniority. As it is seen in table 4.a Teachers who have been working more than sixteen years, communicate more on environmental issues in the society.

Table 4.a: Environmental Concern, Cautiousness, Communication, Consciousness and Knowledge on the basis of Seniority

points	Seniority	N	x	Sd	Var.K.	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Concern	<=5 years	108	4,6389	0,659	Between Groups	0,545	3	0,182	0,491	0,688 >0,05
	6-10 years	72	4,6458	0,613	Within Groups	144,796	392	0,369		
	11-15 years	94	4,6968	0,610	Total	145,340	395			
	>=16 years	122	4,7254	0,553	Levene Statistic	1,294				
	Total	396	4,6806	0,607	df1	3				
					df2	392				
					Sig.	0,276				
Cautiousness	<=5 years	108	4,2407	0,723	Between Groups	1,524	3	0,508	1,203	0,308 >0,05
	6-10 years	72	4,3125	0,670	Within Groups	165,559	392	0,422		
	11-15 years	94	4,3777	0,620	Total	167,083	395			
	>=16 years	122	4,3893	0,589	Levene Statistic	1,002				
	Total	396	4,3321	0,650	df1	3				
					df2	392				
					Sig.	0,392				
Communication	<=5 years	108	2,750	0,862	Between Groups	14,268	3	4,756	7,276	0 * <0,05
	6-10 years	72	2,731	0,720	Within Groups	256,237	392	0,654		
	11-15 years	94	2,741	0,875	Total	270,505	395			
	>=16 years	122	3,153	0,754	Levene Statistic	2,153				
	Total	396	2,869	0,828	df1	3				
					df2	392				
					Sig.	0,093				
Conciousness	<=5 years	108	4,6667	0,649	Between Groups	3,156	3	1,052	3,617	0,013**
	6-10 years	72	4,6111	0,640	Within Groups	114,003	392	0,291		
	11-15 years	94	4,7660	0,496	Total	117,159	395			
	>=16 years	122	4,8443	0,375	Levene Statistic	10,819				
	Total	396	4,7348	0,545	df1	3				
					df2	392				
					Sig.	0,000				
Knowledge	<=5 years	108	4,370	0,635	Between Groups	1,920	3	0,640	2,247	0,082
	6-10 years	72	4,475	0,523	Within Groups	111,684	392	0,285		
	11-15 years	94	4,519	0,473	Total	113,604	395			
	>=16 years	122	4,543	0,483	Levene Statistic	2,100				
	Total	396	4,478	0,536	df1	3				
					df2	392				
					Sig.	0,100				

4.2.2.1. Sheffe Test

To make the post-hoc analysis, Scheffe test is chosen due to different respondents volume of four seniority groups. Scheffe test confirms the variation within groups and it is seen that the mean (3,1530) of the group equal and longer than sixteen years, is higher than other three groups (2,75;2,7315 and 2,7411).

Table 4b: Seniority Groups

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: COMMUNICATION

	(I)Seniority	(J)Seniority	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
Scheffe	5 YIL ve ALTI	6-10 YIL	0,019	0,123	0,999	-0,327	0,364
		11-15 YIL	0,009	0,114	1,000	-0,311	0,329
		16 YIL ve USTU	-,40301*	0,107	0,003	-0,703	-0,103
	6-10 YIL	5 YIL ve ALTI	-0,019	0,123	0,999	-0,364	0,327
		11-15 YIL	-0,010	0,127	1,000	-0,365	0,346
		16 YIL ve USTU	-,42152*	0,120	0,007	-0,759	-0,084
	11-15 YIL	5 YIL ve ALTI	-0,009	0,114	1,000	-0,329	0,311
		6-10 YIL	0,010	0,127	1,000	-0,346	0,365
		16 YIL ve USTU	-,41187*	0,111	0,004	-0,723	-0,100
	16 YIL ve USTU	5 YIL ve ALTI	0,40301*	0,107	0,003	0,103	0,703
		6-10 YIL	0,41152*	0,120	0,007	0,084	0,759
		11-15 YIL	0,41187*	0,111	0,004	0,100	0,723

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As it is seen in table 4.a, the variances of seniority groups are not equal hence the start-up condition of one-way ANOVA could not be obtained. As an alternative way, Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests was conducted to precise the differentiation. Finally, both significance value of Welch (0,009) and Brown-Forsythe (0,018) are less than 0,05 , difference within seniority groups in consciousness could be stated.

4.2.2.2 Welch

In an analysis of variance, it may happen that the variances cannot be assumed to be equal. In this case, the F test of the ANOVA is not robust enough to be used. That's why Welch test is chosen due to Welch and Brown-Forsythe ANOVA are more reliable than the classic F when variances are unequal.

Table 4c: Seniority Groups

Robust Tests of Equality of Means CONCIOUSNESS				
	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	3,945	3	189,663	0,009
Brown-Forsythe	3,408	3	294,222	0,018
a. Asymptotically F distributed.				

Below Scheffe test shows that the consciousness of seniorities of between 6-10 years and of equal and higher than 16 years differ.

Table 4d: Consciousness of Seniority Groups

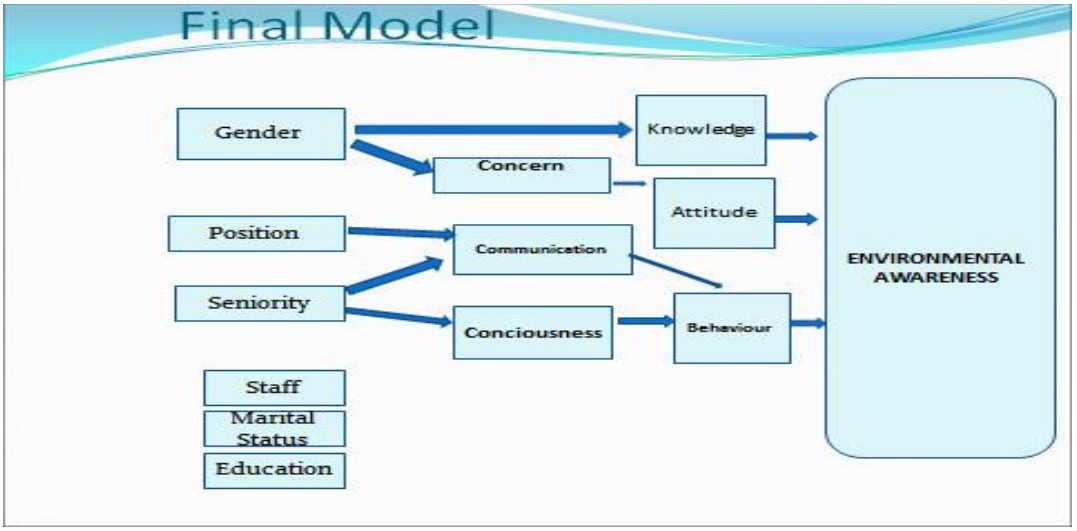
Multiple Comparisons							
Dependent Variable: CONCIOUSNESS							
			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	(I)Seniority	(J)Seniority					
Scheffe	5 YIL ve ALTI	6-10 YIL	0,056	0,082	0,928	-0,175	0,286
		11-15 YIL	-0,099	0,076	0,636	-0,313	0,114
		16 YIL ve USTU	-0,178	0,071	0,104	-0,378	0,022
	6-10 YIL	5 YIL ve ALTI	-0,056	0,082	0,928	-0,286	0,175
		11-15 YIL	-0,155	0,084	0,341	-0,392	0,082
		16 YIL ve USTU	-,23315*	0,080	0,039	-0,458	-0,008
	11-15 YIL	5 YIL ve ALTI	0,099	0,076	0,636	-0,114	0,313
		6-10 YIL	0,155	0,084	0,341	-0,082	0,392
		16 YIL ve USTU	-0,078	0,074	0,772	-0,286	0,129
	16 YIL ve USTU	5 YIL ve ALTI	0,178	0,071	0,104	-0,022	0,378
		6-10 YIL	,23315*	0,080	0,039	0,008	0,458
		11-15 YIL	0,078	0,074	0,772	-0,129	0,286
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.							

4.2.3 Staff

This variable cannot be interpreted statistically due to variances are equal and sample are found to be homogenous. For the last decades, scientists, teachers, decision makers from around the world have dedicated themselves to increase people's consciousness of the environment. In spite of a great deal of both general and specific researches into people's environmental consciousness, there are very few studies searching level of environmental awareness of the teacher's and managers at schools . As one of the research on this area, this study shows that there are significant differences between demographical qualities of school managers/ teachers and their environmental awareness.

A below final model constructed based on the results of this empirical study to illustrate which variables appear to be the most influential in teachers' and managers' environmental awareness. As a conclusion, the following demographic variables (gender, position, seniority) were found to be associated with environmental awareness. Based on the start up proposed model, knowledge attitude, behavior with tree sub dimensions called concern, communication and consciousness were obtained in this study. Following model of environmental awareness is structured as the final model.

Figure 2: Final Model of the Study



The results of the research shows that there is no difference between female and male groups in terms of environmental cautiousness, consciousness and communication. However, there are significant differences between female and male teachers and administrators in terms of environmental concern and knowledge. The knowledge and concern about environment of females private school teachers and managers is higher than males ones. It can be interpreted that to have more knowledge increases concern on environmental issues.

There is no difference between married and single teachers and managers in terms of environmental concern, cautiousness, communication, consciousness and knowledge. Moreover, any difference between graduate and post-graduate teachers in terms of environmental concern, cautiousness, communication, consciousness and knowledge have not been obtained. Both administrators and instructors have the same levels of concern, cautiousness, consciousness and knowledge about environmental issues whereas communication on environment differs between these two groups. Managers communicate more on environmental issues than instructors. When we look at the teachers' and managers seniority there is no difference according to their working years at school in terms of environmental concern, environmental cautiousness and environmental knowledge. Nevertheless, environmental communication and environmental consciousness vary according to the years of seniority. Teachers who have been working more than sixteen years, they communicate more on environmental issues in the society. That result suggests that since managers attend more to communicate and senior teachers more than sixteen years are more conscious on environmental issues.

5. CONCLUSION

It is clear that researches on all stakeholders of education could contribute to responsible living in order to better understand the current situation and design sustainability. Identification of problems will contribute to the solution of problems of all educational stakeholders. These kinds of research studies can be conducted in different cities in Turkey or different countries. Based on these researches, institutions should do more to promote environmental awareness programs in teacher education curricula by taking into consideration teachers and administrators demographical qualities. Instead of transmissive (transfer of information to learner) teaching methodologies, it is expected that institutions start to use new techniques like transformative (learner constructing and owning meaning) methodologies that go beyond the teaching method to also reflect the philosophy and purpose of sustainability education (Training Manuel, PERL, 2007). The authorities can lead programs to increase awareness of the society with the support of senior and administrative teachers in order to broaden the environmental awareness of their staff to use them as a pioneer.

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INCREASING ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE AND COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE: A TEAM PERSPECTIVE IN STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - Job designs based on individual employees may pose challenges such as delays, failure to fulfill obligations and/or misunderstandings that may reflect negatively on performance and ultimately competitive advantage. Alternatively, this paper proposes teams to efficiently utilize human resources.
Methodology - Propositions that can be used as potential research questions are derived through reviewing the relevant literature.
Findings- Instances where individual employees fall short of considering each and every aspect of a given job are becoming ever so common. Teams, however, are mechanisms through which different individuals with different specialties and can come together and this synergy is coordinated towards a common goal. Accordingly, teams seem to have potential in efficient use of human resources.
Conclusion- Teams provide an organization and coordination tool for human resources practices. It is believed that teams have considerable potential in terms of increasing organizational performance and competitive advantage. Hence, teams are suggested as mechanisms upon which modern job designs should stand on.

Keywords: Team, strategic management, competitive advantage, strategic human resources management, job design
JEL Codes: M12, M54, O15

1. INTRODUCTION

Organizations in this age are constantly on the lookout for ways to efficiently utilize their human resources in order to address the needs stemming from the constantly changing and complex marketplace. The foremost reason for this quest is, as Wright et al. (1994) puts it, the fact that efficient human resources management is one of the best ways to sustain competitive advantage. Thanks to global and technological advances, the jobs within organizations have rapidly become intangible and complex. Now, work is more abstract than physical, more likely to be designed for teams than for individuals, and more likely to cross boundaries than to be confined within particular organizations, departments or functions (Mohrman et al., 1998:154).

Therefore, it is expected that teams form and spread, reinforcing the perception that intraorganizational boundaries can be easily crossed and in time, these formal distinctions will act even less as barriers to collaboration than as facilitators (Mohrman et al., 1998). Organizations more and more rely on teams to do much of the work conventionally carried out by individuals in response to increasing demands for effectiveness and flexibility posed by rapidly changing organizational environments in the face of current global and dynamic organizational environments (Griffith and Neale, 2001). To this end, by building effective teams, organizations benefit by improving their decision-making capacity, enhancing employee commitment and involvement, increasing organizational collaboration and cooperation, and providing performance growth and development opportunities for employees (Gilley and Gilley, 2007).

Furthermore, human resources are a crucial component in the strategic management process; especially in the strategy execution phase. It would be quite logical to posit that the quality of the expected strategic performance outcomes depends on the good management of human resources. This stream of thought is derived from Porter (1985), Barney (1991) and Grant's (1996) well-known studies where each calls for a link between internal resources with intended strategy and means for gaining competitive advantage. As human resources are a vital part of the resources that organizations

depend on to perform well, the relationship between human resources management practices and organizational performance were verified in the studies of Huselid (1995), Boselie et al. (2005), Boswell (2006), Combs et al. (2006) and Guest (2011). Nevertheless, Buller et al. (2012) contend that merely designing human resources management practices and systems that are aligned with strategy is not sufficient by itself. They explain that there is a need to "align the intended strategy with execution by creating the necessary human capital (i.e., clear expectations, capabilities, and motivation of employees) along with the social capital (i.e., relationships, processes, and systems) to effectively implement strategy" (*ibid.*:46). In other words, the actual test is to bond competent and motivated people with complex and dynamic strategic objectives, organizational processes, and resulting work requirements (Ostroff and Bowen, 2000).

As teams are mechanisms through which different individuals with different specialties and can come together and this synergy is coordinated towards a common goal, they provide many advantages in terms of the aforementioned discussion. The remainder of this endeavor explains these positive outcomes from the standpoint of strategic human resources management in terms of deployment of teams. Ultimately, the main premise here is that teams provide organization and coordination tool for human resources practices. It is believed that teams have a considerable potential in terms of increasing organizational performance and competitive advantage. Also, another motivation behind this paper is to encourage human resources scholars to explore deeper into the team mechanisms and distinguish how they contribute to organizational performance and competitive advantage.

Keeping these issues in mind, the next section explains the effects of current business world on organizations and how teams might provide a potential solution in addressing the aforementioned competitive pressures.

2. THE EFFECTS OF THE CURRENT MARKET MILIEU ON ORGANIZATIONS

Today, the constantly changing political, economic and business environments push organizations to address these factors as rapidly as possible. The elements of organizations are inevitably interdependent and supportive of one another; however, their alignment when dealing with complexity and constant change is of utter importance. The performance pressures coming from the environment today have exceeded the capacity of the traditional, functional and hierarchical organizations to effectively coordinate and integrate (Galbraith et al., 1993; Galbratih, 1994). Traditional approaches which rely on hierarchically determined decisions, goals, rules, programs and job descriptions are insufficient in the dynamic, complex and demanding world now faced by many companies (Mohrman et al., 1995: 9). Therefore, in dynamic, complex and uncertain settings, organizations have to build on and subdivide their parts to be able to attend to all the relevant elements of the environment (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1969).

From the standpoint of human resources, it is has obviously become more challenging to recruit individuals who can perform well under the stated circumstances. Furthermore, the unique skills and expertise of employees fall short of considering each and every aspect of a given job. For instance, a particular employee while being very adept in technical skills might lack the competences or information to comprehend the reflection of her/his decisions on customer dynamics or vice versa. Accordingly, human resources departments inevitably increase the range of skills, expertise and experiences required from a single job applicant. As there is a natural limit to one individual's competences and expertise, this advance in the lists of criteria comes face to face with an impossible riddle to crack.

Still, there seems to be a way around these challenges. The advances in information technologies break down barriers in the sense that employees at the lowest levels of an organization now theoretically have access to information that would allow them to make informed decisions about matters that used to be dealt with higher levels in the organization (Mohrman et al., 1995). As it becomes easier for people in different work units to communicate, it also becomes easier for them to collaborate (Mohrman et al., 1998). Therefore, they conceive that teams form and spread, reinforcing the perception that intraorganizational boundaries can be easily crossed, and in time these formal distinctions will act even less as barriers to collaboration than as facilitators.

In addition, Griffith and Neale (2001) note that organizations more and more rely on teams to do much of the work conventionally carried out by individuals in response to increasing demands for effectiveness and flexibility posed by rapidly changing organizational environments. This is particularly true for settings where work is either highly-interdependent or rapidly changing, then, there comes about a strong argument for the basic organizing unit being a *team* rather than an individual (Galbraith et al., 1993). Hence, Hackman (2002) suggests that the use of teams has become an ever-increasing popular work design in all types of organizations. To this end, by building effective teams, organizations benefit by improving their decision-making capacity, enhancing employee commitment and involvement, increasing organizational collaboration and cooperation, and providing performance growth and development opportunities for employees (Gilley and Gilley, 2007). Seeing this line of thought, it can be said that teams can potentially contribute to organizational performance and competitive advantage.

3. THE PLACE OF TEAMS IN ORGANIZATIONS

Teams are essentially established as forums in which various interdependent specialties can integrate their work to accomplish collective goals (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993; Mohrman et al., 1995). Team members are interdependent for accomplishing their goals and they affect the result through their interactions with one another. Hence, it could be said that team members have mutual commitment which engenders performance greater than the sum of the performance of its individual members or synergy.

As the complexity of the workplace continues to grow, organizations increasingly depend on teams (Salas et al., 2008). Some of the industries where teams are employed are aviation, the military, health care, financial sectors, nuclear power plants, engineering problem-solving projects, manufacturing and services. Examples of companies that employ teams include Miller Brewing Group, Pfizer, Colgate-Palmolive Company, Eastman Chemical Company (Wellins et al., 1994) along with the well-known examples of NASA, Google, Hewlett-Packard, Motorola, AT&T, Xerox, Boeing, General Electric, Saturn and so forth.

The use of teams and teaming mechanisms to integrate organizations laterally has increased dramatically in recent years and many production settings have found that they could significantly improve their effectiveness by establishing teams that have responsibility for the "whole" of the work (Mohrman et al., 1995). Galbraith (1973: 53) points out that teams involve design decisions concerning the basis of the team, the composition of membership, the levels at which they are to operate, the range of their discretion and the frequency of their meetings. Teams are typically organized hierarchically and occasionally dispersed geographically; they must incorporate, synthesize, and share information; and they need to coordinate and collaborate as task demands alter during a performance period to realize their assignment (Salas et al., 2008).

Within the framework of this endeavor, teams are thought as platforms where individual limits can be elevated. The various members would be able to make up for each other's limitations. At the same time, it is supposed that the synergy stemming from their cumulative skills, expertise and experiences will result in increased efficiency and productivity levels. From this point of view, teams are proposed as mechanisms upon which modern and cross-functional job designs should stand on as they have the potential to address organization and coordination needs. By employing teams, organizations are thought to reinforce their organizational performance levels thereby increasing competitive advantage. The foundations of these propositions are explained in the following section that covers the pertinent literature.

4. EVIDENCE FROM THE LITERATURE

This section covers the relevant literature concerning to the discussion above. The purposes and advantages of teams are utilized as the building block of three propositions that follow. There is an uncharted research gap in the literature about how teams might act as the basis of job design and how such designs might affect organizational performance and competitive advantage. If this connection is theoretically developed further and explored via empirical studies, a considerable amount of contribution to the literature could be achieved. The propositions put forward below are thought to appropriately cover the issue at hand and can be used as potential research questions for those academics who are motivated to explore more about this topic.

4.1. Purposes and Advantages Teams

The literature provides ample information about the purposes and advantages of teams. The following points summarize the main points about this topic and they were mainly the spark behind this paper:

- Integrating and coordinating various parts of a particular organization (Galbraith et al., 1993; Galbraith, 1994).
- Accommodating complex processes better than hierarchical and functional approaches as teams prove themselves as mechanisms to address coordination needs in a timely and cost-effective manner (Mohrman et al., 1995).
- Potentially producing products and delivering services faster than competition does at lower cost and higher quality (Mohrman et al, 1998: 165)
- Boosting productivity, flattening of organizations, needing more flexibility and speed for decision making purposes, workforce diversity, quality, and customer satisfaction (Larson and LaFasto, 1989; Hollenbeck et al., 2007; Gibson et al., 2009)
- Responding to a fast-changing environment, facilitating learning, conveying financial advantages, and assisting change better than can a set of individuals that does not share a common objective (West, 2004)
- Being an integral part of business success, contributing to competitive advantage, a way of pooling ideas, expanding and improving work processes and job (re)design, enabling direct participation and empowerment leading to better decision-making and more creative solutions and fostering motivation while helping reduce conflicts and miscommunication (Kang et al., 2006: 1682).

- Using teams when an intricate problem requires employees with various aptitudes and functional proficiency to work together especially when making the wrong decision is too costly for a particular organization (Sassenberg et al., 2007).
- Using teams when errors trigger severe consequences; when the task complexity surpasses the aptitude of an individual; when the task environment is ill-defined, ambiguous, and stressful; when numerous and rapid decisions are required; and when the lives of others rely on the joint insight of individual members (Salas et al., 2008).

As depicted by these points, teams seem to be more than capable as job design elements. Also, seeing these qualities, teams can be regarded as tools to support the realization of strategic goals. As the execution phase of organizational strategies is highly dependent on human resources and their management, teams appear as elements that can contribute positively to organizational performance and ultimately competitive advantage. Unfortunately, there is a gap in the academic literature in terms of theoretical and/or empirical studies exploring how team mechanisms as job design tools influence organizational performance and competitive advantage. The subsections below explain in what way these concepts might be related and derive relevant propositions that might pave the way for further academic research.

4.1. Teams for Addressing Organization and Coordination Needs

Under fierce, demanding and constantly altering market settings, the hierarchic structures seem to have a challenge in dynamically organizing and coordinating their activities. Keen (1997) contends that most organizational processes are cross-functional and mostly cut across traditional functional boundaries. Thus, the ability to survive under the modern marketplace mainly rests on the capability to adapt to changes in market or customer requirements. Those who pass this test are by and large organizations that can organize and coordinate these cross-functional activities efficiently. In recent years, many companies have started to move away from a relatively functional and hierarchical structure to one with a focus on cross-functional teams and flattened organizational structures (Ostroff, 1999). Due to highly functionally oriented mindset, organizing and coordinating efforts of the managers may fall short of comprehending customer and/or market cases in a holistic manner. Further, such misunderstandings can cost organizations their reputations, market shares, stock prices, inefficient production activities and in worst cases, lost customers. Thus, teams can be said to provide linkages between a range of perspectives and functions within a given organizational setting. These linkages also aid the aforementioned coordination needs.

However, amplifying coordination mechanisms in an organization may lead to additional formal and/or informal management levels. When these are added to the previously existing management structure, the solution might become an even bigger problem. Wellins et al. (1991) and Marks et al. (2001) also sustain that teams are used in relieving coordination needs. Multiple participants can bring diverse points of view and proficiency that can be used to distribute information extensively within a given organization in order to make integrative decisions without propagating the management structure which is beyond hierarchy and bureaucracy (Mohrman et al, 1995). They also maintain that teams accommodate complex processes better than hierarchical and functional approaches as teams prove themselves as mechanisms to address coordination needs in a timely and cost-effective manner.

In addition, when different perspectives are linked, innovations are more prone to take place as this facilitates reframing of problems and solutions which would otherwise would have not been possible with individual perspectives (Senge, 1990). Furthermore, teams can be a way to handle lateral integration (Galbratih, 1973; 1994; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1969). They also underline that one of major design challenges is to integrate the work of various contributors and teams are structural mechanisms through which task interdependencies can be worked out, issues involving trade-offs between different perspectives can be resolved and solutions and approaches can be determined.

Furthermore, an organization can place individuals in those teams where their skills and knowledge can be used best, irrespective of what rank on a bureaucratic hierarchy they occupy (Mohrman et al., 1995). From a human resources stance, they also contend that the hierarchy is redefined in terms of the scope and domain of the decision making authority of a team within the system rather than in terms of a chain of individual reporting relations.

To put what has been discussed above into perspective, a comparison between traditional organizations and organizations that have team-based job designs is deemed to be vital. The following table exhibits how team-based organizations differ from traditional ones in terms of vision, structure and management style (adapted from Wellins et al., 1991).

Table 1: Traditional versus Team-Based Organizations

Traditional Organization	Team-Based Organization
Management-driven	Customer-driven
Work designed around functions	Work designed around processes
No sense of ownership	Team owns a product, service, process
Isolated specialists	Multi-skilled work force
Many job descriptions	Few job descriptions
Limited information	Shared information
Many management levels	Few management levels
Departmental focus	Whole business focus
Management-controlled	Team-regulated
Policy/Procedure-based	Values/Principles-based
Selection-based employment	Training-based employment
Top-down performance appraisal	360-degree feedback
Autocratic leadership	Participative leadership
Change is temporary	Change is ongoing
Seemingly organized	Seemingly chaotic
Incremental improvement	Continuous improvement
High management commitment	High worker commitment

Source: Adapted from Wellins et al., 1991

Therefore, while providing room to deal with complexities of the business environment, teams also offer an organizational platform where individual employees find a platform to benefit from each other's resources (i.e. know-how, functional expertise, vision and so forth). As a particular employee cannot know every single thing to perform, it is inevitable for her/him to collaborate with others. The collaboration activities can be conducted within a team setting. As the literature exhibits, this is becoming a very common practice as competition increases and employing teams turns out to offer many advantages. When members of the team become interdependent, they are able to benefit from each other's resources while their combined efforts exceed their personal efforts. Thus, teams become a mechanism where individual resources can be distributed within a particular organization towards everyone's mutual benefit and at the end of the day; this will inject a sense of collective accomplishment. Therefore,

PROPOSITION 1: Teams are mechanisms through which organization and coordination needs of organizations are relieved.

4.2. Teams in Job Design

Having seen the advantages that teams can bring to organizations, Sundstrom (1999) describes teams as integral to organizational success in this global, fast-paced, customer-driven economy. Kang et al. (2006) inform that the call for teams and teamwork in organizations continues to be one of the more widespread and recurrent ideas of many practitioners and academics. Also, the use of teams in management often appears on the best practice lists such as that of Pfeffer's (1998). These facts clearly illustrate that teams should be a fundamental part of the post-modern organization as many organizations have started to rely on knowledge work more and more each day. Teams are more flexible than larger organizational groupings because they can be assembled more quickly and deployed, refocused and disbanded usually in ways that enhance rather than disrupt more permanent structures and processes (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993.: 15).

Also, it has been recognized that the fit between strategy and organizational design is a competitive advantage (Nadler et al., 1992; Galbraith et al., 1993). Thus, it is expected that teams fit with the changing nature of work and possess the elements that are required to address the issues arising from the changing requirements of the post-modern marketplace as well as better informed customers. Furthermore, this is a very valuable insight form the standpoint of job design as a function of strategic human resources. Work is now more abstract than physical, more likely to be designed for teams than

for individuals and more likely to cross boundaries than to be confined within particular organizations, departments, functions and as a result, organizations have to become flexible, empowering and team-based (Mohrman et al., 1998: 154).

Under these changes, job designs based on individual employees may pose challenges such as delays, failure to fulfill obligations and/or misunderstandings in addressing environmental pressures. These challenges can stem from lack of information, subjectivity, limits on personal skills and competences. Now, the customers know a lot more than they did 50 years ago, they have many specific requirements and demands and since they have too many options in the market they are not loyal to brands. Also, these realities and their ramifications are far too intricate and complex for only the individual employee to understand and attend to. As hierarchies create a lot of over-head, repetition and waste just for the sake of running the business procedures, the hierarchical levels increase in numbers, the hopes of quickly addressing customer needs and market realities unfortunately decline. For example, approvals become problematic and time consuming as they need to travel higher up in the hierarchy or go to other departments. This leads to delays, conflict among employees and managers and eventually reflects on customers one way or another and at the expense of potential revenues of organizations. Based on the points indicated, it is presumed that designing jobs around teams might be a plausible option in the quest of making customers happy and having the ability to generate new ones.

From a micro point of view, conflicts among co-workers are more likely to occur in team environments because people from different functions, disciplines, departments and personal backgrounds view their worlds in dissimilar ways (Mohrman et al., 1998). This could be time consuming on the part of the organization. However, dealing with differences openly can help resolve conflicts and this will produce innovation and improve business performance (Mohrman et al., 1995). As teams provide a holistic view, the outcomes they produce are worth the time organizations invest.

From a macro perspective, there are many changes and the developments that happen almost simultaneously in the marketplace. In order to stay relevant, the organizations need to follow, analyze and make inferences on these changes and developments. This requirement inevitably drives organizations to look for ways to increase their information processing capacities. In accordance with the discussion above, one of the simplest ways to do so is through employing teams more frequently throughout organizations. Henceforth, it is supposed that teams provide a novel tool for increasing the learning and information processing capacity for organizations. Senge (1990) emphasizes the fact that teams can learn just like individuals do; however, a particular team's learning process is much more complex. This learning process is in line with the complexity of the global marketplace.

Wellins et al. (1994) note six recurring principles that guide the design from the hierarchical structure to one that accommodates teams at the end of their investigation of 20 firms that utilize teams. In the traditional structure, work is designed around functions, there is no sense of ownership, there are single skilled jobs, leaders govern teams, the support staff/skills are outside of the teams and managers make all organizational decisions. On the other hand, in the team design, work is designed around processes, teams own a product, service or process, there are multi-skilled and cross-trained individuals, teams govern teams, support staff/skills are incorporated into the teams and teams are involved in organizational decisions. An interpretation to these findings could be to say that the hierarchic structures that rely on individuals are task oriented, every member and function is independent from one another, inward-looking (i.e. knows what is going on only in one's own function/department/unit), logical (i.e. rational), divergent and have a fragmented approach towards matters. Alternatively, the structures that accommodate teams are process-oriented, contain many interdependencies in terms of relationships and functions they use, outward-looking (i.e. know what is going on with the whole process they work in and/or the whole organization), sensitive towards others, convergent in order to provide coordination and co-operation and have a holistic approach to matters. The following table summarizes the findings:

Table 2: Team versus Individual

Team	Individual
Process	Task
Interdependent	Independent
Outward	Inward
Sensitive	Logical rationality
Convergent	Divergent
Holistic	Fragmented

Source: Adapted from Wellins et al., 1994

Consequently, teams can be said to introduce hierarchies a new outlook and room for flexibility in the face of constantly changing dynamics of the business world. If not already, teams should be the building blocks of organizations rather than individuals (Leavitt, 1975; Nadler et al., 1992; Katzenbach and Smith, 1993; Mohrman et al, 1998). Hence, building on these premises, the following proposition is introduced:

PROPOSITION 2: Teams can be utilized as main building blocks of job design as they bring a well-rounded and cross-functional approach towards addressing constantly changing complex market conditions.

4.3. Teams for Increasing Performance and Competitive Advantage

As previously noted, the importance of human resources in the strategic management process, particularly in the strategy execution stage, is undeniable. The quality of the expected strategic performance outcomes depends on the efficient management of human resources of a particular organization. Thus, it can be said that one of the leading factors to organizational performance are human resources practices. The relationship between human resources management practices and organizational performance were verified in numerous studies (i.e. Huselid, 1995; Boselie et al., 2005; Boswell, 2006; Combs et al., 2006 and Guest, 2011). Still, it is believed that a comparison between the performance levels of team-based organizations and traditional organizations from this perspective would be a considerable contribution to the strategic human resources management literature.

Besides, in the resource-based view of the firm, Barney (1991) identifies resources as the sources of competitive advantage and these resources need to be valuable, rare, inimitable and non-substitutable for *sustained* competitive advantage. Since human resources are an integral part of organizations' strategic assets, their value, rarity, inimitability and non-substitutability is in all reason of utter importance in strategic management processes. Especially, as the human resources of a company are the ones that literally execute an organization's strategy, their efficient management becomes quite important. Accordingly, the resource-based view may demonstrate the fact that strategies are not universally implementable, but are contingent on having the human resource base necessary to implement them (Grant, 1991). Further Wright et al. (1994) contend that while it is true that an individual or an elite group of individuals may create temporary competitive advantage, they argue that a more likely source of *sustained* competitive advantage is the larger pool of human capital that constitutes the entire organization. For them, the entire human resource capital pool may play a greater role in generating competitive advantage because they are directly involved in the production of the product or service (*ibid.*, 18). Further, they propose that human resources practices aid in developing human resources as a source of sustained competitive advantage through creating and developing a high quality human capital pool (*ibid.*, 24). Since teams are recommended as job design tools within the framework of this paper, team-based organizations might be performing better than their competitors and may have an edge over them. Unfortunately, the literature on this particular stance is very limited. In the same vein, it is put forward that the investigation of this specific topic would provide considerable input to the existing strategic human resources management literature. Putting the performance and competitive advantage factors together, the following proposition is maintained:

PROPOSITION 3: In organizations where teams are utilized, performance and ultimately competitive advantage could be affected positively.

5. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, teams prove themselves as a design element which provides organizations with flexibility, adaptiveness, responsiveness and customer-centricity. Teams can accommodate individuals from different functions and backgrounds that are seeking to achieve a collective goal that would otherwise hardly come together within the functional mindset of hierarchical structures. Thus, teams involve multiple participants with various perspectives and expertise which will in turn pave the way for well-informed and integrative decisions. Teams provide organizations with the cross-functional, well-informed expertise, synergy, advanced flexibility and mobility they crave in this complex and uncertain business environment. As an organizational design component, teams seem to enable organizations to break their functional mindset and become more oriented towards their core processes that create value for their customers. Also, as another important implication, teams facilitate different members of the organizations with different agendas to come together on a common ground, which helps to balance out the interests between different processes and functions. These members find ways to set examples for each other and this creates a "checks and balances" system throughout the organizations which also encompasses the top management.

This undertaking underscores that by employing teams, even in relatively hierarchic structures, organizations can initiate cross-functional integration for mitigating the barriers between departments for greater efficiency and results. Once employees from different functions and backgrounds find a common ground where their total efforts exceed their individual efforts, their view of business is going to be expanded, employees and team members will come to understand what key processes involve more easily and see how they fit into the whole organizational structure. Leadership qualities of

team managers may be supported for further self-development while the organizational culture change can be taken up to encompass and work with teams. Organizations can modify employees' individual attitudes towards teams and team membership by team motivation and team reward policies to improve organizational climate for the sake of easing cross-team activity inside or outside their companies.

Since the marketplace is steered by customers, the teams serve as flexible and adaptable mechanisms where they can be designed towards customer centricity when requirements change while supplementing and counterbalancing the weaknesses of the hierarchic structures. Thus, teams serve as an organizational mechanism that unites individuals in a participative and cooperative manner. When employees operate within a team, their interaction is likely to give rise to more ideas and innovations exponentially when compared to individual work. Teams create an environment that facilitates efficient organizational information creation and collection. Once information is turned into concrete organizational knowledge, basis for innovations that consumers crave are more prone to take shape. Thus, it is considered that teams are the perfect design component to introduce flexibility and perspective to otherwise rigid structures and bring organizations one step closer to being more organic, adaptable and innovative rather than being static in the face of complex change.

Teams offer a simple platform to accommodate individuals from different functions and backgrounds that are seeking to achieve a collective goal that would otherwise could hardly come together within the functional mindset of hierarchical structures. They also involve multiple participants with various perspectives and expertise which will in turn pave the way for well-informed, well-rounded and integrative decisions. Hence, teams can be said to have the potential to provide organizations with the advanced flexibility and mobility they probe in the contemporary complex and uncertain business environment. Seeing the compelling literature, this paper is an attempt to inspire the human resources literature to consider teams as a viable building block for job design.

Furthermore, the existing literature on teams and the relationship between human resources practices and performance along with competitive advantage seems promising for further inquiry. As the human resources pool is the one that executes strategy, the efficiency in managing this pool will most probably directly influence how each organizations perform and ultimately sustain competitive advantage. Teams as a building block for job design can be an option in efficiently managing human resources. Besides, teams can be treated as an organizational design element in elevating performance levels and sustaining competitive advantage. Still, there is a recognizable gap in the literature in terms of establishing this link. Hence, this paper is primarily developed to attract attention to this unexplored aspect in the strategic human resources management literature.

Last but not least, human resources practitioners can ultimately benefit from this proposed potential research. Seeing teams attracting academic attention, they will inevitably notice this cost-effective and efficient option in managing their respective human resource pools. The potential academic research can also encourage and motivate human resources practitioners to consider job designs based on teams more frequently.

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PRODUCT LIFECYCLE MANAGEMENT AS A WHOLE BUSINESS MANAGEMENT SYSTEM: AN EXPLORATORY RESEARCH

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - The aim of this paper is to define Product Lifecycle Management (PLM) Systems as a whole product focused management tool by featuring its importance for the enterprise integration management, product development and lean value systems.

Methodology - The paper is designed as an exploratory study consists of several interviews with senior managers of ELTAŞ Transformer Sanayi ve Ticaret A.Ş. about the process management capabilities of PLM systems within a case study.

Findings- The study reveals that non-technical processes like human resources can be managed using PLM methodology as well as the technical processes like product development. The results show the similarities of technical and non-technical processes, and show the possibility of managing even less technical processes to create a holistic business management tool.

Conclusion- The study shows the importance of the PLM systems for the product-focused management while the digital transformation of the production companies and their enterprise integration management and lean value systems.

Keywords: PLM, product lifecycle management, product based business management, new product realization, ERP
JEL Codes: M11, M15

1. INTRODUCTION

PLM is a business strategy that is employed for the purposes of creating a business management setting with a focus on product data management. PLM first emerged due to the need for managing the complex product structures in automotive and aerospace industries and was composed of computer-aided design (CAD) and product data management (PDM) systems. Since then, it has developed capabilities that respond to the expectations of such disciplines as project management, process management, resource management and supply chain management; and it has reached its current form. PLM aims to ensure collaboration and communication between all stakeholders of a business and its suppliers throughout the entire life cycle of a product from design to post-sales service (Cantamessa, 2010). As a technology solution, it is based on a set of tools and technologies that create a data management platform for building collaboration between the stakeholders of a product which streamlines the flow of information at all stages of product life cycle. PLM is distinguished from other technological solutions not due to high technology tools but due to its capacity to create a sustainable business strategy.

Given the above, a brief overview of the history of PLM and a literature review are given in the first three sections of the paper. The fourth section includes a sample case study that explores PLM process management capabilities. Finally, both the findings regarding the enterprise chosen for the sample case study and some recommendations concerning the issue are presented in the last section.

1.1. Development of PLM

With the invention of CAD systems in the early 1980s, a new era began for engineering design. It became possible to design geometric structures of products thanks to CAD systems. In the following years, engineering became dependent on computers as never before, with the development of computer-aided engineering and manufacturing systems (CAE/CAM). Before long, the need for a structured system to track the vast amount of data produced in considerably short times brought about the invention of product data management systems (PDM). This, as a result, made it possible to access technical and current product design process data in an easy, fast and reliable way. Early PDM systems could offer the required data to their users thanks to their capacity to work as central data stores. Besides, these systems entailed the capability to ensure data integrity which synchronized the data constantly and which aimed to monitor the way data were created and amended (Anwary, 2005). Over the years, PDM gained such new capabilities as engineering change management (Moon, 2011), document management, workflow management and project management and started to offer features ranging from concurrent engineering to cooperative product management within the business. At this stage, PDM covered data used solely in the area of engineering such as product development data, Bill of Materials, and finite element analyses (FEA); and therefore, less technical aspects like sales, marketing, supply chain management as well as external stakeholders like customers and supplier were excluded. Although web-based PDM systems started to emerge in the 1990s with the development of internet technologies, the use of these systems remained limited to engineering teams. Another development occurring in parallel to the development of PDM systems is observed in the area of enterprise resource planning (ERP). It has become possible to use material resource planning (MRP) algorithms thanks to the increasing calculative power of computers and to the rapidly growing access to these computers. On the other hand, these systems have become dependent on product data as never before. Besides, PDM systems have failed to respond to this need as they are developed on the basis of internal operation principle. The concept of PLM was formed in the 1990s so as to fill this gap. It has achieved to provide a platform that enables the use, organization and dissemination of the engineering knowledge of a product widely; and as a result, the concept of PLM has matured and gained its present status.

1.2. The Effect of PLM on Enterprises

Today, enterprises need more information as decision-making processes have gone more complex than ever. This necessity is included in the decision-making mechanism by collecting all the reports created in a business and by offering them to the business management authorities (Cantamessa, 2012). Therefore, the need for “objective information” for the transparency of a given business has become more important than ever. Data that constitute the basis of information represent the business-independent and unprocessed reality. In this regard, information can be considered to be the collection of data in a way that they can be used in the subject decision-making mechanisms. According to a study by Gartner and IDC (2012), 80% of the data available worldwide are not structured. It is not possible that these unstructured data could be used or could create value. PLM systems guide business managers in their decision-making processes since these systems cover all business stakeholders, are immune to manipulation and form a structured information resource. In order for this task to be fulfilled successfully, information should be fostered not only by engineering data but also by data produced by all the departments of a business.

2.LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Enterprise Integration Engineering

Enterprise integration is a domain of research that has been developed as an extension of computer-integrated manufacturing (CIM) since the 1990s. It mainly covers two research disciplines: Enterprise Modelling and Information Technology. Enterprise modeling refers to a group of concepts that are related to the definition of an architecture for an enterprise, to system-wide decision-making consistency and to a process beyond the borders of functions of workflow model as well as to the dynamic allocation of resources and data consistency (Peñaranda, 2010). As to the information technology, it aims to ensure the integration of the entire enterprise through the integration of such enterprise systems like ERP and PLM. According to enterprise integration, all these systems and practices should ensure the regulation of processes.

Enterprise integration engineering is a sum of modelling principles, methods and tools that ensure the integration of a variety of enterprise life cycle entities (e.g. project, product, processes, workflow, and documents). It relies on the creation of a business model by various enterprise elements (Peñaranda, 2010). Enterprise integration engineering enables the diffusion of enterprise strategies, which are based on corporate mission and vision, across key performance indicators, processes and products. A variety of tools are required to improve the synergy within an enterprise, to link all the functions to each other for the purposes of fulfilling the corporate mission and vision, to eliminate gray areas and to improve communication by means of this integration. Furthermore, enterprise integration engineering will ensure the coordination of business processes and build a decision-making culture based on cooperation. In the end, it will also enable data integration and hence enterprise integration.

2.2. Information Backbone

All the individuals and systems in an enterprise should be interconnected so that enterprise integration can be achieved. Enterprises that generate individual solutions for distributed information systems and business metrics as well as for individual problems should eliminate complex data clusters that they produce. It is possible to overcome this problem through the use of a single database which is possible only if a single information backbone is created. In this regard, PLM systems run in coordination with ERP systems and enable an enterprise to realize an integration that is in line with its mission and vision and is under control at the same time.

2.3. An Evaluation of ERP and PLM

In the early 21st century, following the stage of transition to the next series after design freeze, ERP performed a range of tasks in production processes namely information storage, production work orders and material planning. Bill of materials (BOM) test procedures that constitute the core of this information are managed via tables and ERP systems for logistics. Through time, the task to update bill of materials used on ERP was transferred to PLM systems and hence, it became possible to eliminate any possible material resource planning (MRP) errors. In this way, problems of bill of materials that frequently occurred in many enterprises after engineering changes would be eliminated. The integration between ERP and PLM systems allowed sharing of engineering and manufacturing data within an enterprise in the form of an automated process (Cimalore, 2012). This enabled engineering, manufacturing, planning and purchasing departments to work in a connected way and promoted enterprise integration a step forward. Rapid development of wireless communication protocols allowed ERP systems to gain the support of manufacturing execution system (MES) applications. The capability to collect real-time manufacturing data was highly successful in the provision of the required data to MRP algorithms that work embedded in ERP systems. Over the years, development of these protocols resulted in the development of digital factory and Industry 4.0 approaches. Today, enterprises have control over their products and manufacturing areas more than ever thanks to the wide use and affordability of these technologies (Laroche, 2012). However, it emerges as a new challenge for enterprises to access to the vast amount of data produced via these communication means, to store the subject data and to use it as part of their decision mechanisms. Finally, storage of all these data and opening them to the access of humans and machines altogether have become tasks that are carried out by PLM systems.

2.4. Business Processes and Corporate Memory

Such key concepts as enterprise modeling, technology integration and the definition of an enterprise strategy bear crucial importance for building an enterprise integration model (Peñaranda, 2010). Enterprise modeling issue, also covered by the present study, necessitates the visualization of all enterprise processes in a way that depicts the whole picture. An enterprise model can be formed via induction by building a neural network that links all business processes to each other at necessary points (Corbett, 2000). An enterprise model is completed when each sub-process of each department is revised one-by-one and then the revised processes are connected to the enterprise backbone. This enables the creation of a lean enterprise model which is free from gray areas, waste, non-value-added tasks as well as from complex and repetitive processes.

Knowledge capital of enterprises has been gaining increasingly higher importance, and within this context, two new risks emerge for enterprises (Abel, 2008):

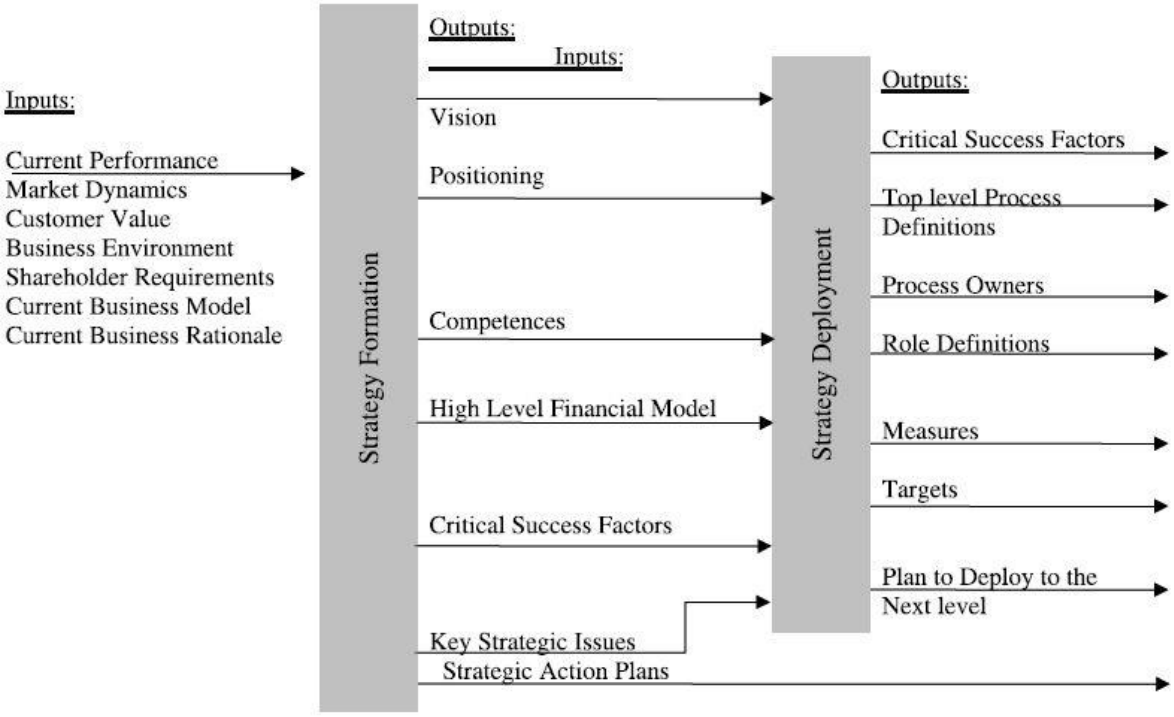
1. Lack of Environmental Knowledge (technologies, competitors, markets, etc.): Management of knowledge on the basis of flow system instead of a stock system so that a proper environment that lends itself to novelty can be prepared.
2. Loss of Knowledge and Competence: Losses of this type occur through time (retirement, termination of the employment of the key personnel, information change and so on). If knowledge and skills are utilized in only one part of the enterprise premises while it is deficient in other parts of the premises, such losses might occur.

Both cases might entail destructive results for enterprises. Lean enterprise model achieved by enterprises, which are living organisms, transforms rapidly in the face of changing conditions. Nevertheless, it is obvious that any error spotted in process analyses should be corrected in real time. Restriction of these corrections to single practices means that any acquired knowledge is not written on organizational memory and this causes the above-mentioned two risks to arise. Enterprises should, with the help of technological support, be able to build their process in a way that any process improvement can be used in the following stages as well. In this regard, technological support is used to refer to well-structured databases. When the process is given a start, tasks should be assigned to respective roles in a way that they contain this new knowledge and any possible errors should be prevented. Customizable process management capabilities in PLM systems will be addressed in the following parts.

3. PRODUCT MANAGEMENT-ORIENTED BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

In a globalizing world of fierce competition, renewal and development of products and equipping these products with innovative features have become more important than ever for the success of enterprises. On the one hand, enterprises strive to adapt their strategies to the competition conditions. On the other hand, they try to build waste elimination-oriented lean value systems and to reduce their costs. Diffusion of this idea beginning from the business strategy to the entire enterprise body is expressed as a lean value system. Lean value systems are analyzed in two parts namely diffusion of strategy defined in Figure 1 and leaning of all processes in a holistic approach (Hines, 2005).

Figure 1: Strategical Thinking implemented on Lean Organizations

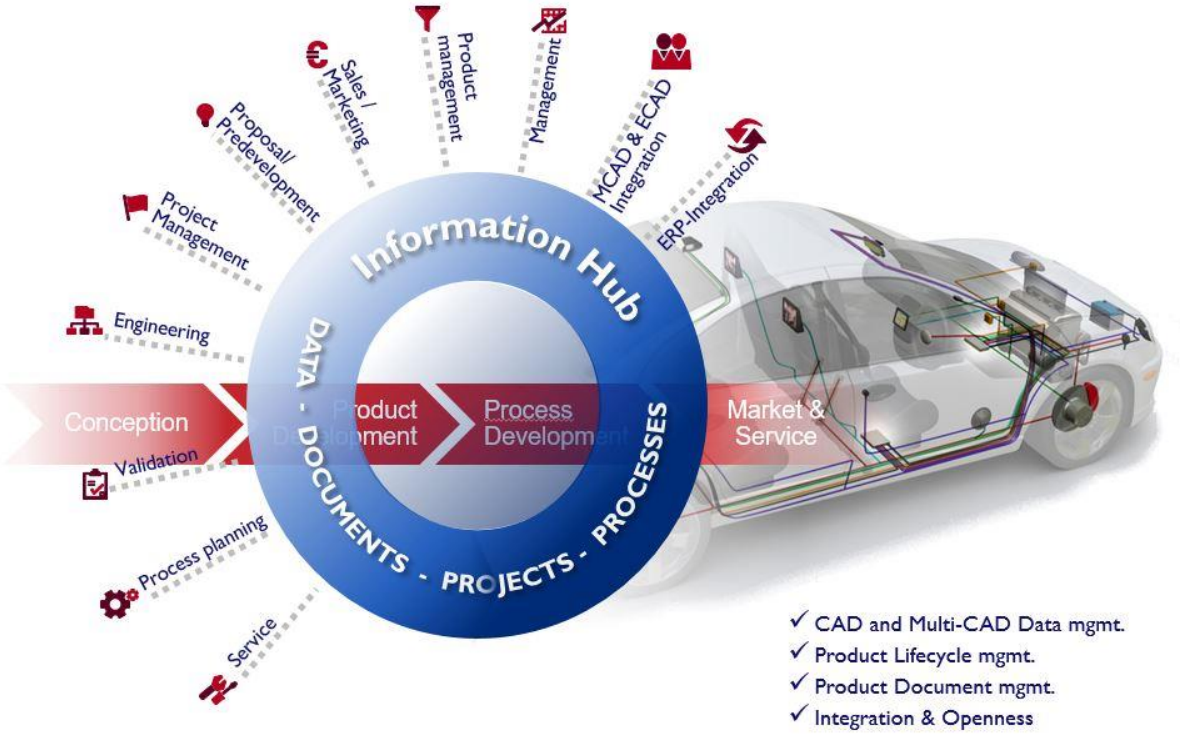


Source: S A Partners, 2004

Enterprises are required to integrate their decision-making mechanisms into this system in order to create a lean value system. This integration necessitates that the data to be used in decision mechanisms are fast, accessible and reliable. In order to build a lean management system, the information to be used in decision mechanisms must also be democratized. Decisions reached on the basis of reports issued by department managers might raise problematic results. Democratized information can be defined as the piece of information accumulated and structured without being filtered through individuals' subjective filters. It refers to the data that come from organizational memory, are verified via control parameters and are structured. Such a data source enables access to a decision mechanism that is free from personal interests (Bose, 2006).

PLM systems involve, as part of their nature, lean data from many data sources. Meaningful information packages and reports that can be used by the business management should be created for the accumulation of these data without a mediator. Processes, products, projects, documents, parameters, reports and nonconformities are connected to one single information backbone in PLM systems (Figure 2). Connections that are built within this backbone will ensure the construction of one single information pool.

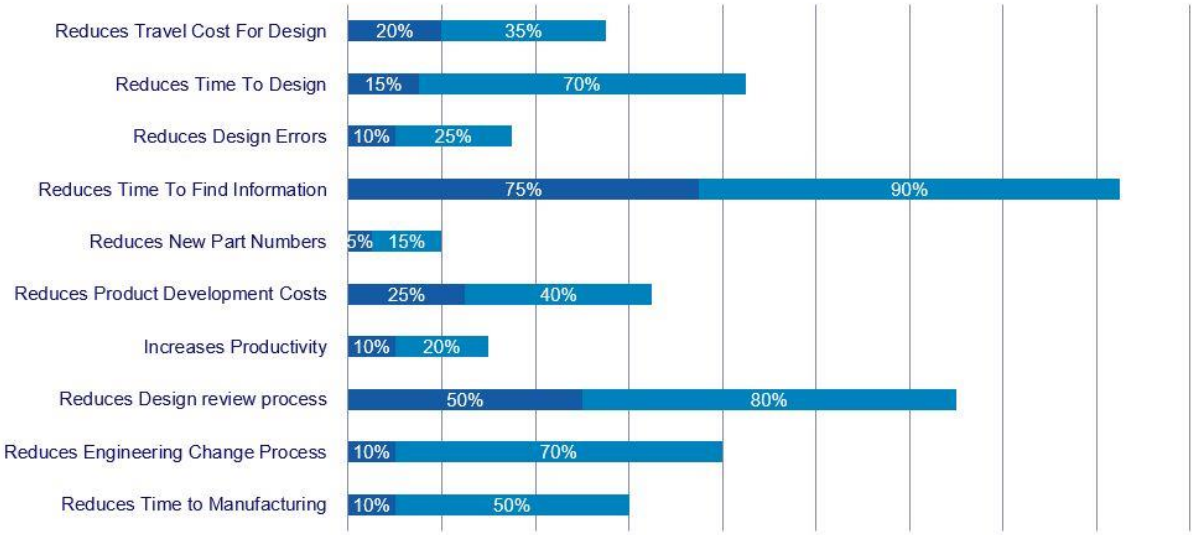
Figure 2: Information Backbone of All Business Processes



Source: CONTACT Software, 2015

In the complex organizations of our age, employees are expected to deal not only with their fundamental duties but also with bureaucratic procedures. As a consequence, wastefulness rises and more importantly the time during which creative thinking outputs could be delivered is, instead, spent on non-value-added tasks. Leaning of processes is possible only after processes are clarified. Mail boxes of employees evolve into a data center and a to-do-list due to gray areas inherent in processes and errors in the description of responsibilities. If these processes are structurally diverted to those in charge in the form of a task-based set-up, the result will be leaning. Process editing tools of PLM systems allow processes to be defined in a form that they are integrated with nets and products, projects, and quality systems. In the light of the research conducted by CIMDATA (2011), recognized as a global authority in the field of PLM and business processes, the relationship between PLM use and waste items in product development processes is presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3: The Effect of PLM Practices on Product Development Waste



	Reduces Time to Manufacturing	Reduces Engineering Change Process	Reduces Design review process	Increases Productivity	Reduces Product Development Costs	Reduces New Part Numbers	Reduces Time To Find Information	Reduces Design Errors	Reduces Time To Design	Reduces Travel Cost For Design
■ from	10%	10%	50%	10%	25%	5%	75%	10%	15%	20%
■ to	50%	70%	80%	20%	40%	15%	90%	25%	70%	35%

Source: CIMDATA, 2011

4. A CASE STUDY ON PRODUCT MANAGEMENT-ORIENTED BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

In this part of the study, in cooperation with ELTAŞ Transformer Sanayi ve Ticaret A.Ş. [Transformers Industry and Trade inc.], the usability of PLM practices not only in product development processes but also in all business processes as well as the possibility of extending PLM practices from quality management system to maintenance and repair management system and from production planning to training process were evaluated.

Eltaş joined business life in 1981 in the area of production and sales of oil test and oil treatment devices. The company began to manufacture oil-immersed transformers in 1995 and was accredited with ISO TS: 9001 certification in 1996. In 2001, the company realized its first export deal and in 2005, it started to manufacture dry type transformers. Today, the company largely exports its products and operates in Çiğli Atatürk Organized Industrial Zone and Aliağa Organized Industrial Zone

4.1. Purpose, Scope and Limitations of the Study

The purpose of the study is to show that contrary to the current tradition of using PLM systems for product development, it is possible that PLM systems are used to manage all technical or non-technical processes in a way that they are also integrated with products, projects and documents. As to the scope, sample processes, information about which was obtained from the enterprise, were selected. Process charts were included in these processes and the workflow on the process charts was integrated in the PLM system. The adopted PLM system did not contain any information about the company, and therefore, this resulted in a limitation as processes could not be integrated in CAD systems, documents and projects.

4.2. Methodology of the Study

In accordance with the purpose of the study, a qualitative research method was employed. In the study, interview method, the most common data collection method in qualitative research, was utilized. In-depth interviews were conducted with senior managers of ELTAŞ Transformer Sanayi ve Ticaret A.Ş. using a pre-defined standard list of questions.

In the present study, qualitative case study design was adopted. Case study, a qualitative research type that helps researchers exploring the answers to the questions “how” and “why” study a case or event, is a comprehensive and systematic model. In the study, purposive sampling method was also utilized. Purposive sampling method is used for the discovery and explanation of cases and events (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 2006). Typical case sampling, a purposive sampling method, was selected for the study purposes. The reasons why ELTAŞ Transformer Sanayi ve Ticaret A.Ş. was chosen as the agent in the case study was that it has its own research and development (R&D) and product development capacity and that it is a technical manufacturing company that can realize both project-based and mass production.

4.3. Findings

After the study, it was ensured that all processes, regardless of whether they were related to product development or whether they were non-technical, were integrated in the PLM system. In this way, it has been proved that all company processes and single tasks that make up these processes can be associated with those who are committed to the organizational roles of a given enterprise. This has also revealed that all reports and key performance indicators in the enterprise can be created via a PLM system.

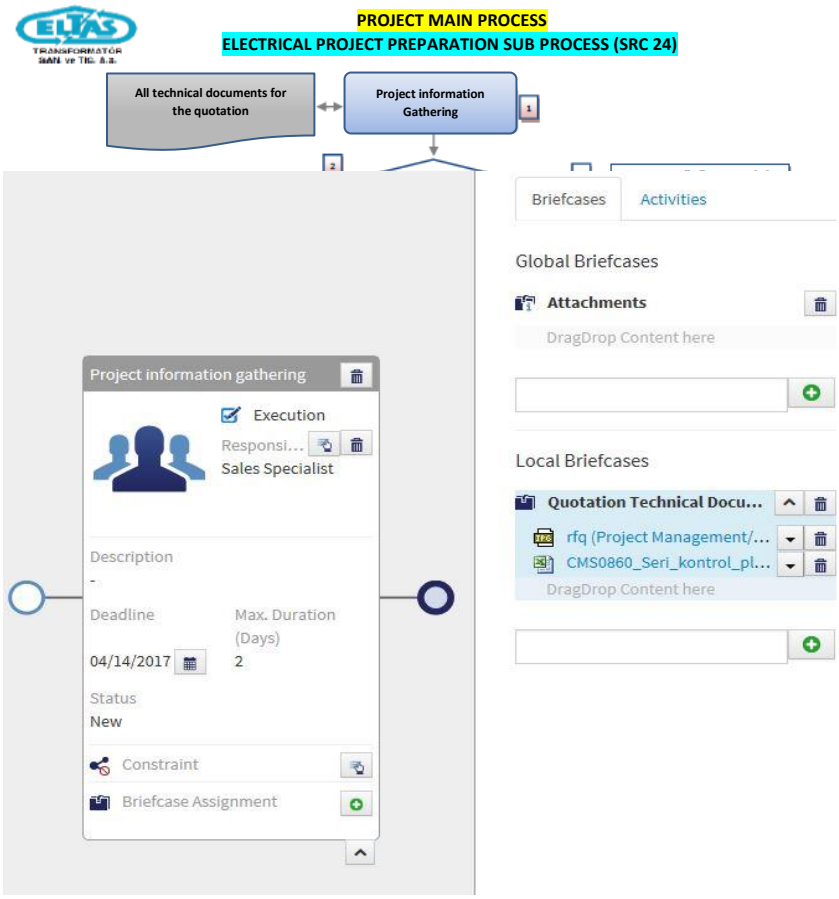
4.4.PLM in the Product Development Process

ELTAŞ Transformer is engaged largely in project-based work. Therefore, all projects go through a set of development stages. At these stages, several teams in the company are required to undertake some duties. The subject teams are given below:

- Sales
- Electricity Project Preparation
- Mechanical Project Preparation
- Quality
- Material Planning
- Production Planning

The first thing to do was to gather project information, and this task was assigned to the sales team; and the technical documents in the attachment of the proposal were linked to the task. In the PLM system shown in Figure 4, the same task was defined. According to this, the person in charge, deadline, attached documents and related processes were all linked to the task. According to this standard procedure, the task is assigned to the person who has held organizational roles and is experienced in this regard. The input of this stage is the technical documents of the proposal and the output will be project information.

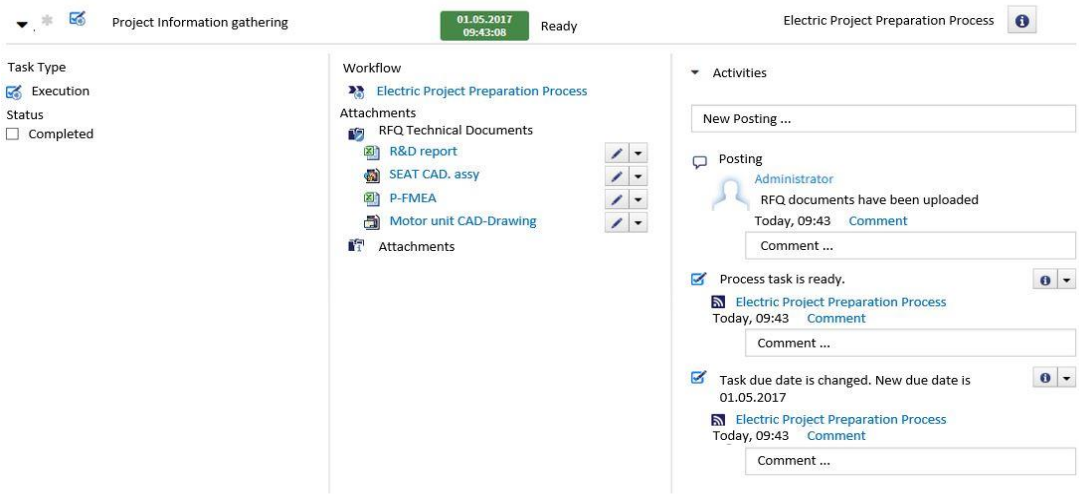
Figure 4: Task Outline in the Process of Electricity Project Preparation



Source: ELTAŞ Transformer A.Ş.

The task responsible follows their tasks via the task manager. All information, documents and communication in relation to the task can be completed using the activities tab without losing time (Figure 5).

Figure 5: Task Manager

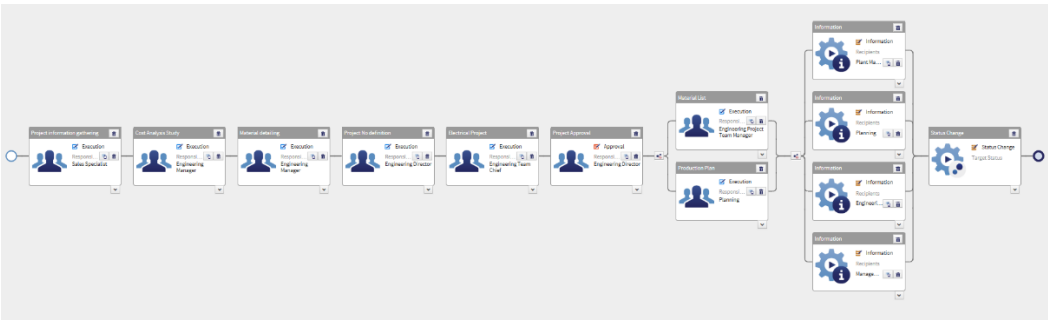


Source: CONTACT Software GMBH

The difference in PLM systems is that the task is associated both with the CAD documents and the process. For this reason, both the completion of the task and the execution of the process were included in the life cycle of the product and it became possible to trace them in the future.

With the completion of this process together with other tasks, product development stage will have been finished and the time required to gain access to information will be minimized in order to make it easier for individuals to fulfill their fundamental duties. The entire process is shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Electricity Project Preparation Process

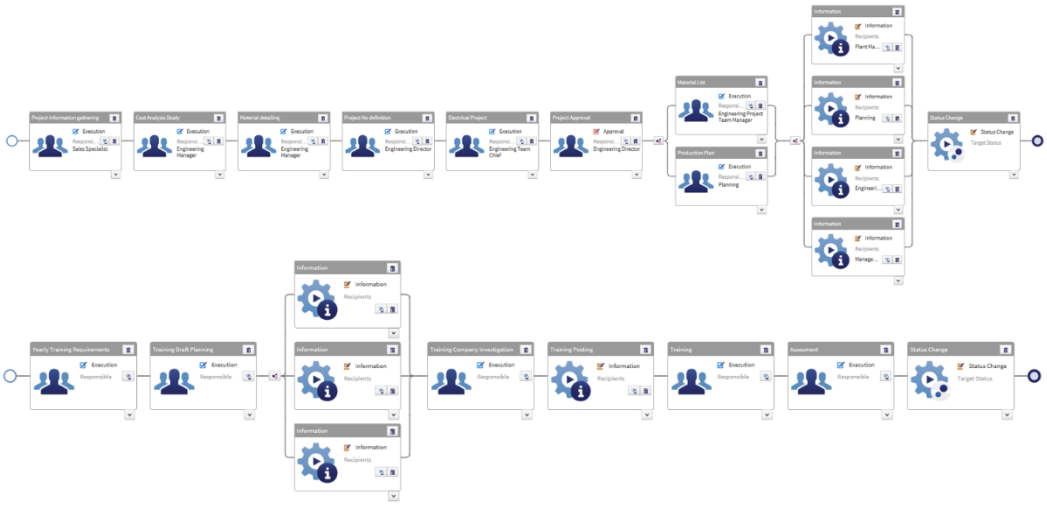


Source: CONTACT Software GMBH

4.5.PLM for the Management of Non-Operational Processes

Human resources practices can be considered as examples of non-operational processes. Figure 7 shows the product development process together with human resources process. Although the two processes have highly different input and outputs, the way they are realized is quite similar. In the product development process, product-related objects were linked to the process steps; while in human resources process, it was training objects that were linked to the process. Majority of the objects that are associated with PLM processes will change with the execution of these processes and documents will be disseminated within the enterprise after the process is completed. Automatic information tasks were included in the processes in order to update the required persons or roles about the process development.

Figure 7: HR and Electricity Project Preparation Processes



Source: CONTACT Software GMBH

4.6. Enterprise Cockpit from the Perspective of Senior Management

As also stated in the previous sections, information that the management mechanism needs should be provided by democratized sources. It is necessary that these sources should be verified by control variables and that their objectivity is ensured. Databases in PLM systems are immune to manipulation and are independent data sources. Each part provides only the piece of data that is related only with the subject part. The whole that is formed by the combination of these information clusters are not subject to the control of any individual or role and have a democratic structure. Using the subject data as a source of reporting data became possible when the business management accessed to the required piece of objective data.

7. CONCLUSION

Enterprise processes should be related to products and derive information from product requirements. If these requirements are supported via customer requests, the value chain will be sustained including even the most detailed process step. Similarly, enterprise integration engineering works towards the same end, that is, to ensure the integrity of the chain. Lean value systems focus on the reduction of process waste by means of constant improvement strategies. PLM systems have, for years, been fulfilling their initial duty of managing product development processes and ensuring quick entry into the market. In addition, PLM is a body of systems that offer enterprises integrated enterprise entities that are required for enterprise integration engineering in addition to the opportunity for process improvement required for lean value systems and the chance to record these improvements in the organizational memory. Besides, it enables enterprises to develop decision-making mechanisms based on objective information and makes it possible to run proactive measure mechanisms. The importance of a product management-based strategy will grow even higher at the digital transformation stage, a vital turning point awaiting the industry. Product management based information backbones of PLM systems are among the systems frequently adopted by enterprises undertaking Industry 4.0 transformation (Laroche, F, 2012). Under these conditions, it is expected that a frequent practice of Turkish enterprises within the next decade will be realizing their integration in favour of PLM practices.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND KNOWLEDGE SHARING: A RESEARCH ON PARTICIPATION BANKING SECTOR

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - This study conducted to investigate the relations between organizational culture and knowledge sharing on a private participation bank.

Methodology - In this study, we reached to the employees of the participant bank with a questionnaire which totally includes 46 item about organizational culture, knowledge sharing and demographic characteristics. The questionnaire we reevaluated and 124 healthy questionnaires were obtained. In the analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaire, a structural equality model was developed to show the relations of organizational culture types on knowledge sharing depending on their demographic characteristics.

Findings - Findingsgatheredfromresearchwererevealedthatclanandhierarchyculturefromorganizationalculturetypeshave a significant effect on tacit knowledge sharing ,also adhocracy and market culture from organizational culture type shave a significant effect on explicit knowledge sharing.

Conclusion - As a result of the study, it is revealed that if tacit knowledge is highly important for an organization , they should create clan or hierarchy culture in their organizations. Moreover, market or adhocracy culture has an positive effect on explicit knowledge sharing.

Keywords: Knowledge management**,** corporate culture, structural equality, organizational behavior, knowledge management.
JEL Codes: M14, D22,D83

ÖRGÜT KÜLTÜRÜ VE BİLGİ PAYLAŞIMI İLİŞKİSİ: KATILIM BANKACILIĞI SEKTÖRÜ ÜZERİNDE BİR ARAŞTIRMA

ÖZET

Amaç - Çalışmamız katılım bankacılığı sektöründe faaliyet gösteren bir özel firmanın sahip olduğu örgüt kültürü ve bilgi paylaşımı arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya koymayı amaçlamaktadır.

Yönetim -Çalışmamızda örgüt kültürü, bilgi paylaşımı ve demografik özellikleri içeren toplam 46 soruluk bir anket ile firma çalışanlarına ulaşılmıştır. Firmadan gelen anketler üzerinde değerlendirme yapılarak 124 adet sağlıklı anket formu elde edilmiştir. Anketlerden elde edilen verilerin analizinde demografik özelliklere bağlı olarak örgüt kültürü tiplerinin bilgi paylaşımı üzerindeki etkisini göstermek için yapısal eşitlik modeli oluşturulmuştur.

Bulgular- Örgüt kültürü tiplerinden klan ve hiyerarşi kültürünün örtülü bilgi paylaşımı üzerinde, adhokrasi ve pazar kültürünün açık bilgi paylaşımı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olduğu sonuçlarına varılmıştır.

Sonuç - Örtülü bilginin paylaşılmasının yüksek önem kazandığı örgütlerde klan veya hiyerarşi kültürü yaratma konusunda çalışmanın, açık bilgi paylaşımını sağlamak veya arttırmak isteyen örgütlerin örgüt kültürü olarak adhokrasi veya pazar kültürü tiplerini benimsemesinin olumlu etki yaratacağı sonucu elde edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Bilgi paylaşımı, örgüt kültürü,yapısal eşitlik, örgütsel davranış, bilgi yönetimi
JEL Kodları: M14, D22,D83

1. GİRİŞ

Bilgi, insanoğlunun varoluşundan buyana giderek önem kazanan bir kavramdır. Tarımsal üretim çağında gücün kaynağı doğal kaynaklar, endüstri döneminde parasal sermaye, günümüzde geçerli olan bilgi çağında ise güç bilgiye sahip olandadır. Endüstriyel toplumlarda bilgi, üretimin artmasına yardımcı olur, bilgi toplumunda ise çevreye uyum sağlanmasına aracılık eder(Kurt, 2005). Bilgi yönetimi yoluyla iş organizasyonları değişimi gerçekleştirebilir ve bunu rekabet avantajına dönüştürebilirler(Erdil ve Kitapçı, 2009).

Örgütte kullanılan bilgi; örtük bilgi ve açık bilgi olmak üzere ikiye ayrılmaktadır (Güngör ve Celep, 2016). Örtük bilgi kişisel olan ve kayıt altına alınamayan, örgütte çalışanların zihinlerinde var olan deneyim odaklı bilgidir. Açık bilgi ise sistematik ve formal bir dille kayıt altına alınabilen veri tabanlarında, dokümanlarda veya internette yer alan bilgi olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Bilgi yönetimi açısından örtük bilginin yönetimi zordur.Örtük bilgi deneyimler ve zihinsel modellerden temelini aldığından bilgi paylaşımı içerisine dahil etmek güçleşmektedir (Chinowsky ve Carillo, 2007). Bilgi yönetimi süreci örgüt içerisinde bilginin dolaşımı ile ilgili olduğundan bilginin değişmeden ilerlemesi ve bilgi kaybının azaltılması veya minimize edilmesi bilgi yönetimi sürecinin en önemli amaçları olarak sıralanmaktadır.

Bilgi paylaşımı gelişmiş veya gelişmekte olan toplumlar veya örgütler arasında, işlevsel bilgi arayışı veya düşüncelerin transferi olarak tanımlanabilir (Johnson, 2013). Mueller'e göre (2012) ise, bilgi paylaşımı en az iki kişi, grup, takım, birim veya örgütü kapsayan; göndericinin bilgi paylaşımı konusunda istekli olması, alıcının ise bu yeni bilgiyi eski bilgileriyle birleştirerek kullanması konusunda istekli olmasını gerektirmektedir. Başka bir tanıma göre bilgi paylaşımı çalışanların karmaşık problemleri çözmesini olanaklı kılan (Cross vd., 2001) bireysel ve örgütsel düzeyde karar almayı destekleyen (Voelpel vd., 2005), performans geliştiren karşılıklı bir süreçtir (Connelly vd.,2014).

Kültür, bir örgütün maddi ve manevi varlığı, geleneklerin örgüt işleyişine yansımasıdır. Daha geniş anlamıyla, kültür belirli türdeki davranışları tanımlar. Son zamanlarda örgütsel kültürün önemi artmıştır çünkü örgütün etkinliği ile yakından bağlantılı olduğu anlaşılmıştır. Kültür bir grup insanın bir arada yaşaması ve çalışmasına uygun ortam sağlayan bir çevredir (Cameron ve Quinn, 2006).Bir organizasyonun kültürünü anlamak için örgütsel tanımlama ve analiz gerekir (Tharp, 2009). Bu alanda yapılan birçok çalışma örgütsel kültürün çalışanların beklentileri ve değerleri arasındaki ayırımı incelemişlerdir. İşyerindeki problemlerin çalışanların diğer insanların düşüncelerini anlamadaki yetersizliklerine dayandırılmaktadır. Bir örgütün kültürü çalışanların ulusal kültürlerinin etkisinde gelişir.

Çalışmamızın literatür incelemesi bölümünde öncelikli olarak bilgi ve bilgi paylaşımı kavramı ve örgüt kültürü konuları ele alınacak sonrasında ise bu iki kavram arasındaki ilişkiye değinilecektir. Çalışmada ele alınan konular hakkında yapılan literatür incelemesinin ardından araştırmanın modeli ve hipotezlerine yer verilecektir ve araştırmada kullanılan ölçekler, ana kütle ve örneklem açıklanacaktır. Araştırmada kullanılan ölçüm modeli ve yapısal modele yer verilerek kavramlar arası araştırılan ilişki ortaya konulacaktır. Son olarak sonuç kısmında ise elde edilen veriler ışında yapılan yorumlar ve gelecekte yapılacak araştırmalara önerilere yer verilecektir.

2. LİTERATÜR İNCELEMESİ

2.1. Bilgi ve Bilgi Paylaşımı Kavramları

Bilgi kavramı sözlükte kurallardan yararlanarak kişinin veriye yönelttiği anlam veya öğrenme, araştırma, gözlem yoluyla insan aklının erebileceği gerçek ve ilkelerin bütünü olarak açıklanmaktadır (http://www.tdk.gov.tr/index.php?option=com_gts&arama=gts&guid=TDK.GTS.5914d0139359e4.00856966,2017).
Davenport ve Prusakise bilgiyi uzman görüşünün yeni deneyim ve enformasyonların değerlendirilmesi ve birleştirilmesi için bir çerçeve sağladığı çerçevelendirilmiş deneyim, değer, bağlamsal enformasyonun esnek bir birleşimi olarak ifade etmiştir (Davenport ve Prusak, 1998:5).

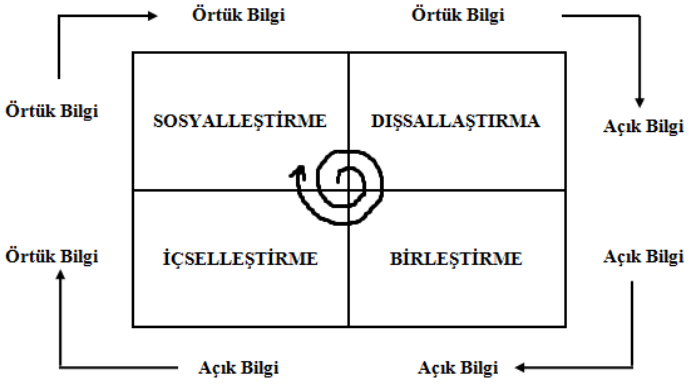
Bilgi kavramı hakkındaki tanımlama ve tartışmaların çoğunda açık ve örtük olmak üzere bilginin ayrımı yapılmaktadır. Açık bilgi, kodlanabilir, resmi ve sistematiktir. Genellikle kitaplarda, kurumsal depolarda, veritabanlarında ve bilgisayar programlarında bulunur. Oldukça kişisel olan örtülü bilginin açıkça ifade edilmesi zordur ve esas olarak bağlamsal deneyimlerimize dayanmaktadır (Small ve Sage, 2005:154). Bilgi kavramının açık ve örtük bilgi şeklindeolan bu sınıflandırılmasınıntemeli Michael Polyani'nin1966 yılında yamış olduğu çalışmasındaki "Anlatabileceğimizden daha fazlasını bilebiliriz" ifadesinden yola çıkılarak IkuroNonaka tarafından 1994 yılında yapılmıştır (Barutçugil,2002:60). Örtük bilginin yazı, resim ya da cümlelere dökülmesi son derece zor olan bilgi türüdür. Örtük bilgi, bu bilgiye sahip olan kişinin zihninde bulunmaktadır. Örtük bilgiyi bir başkasına aktarmak da zor olmaktadır. Aynı bilgi bir kişi için örtük iken diğer bir kişi için açık bilgi olabilmektedir (Dalkır, 2011:9-10) Her ne kadar yapılan tanımlamalarda açık ve örtük bilgi arasındaki farklar ortaya konulduysa da açık ve örtük bilgi arasında onları birbirinden ayıran kesin bir çizgi bulunmadığı da görülmektedir. Bu iki bilgi türünün kesinlikle farklı ve aralarında hiçbir etkileşimin olmadığının düşünülmesi yanlıştır. Aksine bu açık ve örtük bilgi bir bütünün ayrılmaz iki parçası ve bütünün bileşenleridir. İki bilgi türü de gelişebilmek, yenilenebilmek amacıyla birbirlerini desteklemektedir (İbicioglu ve Doğan, 2006: 39).

Açık ve örtük bilginin kendi içinde ve birbirleri arasındaki etkileşimi sosyalleştirme, birleştirme, dışsallaştırma ve içselleştirme olmak üzere dört farklı biçimde gözlenmektedir. Kısaca açıklanırsa;

- Sosyalleştirme (Örtük Bilgiden Örtük Bilgiye): Bireylerin teknik beceriler, zihinsel modeller gibi örtük bilgilerini bilgilerin transferi süresince kodlamadıkları (şifrelemedikleri) durumlarda görülmektedir. (Dima ve Stancov, 2008:75)
- Birleştirme (Açık Bilgiden Açık Bilgiye): Açık olan bilgiler bir kişi veya topluluğa sunulduğunda karşı taraf da bilgiyi açık bir bilgi olarak alırlar. (Barutçugil, 2002:64)
- Dışsallaştırma (Örtük Bilgiden Açık Bilgiye): Örtük bilginin kelimelerle ifade edilerek açık bilgiye çevrilmesidir. (Nonaka, Toyama ve Konno, 2000:9)
- İçselleştirme (Açık Bilgiden Örtük Bilgiye): İçselleştirmeye sayesinde, oluşturulan açık bilgi bir organizasyon boyunca paylaşılmakta ve bireyler tarafından örtülü bilgi dönüştürülmektedir. (Nonaka, Toyama ve Konno, 2000:9)

Bilginin sosyalleştirme, birleştirme, dışsallaştırma ve içselleştirmeden oluşan bu ilişki aşağıda verilen Şekil 1'de olduğu gibi bir döngü ile gösterilebilmektedir.

Şekil 1: Bilginin Dönüşümü



Kaynak:Nonaka, Toyama ve NoboruKonno, 2000:1

Bilgi paylaşımı temelde örgütte bulunan kişiler için bilginin ulaşılabilir olması amacıyla yapılan her türlü eylemdir. Kişiler arası bilgi paylaşımı ise bilgiyi elinde tutan kişinin, bilgiyi diğer bireylerin de anlayabileceği, sahiplenebileceği ve kullanabileceği bir forma dönüştürmesi sürecidir (Ipe,2003:341). Bir başka tanımla bilgi paylaşımı; gönüllü iki birey veya iki bölüm arasında belirli sınırlar dahilinde yasa, etik, norm ve davranışsal ilişkilere bağlı olarak belli bir konuya ilişkin bilginin etkileşim ve iletişim yoluyla sunumu veya kabulüdür (Demirel,2011:200).

Örgütler için kritik değere sahip olan bilginin örgütün tamamına ulaşabilmesi ve kullanılabilmesi için başarılı bir şekilde bilgi paylaşımının sağlanması zorunludur. Yapılan çalışmalarla bilgi paylaşımını olumsuz olarak etkileyen bir çok faktör olduğu görülmektedir. Bilgi paylaşımını olumsuz yönde etkileyen bu faktörler Riege tarafından bireysel, örgütsel ve teknolojik olmak üzere üç ana başlık altında toplanmıştır (Riege,2005:23-29)

Bireylerin bilgiyi sahip oldukları güç olarak görmesi ve bu nedenle bilgilerini kendilerine saklama eğiliminde olmaları bilgi paylaşımının önündeki engellerdendir. Bilginin kişiye değil topluma veya mesleğe ait olduğu algısının yerleştirilmesinin bireylerin bilgi paylaşmasında olumlu etki yapacaktır. Ayrıca kişilere paylaşılan bilgi ile güç kaybı yaşanmayacağının, aksine itibar kazanımı ile gücünün artacağının gösterilmesi de bireylerin bilgi paylaşımına olan olumsuz bakış açılarını değiştirecektir. Bilgi paylaşımında bilgi sağlayıcıların faydalarının artırılıp maliyetlerinin azaltılması, kişilerin bilgi paylaşımında artışını sağlayacaktır. (Çetin ve Şentürk, 2016:254)Çalışanlar işlerinin ve işletmedeki konumlarının güvenli olmadığına inandıklarında işbirliği ve ortak çalışma yönünde davranışlar sergilemedikleri görülmektedir. Bireyler veya çalışanlar sahip oldukları bilgileri paylaşma konusunda istekli davranmamaktadırlar. Bilgi paylaşımının gerçekleşmesi için işletme içinde bir güven ortamının yaratılması gerekmektedir. (Top ve Dilek, 2013:290)

Bilgi paylaşımında örgüt kültürünün de önemli bir yere sahip olduğu görülmüştür. Örgütsel çevre, duygusal zeka ve yönetsel bağlantılar bilgi paylaşımını engelleyen kültürel engellerdendir. Çalışanlara yönetim desteğinin olmaması, teşvikler az olması veya olmaması, sosyal ağların yokluğu, iş güvenliğinin sağlanmayışı ve dil konusunda yaşanan zorluklar ulusal kültüre bağlıdır ve bilginin organizasyonda etkin bir biçimde paylaşılmasına engel olmaktadır. (Rivera-Vazquez, Ortiz-Fournie ve Flores: 2009:267)

Örgütte kullanılan teknoloji tabanlı sistemlerin değiştirilmesi veya inşa ve entegre edilmesinde zorlukların yaşanması örgütler için bilgi paylaşımının önünde bir engel oluşturabilmektedir. Ayrıca çalışanların bilgi teknolojilerinden gerçek dışı beklentilerin olması, deneyimsizlik ve bu teknolojileri kullanma konusunda bilgilerinin olması nedenleriyle bu teknolojilerin kullanımına karşı kişilerin isteksizlik ve direnç oluşturabilmektedir. Çalışanların yeni teknolojileri öğrenmesi ve onlara alışması için gereken eğitimin olmayışı da bir engel olarak örgütlerin karşısına çıkabilmektedir. (Riege,2005:23)

İşletme içerisinde bilginin her çalışana ulaşması ancak etkin bir bilgi paylaşımı ile sağlanabilmektedir. Bilginin üretilmesinde temel kaynak insan olduğundan insanın öğrenmesi, öğrendiklerini içselleştirmesi ve bununla da yetinmeyip kendi bilgilerini diğer insanlarla paylaşması gerekmektedir. Örgüt içinde paylaşılıp kullanılan bilgi yeni bilgilerin doğmasında kolaylık sağlamaktadır. İşletmelerde ancak bilginin paylaşılmasıyla etkin bir bilgi üretme süreci oluşturulmaktadır (Yazıcı, 2001:159). Toplam kalite yönetimi ve zaman temelli yönetiminin önem kazandığı günümüzde zaman ve kalite kavramları karşımıza direkt olarak rekabet avantajı olarak çıkmaktadır. Örgütlerde bilgi paylaşımının etkin olması işletmenin amaçlarına ulaşmasında büyük önem taşımakta olduğu görülmektedir. Her iki yaklaşımda da sıfır hata gerçekleştirilmeye çalışılırken bireylerin veya grupların yaptıkları hatalar bilgi paylaşımı sayesinde gerekli kişilere ulaşır ve uzun vadede düşünüldüğünde bu hataların diğerleri tarafından tekrarlanmaması sağlanmaktadır (Dervişoğlu, 2004:55). Bilgi paylaşımı bireysel ve örgütsel öğrenmeyi kolaylaştırarak örgütlerin değişime uyum sağlama sürecini azaltmaktadır. Örgüt içerisinde bulunan çalışanlara değişime gereksinim duyulmasının nedenleri hakkında bilgi verilmesi bilgi paylaşımı ile gerçekleştirilmektedir. Bilgi paylaşımı ile örgüt çalışanları değişime direnç göstermek yerine buna destek olmalarını sağlayabilmektedir (Mısırdalı, 2006:64).

2.2. Örgüt Kültürü

Kültür, temelde bir toplumun yaşam biçimi olarak tanımlanabilir. Örgüt kültürü ise, bir örgütün yönetim şekli olarak ifade edilebilir. Örgüt kültürü, bir örgütü diğerlerinden farklı kılan, örgütü oluşturan bireylerin sahip olduğu değer, inanç ve normlardan oluşmaktadır. Her örgütün kültürü kendine özgüdür. Bir örgütte üretilen mal ve hizmetleri şekillendiren örgüt kültürüdür(Gürdal ve Kumkale, 2014). Alvesson (2012) örgüt teorisinin akademik ve yönetim araştırmaları içerisinde örgüt kültürünün başta gelen konu olduğunu öne sürmektedir. Kültürel değerlere en az önem verilen örgütlerde bile bireylerin duygu ve düşünceleri, örgütte paylaşılan ortak fikir, inanç ve değerler tarafından yönlendirilmektedir.

Değişik akademisyen ve düşünürler tarafından örgüt kültürünün farklı tanımları yapılmakta ise de. literatürde en sık kullanılan tanım Edgar Schein tarafından yapılmıştır. Schein (2010) örgüt kültürünü, örgütü oluşturan bireyler tarafından öğrenilen, örgütün dış çevreye uyum ve içteki dengeyi sağlama konusunda karşılaşılan problemleri çözebilecek temel varsayımlar durumu olarak tanımlamıştır(Barbars, 2016). Bir örgütte kültürün etkili olabilmesi için, yönetimin olduğu kadar çalışanların ihtiyaçlarına da cevap verebilmelidir. Kültür, örgüt stratejilerinin uygulanmasını kolaylaştırabildiği kadar sınırlayabilir de. Etkili bir kültür, örgütün açık hedefler, paylaşılan varsayımlar, doğru değer ve inançlar, doğru davranışlar, rekabet stratejisine uyum gibi durumlarla karşılaşmasına yol açar.

Cameron ve Quinn (1999) özellikle yeniliklere uyum açısından örgüt kültürünü 4 kategoride incelemiştir.

- Grup veya kabile kültürü
- Serbest ve girişimci kültürü
- Hiyerarşi ve bürokrasi kültürü
- Rasyonel ve piyasa kültürü

Bu dört kültür tipi örgütlerin karşılaştığı problemleri içsel ve dışsal açıdan çözümlemelerinde, ya sabit ve kontrollü veya serbest ve uyumlu olmaları biçiminde değerlendirmek açısından önemlidir(Daher, 2016).

İş hayatı açısından bakıldığında örgüt kültürü, firmanın faaliyetini sürdürme biçimini etkileyen karmaşık bir değerler, inanışlar, varsayımlar ve semboller dizisidir. Bu açıdan örgüt kültürü, firma için en uygun çalışanlar, müşteriler, tedarikçiler ve hatta rakipleri tanımlamakla kalmayıp, bunlarla nasıl iletişime geçileceğini belirlemesi açısından firma üzerinde belirleyici bir etkiye sahiptir(Lee, 2017). Bir işyerinde çalışanların davranışları içinde bulundukları örgütün kültüründen etkilenmektedir. Bu kültürü bireylerin idealleri ve değerleri belirler. İşletme örgütü tarafından ortaya konan tüm değerler iş ortamının gereklerine göre belirlenmektedir(Belias vd., 2016).

2.3. Bilgi Paylaşımı ve Örgüt Kültürü İlişkisi

Örgütün başarısı açısından kültür önemli bir kavramdır ve örgütü diğerlerinden ayıran en önemli göstergedir. Örgütte gerçekleşen her olayı şekillendiren, örgütsel değişimin temelini oluşturan ve onu destekleyen, bilgi yönetiminin de temel taşı olan örgüt kültürüdür. Bilgi ile ilintili olarak örgütsel kültür davranışları dört açıdan etkiler (Delong ve Fahey, 2000):

- Kültür, bilginin önemli olduğuna ilişkin varsayımları şekillendirir.
- Kültür, bilgi düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkilerde vasıta görevi görür.

- Kültür, sosyal iletişim için bir bağ yaratır.
- Kültür, yeni bilgi yaratır ve bireylerin buna adapte olmasını sağlar.

Kültür, bilgi paylaşımında da etkilidir. Bilgi paylaşımının başarısını belirleyen değerler, normlar ve davranışlar gibi etkenler, örgüt kültürünü de oluşturur (Davenport, 2000). Korkunun hakim olduğu örgütlerde çalışanlar, bilgi paylaşımı konusunda güvensizdirler, bilgiyi bir güç kaynağı olarak görürler ve geleceklerinin güvencesi olarak onu saklarlar.

Ruppel ve Harrington (2001) internet yoluyla bilgi paylaşımının örgüt kültürü üzerindeki etkilerine ilişkin yaptıkları çalışmada, bireyler arasında bağlılığın bulunduğu toplumlarda internet yoluyla bilgi paylaşımının fazla olduğu, rekabetin yoğun olduğu toplumlarda ise internetin bilgi paylaşımı açısından fazla kullanılmadığını öne sürmüşlerdir. Suppiah ve Sandhu (2011) ise, örgüt kültürünün sözsüz bilgi paylaşımı üzerindeki etkisini inceledikleri çalışmalarında, bu tür bilgi paylaşımına en uygun örgüt kültürünün, bireyler arasında bağlılığın yüksek olduğu örgütlerde var olduğunu, hiyerarşik örgütlerde bilgi paylaşımının olumsuz etkilendiğini ortaya koymuşlardır.

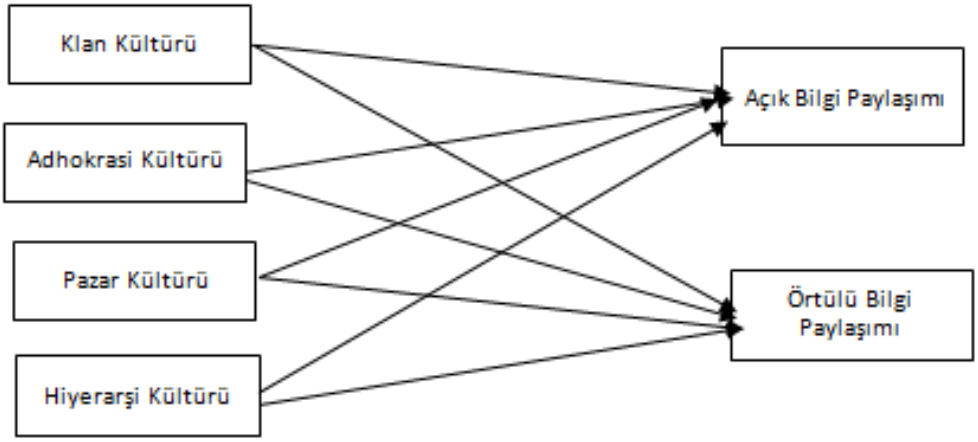
Jones'a (2006) göre, dış odaklanma örgütsel gelişimleri belirler. Rekabete ilişkin değerler altı boyuta dayanmaktadır: baskın özellikler, çalışanların yönetimi, kurumsal beraberlik, örgütsel liderlik, başarı kriteri ve stratejik önem.

3. VERİLER VE METODOLOJİ

3.1. Araştırmanın Modeli ve Hipotezler

Çalışmada yer alan bilgi paylaşımı ve örgüt kültürü arasındaki teorik ilişkileri incelemek amacıyla oluşturulan araştırmanın kavramsal modeli Şekil 2'de yer almaktadır. Kavramsal modelde örgüt kültürü tiplerinin bilgi paylaşımı üzerindeki etkisini test etmek üzere kavramsal model ve hipotezler oluşturulmuştur.

Şekil 2: Kavramsal Model 1



Değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler ve birinci kavramsal model çerçevesinde nedensellik ilişkilerini test edecek şekilde alternatif hipotezleri aşağıdaki Şekil 2'de oluşturulmuştur.

H1: Örgüt kültürü tiplerinden klan kültürünün açık bilgi paylaşımı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi vardır.
H2: Örgüt kültürü tiplerinden klan kültürünün örtülü bilgi paylaşımı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi vardır.
H3: Örgüt kültürü tiplerinden adhokrasi kültürünün açık bilgi paylaşımı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi vardır.
H4: Örgüt kültürü tiplerinden adhokrasi kültürünün örtülü bilgi paylaşımı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi vardır.
H5: Örgüt kültürü tiplerinden pazar kültürünün açık bilgi paylaşımı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi vardır.
H6: Örgüt kültürü tiplerinden pazar kültürünün örtülü bilgi paylaşımı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi vardır.
H7: Örgüt kültürü tiplerinden hiyerarşi kültürünün açık bilgi paylaşımı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi vardır.
H8: Örgüt kültürü tiplerinden hiyerarşi kültürünün örtülü bilgi paylaşımı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi vardır.

3.2. Ana kütle ve Örneklem

Bu araştırmanın ana kütlesini Türkiye'de faaliyet gösteren bir özel katılım bankasının çalışanları oluşturmaktadır. İlgili bankada görev yapmakta olan tüm personele online olarak soru formları iletilmiş ve 124 soru formu sağlıklı bir şekilde cevaplanarak geri dönüşü sağlanmıştır. Katılımcıların demografik özelliklerine ilişkin bilgiler Tablo 1'de sunulmuştur.

Tablo 1'de yer alan verilere göre katılımcıların %90,3'ü erkek çalışanlardan oluşurken %71'i lisans mezunudur. 25-35 yaş arası katılımcıların oranının %75,8 olduğu görülmektedir. Katılımcıların mesleki tecrübesi %37,9 ile 6-10 yıl arası ve %37,1 oranıyla 1-5 yıl ve %16,1 oranıyla 11-15 yıl arasında yoğunlaşmaktadır. Firmadaki çalışma süresi değerlendirildiğinde ise katılımcılar yoğunlukla %45,2'si 6-10 ve %33,1 oranıyla 11-15 yıl arasındadır. Katılımcıların %28,2'si yönetmen, %25'i uzman ve %15,3'ü müdür olarak görev yapmaktadır. Satış ve pazarlama departmanında çalışanların oranı %29, şubede çalışanların oranı %27,4 ve KOBİ Bankacılığında çalışanların oranı ise %12,1'dir. Katılımcıların %88,7'si İstanbul-Avrupa bölgesinde görev yapmaktadır.

Tablo 1: Katılımcıların Demografik Özelliklerine İlişkin Frekans ve Yüzde Dağılımları

Özellikler		Frekans	Yüzde
Cinsiyet	Kadın	12	9,7
	Erkek	112	90,3
Yaş	18-24	8	6,5
	25-35	94	75,8
	36-45	21	16,9
	46-55	1	0,8
Eğitim	Lise	3	2,4
	Önlisans	1	0,8
	Lisans	88	71,0
	Yüksek Lisans	32	25,8
Mesleki İş Tecrübesi	1 Yıldan az	7	5,6
	1-5 Yıl	46	37,1
	6-10 Yıl	47	37,9
	11-15 Yıl	20	16,1
	16-20 Yıl	3	2,4
	20 yıl üzeri	1	0,8
Firmadaki Çalışma Süresi	1 Yıldan az	39	7,3
	1-5 Yıl	19	45,2
	6-10 Yıl	8	33,1
	11-15 Yıl	2	12,9
	16-20 Yıl	1	0,8
	20 yıl üzeri	1	0,8
Firmadaki Görevi	Gişe Yetkilisi	7	5,6
	Uzman Yardımcısı	12	9,7
	Uzman	31	25,0
	Müdür Yardımcısı	3	2,4
	Müdür	19	15,3
	Yönetmen	35	28,2
	Kıdemli Yönetmen	4	3,2
	Yönetici	7	5,6
	Sorumlu	2	1,6
	Güvenlik Görevlisi	2	1,6
	Stajyer	2	1,6
Firmadaki Departman	Bireysel Satış ve Paz.	11	8,9
	Bölge Müdürlüğü	6	4,8
	Güvenlik Müdürlüğü	2	1,6
	İnsan Kaynakları	4	3,2
	KOBİ Bankacılığı	15	12,1
	Operasyon	12	9,7
	Satış ve Pazarlama	36	29,0
	Şube	34	27,4
	Ticari Pazarlama	3	2,4
	Ticari Satış	1	0,8

Bölge	İstanbul-Avrupa	110	88,7
	İstanbul-Anadolu	6	4,8
	Bursa	2	1,6
	İzmir	4	3,2
	İzmit	1	0,8
	Konya	1	0,8

3.3. Veri Toplama Araçları

Araştırmada soru formunda çalışmanın amacına yönelik olarak iki ölçüm aracı yer almıştır. Katılımcıların demografik özelliklerinin belirlenebilmesi amacıyla soru formunda demografik sorular düzenlenmiştir. Soru formundaki ifadeler "1-Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum" ve "5-Kesinlikle Katılıyorum" olacak şekilde beşli Likert tipinde ölçüm yapmaktadır..

Çalışmada kullanılan bilgi paylaşımı ölçeği Wang ve Wang (2012) tarafından geliştirilmiştir. Ölçekte toplam 13 ifade yer almakta ve ölçeğin orijinali iki boyuttan oluşmaktadır. Ölçekte yer alan ifadelerden ilk 7 ifade açık bilgi paylaşımı boyutuna ve sonraki 6 ifade de örtülü bilgi paylaşımı boyutuna aittir.

Soru formunda yer alan örgüt kültürü ölçeği Cameron ve Quinn (1999) tarafından geliştirilmiştir. Ölçek toplam 24 ifade ve dört kültür tipini içeren 4 yatay alt boyuttan oluşurken ayrıca farklı bir yapılanma ile kültür tiplerini oluşturan özellikleri içeren 6 dikey alt boyuttan oluşmaktadır. Çalışmada kültür tiplerini oluşturan 4 alt boyut kullanılmıştır.

4. BULGULAR VE TARTIŞMA

4.1. Ölçüm Modeli

Ölçüm modelinin faktör geçerliliklerini doğrulamak amacıyla doğrulayıcı faktör analizi (DFA) ile değerlendirilmiştir. Bu amaçla yakınsak geçerlilik (convergent validity) ve ayırt edici geçerlilik (discriminant validity) analizleri kullanılmıştır.

Yakınsak geçerlilik tek bir yapıyı ölçmek için hangi faktörlerin kabul edilip hangilerinin edilmeyeceğini göstermektedir. Faktör yüklerinin anlamlı olması ve 0,5'i aşması, bileşik güvenirliklerin 0,6'yı aşması ve tüm yapılar için 0,5'den fazla olması açıklanan ortalama varyansın (AVE) değerlendirilmesi ile yakınsak geçerlilik test edilebilir (Wang ve Wang, 2012). Bu amaçla ilk olarak her bir maddenin faktör yükleri belirlenmiştir. Araştırmanın ölçüm modelinde, faktör yüklemeleri ve bileşik güvenilirlikleri (Composite Reliabilities-CR)kabul edilebilir seviyede tespit edilmiştir. Faktör yükleri 0,565 ile 0,951 arasında değişmektedir. Bileşik güvenilirlik değerleri (CR) ise 0,961-0,987 arasında değişen değerlerdedir. AVE değerleri de 0,549 ve 0,839 arasındadır. Bu sonuçlar ölçüm modelinin yakınsak geçerliğinin sağlandığını ifade etmektedir.

Ölçüm aracının iç güvenilirliği ise iç tutarlılık katsayısı ise Cronbach alfa ile değerlendirilmiştir. Nunnally ve Berstein (1994) alfa değerinin 0,70 ve üzerinde olduğunda güvenilirliğin sağlandığını belirtmişlerdir. Analiz sonucunda elde edilen Cronbach alfa değerleri 0,894 ve 0,967 arasında değişmekte ve 0,7'den büyük olduğu için iç güvenilirliğin sağlandığı anlaşılmaktadır (Tablo 2).

Tablo 2: DFA Sonuçları ve İç Güvenilirlik Analizi

Faktör	Ortalama	SH	Madde	Faktör Yükü	AVE	CR	Cronbach α
Açık Bilgi Paylaşımı	3,824	0,765	ABP1	0,68	0,583	0,975	0,917
			ABP2	0,714			
			ABP3	0,674			
			ABP4	0,786			
			ABP5	0,742			
			ABP6	0,818			
			ABP7	0,902			
Örtülü Bilgi Paylaşımı	3,676	0,792	OBP1	0,834	0,549	0,972	0,894
			OBP2	0,589			
			OBP3	0,567			
			OBP4	0,87			
			OBP5	0,655			
			OBP6	0,862			
Klan Kültürü	3,85	0,957	KK1	0,919	0,839	0,987	0,967
			KK2	0,951			
			KK3	0,891			
			KK4	0,916			
			KK5	0,950			

			KK6	0,866			
Adhokrasi Kültürü	3,55	0,881	AK7	0,877	0,714	0,974	0,939
			AK8	0,866			
			AK9	0,919			
			AK10	0,752			
			AK11	0,901			
			AK12	0,736			
Pazar Kültürü	3,65	0,785	PK13	0,652	0,607	0,961	0,906
			PK14	0,695			
			PK15	0,754			
			PK16	0,850			
			PK17	0,869			
			PK18	0,829			
Hiyerarşi Kültürü	3,76	0,753	HK19	0,565	0,705	0,964	0,920
			HK20	0,882			
			HK21	0,864			
			HK22	0,891			
			HK23	0,912			
			HK24	0,873			

Ayırt edici geçerliliği bir faktöre ait ortalama açıklanan varyans ile o yapının diğer yapılarla olan korelasyon katsayısının karesinin karşılaştırılması ile değerlendirilir. Faktörlere ait korelasyon ve açıklanan ortak varyans (AVE) değerleri Tablo 3'de yer almaktadır. Köşegen üzerinde yer alan değerler her bir yapıya ait açıklanan ortak varyans (AVE) değerlerini ifade ederken, köşegen dışındaki satır ve sütunlarda yer alan değerler ise yapıların birbirleri arasındaki korelasyon katsayılarının karelerinden oluşmaktadır. Ayırt edici geçerlilik için Fornell ve Larcker yaklaşımı kullanılmış olup, köşegenler üzerinde yer alan değerlerin kendi satır ve sütun değerlerinden büyük olması gerekmektedir (Fornell ve Larcker 1981). Her köşegen elemanın, köşegenden farklı elemanlardan daha yüksek olduğu görülmektedir. Ayırt edici geçerlilik sonuçları hem madde hem de yapı düzeyinde kabul edilebilir değerlerdedir.

Tablo 3: Ayırt Edici Geçerlilik

Faktörler	Açık Bilgi Paylaşımı	Örtülü Bilgi Paylaşımı	Klan Kültürü	Adhokrasi Kültürü	Pazar Kültürü	Hiyerarşi Kültürü
Açık Bilgi Paylaşımı	**0,583**					
Örtülü Bilgi Paylaşım	0,471	**0,549**				
Klan Kültürü	0,460	0,312	**0,839**			
Adhokrasi Kültürü	0,257	0,300	0,619	**0,714**		
Pazar Kültürü	0,100	0,149	0,216	0,332	**0,607**	
Hiyerarşi Kültürü	0,256	0,199	0,454	0,624	0,492	**0,705**

Yapısal eşitlik modellemesinde teorik model ile ölçüm modelinin karşılaştırılmasında kullanılan uyum iyiliği indeksleri araştırmacılar tarafından mutlak uyum indeksleri, artımlı uyum indeksleri, kısıtlı uyum indeksleri, çıkarımsal, betimsel ve alternatif ya da normlu ve normlu olmayan uyum indeksleri olarak nitelendirilmektedir (Hooper vd., 2008:53-56). Her bir uyum indeksi için belirlenmiş standart değer bulunmaktadır, ancak araştırmacılara göre farklılık gösterebilmektedir. Tablo 4'te yer alan standart değerler farklı araştırmacılardan derlenerek oluşturulmuştur.

Tablo 4'te, önerilen modelin uyum ölçüleri (Goodness-of-fit indices) standart değerler ile karşılaştırıldığında kabul edilebilir düzeyde olduğu ve yapısal modeli doğruladığı anlaşılmaktadır. $\chi2$=Chi-Square (Ki-Kare) değerinin anlamlı olmadığı, $\chi2$/df=Chi-Square/Degree of Freedom değerinin iyi uyum sağladığı, GFI=Goodness Of Fit Index (İyilik Uyum İndeksi) değerinin standart değere oldukça yakın kabul edilebilir bir düzeyde olduğu, RMR=RootMeanSquareResidual (Hata Kareleri Ortalamalarının Karekökü) değerinin kabul edilebilir düzeyde olduğu ve CFI=Comparative Fit Index (Karşılaştırmalı Uyum İndeksi) değerinin ise kabul edilebilir düzeyde olmadığı görülmektedir. Bu durumda modelin verilere kabul edilebilir düzeyde uyum sağladığına ve böylece araştırma hipotezlerini açıklayabileceğine karar verilebilir.

Tablo 4: Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analizi İçin Uyum İyiliği İndeks Değerlendirmesi

Uyum İndeksi	İyi Uyum	Kabul Edilebilir Uyum	Model
$\chi2$ (CMIN)	$0<\chi2<2df$	$2df<\chi2<3df$	9,174
$\chi2$/df (CMIN/df)	≤ 3	≤4-5	1,83

GFI	≥0,90	0,89-0,85	0,85
CFI	≥0,97	≥0,95, ≥0,90	0,88
RMR	≤0,05	0,06-0,08	0,08

Kaynak: Meydan, 2011.

3.5. Yapısal Model

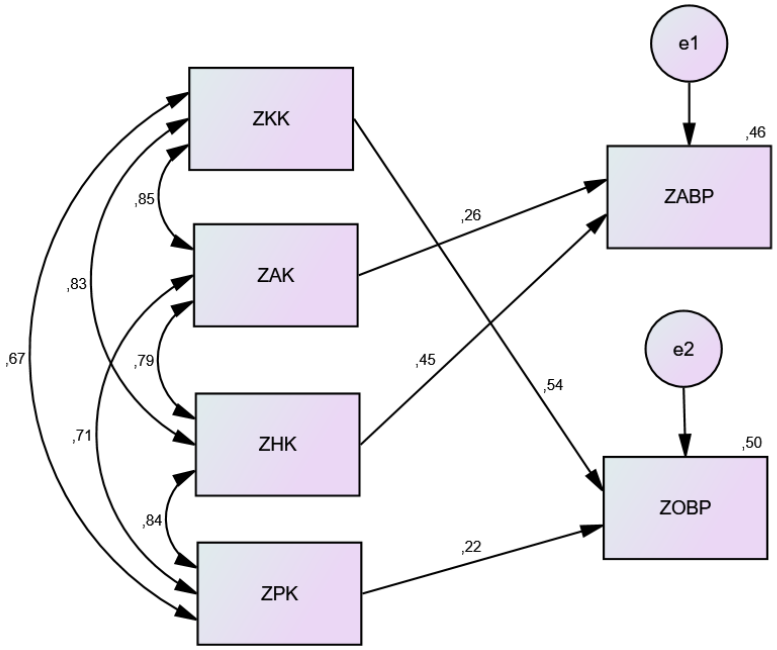
Çalışmada örgüt kültürü ile bilgi paylaşımı arasındaki nedensellik ilişkilerinin araştırılması amaçlanmaktadır. Bu amaçla öncelikle değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler incelenmiş, daha sonra ise yapısal eşitlik modeli tekniğiyle değişkenler arasındaki etkileşim analiz edilmiştir. Bu bağlamda örgüt kültürü tipleri bağımsız değişken, bilgi paylaşımı alt boyutları ise bağımlı değişken olarak alınmıştır.

Analizler sonucunda ortaya çıkan bu ilişkiler doğrultusunda örgüt kültürü tiplerinin bilgi paylaşımıüzerindeki etkisini göstermek oluşturulan yapısal eşitlik modeli ise Şekil 3'de sunulmuştur. Şekil 3'de yer alan sonuçlara göre; örgüt kültürü tiplerinden adhokrasi kültürü ile açık bilgi paylaşımı arasında pozitif yönlü zayıf kuvvette anlamlı bir ilişki (β= 0,260, p<0,05) ve hiyerarşi kültürü ile açık bilgi paylaşımı arasında pozitif yönlü orta kuvvette bir nedensellik ilişkisi (β= 0,453, p<0,001) olduğu görülmektedir. Benzer şekilde örgüt kültürü tiplerinden Pazar kültürü ile örtülü bilgi paylaşımı arasında pozitif yönlü zayıf kuvvette anlamlı bir nedensellik ilişkisi (β= 0,218, p<0,05) ve Klan kültürü ile örtülü bilgi paylaşımı arasında pozitif yönlü orta kuvvette bir nedensellik ilişkisi (β= 0,542, p<0,001) olduğu anlaşılmaktadır. Analiz sonuçları Tablo 5'de yer almaktadır.

Tablo 5: Yapısal Eşitlik Modeline İlişkin Regresyon Matrisi ve R^2 Değerleri

Değişkenler	B	β	S_h	t (Kritik Oran)	R^2
Adhokrasi Kültürü →Açık Bilgi Paylaşımı	0,260	0,260	0,108	2,412	0,458
Hiyerarşi Kültürü→Açık Bilgi Paylaşımı	0,453	0,453	0,108	4,198	
Pazar Kültürü→Örtülü Bilgi Paylaşımı	0,218	0,218	0,086	2,538	0,499
Klan Kültürü→Örtülü Bilgi Paylaşımı	0,542	0,542	0,086	6,326	

Şekil 3: Örgüt Kültürü Tiplerinin Bilgi Paylaşımı Üzerindeki Etkisi



Analiz sonuçlarına göre adhokrasi kültürünün gelişmesi açık bilgi paylaşımı zayıf bir oranda artırırken hiyerarşi kültürü açık bilgi paylaşımını daha fazla artırma eğilimindedir. Örtülü bilgi paylaşımını pozitif yönde etkileyen örgüt kültürü tipi klan kültürü iken Pazar kültürü de daha düşük oranda etkilemektedir.

Bireyselyaratıcılık ve yenilikçiliğin teşvik edildiği adhokrasi kültürü belirsizlik veya fazla enformasyon yüklemesi karşısında uyum, esneklik ve yaratıcılığı teşvik etmektedir (İşcan ve Timuroğlu, 2007: 123). Yaratıcılık ve yenilikçiliğin teşvik edilmesi sistematik ve formal bir dille kayıt altına alınabilen, kolaylıkla ulaşılabilen bilgi paylaşımını artırmaktadır. Diğer taraftan açık bilgi paylaşımını artıran hiyerarşi kültürü standart kurallar ve prosedürler içerirken ileri düzeyde formal bir yapıya sahiptir. Resmi kural ve politikaların ön planda olduğu bu örgüt kültürü istikrarlı bir iş süreci için açık bilgi paylaşımını da gerektirmektedir.

Örtülü bilgi paylaşımı her ne kadar yönetilmesi zor bir yapı olsa da işbirliğine dayalı olan klan kültüründen önemli derecede etkilenmektedir. Örgütün başarısı için takım çalışması ve birlik duygusu ve örgüte sadakat gibi unsurların ön planda olduğu bu örgüt kültürü örgütte çalışanların edindikleri ve kayıt altına alınmayan bilgiyi paylaşarak örgütün başarısını artırma amacına yöneltmektedir. Pazara girme ve pazarda rekabet edebilme yönünde örgüt başarısını artırmaya yönelik olan Pazar kültürü de yine örtülü bilgi paylaşımını artırarak başarıya ulaşmada bir katkı sağlanmasını ortaya çıkarmaktadır.

Araştırma hipotezleri değerlendirildiğinde klan kültürünün örtülü bilgi paylaşımı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olduğu yönündeki hipotez (Hipotez 2), adhokrasi kültürünün açık bilgi paylaşımı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olduğu yönündeki hipotez (Hipotez 3), Pazar kültürünün açık bilgi paylaşımı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olduğu yönündeki hipotez (Hipotez 5) ve hiyerarşi kültürünün örtülü bilgi paylaşımı üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olduğu yönündeki hipotez (Hipotez 8) doğrulanmıştır. Elde edilen sonuçlar Tablo 6 ile özetlenmiştir.

Tablo 6: Hipotezler İçin Elde Edilen Karar Tablosu

No	Hipotez	Karar
H_1	Örgüt Kültürü Tiplerinden Klan Kültürünün Açık Bilgi Paylaşımı Üzerinde Anlamlı Bir Etkisi Vardır.	Doğrulanmadı
H_2	Örgüt Kültürü Tiplerinden Klan Kültürünün Örtülü Bilgi Paylaşımı Üzerinde Anlamlı Bir Etkisi Vardır.	Doğrulandı
H_3	Örgüt Kültürü Tiplerinden Adhokrasi Kültürünün Açık Bilgi Paylaşımı Üzerinde Anlamlı Bir Etkisi Vardır.	Doğrulandı
H_4	Örgüt Kültürü Tiplerinden Adhokrasi Kültürünün Örtülü Bilgi Paylaşımı Üzerinde Anlamlı Bir Etkisi Vardır.	Doğrulanmadı
H_5	Örgüt Kültürü Tiplerinden Pazar Kültürünün Açık Bilgi Paylaşımı Üzerinde Anlamlı Bir Etkisi Vardır.	Doğrulandı
H_6	Örgüt Kültürü Tiplerinden Pazar Kültürünün Örtülü Bilgi Paylaşımı Üzerinde Anlamlı Bir Etkisi Vardır.	Doğrulanmadı
H_7	Örgüt Kültürü Tiplerinden Hiyerarşi Kültürünün Açık Bilgi Paylaşımı Üzerinde Anlamlı Bir Etkisi Vardır.	Doğrulanmadı
H_8	Örgüt Kültürü Tiplerinden Hiyerarşi Kültürünün Örtülü Bilgi Paylaşımı Üzerinde Anlamlı Bir Etkisi Vardır.	Doğrulandı

5. SONUÇ

Bilginin önemininve teknolojik yeniliklerin üst seviyelere ulaştığı günümüzde başarıyı yakalamak ve en önemlisi sürdürmek isteyen her örgütün elde ettiği veya ürettiği bilginin örgütte paylaşılmasını sağlamak en önemli amaçlarından biri haline gelmiştir. Günümüz örgütlerinde bilginin önemini vurgulayan ve bilginin paylaşım ve yayılımını destekleyen bir örgütsel kültürün oluşturulması gerekliliği göze çarpmaktadır.

Araştırmamız sonucunda, örgüt kültürü tiplerinden klan ve hiyerarşi kültürüyle örtülü bilgi paylaşımı arasında anlamlı bir ilişki elde edilmiştir. Bu sonuçtan yola çıkarak örtülü bilginin paylaşılmasının yüksek önem kazandığı örgütlerde veya meslek gruplarında örgütün klan veya hiyerarşi kültürü yaratma konusunda çalışmaları faydalı olabileceği sonucuna varılmaktadır. Yine araştırmamızın sonucunda, örgüt kültürü tiplerinden pazar ve adhokrasi kültürüyle açık bilgi paylaşımı arasında anlamlı bir ilişki elde edilmiştir. Bu sonuçtan hareketle açık bilgi paylaşımını sağlamak veya arttırmak isteyen örgütlerin örgüt kültürü olarak adhokrasi veya pazar kültürü tiplerini benimsemesinin olumlu etki yaratacağı düşünülmektedir.

Elde edilen analiz sonuçlarına göre adhokrasi kültürünün gelişmesi açık bilgi paylaşımı zayıf bir oranda artırırken hiyerarşi kültürü açık bilgi paylaşımını daha fazla artırma eğilimindedir. Örgütün başarısı için takım çalışması ve örgüte sadakat gibi unsurların ön planda olduğu bu örgüt kültürü, örgütte çalışanların edindikleri ve kayıt altına alınmayan bilgiyi paylaşarak örgütün başarısını artırma amacına yöneltmektedir. Pazara girme ve pazarda rekabet edebilme yönünde örgüt başarısını artırmaya yönelik olan pazar kültürü de yine örtülü bilgi paylaşımını artırarak başarıya ulaşmada bir katkı sağlamaktadır. Bu sonuçlar aslında örgüt kültürü türleri ile bilgi paylaşımı arasında kesin belirlenmiş ayrımlar olmadığını göstermektedir. Bir

örgütte açık ve örtülü bilgi paylaşımın birbiri içerisinde dönüşmesi ve yer değiştirmesi durumu göz ününe alındığında bu durumun elde edilen sonucu desteklediği görülmektedir.

Araştırmanın sadece özel bir katılım bankası çalışanları ile sınırlı kalması ve istatistiki olarak yeterli olsa da az sayıda katılımcıyla yapılmış olması çalışma için bir kısıttır. İleride konu hakkında çalışacak olan araştırmacıların daha büyük örneklem üzerinde çalışmalarının literatüre katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir. Ayrıca farklı sektörlerde tekrarlanacak çalışmalar sonucu elde edilen verilerin karşılaştırılması ile örgüt kültürü ve bilgi paylaşımı ilişkisinin sektörler arası bir fark gösterip göstermediği belirlenebilir, böylelikle farklı sektör çalışanları için bu iki kavram arasında olan ilişki yorumlanabilir. Araştırmamızda örgüt kültürü ve bilgi paylaşımını ölçme amacıyla kullanılan ölçekler dışında ölçekler kullanılarak benzerlik veya farklılık araştırılması faydalı olacaktır.

Bir örgütte görülen örgüt kültürü türlerinin bilgi paylaşımı türleri üzerindeki etkisini inceleyen çalışmamızın gelecekte bu konu üzerinde çalışacak olan araştırmacılara faydalı bir kaynak olacağınız ümit ediyoruz.

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IMPACT OF MARKETING AND R&D EXPENDITURES ON FINANCIAL PERFORMANCE: A RESEARCH IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- In this research it is aimed to investigate the impact of marketing and research and development (R&D) expenditures of companies on their financial performance in manufacturing industry.

Methodology- Data of 41 manufacturing companies listed on Borsa İstanbul (BIST) was gathered for the period of 2009-2015 from their financial statements. Since the data set is a panel data, methods of panel regression analysis have been performed.

Findings- As a result of the analysis, impact of marketing and R&D expenditures on firms' performance differentiate according to financial performance measures and it is founded that they have no effect on some financial performance indicators.

Conclusion- Test results imply that marketing and R&D expenditures have positive contribution to manufacturing companies' some of the financial performance indicators. However, manufacturing companies cannot use marketing and R&D budgets in an effective and efficient way. Manufacturing companies are not able to manage marketing and R&D activities successfully.

Keywords: Marketing expenditures, research and development expenditures, panel data analysis, financial performance,
JEL Codes: M31, O32, C23

1. INTRODUCTION

As competition between businesses increases, it gets harder to survive and grow in the industry. In order to maintain a sustainable development, companies try to increase their profit, business value, and financial performance as much as possible with their limited resources. In this regard, deployment and effective usage of resources are key factors for companies to reach their business goals. Effective allocation and usage of resources leads businesses to success and it is a key for financial performance and competitive advantage.

In order to gain a sustainable competitive advantage and increase business value, organizations try to add value to their brands, goods and services, and they exert effort to improve the quality of their products, services and processes. These efforts address two major activities of organizations: "Marketing" and "Research and Development". To keep in touch with their current customers, to reach potential customers and to increase their recognition they spend huge amount of money on marketing activities. In order to produce better products and offer better services, they spend time and money on research and development activities. The final goal of these activities is to increase financial performance and business value.

In this research it is aimed to investigate the impact of marketing and research and development (R&D) expenditures of manufacturing companies on their financial performance. To evaluate financial performance some performance indicators which are related to marketing and R&D expenditures are selected. In this research selected financial performance indicators are revenue, gross profit, earnings before interest and tax (EBIT), net income, gross profit margin (GPM), and return on sales (ROS). The impact of marketing and research and development expenditures on the selected financial performance indicators will be examined separately.

In this paper firstly the literature about impact of marketing and R&D expenditures on financial performance will be summarized. After literature review, research model and the variables in the research model will be explained. The target population, data and methodology will be clarified. In findings and discussions part the results of the analysis will be discussed. At the end, the conclusion of the research will be expressed.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Marketing and Research and Development activities are two main operations of manufacturing companies. Marketing and R&D activities are very important functions for firms to survive and grow in the industry. In the fierce competitive business environment it is inevitable to focus on these functions. All the firms have to focus on marketing activities to increase their market sensing capabilities which includes understanding customers' needs, wants and demands, building long-term relationship with customers.

Marketing and R&D expenditures are viewed as intermediate assets between marketing activities and firm-level financial performance (e.g., Ramaswami et al. 2009). Financial performance could be achieved in many ways, yet achieving continuous and sustainable financial performance could be ensured through market-based assets. According to Srinivasan and Hanssens (2009) marketing activities create market-based assets, which ultimately enhance financial performance of companies. Some of market-based assets are brand equity, channel equity, customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, company reputation, brand reputation and perceived product quality (Aaker and Jacobson, 1994; Sharp, 1996; Srivastava et al., 1998; Srinivasan and Hanssens, 2009). These market based assets are believed to influence intermediate outcomes of firms such as customer thoughts, feelings, knowledge, and behavior (O'Sullivan & Abela, 2007). To create market-based assets firms spend effort and money resources on their marketing activities. However marketing activities may not be enough to gain and sustain these intangible assets. Brand equity, brand awareness and market-sensing capability could be achieved through successful marketing activities. Providing customers with high-quality goods, services, and processes with a reasonable price will increase customer loyalty and customer satisfaction. Besides successful marketing activities, firms need to have effective research and development activities. Once these activities and strategies are implemented successfully, firms can increase their profit. It is obvious that proper fit of marketing and R&D activities lead to sustainable competitive advantage and financial performance.

Marketing capability is defined as the integrative process which includes understanding consumers' specific needs, achieving product differentiation and superior brand equity (Day, 1994; Dutta et al., 1999; Song et al., 2005, Song et al., 2007; Yu et al., 2014). Vorhies and Morgan (2003; 2005) stated that marketing capability is related to business performance and firms can enhance their financial performance by improving their marketing capability. Besides this, according to Nath et al. (2010) marketing capability is one of the most important sources of competitive advantage. Thus, marketing activities are very crucial functions for firms to focus on in order to achieve competitive advantage and business performance.

Marketing capability helps a company in building and maintaining long-term relationships with customers and channel members (Song et al., 2007). Ortega and Villaverda (2008) argued that marketing capability creates a strong brand image for the firms which allows them to achieve superior business performance. Therefore, companies devote efforts and resources in order to enhance their market sensing capabilities (Narsimhan et al., 2006). Increased marketing capabilities ultimately would increase firms' business performance. In marketing literature, many studies have found that there is a significant relationship between marketing capability and financial performance (Dutta et al., 1999; Nath et al., 2010; Song et al., 2005; Vorhies & Morgan, 2005).

Superior customer value can be achieved through customer intimacy and product leadership which are result of marketing and R&D capabilities (Treacy & Wiersema, 1993; Krasnikov & Jayachandran, 2008). Thus, marketing and R&D activities are main functions to develop and implement a strategy for sustainable competitive advantage and business performance.

Firms' ability to develop and exploit their innovative capabilities is accepted as an important determinant of competitive advantage and performance (Voss, 1994; Bettis and Hitt, 1995; Helfat and Peteraf, 2003). Because of the increasing levels of competition and decreasing product life cycle, a firm's ability to generate a continuous stream of innovations which allows firms to develop and maintain competitive advantage may be more important than ever (Artz et al., 2010). In this regard firms devote efforts and resources in research and development activities more than they use to do.

Firms can provide economic rent, develop their technological capabilities and acquire first-mover advantage by R&D activities, which of all contribute to firms' performance (Bowen et al., 2010). In fierce competitive business environment, R&D expenditures can enhance firm performance by reducing production cost and launching new products (Ruiqi et al., 2017). R&D activities will enhance firms' long-term performance by helping firms to generate new knowledge and widen the scope of firms' knowledge base and improve firms' capability to absorb and integrate existing knowledge (Cohen & Levinthal, 1989). However, R&D activities are risky and are not always drivers of superior future performance (Liao & Rice, 2010). In manufacturing industry product innovation is a crucial part of R&D activities. In marketing context product innovation is very important since it allows firms to develop new market segments as well as expand their current market

segments and product portfolios (Gupta et al., 1986; Slotegraaf & Pauwels, 2008). However, innovative products and services may not actually satisfy market needs (Liao & Rice, 2010), product innovation may lead to higher costs (Lynn, 1998) and it also may lead higher risks and management challenges (Danneels & Kleinschmidt, 2001). Newly designed products may cause unexpected manufacturing problems, or may not be commercially viable. R&D expenditures for new product development may exceed profits gained from these new products, which results R&D expenditures becoming sunk costs (Hsu et al., 2013). Because of these risks the effect of research on product innovation on firm performance remains unclear (De Luca & Atuahene-Gima, 2007). Besides their benefits, R&D expenditures pose risks. Thus, intellectual property produced by R&D investment must be properly understood and appropriately managed to increase future firm performance (Edvinsson and Malone, 1997).

According to Mizik and Jacobson (2003) superior organizational performance resulting from competitive advantage is the result of a firm's two main capabilities: superior customer-value creation capabilities and value appropriation capabilities. Value creation process is related to research and development activities, while value appropriation process is related to advertising activities (Peterson & Jeong, 2010). Andras and Srinivasan (2003) stated that marketing and research and development expenditures are two key inputs which should be effectively managed to compete successfully in the market. In the literature there are contradictory results about the incidence of the R&D expenditures on the firm's financial performance (Lantz & Sahut, 2005).

To sum up the marketing and research and development literature, to gain sustainable financial performance and competitive advantage, firms must effectively and efficient manage their marketing and R&D activities.

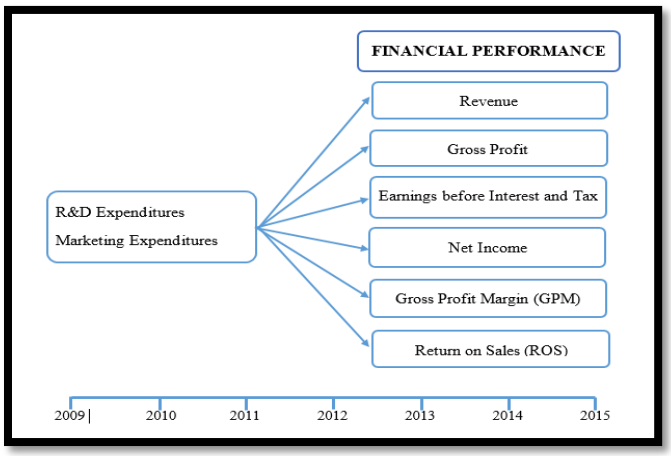
3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

In this study, it is aimed to investigate the impact of marketing and R&D expenditures on financial performance. There are many indicators to measure financial performance and we have to select some of these indicators to build a research model. Purpose of marketing and R&D expenditures will help us in deciding which financial performance indicators should be selected.

According to literature, main purposes of marketing and R&D activities are to increase some intangible assets such as brand recognition, brand awareness, market-sensing capability, reputation and offer superior goods and services respectively. Undoubtedly, firms devote efforts and resources to achieve superior business performance through increasing sales and profit. "Revenue", "Gross Profit", "Earnings Before Interest and Tax". "Net Income" "Gross Profit Margin" and "Return on Sales" are selected as financial performance indicators since these are main profitability measures and related to marketing and R&D expenditures.

In this research, selected financial performance indicators are dependent variables in the research model. Independent variables in the model are "Marketing Expenditures" and "Research and Development Expenditures". Besides dependent and independent variables, there is a time dimension in the research model. Yearly data of 41 companies was collected from 2009 to 2015. Thus while constructing the research model we add this time dimension in the model. The research model is given on Figure 1.

Figure 1: Research Model



R&D expenditures are the expenses to run research and development activities. It takes place on an income statement as "Research and Development Expenses" under operating expenses. Marketing expenditures are the general expenses to run

a company's marketing activities. These expenditures take place on income statements as "Selling, Distribution and Marketing Expenses" which includes and represents all the marketing expenditures.

Revenue is the total amount that firms earned from the sales of goods and services. It is sometimes referred as sales. In manufacturing industry main source of revenue is product sales. Gross Profit is the money amount remaining after deducting cost of goods sold from revenue. EBIT is a measure of a company's profit. It is the difference between operating revenues and operating expenses. It does not include interest and tax expenses. EBIT is given on an income statement. Net Income is the net amount that a firm earns for an accounting period. At the end of a period a firm can have profit or loss, so this value can be either positive or negative. It is computed as deducting all the expenses from all revenues and incomes for an accounting period.

GPM shows what percentage of revenue turns into gross profit. It is not directly given on any financial statements, but it can be calculated by using needed items on an income statement. GPM is calculate as dividing gross profit with revenue. ROS is the measure of effectiveness of a company in transforming sales into profit. It is not directly given on any financial statements, but it can be calculated by using needed items on an income statement. ROS is calculate as dividing EBIT with revenue.

Target population of the research is the manufacturing companies listed on Borsa Istanbul. Marketing activities and related expenditures are inevitable in all the industries. However research and development activities may not be common and sometimes not needed in some industries. For instance, service companies do not focus on R&D activities, because these firms generally do not need to invest in research and development. R&D activities are generally needed for product development. For this reason, manufacturing industry is thought to be the most appropriate target population for this research.

The data was gathered from the companies' financial statements. Marketing and R&D expenditures and some of the financial performance measures are directly given on the financial statements of the companies. Companies' revenue, gross profit, earnings before interest and tax and net income are directly given items on their income statements. Profitability ratios in the model which are gross profit margin and return on sales are calculated by using the necessary data given on the companies' financial statements.

The data was collected from the website of PDP (Public Disclosure Platform). There are 193 manufacturing company listed in Borsa Istanbul at the end of 2015. Only 41 of manufacturing companies have regular and continuous R&D and marketing expenditures simultaneously since 2009. Since, there were a global crisis in 2008 and it most probably causes a structural break in econometric data we didn't include 2008 and before in the data set .Thus the data of these 41 companies was gathered and examined. The data set consists of two dimensions: unit and time dimensions. Our data set include data from 41 companies over 7 years (2009 to 2015). Since the research data set is a panel data, methods of panel data analysis need to be performed.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

This part is consist of necessary tests performed and the results of these tests. First, unit root test is performed to test whether the variables which will be used in the models are stationary or not. Then all the necessary tests and analysis will be done to see the impact of marketing and research and development expenditures on financial performance. To see the impact of marketing and R&D expenditures on financial performance, panel regression models will be constructed for each chosen financial performance indicators.

In panel data analysis there are two types of panel unit root tests: first generation and second generation panel unit root tests. If there is cross-section dependence we have to use second generation panel unit root tests, otherwise we can use first generation panel unit root tests. To test cross-section dependence Pesaran (2004) CD test is used. According to CD test there is a cross-section dependence in all the variables since the p-value of the test for the all variables are less than 0,05. This result shows that there is a correlation between cross-section units in the data set. Thus we have to use one of the second generation panel unit root tests.

Among second generation unit root tests, Pesaran's (2003) CADF test is used to test stationarity. Pesaran's (2003) CADF test is performed for all the variables in the data set separately. Results of the CADF test shows that t-bar statistics of all the variables are higher than the critical values for 90%, 95% and 99% confidence intervals. Test results show that none of the variables contain unit root, in other words all the variables in the data set are stationary. According to this results we can conduct regression analysis by using these variables.

4.1. Impact of Marketing and R&D Expenditures on Revenue

In this part how marketing expenditures and research and development expenditures affect revenue will be examined. The regression model is constructed as follows:

$$Revenue = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Marketing\ Exp. + \beta_2\ R\&D\ Exp. + \varepsilon$$

In order to decide whether to construct fixed effect or random effect model, Hausman (1978) specification test is performed. Since the p value (0.4211) is higher than 5%, we fail to reject the null hypothesis. This means we can construct FE or RE model. Since RE model is more efficient we will construct a random effect model.

Before interpret the model we have to check assumptions of panel data analysis. We can test heteroscedasticity in panel data analysis with Levene (1960), Brown and Forsythe (1974) tests, since our model is RE. According to the test results, all the p values are less than 5%, thus we reject the null hypothesis. We conclude that, there is a heteroscedasticity problem in the model.

Baltagi-Wu **(**1999) LBI test, Bhargava, Franzini and Narendranathan (1982) DW-d and Adjusted Lagrange Multiplier (ALM) test can be used to test autocorrelation in the model. When the Baltagi-Wu (1999) LBI test statistic is greater than 2, we cannot reject the null hypothesis and this is what we expect in a regression model. Since Baltagi-Wu (1999) LBI test statistic (1.31) is less than 2, we reject the null hypothesis. ALM test probability (0,0283) is less than 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis. Both of the autocorrelation tests state that there is an autocorrelation problem in the model. Pesaran (2004) CDLM and Frees' Q (1995) tests can be used to test cross sectional dependence. Since probability for both of the tests is lower than 0,05 we reject the null hypothesis. We conclude that, there is a cross sectional dependence problem in the model.

We tested the panel data regression assumptions and we failed to satisfy all the assumptions. Thus we have to interpret the regression model with Driscoll-Kraay (1998) robust standard errors. Driscoll-Kraay (1998) standard errors model can be used in the case of existence of heteroscedasticity, autocorrelation and cross-sectional dependence. The interpreted model results are summarized on the table below.

Table 1: Impact of Marketing and R&D Expenditures on Revenue

Regression with Driscoll-Kraay Standard Errors				
Dependent Variable		Revenue		
Independent Variables		Marketing, R&D		
Periods		2009-2015 (7 periods)		
Number of Units		41		
F Statistic		338.26		
Probability		0,0000		
R square (overall)		0.6076		
Variable	**Coefficient**	**D-K Std. Err.**	**t statistic**	**p-value**
Constant	9.23e+08	1.11e+08	8.34	0,000
Marketing	2.771905	0.2190208	12.66	0,000
R&D	56.32549	2.257792	24.95	0,000

From the table above we can interpret the regression model. F statistic and its probability shows that the model is valid. We can explain about 61% (R^2) of change in revenue with marketing and R&D expenditures. The explanatory power of the model is high enough. All the independent variables are significantly affect the dependent variable.

There is a positive impact of marketing and R&D expenditures on firms' revenue. 1 TL increase in marketing, increases revenue about 2,77 TL. 1 TL increase in R&D, increases revenue about 56,32 TL. The impact of R&D is way higher than the impact of marketing on revenue in manufacturing industry. This results show that increasing revenue is highly affected by R&D expenditures. In manufacturing sector, the firms which place a particular importance to R&D activities and try to increase their product and service quality will easily increase their sales.

4.2. Impact of Marketing and R&D Expenditures on Gross Profit

In this part impact of marketing expenditures and research and development expenditures on gross profit will be examined. The regression model is constructed as follows:

$$Gross\ Profit = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Marketing\ Exp. + \beta_2\ R\&D\ Exp. + \varepsilon$$

According to the Hausman (1978) test results, we should construct a random effect model, since the p value (0,8003) is higher than 5%. Before interpret the model we have to check assumptions of panel data analysis.

Test results of Levene (1960), Brown and Forsythe (1974) heteroscedasticity test shows that there is a heteroscedasticity problem in the model, since all the p values are less than 5%. To test serial correlation Baltagi-Wu (1999) LBI test and Adjusted Lagrange Multiplier test are performed. Baltagi-Wu (1999) LBI test statistic is lower than 2 and p-value of ALM test is lower than 0,05. We can conclude that there is an autocorrelation problem in the model. Results of Pesaran's (2004) test of cross sectional independence shows that there is a cross sectional dependence problem in the model, since the probability is lower than 0,05.

In the model we fail to satisfy all the assumptions of panel regression analysis. Since we failed to satisfy all the assumptions, we have to interpret the regression model with Driscoll-Kraay (1998) standard errors estimators. The interpreted model results are summarized on the table below.

Table 2: Impact of Marketing and R&D Expenditures on Gross Profit

Regression with Driscoll-Kraay Standard Errors				
Dependent Variable		Gross Profit		
Independent Variables		Marketing, R&D		
Periods		2009-2015 (7 periods)		
Number of Units		41		
F Statistic		2419.40		
Probability		0,0000		
R square		0.8150		
Variable	**Coefficient**	**D-K Std. Err.**	**t statistic**	**p-value**
Constant	1.05e+08	1.81e+07	5.82	0,000
Marketing	1.494459	0.0218431	68.42	0,000
R&D	3.821826	0.2152653	17.75	0,000

From the table above we can interpret the regression model. F statistic and its probability show that the model is valid. We can explain about 82% (R^2) of change in gross profit with marketing and R&D expenditures. All the independent variables are significant.

There is a positive impact of marketing and R&D expenditures on firms' gross profit. 1 TL increase in marketing, increases operating income about 1,5 TL. 1 TL increase in R&D, increases revenue about 3,82 TL. Both marketing and R&D expenditures increases gross profit of a firm in manufacturing sector. The impact of R&D is higher than the impact of marketing on gross profit. This results show that marketing expenditures increases the sales and value of goods or/and service of a firm. Besides this, R&D activities plays a very crucial role in increasing a firm's gross profit.

4.3. Impact of Marketing and R&D Expenditures on EBIT

In this part the impact of marketing expenditures and research and development expenditures on earnings before interest and tax (EBIT) will be examined. There are many variables that affect EBIT and net income. In businesses there are mainly two ways to increase income; increasing revenue or/and decreasing costs. Instead of including revenue and cost of goods sold, which is the main cost in manufacturing industry, gross profit is included in the model as a control variable. Gross profit is found by deducting cost of goods sold from the revenue. Thus these two variables reduced to one variable. The regression model is constructed as follows:

$$EBIT = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Gross\ Profit + \beta_2 Marketing\ Exp. + \beta_3\ R\&D\ Exp. + \varepsilon$$

According to the Hausman (1978) test results we will construct a random effect model, since the p value (0,2511) is higher than 5%. We can test heteroscedasticity with Levene (1960), Brown and Forsythe (1974) test. According to the test results all the p values are less than 5%, thus we reject the null hypothesis. We conclude that, there is a heteroscedasticity problem in the model. To test autocorrelation Baltagi-Wu (1999) LBI test and Adjusted Lagrange Multiplier test are performed. Baltagi-Wu (1999) LBI test statistic is higher than 2 and p-value of ALM test is higher than 0,05. We can conclude that there is no autocorrelation problem in the model. According to the results of Pesaran's (2004) test of cross sectional independence, probability is lower than 0,05. We conclude that, there is a cross sectional dependence problem in the model.

In the model we fail to satisfy the assumptions of homoscedasticity and cross sectional independence and there is no autocorrelation in the model. We have to interpret the model with robust standard error estimators. We can interpret the

regression model with Driscoll-Kraay (1998) standard errors estimators. The interpreted model results are summarized on the table below.

Table 3: Impact of Marketing and R&D Expenditures on EBIT

Regression with Driscoll-Kraay Standard Errors				
Dependent Variable		Earnings Before Interest and Tax		
Independent Variables		Gross Profit, Marketing, R&D		
Periods		2009-2015 (7 periods)		
Number of Units		41		
F Statistic		4841.23		
Probability		0,0000		
R square (overall)		0.9685		
Variable	**Coefficient**	**Robust Std. Err.**	**z statistic**	**p-value**
Constant	-2329207	3093244	-0.75	0.451
Gross Profit	0.9102994	0.0140564	64.76	0.000
Marketing	-1.031591	0.3472462	-3.53	0,000
R&D	-1.226139	2.257792	24.95	0,000

From the table above we can interpret the regression model. F statistic and its probability show that the model is valid. We can explain about 97% (R^2) of change in earnings before interest and tax with gross profit, marketing and R&D expenditures. All the independent variables are significant.

We can see that there is a negative impact of marketing and R&D expenditures on earnings before interest and tax (EBIT) of a firm in manufacturing industry. 1 TL increase in gross profit, increases EBIT about 0,91 TL. 1 TL increase in marketing, decreases EBIT about 1,03 TL. 1 TL increase in R&D, decreases EBIT about 1,23 TL.

In an income statement EBIT is calculated as deducting all expenses, except tax and interest, from all earnings, except interest. Earning of a firm is driven mainly by sales. Main expenses of manufacturing companies are cost of goods sold and operating expenses. Operating expenses have three main items: general and administrative expenses, marketing expenses and research and development expenses. It is an expected situation that when a company increases its marketing and R&D expenditures their EBIT will decreases with a same amount. However, these activities are supposed to increase manufacturing companies' profitability. Manufacturing companies seem to spend too much on marketing and R&D activities and they cannot get enough profit in return. It seems that, manufacturing companies cannot use their marketing and R&D budgets in an effective and efficient way.

4.4. Impact of Marketing and R&D Expenditures on Net Income

In this part impact of marketing expenditures and research and development expenditures on net income will be examined. Gross profit is included in the model as a control variable. The regression model is constructed as follows:

$$Net\ Income = \beta_0 + Gross\ Profit\ \beta_1 + \beta_2\ Marketing\ Exp. + \beta_3 R\&D\ Exp. + \varepsilon$$

According to Hausman (1978) test results we will construct a random effect model, since the p value (0,4069) is higher than 5%. Before interpret the model we have to check assumptions of panel data analysis.

According to Levene (1960), Brown and Forsythe (1974) test of heteroscedasticity there is a heteroscedasticity problem in the model, since all the p values are less than 0,05. To test serial correlation Baltagi-Wu (1999) LBI test and Adjusted Lagrange Multiplier test are performed. The results suggest that there is no autocorrelation problem in the model, since Baltagi-Wu (1999) LBI test statistic is higher than 2, and the probability of ALM test is greater than 0,05. According to the results of Pesaran's (2004) CDLM and Friedman R (1937) tests of cross sectional independence there is no cross sectional dependence problem in the model, Since probability of two of the tests are higher than 0,05.

In the model we fail to satisfy homoscedasticity assumption. We have to interpret the model with Huber (1967), Eicker (1967) and White (1980) standard error estimators. However, since the significance level of the R&D expenditures is 0,15 which is higher than 0,05, we can say that there is no impact of R&D expenditures on net income. Since R&D expenditures have no effect on net income, we have to exclude R&D variable from the model and estimate the model again. The new regression model will be constructed as follows:

$$Net\ Income = \beta_0 + Gross\ Profit\ \beta_1 + \beta_2\ Marketing\ Exp. + \varepsilon$$

According to Hausman (1978) test results we will construct a random effect model, since the p value (0,4731) is higher than 5%. According to Levene (1960), Brown and Forsythe (1974) test of heteroscedasticity there is a heteroscedasticity problem in the model, since all the p values are less than 0,05. To test serial correlation Baltagi-Wu (1999) LBI test and Adjusted Lagrange Multiplier test are performed. The results suggest that there is no autocorrelation problem in the model, since Baltagi-Wu (1999) LBI test statistic is higher than 2, and the probability of ALM test is greater than 0,05 According to the results of Pesaran's (2004) CDLM and Friedman R (1937) tests of cross sectional independence, we conclude that, there is no cross sectional dependence problem in the model, since the probability of two of the tests are higher than 0,05.

As a consequence there is heteroscedasticity problem in the model, and there is no autocorrelation and cross sectional dependence problems. In the model we fail to satisfy homoscedasticity assumption of panel regression analysis. Since we failed to satisfy only the homoscedasticity assumption, we can interpret the model with Huber (1967), Eicker (1967) and White (1980) standard error estimators where the computed estimators are still consistent in the case of having heteroscedasticity problem. The interpreted model results are summarized on the table below.

Table 4: Impact of Marketing Expenditures on Net Income

Regression with Huber, Eicker and White Standard Errors				
Dependent Variable		Net Income		
Independent Variables		Gross Profit , Marketing		
Periods		2009-2015 (7 periods)		
Number of Units		41		
Wald X^2 Statistic		426.30		
Probability		0,0000		
R square		0.8614		
Variable	**Coefficient**	**Robust Std. Err.**	**z statistic**	**p-value**
Constant	-157704.5	8420005	-0.02	0.985
Gross Profit	0.6698096	0.032442	20.65	0,000
Marketing	-0.8618069	0.0522248	-16.50	0,000

Wald statistic and its probability show that the model is valid. We can explain about 86% (R^2) of change in net income with gross profit and marketing expenditures.

There is a negative impact of marketing expenditures on firms' net income and there is no impact of R&D expenditures on firms' net income. 1 TL increase in gross profit, increases net income about 0,67 TL. 1 TL increase in marketing decreases net income about 0,86 TL. The impact of marketing on net income is negative in manufacturing sector. That is, when they increase their marketing expenditures, their net income decreases. The reason of this situation might be result ineffective usage of the marketing budget. Besides negative impact of the marketing expenditure, there is no impact of R&D expenditures on the net income of a firm in manufacturing industry. Ineffective usage of marketing and R&D budget may be a reason for these results.

4.5. Impact of Marketing and R&D Expenditures on Gross Profit Margin

In this part it will be examined that how marketing expenditures and research and development (R&D) expenditures affect gross profit margin (GPM). A static panel data model was constructed, but that model was not very explanatory as the model was not significant and the explanatory power of the model (R^2) was very low. The reasons for that could be that the explanatory variables in the model were not adequate to explain the dependent variable which is GPM, or GPM may show a dynamic pattern. Thus a dynamic regression model will be constructed to investigate the impact of marketing and R&D expenditures on GPM. The model will be constructed as below.

$$GPM_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 GPM_{t-1} + \beta_2 Marketing\ Exp._t + \beta_3\ R\&D\ Exp._t + \varepsilon$$

In order to make decision between fixed and random effect we have to run Hausman (1978) test. According to the results of Hausman (1978) test, the p value (0,0000) is lower than 5%, thus we will construct a fixed effect model. The model is estimated as on the table below.

Table 5: Impact of Marketing and R&D Expenditures on Gross Profit Margin

Fixed-effects (within) Regression				
Dependent Variable		Gross Profit Margin		
Independent Variables		GPM (1 lagged), Marketing, R&D		
Periods		2009-2015 (7 periods)		
Number of Units		41		
F Statistic		8.29		
Probability		0.0000		
R square (overall)		0.6349		
Variable	**Coefficient**	**Std. Err.**	**t statistic**	**p-value**
Constant	0.149387	0.0138694	10.77	0.000
GPM_{t-1}	0.2858428	0.0635281	4.50	0.000
Marketing	3.48e-11	2.64e-11	1.32	0.189
R&D	1.19e-10	2.38e-10	0.50	0.619

From the table above we can see that the regression model is valid (F=0,000). Explanatory power of the model is high enough (R^2=63%). However there is no impact of Marketing and R&D expenditures on Gross Profit Margin.

GPM shows companies' ability to convert their sales into gross profit. The formula of GPM is shown below.

$$Gross\ Profit\ Margin = \frac{(Revenue - Cost\ of\ Goods\ Sold)}{Revenue}$$

From the formula of GPM we can understand that if a company can control its cost of goods sold and sell their products for a higher and satisfied price, it can increase its gross profit margin. If a company can increase its gross profit it can also increase its GPM. High production costs will negatively affect and decrease GPM. Effective usage of raw materials, decreasing production costs and effective usage of other resources are key determinants for high and desirable GPM.

According to the tests results we can see that marketing and research and development expenditures make no contribution to manufacturing companies in converting their sales into gross profit. In shortly, marketing and research and development expenditures have no impact on manufacturing companies' GPM. Ineffective and inefficient allocation and usage of marketing and research and development budgets may be the reason for this results. Marketing and R&D activities do not add sufficient and desirable value to their products.

4.6. Impact of Marketing and R&D Expenditures on Return on Sales

In this part the impact of marketing expenditures and research and development expenditures affect return on sales (ROS) will be examined. A static panel data model was constructed, but that model was not very explanatory as the model was not significant and the explanatory power of the model (R^2) was very low. The reasons for that could be that the explanatory variables in the model were not adequate to explain the dependent variable which is ROS, or ROS may show a dynamic pattern. Thus a dynamic regression model will be constructed to investigate the impact of marketing and R&D expenditures on ROS. The regression model is constructed as follows:

$$ROS_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 ROS_{t-1} + \beta_2 Marketing\ Exp._t + \beta_3\ R\&D\ Exp._t + \varepsilon$$

In order to make decision between fixed and random effect we have to run Hausman (1978) specification test. According to the results of Hausman (1978) test, the p value (0,0000) is lower than 5%, thus we will construct a FE model .Estimation results are on the table below.

Table 6: Impact of Marketing and R&D Expenditures on Return on Sales

Fixed-effects (within) Regression				
Dependent Variable		Return on Sales		
Independent Variables		ROS(1 lagged), Marketing, R&D		
Periods		2009-2015 (7 periods)		
Number of Units		41		
F Statistic		12.60		
Probability		0.0000		
R square (overall)		0.4633		
Variable	**Coefficient**	**Std. Err.**	**t statistic**	**p-value**
Constant	0.0674094	0.0068395	9.86	0.000
ROS_{t-1}	0.3390443	0.0552475	6.14	0.000
Marketing	1.18e-12	3.21e-11	0.04	0.971
R&D	1.23e-10	2.90e-10	0.43	0.671

From the table above we can see that the regression model is valid (F=0,000). Explanatory power of the model is moderate (R^2=46%). However, there is no impact of Marketing and R&D expenditures on Return on Sales in manufacturing industry.

ROS shows the companies' ability to convert their sales into profit and it is used to evaluate a company's operational efficiency. ROS is the percentage of total revenue which is converted into profit. ROS is calculated as dividing EBIT to revenue.

If a company can control its production cost and sell their products for a high price, it can increase its return on sales. Effective usage of resources and increasing income are key determinants for high and desired ROS. From the formula of ROS, we can say that if a company could increase its earnings before interest and tax through either decreasing expenses or increasing profit margin, company's ROS will increase.

According to this results, we can see that marketing and research and development expenditures make no contribution to manufacturing companies in converting their sales into profit. This means that, marketing and R&D expenditures do not have impact on manufacturing companies' operational efficiency. It seems that manufacturing companies cannot use their marketing and research and development budgets in an efficient and effective way that these expenditures don't have any effect in their return on sales.

To sum up, according to the test results, there is a positive impact of marketing and research and development expenditures on revenue and gross profit in manufacturing industry. When manufacturing companies increases their marketing and R&D expenditures they can increase their revenue and gross profit. Compare to marketing expenditures, R&D expenditures have more impact on revenue and gross profit.

There is a negative impact of marketing and research and development expenditures on earnings before interest and tax (EBIT) in manufacturing industry. When manufacturing companies increase their marketing and R&D expenditures, it decreases their EBIT. EBIT includes operational incomes and operational expenses. Main operational expenses for a manufacturing company are cost of goods sold and operating expenses. Operating expenses have three main items: general administrative expenses, selling, distribution and marketing expenses and research and development expenses. Too much operating expenses decrease firms' EBIT. Manufacturing companies spend too much on marketing and R&D activities that they cannot get enough income in return. That's why marketing and R&D expenditures decrease manufacturing companies' EBIT. While there is no impact of R&D expenditures on manufacturing companies' net income, there is a negative impact of marketing expenditures on net income.

Test results show us that there is no impact of marketing and research and development expenditures on gross profit margin (GPM) and return on sales (ROS) in manufacturing industry. In other words, marketing and R&D activities do not make any contribution to manufacturing companies in converting their sales into profit. This shows us that marketing and R&D budgets cannot be used in an effective and efficient way.

5. CONCLUSION

In this research we examined the impact of "Marketing" and "Research and Development" expenditures on firms' financial performance in manufacturing industry. As a financial performance indicators "Revenue", "Gross Profit", "Earnings Before Interest and Tax (EBIT)", "Net Income", "Gross Profit Margin (GPM)" and "Return on Sales (ROS)" were selected. Impact of marketing and R&D expenditures on these financial performance indicators were examined separately. The sample was consist of 41 manufacturing company listed on Borsa Istanbul, which have done marketing and R&D activities regularly. Yearly data was gathered for the period of 2009-20015 from these companies' financial statements. The data set was a panel data with 41 units and 7 periods. In order to analyze the impact of marketing and R&D expenditures on selected financial performance indicators methods of panel data regression were performed and panel data regression models were constructed.

The ultimate aim of marketing and R&D activities are gaining competitive advantage and increase financial performance. Test results imply that marketing and R&D expenditures have positive contribution to manufacturing companies' some of the financial performance indicators. However, manufacturing companies cannot use marketing and R&D budgets in an effective and efficient way. Manufacturing companies are not able to manage marketing and R&D activities successfully, since expenditures related with these activities have no contribution in converting their sales into profit and even decrease their earnings.

There were 193 manufacturing companies listed on Borsa Istanbul by 2015. All of them carry on marketing activities and have related expenditures. However, only 41 of them, which is about 21%, do regular research and manufacturing expenditures since 2009. Even this situation shows that manufacturing companies don't attach enough importance to R&D activities, although we know that producing and offering innovative and superior products, which is output of R&D activities, are main sources of financial stability and growth in manufacturing industries.

Manufacturing companies seem not to allocate and use their marketing and R&D budgets in effective and efficient way, by which they could increase their profitability. It is clear that, there is a lack of effective management and control of marketing and R&D activities in manufacturing industry. In order to increase financial performance, increase business value, create value for stakeholders and gain sustainable competitive advantage, management of manufacturing companies must control and manage marketing and research and development activities and processes more effectively and efficiently. It is obvious that, efficient and effective implementation of marketing and R&D activities will provide companies with sustainable competitive advantage and they can increase their profitability and financial performance.

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THE LINK BETWEEN ATTRIBUTES AND CITY BRAND MEANINGS: AN ANALYSIS FOR MULTIPLE STAKEHOLDERS*

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- This paper investigates the perceptions of different target groups such as residents, tourists, and students about a city brand by using five city brand attributes such as urbanity&cultural activities, infrastructure, nature&environment, economic conditions, and job opportunities&business networks.

Methodology- A quantitative survey was conducted in order to test hypotheses and linear multiple regression was used to assess the predictive power of city brand attributes.

Findings- Urbanity&cultural activities and nature&environment affect the city brand attitude as a living place for the samples of residents, students, and tourists. Urbanity&cultural activities, infrastructure, nature&environment, and economic conditions make significant contributions to the attitudes as a studying place. City brand attitude as a visiting place has been affected from urbanity&cultural activities, nature&environment, and infrastructure. Economic conditions are the most crucial element providing that the residents and tourists consider any city as a liveable city, while job opportunities&business network is the most important factor for students.

Conclusion- Stakeholders' perceptions about a city vary according to their purpose of existing in the city. This study makes theoretical contributions to the city branding literature with covering views of residents, tourists and students for a specific brand meaning as a living place, studying place, or visiting place.

Keywords: city brand, city attributes, residents, students, tourists.
JEL Codes: M31, M30, M39

1. INTRODUCTION

Destination marketing was first put forward in the 1970s and has been a topic of great interest by researchers since then (Gallarza, Saura, and Garcia, 2002). As brand conception began to grow in importance, place branding, a broader concept, emerged accordingly. City branding is one of the subfields of place branding, and this issue has been discussed by numerous conceptual and empirical studies. As earlier studies (e.g. Embacher and Buttle, 1989; Gallarza, et al., 2002) have mostly attempted to interpret choices or preferences of tourists, the focus has remained specifically on brand image. However, residents have a prominent role in branding the city, since they are arguably the most valuable segment in a city (Insch and Florek, 2008; Braun, 2008; Braun, Kavaratzis, and Zenker, 2010). Attracting and retaining residents has been a critical and challenging issue for cities (Insch, 2010); thus, research fields exploring the meaning ascribed to the city by residents has gained importance. As a result, in the last decade many studies (e.g., Braun et al., 2010; Laaksonen P., Laaksonen, M., Borisov, and Halkoaho, 2006; Merrilees, Miller, and Herington, 2009; Zenker, Petersen, and Aholt, 2013) have emphasized the role of residents in city branding.

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Nevertheless, city brand does have more stakeholders with noteworthy perceptions such as businesses, visitors, investors, students, special interest groups, but until recently the overall approach in the literature has been limited in terms of target groups (Braun et al., 2010; Dinnie, 2010, p.9; Merrilees , Miller, and Herington, 2012; Zenker, Knubben, and Beckmann, 2010). Decision makers need to consider all target groups who make a contribution to a city's economic wealth, cultural, or environmental development. The number of stakeholders affect the brand value, thus more holistic approaches which consider multiple stakeholders are necessary (Jones, 2005). In this respect, Merrilees et al., (2012) have attempted to assess the overall value of a city brand with a wider perspective by using perceptions of different stakeholders: residents and businesses. They found that residents and business owners could have very different filters when evaluating the city brand as a place to live or do business. In this regard, the authors emphasized the importance of focusing on different contexts of brand meanings in order to understand the brand better. Additionally, Zenker et al. (2010) concluded that sub-groups of residents might have different perceptions about a city.

These findings should have encouraged researchers to take into consideration various stakeholders' perceptions in different brand meanings. However, only a few studies have attempted to explain the issue empirically for various stakeholders in a city branding context, whereas stakeholder theory has been widely accepted by researchers in a marketing context (Polonsky and Scott, 2005). Even as some researchers have expanded their studies to focus on other stakeholders such as tourists (Lim and Weaver, 2014) and students (Brandt and Mortanges, 2011; Kazancoglu and Dirsehan, 2014), only single entities of stakeholders have been reviewed in each of these papers. There is still a remarkable gap in the literature explaining and comparing various target groups' perceptions for city brands in different brand meanings such as place to live, place to visit, or place to study.

Brand perceptions or brand meanings given by target audiences are crucial and reveal many outputs like place attachment and word-of-mouth (Zenker, 2011). Yet information about attributes that need to be considered on a preferential basis for various stakeholders is scarce. One of the main purposes of city management is to create a strong brand in order to attract new inhabitants as well as retain the current residents. Therefore, identifying the target groups' perceptions of the city brand in different meanings might provide a deeper understanding about the context of attributes.

On this basis, the main objective of this study is to investigate the different perceptions of target groups (residents, tourists, and students) about a city brand by using city brand attributes. In this way, the contribution of each city brand attribute in predicting various brand attitudes will be identified, and decision makers will have an opportunity to remedy problematic issues or to develop new strategies for reinforcing some other attributes. On the other hand, people currently living in a city are considered as belonging to two different sub-groups as residents and students. This discrimination allows us to analyze the difference between two types of people living in a city during the same time period but presumably having different expectations.

In this context, the paper is organized into three sections: In the first section, theoretical framework is outlined. The next section reviews the research methodology and findings. Finally, the paper concludes with a discussion, limitations of the study, and implications for the proposed theory and future research.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

City attributes have a crucial effect on brand attitudes. This section presents a brief summary of the literature about city attributes. Prominent stakeholders are then identified, and finally, the link between multiple stakeholders and brand attitude is discussed.

2.1 City Brand Attributes

Previous research has mostly focused on the city attributes based on the literature of related disciplines. City attributes have importance in various disciplines such as public administration (e.g. Van Ryzin, Muzzio, Gulick,and Martinez, 2004; Swindell and Kelly, 2005), tourism management (e.g. Gallarza et al., 2002; Hankinson, 2004; Huang, Oh, Zhang, and Choi, 2013; Leisen, 2001), urban studies (e.g. Carrillo, 2004; Santos, Martins, and Brito, 2007), marketing/brand management (e.g. Insch, 2010; Merrilees et al., 2009; Zenker et al., 2010), and others (Gustavson and Elander, 2012).

Studies examining city attributes in the discipline of public administration mostly focus on service standards and satisfaction level of citizens. DeHoog, Lowery, and Lyons (1990) emphasized the influence of individual (including demographics and political attitudes) variables, jurisdictional-level phenomena, and the neighborhood-specific factors to the satisfaction of citizens. For attributes they looked at police services, trash, street lighting, parks, roads, public transportation, public health, sanitation, planning, storm sewers, and social services. Van Ryzin et al. (2004) examined the satisfaction level of citizens with local government services. In order to assess quality perception the authors used fire, library, parks, police, buses, cleanliness, subways, schools, and roads in their model.

City branding context is also relevant within the fields of urban development, retail marketing, and tourism marketing (Hankinson, 2001). The field of tourism deals intensively with destination marketing, thus studies in this field emphasize the perceptions of leisure tourists, business tourists, potential visitors, or decision-makers of destination marketing (Hankinson, 2004). Various place attributes have been held in these studies, since each location has unique features. Leisen (2001) summarized the key attributes in four categories: natural amenities, socio-cultural amenities, recreational facilities, and climate amenities. Huang et al. (2013) identified key attributes such as food, shopping opportunities, culture, sports, and nature-based attractions. Embacher and Buttle (1989) pointed out physical environment, climate, culture, food, suitability for children, accessibility, and touristic facilities associated with the country brand of Austria. Hankinson (2004), in one of the most extensive studies in destination marketing, used the following 11 attributes for 25 destinations in the UK: activities and facilities, culture, ambience, business facilities, economic activity, external profile, transportation, population characteristics, reputation, economic development, and industrial environment. Gallarza et al. (2002) proposed a conceptual framework, which reviews the studies in tourism destination image. According to the authors, the most common attributes studied in this area are residents' receptiveness, landscape, cultural attractions, and price/value'.

Urban planning and management studies discussed the city character in detail. These studies (Carrillo, 2004; Santos et al., 2007; Sim, Ong, Agarwal, Parsa, and Keivani, 2003) mostly aimed to explain the development, management, quality of life, and knowledge of the cities. Carrillo (2004) considered the city as a human settlement that is formed with a capitalist system. The author summarized the capital system of a city under three main categories: metacapitals, human capitals, and instrumental capitals. In a broader scope: entities and events, economic sustainability, social cohesion, physical and personal development, cultural factors, natural and artificial infrastructures, and public and private institutions are included in these capital systems. Santos et al. (2007) dealt with a high variety of thematic areas for the assessment of quality of life: environment, urbanism, mobility, culture, leisure, education, health, social work services, trade, housing, safety, poverty, and social and civil behavior. Sim et al. (2003) measured city competitiveness with particular regard to business-related concepts such as overall planning, infrastructure, info-structure, property, innovation, and investment. Even in this business-oriented study, quality of life was also taken into consideration. Depending on these papers, in terms of city characteristics, the scope of urban studies seems to be covering the studies of public affairs and tourism management. Moreover, urban studies has some social and institutional attributes. However, to our knowledge, there is no study in this domain mentioning brand meaning.

Place marketing and brand management literature have also used city attributes for various purposes such as assessment of the levels of citizens' satisfaction (Insch, 2010; Zenker et al., 2013), explanation of the brand attitude (Merrilees et al., 2009), understanding the university town selection (Brandt and Mortanges, 2011), and identification of the brand perception of place by multiple stakeholders (Merrilees et al., 2012; Zenker et al., 2010). There is no consensus across these studies in terms of a standard list of city attributes, even some of which are held for similar purposes. However, some attributes have frequently overlapped—for example: nature and recreation, culture, business/job opportunities, and transportation are attributes used in several studies (e.g. Insch, 2010; Merrilees et al., 2009; Merrilees et al., 2012; Zenker et al., 2013). In addition to these common items, cost efficiency in terms of housing and general price level (Zenker et al., 2013) were considered. From a different perspective, Insch (2010) collected aspects of living in the city under ten items and four main dimensions: physical, social, environmental, and personal aspects. Brandt and Mortanges (2011) investigated students' criteria while choosing a town for education. In this research, accommodation opportunities for a young population, history, and nightlife are found as the three most important factors. According to our literature review, studies in the fields of city marketing or branding lack information about infrastructure systems.

Decision makers need to have information about the attributes of a city, since attaining positive perceptions of multiple stakeholders might depend on these particular attributes. Attributes of a city highlight the unique character of the city. In order to identify and select the set of city brand attributes, target groups' engagement must be sought rather than top-down coercion (Dinnie, 2010, p.5). Brand image is one of the crucial concepts on which brand equity is based. In order to set up a successful brand image; attitude of the target groups, brand attributes, and benefits of the product must be understood clearly. Every possible attribute must be taken into consideration to increase the possibility of success in brand image development. In this way, perception of target audiences might contribute significantly into this development process (Hankinson, 2001; Hankinson, 2004; Keller, 1993). Thus in addition to the literature review above, reviews with experts are carried out to decide the city brand attributes in our survey (discussed later).

2.2 Multiple Stakeholders of a City

Place brands have remarkable similarities with traditional commercial brands although there are some differences which generate distinguished brand management systems. Citizens should proactively participate in the designing process of place branding (Vela, Fernandez-Cavia, Nogue, and Jimenez-Morales, 2013). This contribution can make the perception of stakeholders more valuable. A city brand is mainly based on the perceptions of target groups' physical assets and communication strategies of that city (Sevin, 2014). In fact, one of the most challenging issues in city branding is the need

for engagement of different stakeholders in the branding process (Dinnie, 2010, p.11; Ruzzier and Petek, 2012). Interests and needs of a target group frequently arise in a distinctive form; however, in some cases, they overlap with that of other groups. Moreover, an improvement implemented to satisfy one target group may not be demanded by or benefit another group (Hankinson, 2001).

In the city branding context, there is a consensus that multiple stakeholders have important roles and this makes decision-making processes more complicated than those of other products or services (e.g. Merrilees et al., 2012; Ruzzier and Petek, 2012; Sevin, 2014). Furthermore, there are an unlimited number of stakeholders who have an interest or stake in the city (Dinnie, 2010, p.9). Nevertheless, most city branding studies address only one stakeholder (Merrilees et al., 2012). These studies generally do not include all aspects of the context in discussion. For instance, residents are seen as the most important stakeholder for a city brand (Kazançoğlu and Dirsehan, 2014; Zenker et al., 2013), but only a few studies (e.g. Braun et al., 2010; Zenker and Beckmann, 2013; Zenker and Rütter, 2014) that examine this significant target group in terms of perception of city branding have been published in the last decade. Though residents are the primary audience of marketing actions, they function as the representatives of city brands, and their characteristics influence the reputation of the city (Braun et al., 2010).

On the other hand, in the tourism research field destination branding in particular has focused on the target group of leisure and business tourists (Hankinson, 2004; Saraniemi and Ahonen, 2008). In these studies (see Lim and Weaver, 2014; Leisen, 2001) visitors' perceptions about the image of a place have been investigated. While their perceptions about a brand as a visiting place is examined, their perceptions about a living place are neglected.

Students are another stakeholder group for cities who are rarely regarded as residents (e.g. Brandt and Mortanges, 2011; Kazancoglu and Dirsehan, 2014) or ignored as potential long-term customers. Brandt and Mortanges (2011) analyzed the effects of image attributes on the decision-making process for choice of place to study; yet attitudes are measured in terms of temporary residences and are not compared with any other stakeholders' attitudes. Kazancoglu and Dirsehan (2014) used a particular sample of students to explore the brand experience dimensions, but in the second phase of the study they exclude these students to analyze the influence of these dimensions on brand loyalty.

Other fields such as urban development or tourism are more likely to incorporate multiple stakeholders into urban studies. However, while studies in the field of tourism are mostly theoretical instead of being empirical (Merrilees et al., 2012), urban studies (e.g. Evans, 2002) has not been involved in branding context as aforementioned.

There are also few recent studies focusing on multiple stakeholders in city branding context. Zenker et al. (2010) introduced a broader list and classified stakeholders under four different classes: visitors, residents and workers, business and industry, and export market. The authors also defined internal and external sub-groups according to the level of audiences' knowledge, and focus on students and creative groups. They found some similarities and differences in brand associations of these groups, and stressed the requirement of different marketing communication actions to meet multiple audiences' need. Ruzzier and Petek (2012) discussed that internal and external stakeholders should be involved in the stages of brand development, implementation, and maintenance which constitute the branding process. In general, multiple target groups have different needs and interests and each group perceives a city brand from their own perspectives. This differentiation reveals the necessity of increased focus on the perceptions of different groups (Zenker et al., 2010). Merrilees et al. (2012) developed a 'filter concept', which is used to explain the interpretation of a city brand by different stakeholders. Authors tested this concept for residents and business owners in Gold Coast, an Australian city.

However, according to our literature review, there is still a research gap in understanding the perception of different stakeholders for a city brand, although the studies mentioned above (Merrilees et al., 2012; Zenker et al., 2010) have paid regard to this respect. The current paper takes the "filter approach" postulated by Meerilees et al. (2012) as a reference point and tests it for residents, students, and leisure tourists.

2.3 The Link of Multiple Stakeholders and Brand Attitude

The relationship between city attributes and the brand attitude has been discussed in the literature, but it has been rarely tested and compared among various stakeholders empirically (Merrilees et al. 2012). In place marketing literature, three target groups are considered: residents, visitors, and companies willing to do business. These three groups were addressed as a place has the typical functions such as to live, visit, and work (Braun et al., 2010). Thus, marketing actions have been used by decision makers to create a value in order to attract customers in line with these functions (Brandt and Mortanges, 2011; Gustavson and Elander, 2012; Hall, 2008). On the other hand, different roles of stakeholders have been suggested recently. Braun et al. (2010) and Zenker et al. (2013) stressed that residents should have been seen as an active part of a place brand, rather than only as a passive customer group. From this point of view, residents contribute to the formation and image of the brand, and their perceptions about a place is relatively noteworthy. Merrilees et al. (2012) focused on residents and businesses, and measured the perceptions of brand meanings as to live and to do business for both stakeholders. Results showed that residents' and business' perceptions of city brand attitudes as a place to live are mostly

similar. However, these two stakeholders have been differentiated in terms of brand attribute as a place to do business. The authors highlighted the importance of investigating various stakeholders' views and recommended future studies to handle tourists as an additional stakeholder group.

Zenker and Rütter (2014) investigated the relationship between satisfaction and brand attitude. They found that satisfaction is a key factor to brand attitude for residents. However, the authors did not focus on the city attributes affecting brand attitude. Residents are looking for a place to live where they can work, feel a sense of belonging, and have their needs met (Braun et al., 2010). Increased understanding of the perceptions of residents of the 'city brand attributes - brand attitude link' and comparing these with that of other stakeholders might benefit the city branding process. Therefore, residents' evaluations in regards to a place to live are examined in the current study.

On the other hand, tourists could be considered in two different roles depending on brand meaning measured. Tourists are current customers for a place brand (as a destination), but potential customers as residents for the city product itself. Needs of potential and current residents must be considered in the branding process by authorities (Dinnie, 2010,p. 10). More specifically, Kazancoglu and Dirsehan (2014) noted that decision makers should take into account the experiences of residents and also tourists while building the marketing program to reach a successful city branding plan. Thus, we consider tourists as current customers of the city, and measure their evaluations of city brand attitude as a visiting place as well as prospective residents. As a result, we measure their brand association connected to the city brand as a living place.

There are few studies examining students' perceptions of city brands. Brandt and Mortanges (2011) have identified some city attributes used in selecting a university town. Both expectations and performance evaluations of students were measured in this study. The city attributes have been used to interpret the brand image, and the study only focused on the perceptions about being a student in the city of Liege, Belgium. In other words, a student perspective was measured to evaluate the city attributes. However, after graduation students could move from the town or settle down. If they settle down in the city where they had studied, their perspective about the city brand could be changed since they are no longer a student. Thus a new perspective as a resident can occur. Furthermore, even if they move after graduation, students could positively affect the city brand by word of mouth. Zenker and Rütter, (2014) have showed that brand attitude has a significant influence on positive word of mouth. Therefore, students' views for a living place in addition to a studying place could provide useful information to city management or other interested parties and seems to be worthwhile input to research.

Morsing and Kristensen (2001) argue that considering the multiple stakeholders of a brand provides advantages rather than problems. Thus, the current study aims to explore the evaluations of different stakeholders about a city brand. On the basis of our theoretical framework, research questions are formed in the following aspect: What brand meanings are perceived by multiple stakeholders as a living place, visiting place, and studying place? Residents, students, and leisure tourists are examined as significant target audiences in this respect.

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Sample and Data Collection

The current paper is empirical and conducted in the city of Gaziantep, the sixth largest city in Turkey located in the southeastern part of the country. The city's population and economy has been growing quickly for the last few decades, and is also one of the fastest developing touristic destinations in recent years. As of 2014, the city was home to four universities, three of which were founded in the last decade. Local authorities and organizations have been generating various plans to create a city brand of Gaziantep, therefore such research might help decision makers to better understand the framework of the brand meaning of the city. In this quantitative field survey, interpretation of the city brand for different stakeholders was measured by using structured questionnaires which were conducted via a face-to-face interview method. Prior to this, significant city attributes identified from the literature were discussed with experts including a city manager, brand manager, tourism specialist, and academician. Each discipline has its own view for a city (Zenker et al., 2013), hence, experts were selected from these four different disciplines. We have used these experts' comments to decide which attributes are more appropriate for the specific city and subsequently determined the final list.

The structured questionnaire formed for the quantitative survey was distributed to three groups. The first group of participants were residents of the city of Gaziantep. The second group consisted of university students residing in Gaziantep (the students whose families are living in Gaziantep were excluded and participants were presumed as temporary residents), and the third group consisted of leisure tourists. We measured the perceptions of tourists who visited the city of Gaziantep at least once but not as a transit passenger, since we believe that 'to measure perception of the people who have spent a particular time in a city' would be more realistic. A preliminary survey was administered on a sample of 34 residents; this process helped to determine the final version of the questionnaire by adding some additional instructions.

In total, 547 participants completed the survey. Of these 214 (47,2% female) were residents, 148 (52% female) tourists and 185 (55,1% female) students. The mean age of each participant group was 29 (residents), 32 (tourists), and 21 (students).

3.2 Measures

The city perception measurement methods can be listed in three main classes: The first method uses focus group interviews with target audiences (qualitative method), the second method applies place attributes with standardized questionnaires, and the third method combines these two methods such as multidimensional scaling, network analysis, or brand concept map method (Zenker et al., 2013; Zenker et al., 2010). We have preferred to use a quantitative approach with city brand attributes as we have specific questions and need generalizable answers in order to understand the perceptions of multiple stakeholders. Yet this method has an important disadvantage as the findings can be affected through the city attributes (Zenker et al., 2013). In order to eliminate this issue, prior to quantitative measurement, interviews with several people from different disciplines have been performed as mentioned above.

The questionnaire consisted of three sets of items. The first set was used to measure the perception of respondents about city brand attributes, the second set asked participants to assess the brand attitude of living place, studying place, and visiting place. Demographic variables (age, gender, family status, educational background, duration of city experience) were asked at the conclusion of the survey. The five point Likert type scale (strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree) was used to measure the perception of city brand attributes and brand attitude. Nominal and internal scales were used for the set of demographic variables depending on the element.

We have used the correlation matrix to check the similar items. Since crime rate and urban security had high correlation rates (0,76, 0,73, 0,80 for residents, students, and tourists respectively) and evoke similar meanings, we have combined these attributes and formed a new item called crime rate and urban security. Later, an explorative factor analysis with varimax rotation method was performed. Scales used to measure city brand attribute were loaded under the relevant factor and had no cross-loading issues. Prior to factor analysis, KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) value was checked for 3 samples separately, all were in an acceptable range. Additionally, Bartlett test of sphericity were significant (at 0.,000 level) for all samples. The final list of attributes and attitudes used in the regression analysis are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Alpha Value of Items for Attributes and Attitudes

Item (Factor name)	Residents	Students	Tourists	Sources
Urbanity and cultural activities				
A wide range of cultural activities: theatre, museum etc. Variety of shopping opportunities The atmosphere of the city Good for families Crime rate, urban security Taste experience-food identified with city	0,88	0,84	0,81	Kazançoğlu and Dirsehan, 2014; Merrilees et al., 2012; Santos et al., 2007; Zenker et al., 2013
Infrastructure				
Accessibility from other cities or countries Availability and convenience of public transportation Technology infrastructure (internet infrastructure, access to wifi etc.)	0,79	0,77	0,73	Brandt and de Mortanges, 2011; Hankinson, 2004; Santos et al., 2007
Nature and Environment				
Parks and picnic facilities Cleanliness of the city Air, water, noise pollution	0,84	0,72	0,74	Merrilees et al., 2012; Santos et al., 2007; Zenker et al., 2013
Economic conditions				
The general price level in the city Availability of accommodation units (houses, hotels, dorms etc.) General economic growth of the city	0,86	0,78	0,76	Zenker et al., 2013
Job opportunities and business networks				
The general level of wages Job and promotion opportunities Professional networks in the city	0,78	0,74	n.a.	Zenker et al., 2013
Living place	0,83	0,80	0,72	

Proud to live in Gaziantep Overall lifestyle is good Good reputation among residents				Merrilees et al., 2012
Studying place Gaziantep has a good reputation among university students Attitude towards Gaziantep as a brand for studying is good Overall evaluation of Gaziantep as a brand for studying is good	n.a.	0,89	n.a.	*Adapted from* Merrilees et al., 2012
Visiting place Gaziantep has a good image among tourists Attitude towards Gaziantep as a brand for visiting is good Overall evaluation of Gaziantep as a brand for visiting is good	n.a.	n.a.	0,71	*Adapted from* Merrilees et al., 2012; Hankinson, 2004

n.a. : not applicable.

Reliability of the data was checked by Chronbach Alpha coefficient (see table 1). The alpha coefficients were all higher than the minimal standards (>0,70) recommended by Hair et al. (2006). For all samples, multicollinearity is checked with tolerances and variance inflation factor (VIF) values. All tolerances were greater than 0,3, and VIF were less than 3, therefore multicollinearity was not an issue for our data set to perform regression analysis.

Prior to the regression analysis, an explorative factor analysis was employed to test the distinctiveness of all items measuring dependent variables (for living place and studying place). According to the results, 43% of variance for living place and 35% of variance for studying place, in total 78% of variance is explained by two factors. Items used to measure the dependent variables were all loaded onto their respective factors obtained from the sample of students. Another explorative factor analysis was also done for the tourist sample to check the appropriateness of measuring city brand as both a living place and a visiting place. Results showed that the items used to capture the dependent variables of living place and visiting place have explained 73% of variance, 41% for living place, and 32% for visiting place. All items were loaded onto the relevant dependent variable, hence, tourist sample data was appropriate—in terms of distinctiveness of dependent variables—to employ regression analysis.

4. FINDINGS

Linear multiple regression was conducted for three different brand attitudes (city brand as a living/studying/visiting place) separately in order to assess the predictive power of city brand attributes as independent variables.

4.1 City brand as a Living Place

City brand attitude as a living place was tested separately for three samples, residents, students, and tourists, and the regression model results are shown below: Table 2, Table 3, and Table 4 respectively.

The model explains 67% of variance in the residents' city brand attitude as a living place (see Table 2). For the sample of residents, all of the factors used in the current study contributed to the prediction of brand attitude. The strongest city attribute is economic conditions but there is a minor difference between beta coefficients of this factor and urbanity&cultural activities. The weakest factor is infrastructure, though still having a remarkable contribution to the dependent value at the 90% level of confidence.

Table 2 - Regression Results for the Attitude as a Living Place (resident sample)

	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F (t)	Beta	p
Model	0,690	0,674	41,895		
Constant			(-3,098)		0,003
Urbanity&c.a.				0,246	0,002**
Infrastructure				0,119	0,099***
Nature&envir.				0,181	0,013**
Economic cond.				0,275	0,002**
Job opp&b.n.				0,229	0,005**

** p<0,001, ** p<0,05, *** p<0,1, Dependent variable: place to live*

The model fits well and only three factors have statistically significant effects on brand attitude of students (see Table 3). The 63% of variance is explained by three factors, and this rate is slightly less than the residents'. Job opportunities&business network is the strongest factor, urbanity&cultural activities and nature&environment have also contributed to the city brand attitude perceptions.

The factor of economic conditions shows a major difference between residents and students, making no contribution for the student sample while making the strongest one for the residents. Urbanity&cultural activities and job opportunities&business make major contributions for both samples.

Table 3: Regression Results for the Attitude as a Living Place (student sample)

	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F (t)	Beta	p
Model	0,646	0,627	32,904		
Constant			(-2,792)		0,006
Urbanity&c.a.				0,304	0,000*
Infrastructure				0,087	0,325
Nature&envir.				0,208	0,011**
Economic cond.				0,073	0,425
Job opp&b.n.				0,363	0,000*

** p<0,001, ** p<0,05, *** p<0,1; Dependent variable: place to live*

The factor of job opportunities&business network was not applicable for the tourist sample, yet the model fits and explains 54% of the variance (see Table 4). The most important factor for the tourist sample is economic conditions (as also seen with the resident sample). Urbanity&cultural activities is the second most important factor, having a beta coefficient only slightly less than the highest one. Nature&environment makes a major contribution to the dependent variable. Infrastructure factor is insignificant in predicting the brand attitude as a living place.

Table 4: Regression Results for the Attitude as a Living Place (tourist sample)

	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F(t)	Beta	p
Model	0,559	0,539	28,175		
Constant			(-0,765)		0,446
Urbanity&c.a.				0,302	0,003**
Infrastructure				0,035	0,697
Nature&envir.				0,216	0,046**
Economic cond.				0,320	0,001**

** p<0,001, ** p<0,05, *** p<0,1, Dependent variable: place to live*

Urbanity&cultural activities and nature&environment make significant contributions in predicting city brand attitude as a living place for all samples with an overall look. Infrastructure is significant (p<0,1) only for residents and insignificant for the students and tourists, thus, it seems to be the weakest factor in general.

4.2 City Brand as a Studying Place

Another regression analysis is performed to predict a different dependent variable, city brand attitude as a studying place, and the results are shown in Table 5. The model fits and explains 58% of the variance in the attitudes of the student sample. Urbanity&cultural activities, infrastructure, nature&environment, and economic conditions are significantly related to the city brand attitude, and all these factors have very similar beta coefficients. However, job opportunities&business network factor is insignificant.

When we compare the attitude as a studying place and living place for the student sample, similar major contributions are made by the factors of urbanity&cultural activities and nature&environment. However, students do not consider the infrastructure and economic conditions when they evaluate the place for living, but the same factors have remarkable relations with the attitude of the place for studying. Conversely, job opportunities&business factor makes a major contribution to the attitude as a place to live, while it has no effect on predicting the attitude as a studying place.

Table 5: Regression Results for the Attitude as a Studying Place (student sample)

	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	Beta	p
Model	0,604	0,582	27,427		
Constant				0,089	0,929
Urbanity&c.a.				0,251	0,005**
Infrastructure				0,276	0,004**
Nature&envir.				0,216	0,012**
Economic cond.				0,235	0,016**
Job opp&b.n.				0,021	0,792

** p<0,001, ** p<0,05, *** p<0,1, Dependent variable: place to study*

4.3 City Brand as a Visiting Place

Regression analysis is conducted for predicting the city brand attitude of tourists in terms of a visiting place, and the results are shown in Table 6. Adjusted R-square value is 0,472 which indicates 47% of the variance can be explained by the model. The model suggests that urbanity&cultural activities, infrastructure, nature&environment are predictors of the city brand attitude as a visiting place for the tourist sample. Economic conditions are the only factor which is not significant.

The tourist sample has some similar views in terms of a living place or visiting place. Urbanity&cultural activities and nature&environment factors are significant for both attitudes. On the other hand, infrastructure makes a contribution to the city brand attitude as a visiting place; but has no effect on attitude as a living place. Conversely, economic conditions are not significant in predicting the city brand attitude as a visiting place while making the highest contribution to the attitude as a living place.

Table 6: Regression Results for the Attitude as a Visiting Place (tourist sample)

	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F(t)	Beta	p
Model	0,495	0,472	21,815		
Constant			(1,327)		0,188
Urbanity&c.a.				0,358	0,001**
Infrastructure				0,203	0,038**
Nature&envir.				0,246	0,033**
Economic cond.				0,022	0,829

** p<0,001, ** p<0,05, *** p<0,1, Dependent variable: place to visit*

5. CONCLUSION

5.1 Discussion

Different brand associations of various stakeholders for a city brand in an emerging country, Turkey, is examined in the current study. In this way different views of various stakeholders might be better explained for a specific brand meaning

such as a living place, studying place, or visiting place. Moreover, stakeholders' evaluations about different brand meanings can be compared.

Previous studies—those focusing on the link between multi-stakeholder and city brand—have been carried out mostly in developed countries (Germany, Australia). The current study, however, was conducted in an emerging country, Turkey, thus a noteworthy contribution is made towards the efforts to generalize the attitude of multiple stakeholders. Findings of this study support the Merrilees et al.'s (2012) filter approach, and makes theoretical contributions to the city branding literature with covering tourists and students as stakeholders to examine various brand meanings.

From a broad perspective, some of the factors have significant impacts on city brand attitude as a living place for different stakeholders. Urbanity&cultural activities and nature&environment make the remarkable contributions to the city brand attitude as a living place for the samples of residents, students, and tourists. These results have supported Merrilees et al. (2012), who suggested that nature, cultural activities, and clean environment have impacts on city brand attitudes for the business owner and non-business owner samples of residents. However, transportation was insignificant according to the findings of the mentioned study, and infrastructure—including transportation items in the current study—had a significant impact on attitude of residents even as it was the weakest factor. Additionally, the factor of infrastructure had no contribution to attitude as a living place for students and tourists which parallels Merrilees et al.'s (2012) findings. Economic conditions are also a major factor for residents and tourists but insignificant for students. Discrete results of this factor for students might have arisen from their expectations about earning money in a full-time position and have better income after they graduated. Job opportunities&business network is a major factor for residents and students, and has the strongest impact for the latter. This might be related to a high unemployment rate in Turkey—9,7% overall and 18,7% for youth (TÜİK haber bülteni, 2014a; TÜİK haber bülteni, 2014b).

The strongest factor is the economic condition and the second most influencing factor includes urbanity&cultural activities for both resident and tourist samples in terms of a living place. These results partially support Zenker et al. (2013) who suggested that cultural activities and the urban image of the city are the most important factors for the residents in Germany. However, in the same study, economic related items (housing cost, general price level, level of wages) have very low importance to satisfy the citizens. Dissimilar evaluations between German and Turkish samples for this factor might originate from the substantial difference in GDP per capita (Germany: $45.085, Turkey: $10.946) between these two countries (World Bank national accounts data, 2014).

Evaluations of the student sample have remarkable differences depending on the brand attitude they have. Urbanity&cultural activities, infrastructure, nature&environment, and economic conditions all make significant contributions to attitude as a studying place. Most of the students probably do not have a full-time job or may not receive a high allowance from their parents, therefore economic conditions could be relatively more important from a student's viewpoint. The major effect of economic conditions supports Brandt and Mortanges (2011), who have suggested accommodation—a term included in the economic conditions in our study—is one of the most important criteria in the university town selection process. Additionally, infrastructure has the strongest impact with a slightly higher beta coefficient, which can be explained in many ways. Firstly, due to the limited income mentioned above, available and convenient transportation can be crucial for students. Secondly, families of the student sample were not living in the city of Gaziantep, so students can be placing greater importance on the accessibility of the city from other locations. Thirdly, the 16-24 age group has the highest internet usage in Turkey (TÜİK haber bülteni, 2014c). This internet usage reflects students' need to access resources for assignments and social media platforms. Job opportunities&business network has no impact on prediction of city attributes as a studying place, so the student sample may only be focusing on the time period until graduation.

City brand attitude as a visiting place has been affected primarily from urbanity&cultural activities. This impact can be explained by some items in this factor such as atmosphere of the city, gastronomic experience, and shopping opportunities are directly relevant to touristic purposes. Gaziantep is one of the most famous gourmet tour centers in Turkey, thus, food identified with the city could have been crucial for the visitors. Also shopping opportunities and atmosphere of the city may have affected tourists in deciding to come to the city, though any items questioning the purpose of their visit were not presented to the respondents. The factor of infrastructure is insignificant for the attitude as a living place, but becomes a major attribute for the tourist sample if the attitude is about a visiting place. Accessibility of the city and also convenient public transportation options could be affecting the perception of the tourist sample when they are evaluating the city as a visiting place. Limited time or budgets for traveling may be making these items more important for the tourist sample. However, they seem to be focusing on urbanity&cultural activities and economic conditions rather than infrastructure when the point is living in a city. Nature&environment has an impact in prediction of both brand meanings: as a living place or as a visiting place. Economic conditions are insignificant in predicting attitudes as a visiting place while this factor has a major impact on attitudes as a living place. This result may be due to the fact that tourists stay in the city for a limited time, and they may be ignoring the price level or the accommodation opportunities.

Urbanity&cultural activities and nature&environment are constant attributes affecting three brand meanings: living place, studying place, and visiting place across various stakeholders. The consistency indicates these two attributes are vital for citizens in any case. Local authorities and other organizations involved in brand management process of the city of Gaziantep must attach primary importance to these factors. Furthermore, decision makers need to consider the multiple stakeholders' attachment to the city brand and then they should decide the brand investments according to the brand meanings.

5.2 Limitations and Further Implications

We have used five factors to measure the link between attributes and city brand attitude. Even though the attributes have been derived from literature and filtered through interviews with experts, there could be other considerable attributes that need to be taken into account. Explorative research could be conducted prior to quantitative analysis in further studies.

The current study has some limitations about generalization. Only a single city in Turkey is examined in the current paper, therefore it is difficult to generalize the results for diverse stakeholders in other countries, or even in other cities in Turkey. Further studies should examine various additional stakeholders such as business tourists or investors in different cultural contexts. Moreover, a relatively small sample size is used for each group, which may not be ideal in order to generalize the results. Taking these limitations into account, we believe our findings have made substantial contributions to explain the perceptions of different stakeholders about diverse brand meanings in an emerging country.

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ANALYSIS OF THE OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH AND SAFETY AT SMEs

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - In this study, understanding occupational health and safety conditions and determining health and safety risks at furniture enterprises have been proposed.

Methodology Surveys were conducted to measure the Occupational Health and Safety status of enterprises and the data obtained were analyzed by statistical programs.

Findings- Majority of participants stated that occupational health and safety applications at workplaces had a positive effect upon the productivity and quality of workplaces and forming a social perception on this issue would be useful for future employees.

Conclusion- The findings show that the majority of the personnels believe that occupational health and safety rules are important and they accept them.

Keywords: Occupational health and safety, SME, Personnel perception, Risk, Danger.

JEL Codes: J28, I10, J20

İŞLETMELERDE (KOBİ) İŞ SAĞLIĞI VE GÜVENLİĞİ ANALİZİ

ÖZET

Amaç – Bu çalışmada, mobilya sektöründe iş sağlığı ve güvenliği şartlarının anlaşılması, işletmelerdeki iş sağlığı ve güvenliği risklerinin tespit edilmesi ve işletmelerde acil durumlara yönelik önlemlerin ne derecede uygulanmakta olduğunun ortaya konulması amaçlanmıştır.

Yöntem - İşletmelerin İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliğine yönelik durumlarını ölçmek için anket uygulaması yapılmış olup, elde edilen veriler istatistik programlarıyla analiz edilmiştir.

Bulgular - Katılımcıların çoğunluğu iş yerindeki iş sağlığı ve güvenliği uygulamalarının o iş yerindeki iş verimini ve kaliteyi olumlu etkilediğini, bu konuda toplumsal bir algı oluşturmanın gelecek nesilde çalışan konumunda olacaklara fayda sağlayacağı bulgularımız arasındadır.

Sonuç - Elde edilen sonuçlara bakıldığında; işletmelerde ki personelin büyük bir çoğunluğu iş sağlığı ve güvenliği kurallarını olumlu yönde değerlendirdikleri ve kabullendikleri görülmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler- İş sağlığı ve güvenliği, KOBİ, personel algısı, risk, tehlike.

JEL Kodları: J28, I10, J20

1. GİRİŞ

Güvenli ve sağlıklı çalışma ortamı, ülkelerin verimli ve doğru büyümelerinin de ön şartıdır. İş sağlığı ve güvenliği çalışmalarına gereken önemin verilmemesi sonucunda iş kazaları meydana gelmekte ve meslek hastalıkları oluşmaktadır. İş kazaları ve meslek hastalıkları sonuçları itibariyle işletmelere, ülkelere ve tüm insanlığa maddi ve manevi kayıpları da beraberinde getirmektedir (Tekin, 2014).

WHO ve ILO ilkelerine göre iş sağlığı ve güvenliği; tüm çalışanların bedensel, ruhsal ve toplumsal sağlık ve refahlarının en üst düzeye yükseltilmesi ve bu durumun korunması; işyeri koşullarının, çevrenin ve üretilen malların getirdiği sağlığa aykırı sonuçların ortadan kaldırılması; çalışanları yaralanmalara ve kazalara maruz bırakacak risk faktörlerinin ortadan kaldırılması;

yine çalışanların bedensel ve ruhsal özelliklere uygun işlere yerleştirilmesi ve sonuç olarak işçilerin bedensel ve ruhsal gereksinimlere uygun bir iş ortamı yaratılması şeklinde tanımlanabilir (Bingöl, 2003).

Gelişen endüstrileşme ve sanayileşmeyle birlikte iş sağlığı ve güvenliği konusunda da bazı çalışmaların yapılması zorunlu olmak durumundadır. İşletmelerin, tüm üretim aşamalarında meydana gelecek olumsuzlukları ortadan kaldırabilmeleri için iş sağlığı ve güvenliği bakımından uygulayacakları korunma ve önleme politikalarına bağlı olduğu ve çalışanlarına bu farkındalığı kabullendirmesi gerçeğidir.

Dünyada ve ülkemizde mobilya sektörünün hızla geliştiği, büyüdüğü ve kendini yenilediği bu dönemde, ülkemiz mobilya sektöründe de gelişmeler ve yenilik hareketleri devam etmekle birlikte sektörün gelişmesi ve daha verimli hale gelmesinde iş sağlığı ve güvenliği unsuru vazgeçilmez bir öneme sahiptir.

İş kazaları genellikle ülkelerin sanayileşme biçiminden, işletme şekillerinden, kaza istatistik ve araştırmalarının yetersizliğinden, denetim hizmetlerinin eksikliğinden, çalışanların niteliklerinden, işçi personel ve sorumluların önemsememesinden ve iş güvenliği bilincinin, kültürünün az olmasından kaynaklandığı bilgilerimiz arasındadır. İş kazalarının nedenleri genel özellikler göstermekle birlikte, ülke ve şehirlere göre kendine özgü bazı özelliklerde gösterebilmektedir.

Ülkemizdeki işletmelerin genellikle küçük ve orta ölçekli (Kobi) işletmeler olması, iş güvenliği organizasyonu, eğitim ve denetimi istenilen düzeyde olmaması, iş kazalarını arttırıcı bir etki yapmaktadır. Ayrıca bu tür işletmelerde sigortasız işçi çalıştırmada büyük işletmelere oranla daha fazla olması ve resmi olmayan kaçak olarak çalıştıran işçilerin geçirdikleri kazalar kayıtlara geçmediğinden kaza istatistiklerinin tam güvenilirliği dahi tartışılabilir durumdadır. Buradan hareketle bu çalışmayla işletmelerde bir farkındalık oluşturmak ve söz konusu işletmelerin iş sağlığı ve güvenliğine etki eden faktörlerin belirlenmesi bakımından bu tür çalışmaların artırılması çalışan bireyi koruma adına önem arz etmektedir.

Bu kapsamda çalışmanın giriş ve birinci bölümünde araştırma yapılan sektörün durumu ve iş sağlığı ve güvenliği tehlikeleri ile işletmelere, sektöre yönelik genel bilgiler verilmiştir. İkinci bölümünde olan gereç ve yöntemlerde kullanılan metot ile ölçümlerin yapılışı ve kullanılan uygulanan metotlar hakkında bilgi verilmiştir. Üçüncü bölümde işletme değerlendirmesinin bulguları grafiklerle sunulmuş, ölçüm sonuçları verilmiş ve söz konusu bulgular açıklanmaya ve incelenen gözlemler aktarılmaya çalışılmıştır. Dördüncü bölümde ise risk değerlendirmesi ve ölçüm sonuçları doğrultusunda iş sağlığı ve güvenliği ile ilgili genel durum ortaya konulmuş ve çalışmanın bulguları ile literatürde yer alan çalışmaların sonuçları karşılaştırmalı olarak verilmeye çalışılmıştır. Son bölümde ise ölçüm ve gözlemlere dayanılarak söz konusu işletmelere ve personele yönelik iş sağlığı ve güvenliği ile ilgili tespit edilen durumlar ve öneriler paylaşılmıştır.

2. LİTERATÜR İNCELEMESİ

Küreselleşen dünya pazarında hızla artan ve artmaya devam eden, işletmeler arası rekabetin sonucunda temel üretim faktörlerinden biri olan insan faktörünün önceki yıllara oranla daha fazla önem kazandığı gözlenmektedir. Bu yoğun rekabetle baş edebilmek için insan faktörünü merkeze alan yönetim anlayışlarının gelişmesi vesilesiyle insana ait iş güvenliği, iş sağlığı, iş doyumu gibi kavramlar önem kazanmıştır (Yıldırım ve diğ., 2015).

Yaşamının önemli bir kısmını iş yerinde geçiren insanın, buradaki güvenlik ihtiyacını karşılamak amacıyla, işçi sağlığı ve iş güvenliği adı altında bazı sistematik çalışmalar yürütülmüş ve işçi sağlığı ve iş güvenliği, disiplinler arası bir kavram ve çalışma alanı olarak tüm dünyaya yayılmıştır. Dünya'da iş kazası ve meslek hastalıklarından kaynaklanan kaybedilen yaşamlar düşünüldüğünde, işçi sağlığı ve iş güvenliği hakkındaki çalışmaların ve bu konuda gerçekleştirilmesi gereken ilerlemenin önemi gözler önüne serilmektedir (Uslu, 2014).

Gelişmiş ve gelişmekte olan ülkelerde toplam nüfusun yarısına yakın bir bölümünü çalışanlar oluşturmaktadır. Gelişen teknoloji ve sanayileşme ile birlikte işyerlerindeki kötü çalışma koşulları iş sağlığı ve iş güvenliğini ve buna bağlı olarak da toplum sağlığını tehdit eder hale gelmiştir. Sanayileşmiş ülkeler, günümüzde iş sağlığı ve iş güvenliği konusunda ciddi çabalar harcamak zorunda kalmışlardır. Söz konusu ülkelerin hepsi iş kazalarını ve meslek hastalıklarını olabildiğince en düşük düzeyde tutmak için uğraşmaktadırlar. Bu bağlamda, gelişmiş ülkelerde iş sağlığı ve iş güvenliği konusunun bağımsız bir bilim dalı haline geldiği ve genel toplum sağlığı içinde koruyucu sağlık hizmetlerinin önemli bir bölümünü oluşturduğu söylenebilir (Gerek, 1998).

İş kazalarına ilişkin veriler ve ülkemizde yaşanan iş kazaları, meslek hastalıkları, sürekli iş görmezliğe sebep olan vakalar ve ölümlü kaza vakalarının Dünya ve Avrupa'yla karşılaştırmalı sonuçları doğrultusunda, ülkemizdeki iş kazası ve meslek hastalıkları konusundaki çalışmaların yetersiz kaldığı çok net olarak karşımıza çıkabilmektedir.

Türkiye'de yaşanan iş kazaları değerlendirildiğinde; Türkiye'nin Dünya'da en çok iş kazasının yaşandığı üçüncü ülke, Avrupa'da ise birinci ülke olduğu görülmekte ve bu konuda gerçekleştirilen çalışmaların diğer ülkelere kıyasla yetersiz olduğu açığa çıkmaktadır (Yıldırım ve diğ., 2015). Türkiye'de işçi sağlığı ve iş güvenliği eğitimlerindeki bilgi yetersizliği, verilen kurumsal bilgilerin davranışa dönüşmemesi ve iş güvenliği eğitimindeki süreksizlik verilen eğitimin kalıcı olmasındaki en önemli engellerdir (Aydın vd., 2012).

İş kazası ve meslek hastalıklarını azaltmanın yollarından biri, işverenlerin konuya ilişkin yükümlülükleri ve sorumlulukları hakkında yeterli bilgi sahibi olmalarıdır. İşverenler, yükümlülüklerini yerine getirdikleri takdirde hem iş kazası ve meslek hastalıklarında önemli bir azalma olacak, hem de söz konusu kaza ve hastalık hallerinde idari, cezai ve hukuki yaptırımlarla karşılaşmayacaklardır (Baycık, 2007).

İşletmelerde karşılaşılan en önemli insan kaynakları sorunlarından biri, çalışanların emniyetli ve sağlıklı bir çalışma ortamına sahip olmamalarıdır. İşletmelerin daha iyi rekabet koşullarına ulaşabilmesi için çalışanların iş sağlığı ve güvenliği konusunda planlı ve sistemli çalışmalar yürütmeleri gerekmektedir (Anonim 1, 2017). Ülkemizdeki işletmeler genellikle küçük ve orta ölçekli işletmelerde, iş güvenliği organizasyonu, eğitim ve denetimi istenilen düzeyde olmaması, iş kazalarını arttırıcı bir etki yapmaktadır. Ayrıca bu tür işletmelerde sigortasız işçi çalıştırmada büyük işletmelere oranla daha fazladır. Kaçak olarak çalıştıran işçilerin geçirdikleri kazalar kayıtlara geçmediğinden kaza istatistiklerinin tam güvenilirliği dahi tartışılabilir (Camkurt, 2007).

İş sağlığı ve iş güvenliğinin temel amaçlarının çalışanları korunmak, üretim güvenliğini ve üretim verimliliğini sağlamak olduğu unutulmamalıdır. Çalışanları korumak noktasında iş sağlığı ve iş güvenliği konularını kapsayan koruma faaliyetlerinin her işletmede yerine getirilmesi gerekmektedir (Gedik ve İlhan, 2014).

İş kazaları ve meslek hastalıklarının tüm dünyada olduğu gibi ülkemizde de hem ekonomik açıdan hem de yönetsel açıdan birçok olumsuzlukları beraberinde getireceği malumdur. Herhangi bir sebep olmadan, beklenmeyen bir anda, belli bir amaç güdülmeden ve rastgele gerçekleşen kaza olayının her yönü ile araştırılması ve sürekli çözümler geliştirilmesi iş kazası ve meslek hastalıklarını azaltmada gerekli olmazsa olmazlardandır (Gedik ve İlhan, 2014).

İş sağlığı ve iş güvenliğinin temel amacı çalışanları korunmak, üretim güvenliğini ve üretim verimliliğini artırmak ve ayrıca her şeyden önce bireyin yaşamı ve güvenliği işten önce gelir kültürünü yerleştirmeye çalışmak olduğudur. Çalışanları korumak noktasında iş sağlığı ve iş güvenliği konularını kapsayan koruma faaliyetlerinin her yaşam alanında yerine getirilmesi ve bunu her zaman öncelikli hale getirmek sağlıklı güvenli insan yaşam kalitesi adına önem arz etmektedir.

Yönetici pozisyonunda olmayan çalışanlar da yaptıkları işlerle ilgili olarak aldıkları eğitim doğrultusunda bilinçli, tedbirli, disiplinli davranmalı, moral bozukluğu ve yorgunluk içinde bulunmamalı, her şeyden önce kendi hayatına ve sağlığına önem vermeli, işyerlerinde emniyetle çalışmalarından daha önemli bir şey olmadığını ve işin bitiminden sonra kendilerini evde bekleyenlerin olduğunu unutmamalıdır (Çelikdin, 1999).

3. VERİ VE YÖNTEM

Günümüzde iş yerlerinde, iş ahlakı, etik değerler ve günümüz işletme anlayışı bakımından iş sağlığı ve güvenliği her şeyin önünde gelmektedir. Bunun yanında bir işletmenin iyi bir şekilde düzenlenmesinin o iş yerinde çalışanların iş verimini artırdığı, iş kazalarını azalttığı ve işçi-işveren ilişkilerini olumlu yönde etkilediği de bir gerçektir. Ayrıca bir ülkenin gelişmesi; insan gücünün, doğal kaynakların, her türlü makine-techizatın ve teknik insan gücünün korunmasına, aynı zamanda etkili ve verimli bir şekilde kullanılmasına bağlıdır.

Ahşap ve mobilyacılık sektöründe en çok karşılaşılan sağlık sorunları, kazalardan kaynaklanmaktadır. Bu kazalar genellikle genç ve deneyimsiz işçiler arasında daha sık görülmektedir. Sektörün yapısı itibariyle, çalışanların mesleki bir eğitime tabi olmuş olma oranlarının düşük olması ve işin makine başında öğrenilmesi kaza riskini arttırmaktadır. Bu kazaların önemli bir bölümü sıradan sıyrıklar ve kesiklerden oluşmaktadır. Ancak sıyrıkların ve kesiklerin enfeksiyon kapması sonucu ciddi hastalıklar da ortaya çıkabilir. Bunlarla birlikte kullanılan makinaların keskin olması ellerin ve parmakların kopmasına (amputasyon) da neden olabilir. Ayrıca makinalar kullanılırken duruş bozuklukları, kas-iskelet sistemi ile ilgili rahatsızlıklara neden olmaktadır. Mobilya ve ahşap işleme sektöründe görülen kazalar ve meslek hastalıklarını önlemek konusunda öncelikle makinalarda ve ortamda alınacak önlemlerin, eğer bu başarılamazsa Kişisel Koruyucu Donanımların kullanımının büyük önemi vardır. Öncelikle işçiler kullandıkları makinalar ve ortamdaki riskler konusunda eğitilmeli, risk analiz yöntemleri kullanılarak görülen ve görülmesi muhtemel kazaların nasıl ortadan kaldırılabileceği incelenmelidir. Eğer var olan tehlikeler ortadan kaldırılamıyorsa o zaman bu tehlikelerle karşılaşma riski azaltılmalıdır. Bu tehlikelerle karşılaşıldığında sakatlanma ve yaralanma riskini aza indirmek için ise kişisel koruyucu donanımların uygun kullanımının büyük önemi vardır (Anonim 2, 2015).

İş sağlığı ve iş güvenliği kapsamında yürürlükte olan kanun ve gerek ülke genelinde gerekse lokal bazda yapılan daha önceki ampirik araştırmalardan yararlanılarak oluşturulan anket formu yardımıyla veriler elde edilmiştir. Çalışma kapsamında kullanılan anket formu demografik değişkenleri ölçmek için 7 soru ile personel yaklaşımlarını, algılarını, tutumlarını ve davranışlarını ölçmek için oluşturulan 3'lü Likert ölçeği ile 16 soru yöneltilmiş toplam 182 adet anket uygulanmıştır. Anket uygulamasında ki ölçek soruları daha önce bu alanla ilgili yapılmış çalışmalardan da esinlenerek çalışmamızın kapsamına göre yeniden düzenlenerek hazırlanmıştır.

4. BULGULAR VE TARTIŞMA

Katılımcı personelin % 84'ü bay, % 16'sı bayandır. Bayan sayısının az olması düşündürücü olmakla birlikte onların istihdama yönelik adımların da atılması gerektiği karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Yaş aralıkları olarak genç iş görenlerin % 59 oranında olması genç istihdamına yönelik sevindirici olmakla beraber tecrübesiz olmaları iş sağlığı ve güvenliği bakımından her türlü önlem ve uygulamanın yapılması gerektiğidir. Çalışanların % 49'u üretim hattında çalıştığını, % 72'si iş kazası ve meslek hastalığıyla karşılaşmadığını belirtmiştir. Çalışma süresi içerinde çalışanların %60'ı İSG eğitimi konusunda bilgilendirildiğini, yaklaşık %50'si çalıştıkları sektörde yaşanabilecek iş kazası ve meslek hastalıklarını araştırdığını, %70'i meslek hastalığıyla karşılaşmadığını ve %60'ı çalıştığı iş yerinde yeni bir araç veya gereç alındığında doğru bir şekilde nasıl kullanılacağı hakkında uygulamalı bir eğitim verildiğini belirtmiştir.

Tablo 1: Katılımcıların Demografik Bilgileri

		Sayı	*Frekans (%)*
1-Katılımcıların Cinsiyeti ?			
	A) Bay	152	84
	B) Bayan	30	16
2-Katılımcıların Yaşları ?			
	A) 18-30 arası	108	59
	B) 31-40 arası	48	26
	C) 41 ve üzeri	26	15
3- Katılımcıların çalıştıkları birimler?			
	A) Üretim	90	49
	B) Montaj	24	13
	C) Sevkiyat	30	16
	D) Diğer	38	22
4- Çalışma hayatınız boyunca İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği (İSG) konusunda bilgilendirildiniz mi?			
	A) Evet	110	60
	B) Hayır	72	40
5- Çalıştığınız sektörde yaşanmış-yaşanabilecek iş kazası ve meslek hastalıklarını araştırdınız mı?			
	A) Evet	88	48
	B) Hayır	94	52
6- Çalışma yerinde İş Kazası veya Meslek hastalığıyla karşılaştınız mı?			
	A) Evet	51	28
	B) Hayır	131	72
7- Çalıştığınız iş yerinde yeni bir araç veya ekipman alındığında doğru bir şekilde nasıl kullanılacağı hakkında uygulamalı bir eğitim verildi mi?			
	A) Evet	111	61
	B)Hayır	71	39
	Toplam	**182**	**100**

Tablo 2'ye göre; söz konusu işletmelerde personele yönelik Kişisel Koruyucu Donanımların (KKD) ve teknik ekipmanların çoğunluğuna tedarik edildiği, sağlık ve güvenlikle ilgili tedbirlere uyulup uyulmadığının denetlendiği ve gerekli tedbirlerin alındığı fakat düzenli aralıklarla risk değerlendirmesinin tamamında düzenli olarak yapılmadığı, çalışanların acil bir durumda nasıl bir yol izleyeceği hangi planı uygulayacağı konusunda yetersizlikler olduğudur. Söz konusu işletmeler de İSG'ye yönelik tüm materyaller olsa bile çalışanların bu materyalleri uygulamalı olarak nasıl kullanılacağını bilmesi ve ne yapması gerektiğini çok iyi bilecek şekilde öğrenmelidir.

Tablo 2: Çalışılan Yerde İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Konusunda Yönetimsel Önlem, Tedbir ve Uygulamalar

	(%) 1-Katılıyorum	*2- Kararsızım*	*3- Katılmıyorum*	*Toplam*
1- İşletmemizde çalışanlara sağlık ve güvenlik ile ilgili Kişisel Koruyucu Donanımlar (KKD) sağlanır.	122	26	34	**182**
2- İşletmemiz de sağlık ve güvenlik ile ilgili tedbirlere uyulup uyulmadığı denetlenir.	92	60	30	**182**
3- İşletmemizde sağlık ve güvenlik ile ilgili gerekli tedbirler alınır.	107	23	52	**182**
4- İşletmemizde sağlık ve güvenlik için gerekli olan teknik ekipmanlar bulunur.	115	25	42	**182**
5- İşletmemizde düzenli aralıklarla risk değerlendirmesi yapılır.	105	55	22	**182**
6- İşletmemizin olası bir acil duruma karşı (yangın v.b.) tüm çalışanların bildiği bir eylem planı vardır.	119	29	34	**182**

Tablo 3'e göre; çalışan personelin çoğunluğu işyerinde sağlık ve güvenlik bakımından bir tehdit ile karşılaştıklarında derhal İşyeri yönetimine haber verdikleri, iş sağlığı ve güvenliği eğitimlerinden öğrendikleri bilgileri, iş yaparken genelde uyguladıkları, işlerini yaparken kendi ve diğer arkadaşlarının sağlık ve güvenliklerini genelde tehlikeye düşürmediklerini, işyerindeki makine, araç ve gereçleri kurallara uygun bir şekilde kendilerine verilen Kişisel Koruyucu Donanımları (KKD) doğru bir şekilde tam anlamıyla kullanmadıkları belirlenmiştir.

Tablo 3: Çalışanların İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Kriterlerine Göre Çalışması

	(%) 1-Katılıyorum	*2- Kararsızım*	*3- Katılmıyorum*	*Toplam*
1-Çalışma arkadaşlarım işyerinde sağlık ve güvenlik bakımından bir tehdit ile karşılaştıklarında derhal İşyeri yönetimine haber verirler.	102	66	14	**182**
2- Çalışma arkadaşlarım iş sağlığı ve güvenliği eğitimlerinden öğrendikleri bilgileri, iş yaparken uygularlar.	115	50	17	**182**
3- Çalışma arkadaşlarım işlerini yaparken, kendi sağlık ve güvenliklerini tehlikeye düşürmezler.	114	51	17	**182**
4- Çalışma arkadaşlarım işlerini yaparken, diğer personelin sağlık ve güvenliklerini tehlikeye düşürmezler.	102	50	30	**182**
5- Çalışma arkadaşlarım işyerindeki makine, araç ve gereçleri kurallara uygun bir şekilde kullanır.	109	60	13	**182**
6- Çalışma arkadaşlarım kendilerine verilen Kişisel Koruyucu Donanımları (KKD) doğru bir şekilde kullanırlar.	104	53	25	**182**

Tablo 4'e göre; çalışanların çoğunluğu meslek hastalıkları ve nedenleri hakkında bilgi sahibi olmadığı, iş hayatları ile ilgili yasal hak ve sorumlulukları hakkında fazla bilgi sahibi olmadığı ve koruyucu ekipmanları kendi isteğiyle kullanmadıkları sonucu elde edilmiştir. Bu veriler doğrultusunda güvenlik kültürü oluşturmanın ne kadar gerekli olduğu bu çalışmalarla karşımıza çıkmaktadır.

Tablo 4: Çalışanların İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Konusundaki Farkındalık Seviyeleri

	(%) 1-Katılıyorum	*2- Kararsızım*	*3- Katılmıyorum*	*Toplam*
1- Çalışma arkadaşlarım, meslek hastalıkları ve nedenleri hakkında bilgi sahibidir.	83	61	38	**182**
2- Çalışma arkadaşlarım, iş hayatları ile ilgili yasal hak ve sorumlulukları hakkında bilgi sahibidir.	65	71	46	**182**
3- Çalışma arkadaşlarım, meslek hastalıklarından korunma yolları hakkında bilgi sahibidir.	67	66	49	**182**
4- Çalışma arkadaşlarım, koruyucu ekipmanları kendi isteğiyle kullanır.	91	43	48	**182**

5. SONUÇ VE ÖNERİLER

İş kazası ve meslek hastalıklarını azaltmak için, işverenlerin konuya ilişkin yükümlülükleri ve sorumlulukları hakkında yeterli bilgi sahibi olmalarıdır. İşverenler, zorunlu ve yapması gereken insani yükümlülüklerini yerine getirdiği takdirde hem iş kazası ve meslek hastalıklarında önemli bir azalma olacağı, hem de söz konusu kaza ve hastalık hallerinde idari, cezai ve hukuki yaptırımlarla karşılaşmayarak önemli bir giderden kurtulmuş olacağıdır.

İş kazaları ve meslek hastalıkları sonucu ortaya çıkan kayıpların maliyeti, ülke ekonomisi bakımından değerlendirildiğinde olumsuz sonuçlar ortaya çıkmaktadır. Yetişmiş insan gücü kaybının ve bunların iş göremez duruma düşmesinin ülke ekonomisine vereceği gizli dolaylı maliyet ile ülkeye geri kazanılması güç zararlar verdiği açıktır. Ayrıca bu tür zararlardan korunmak için önce iş sağlığı ve güvenliğine yönelik adımların atılarak devlet KOBİ arasında etkileşimli kuralların uygulanması ve kabullenilmesi gerektiğidir.

Bütün bu çalışmaların yanı sıra firmaların güçlü bir iş güvenliği kültürünü inşa ederek benimsemesi muhtemelen yaşanabilecek iş kazaları ve meslek hastalıklarının önlenmesinde etkili olacağıdır. Burada dikkat çekilmesi gereken en büyük faktör önce insan gelir mantalitesinin oluşturulması ve bunu içselleştirmesi ve tüm işletme üretim aşamalarında bilmesi gerektiğidir.

Çalışanların İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği konusundaki farkındalık seviyeleri ile İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği kriterlerine göre çalışmasının faktör değerleri bakımından düşük değerde olması hala güvenlik kültürünü kendi isteğimizle değil de başkalarının istek ve doğrultusunda yaptığımızdır. Bu algıyı olumluya çevirmenin unsurlarından en önemlisi uygulamalı olarak iş sağlığı güvenlik uygulamalarını yaparak gerçekleştirmemizdir.

Günümüzde, daha iyi çalışma standartları ve teknolojik gelişmelere rağmen, iş kazaları ve meslek hastalıkları dünya genelinde artmasının; sanayileşmiş ülkelerdeki emek yoğun sanayi üretiminin, emeği ucuz ve sosyal koruma düzeyi düşük

gelişmekte olan ülkelere kaydırılmasının neden olduğu öngörülebilir. Ani gelişmeye uygun olmayan işletme şartları ve çalışan işçi bireylerinin hazırlıksız yakalanmaları bunlara sebebiyet verdiği gerçeğidir.

Sonuç olarak anketlere katılım sağlayan işletmelerdeki personelin verdikleri cevaplara bakıldığında, büyük bir çoğunluğunun iş sağlığı ve güvenliğine bakışının pozitif olduğu, bu olumlu algının gençlerin iş hayatına atıldıklarında iş kazasına maruz kalma riskinin düşük olabileceği ve çalışma döneminde aldıkları uygulamalı iş sağlığı ve güvenliği eğitiminin verimli olacağının bir göstergesidir. Eğitim-öğretim yıllarında verilen her türlü uygulamalı veya teorik İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği derslerinin ve seminerlerinin toplumun kanayan yarası haline gelen iş kaza ve meslek hastalıklarını önlemede önemli bir etken olacağı öngörülerimiz arasındadır. Ayrıca toplumda ''önce sağlık ve güvenlik gelir'' algısının oluşturulması bizden sonraki nesillere örnek olması bakımından önemlidir. İşletmelerde iş sağlığı ve güvenliğine yönelik yapılacak yatırımlar sayesinde meslek hastalıklarının, iş kazalarının, işyeri ölümlerinin azalması ve işletmelerde yüksek verimlilik getirisi sağlayacağıdır.

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EXAMINING THE PROBABLE THREE THESIS OF THE GLOBALIZATION EFFECT ON CULTURE BY MEANS OF THE CONSUMER'S ETHNOCENTRIC TENDENCY LEVEL[1]

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- By the fact that globalization is an influencing factor shaping all structures of society, the aim is to analyze three thesis about the cultural efffects of globalization by consumer ethnocentrism; additionally to examine the consumer ethnocentirsm by demographic factors.
Methodology-: As a descriptive research, the study has been done by face-to-face survey method and convenience sampling conducted on 331 respondents.
Findings- In order to measure the ethnocentric levels of consumers, 17-unit CETSCALE scale was used, and the measurement was found to be reliable. According to the analysis, it has been found that the ethnocentric level of Turkish consumers is medium, does not change according to age, but changes according to gender. Also, ethnocentric level of Turkish consumers is lower for those who has higher education level.
Conclusion- According to the study, 'hybridization' thesis is found acceptable among three probable thesis of the globalization effect on culture.

Keywords: Globalization, culture, ethnocentrism, consumer behavior, marketing
JEL Codes: M30, M31, Z10

TÜKETİCİNİN ETNOSENTRİK EĞİLİM DÜZEYİ ARACILIĞIYLA KÜRESELLEŞMENİN KÜLTÜRE ETKİSİNE İLİŞKİN OLASI ÜÇ TEZİN SINANMASI

ÖZET

Amaç - Küreselleşmenin toplumun tüm yapılarını şekillendiren bir etki faktörü olması gerçeği ile kültürel etkilerine ilişkin tanımlanan üç tezin tüketici etnosentrizmi ile sınanması, ayrıca tüketici etnosentrizminin demografik faktörler itibariyle incelenmesidir.
Yöntem - Tanımlayıcı bir nitelik taşıyan araştırma, yüz yüze anket yöntemi ve kolayda örnekleme ile 331 cevaplayıcı üzerinde yapılmıştır.
Bulgular- Tüketicilerin etnosentrik düzeylerini ölçmek için 17-birimlik CETSCALE ölçeği kullanılmış olup, ölçüm güvenilir bulunmuştur. Yapılan analizler sonucunda Türk tüketicilerin etnosentrik eğilim düzeylerinin orta düzeyde olduğu, yaşa göre değişmediği, cinsiyete göre ise değiştiği, eğitim düzeyi yüksek olanların daha düşük düzeyde etnosentrik eğilim gösterdiği ortaya konmuştur.
Sonuç- Araştırma ile küreselleşmenin kültürel etkilerine ilişkin olası tezlerden 'hibritleşme' tezinin kabul edilebilir olduğu elde edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Küreselleşme, kültür, tüketici etnosentrizmi, tüketici davranışları, pazarlama
JEL Kodları: M30, M31, Z10

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1.GİRİŞ

Küreselleşme sosyal bilimler alanında son yıllarda çok yoğun olarak araştırılan konular arasında yer almış ve yer almaya devam etmektedir. Küreselleşmenin kültüre olan etkilerini inceleyen yazında, diğer tezlerin yanı sıra küreselleşmenin kültürü homojenleştirdiği tezi daha yüksek düzeyde destek görmektedir. Bu yaklaşıma göre diğer ülkelere transfer edilen Batı kültürü, gittiği ülkenin milli kültürünün tüm öğelerine yayılım göstermekte ve bu yayılım ülke vatandaşlarının tüketim tercihlerine de yansımaktadır. Bu yaklaşım temel alındığında, tüketicinin satın alma davranışında 'yerli ürün tercihi'nin seçim kriterleri arasında yer almaması beklenir. Tüketicinin bu yöndeki davranışının pazarlama literatüründe 'tüketici etnosentrizmi' şeklinde kavramsallaştırılan davranışın karşı kutbunda yer aldığı söylenebilir.

Tüketici etnosentrizmi; tüketicilerin yerli ürünler dışındaki ürünleri kullanmanın ve satın almanın uygunluğunu ve ahlaki olup olmamasını sorgular; yerli ürün alınmasını destekler ve bu ürünlere yabancı menşeli ürünlerden daha fazla değer atfeder. Bu tüketicilerin en belirgin özellikleri; yabancı ürün satın almanın yanlış olduğuna, bu durumun ülke ekonomisine zarar verdiğine ve işsizliğe açtığına olan inançlarıdır. Bu tüketim davranışı yaklaşımının küreselleşen kültürün içinde hayatiyet bulmasının oldukça zor olduğu söylenebilir. Mevcut çalışmada iki önemli kavram olan küreselleşmenin kültüre etkisi ve tüketici etnosentrizmi irdelenerek, bu etkinin tüketici davranışı aracılığıyla gerçek durumuna açıklık getirilmeye çalışılmıştır.

2. LİTERATÜR İNCELEMESİ

2.1. Küreselleşme ve Kültürel Etkileri

Küreselleşme, özellikle teknolojik gelişmelerle beraber bilginin, insanın, sermayenin, fikirlerin sınır tanımadan serbestçe dolaşır hale gelmesine zemin hazırlamış, ticarette "coğrafik alan"a olan ihtiyacı ortadan kaldırarak tüketicilerin bir 'dünya tüketicisi' olması sonucunu doğurmuştur (Harvey, 1992; McNeill, 1986). Yaşadığımız dönemde küreselleşmede gelinen son durum; dünyanın çeşitli parçaları arasında karşılıklı-bağımlılık ve yeni şekilde bütünleşmede; 'zaman-mekan sıkışması' olarak kavramlaştırılmış ve böylece 'zamanın mekandan bağımsızlaşması', küreselleşmenin ön koşulu (Giddens, 1998: 66) haline gelmiştir.

21. yüzyılda, özellikle iletişim teknolojilerindeki gelişmeler sayesinde bir "küresel kültür"ün doğduğu varsayımları sosyal bilimlerde yaygın kabul haline gelmiş olup, küreselleşmenin kültürel etkileri üzerine tezler geliştirilmiş ve geliştirilmeye devam edilmektedir. Konu ile ilgili günümüz literatüründe üç–olası tez tanımlanmıştır. Bunlar; homojenleşme tezi, kutuplaşma tezi ve hibritleşme tezidir (Holton, 2013: 63). Bu tezler aşağıdaki gibi özetlenebilir:

- *Homojenleşme Tezi:* Bu teze göre küreselleşme; kültürel özellikler ile pratik uygulamaları birbirine yaklaştırmış ve kültürü homojenleştirmiştir (Giddens, 1998: 66). Kültürün homojenleşmesi; 'Amerikanlaşma' anlamına gelmekte, küresel tüketim yalnızca ürünlerin bir ihtiyaca cevap vermesine bağlı olmamakta aynı zamanda Hollywood endüstrisi ile zenginlik rüyaları, kişisel başarı ve hedonizm-temelli ürünlerin de sunulması ile Amerikan ve Batı kültürü diğer ülkelere transfer edilmektedir.

-*Kutuplaşma Tezi:* Bu tezin savunucularının temel aldığı dayanak; medeniyetler çatışmasıdır. Buna göre küreselleşme ile etnik temizlik, ulusalcılık ve nefrete dayalı politik kimlikler meydana gelmiş ve bu medeniyetler zıt-iki kutupta (Keyman, 1998) kümelenmiştir; batının Orta Doğu İslam coğrafyasını statik, otoriter, 'şark' olarak; batıyı ise akılcı, hoşgörülü, yenilikçi ve dinamik olarak gördüğü iki kutup olarak.

-*Hibritleşme Tezi:* Bu tezin savunucularına göre günümüzde kültürler yüksek düzeyde birbirine girmiş ve karışmış olduğundan, saf, otantik bir kültürden bahsetmek mümkün değildir (Hannerz, 1998). Robertson'a (1998) göre küreselleşme ile farklı kültürler farklı derecelerde birbirleri ile etkileşime girmekte ve bunun sonucu küresel kültür kendini kısmen ulusal kültür ile ve küresel etkileşimlerin özgünlüğü ile yapılanmaktadır.

2.2. Tüketici Etnosentrizmi

Sosyoloji yazınında William G.Summer tarafından kavramlaştırılan etnosentrizm; bireyin, kendisini onun bir üyesi olarak kabul ettiği etnik grubu her şeyin merkezi olarak görmesi, toplumdaki diğer sosyal grupları üyesi olarak algıladığı grup perspektifinden değerlendirmesi, kendi kültürüne benzemeyenleri ret etmesidir (Shimp, Sharma, 1987: 280). Entnosentrizm eğilimli bireylerin üyesi oldukları etnik grubu yaşam alanlarının merkezine koymaları; kendi kültür özellikleri ile gurur duyma ve diğer grupların kültür özelliklerini hor görme (Netemeyer, Durvasula & Lichtenstein, 1991) sonucunu beraberinde getirmektedir.

Sosyoloji alanında, özellikle kültüre ilişkin çalışmalarda yüksek düzeyde çalışılan bu kavram, diğer sosyal disiplinlerin yanı sıra pazarlama alanında da yaygın olarak araştırılmaktadır. Etnosentrizm kavramı pazarlama yazınına "tüketici Etnosentrizmi" ifadesiyle, 1987 yılında Shimp ve Sharma tarafından kazandırılmıştır. Tüketici etnosentrizmi; pazar bölümlendirme, ürün/marka konumlandırma, mamul/hizmet kalite iyileştirme, sosyal sorumluluk projelerine temel oluşturma gibi birçok yönetsel pazarlama alanlarında kullanılmaktadır. Tüketici etnosentrizmi; pazarlama yöneticilerinin hedef pazarlarındaki tüketicilerin yabancı ve yerli ürünlere ilişkin ön yargı ve ön kabullerini anlayabilmelerini sağlayarak en uygun pazarlama stratejilerini geliştirmelerine katkı (Cateora, 2000) sağlamakta ve pazar bölümlendirme faktörü olarak

(Kaynak, Kaya, 2002) işlev görmektedir. Tüketici etnosentrizmi; grup içindeki kabullere etki ettiğinden grup üyesi olan bireyin kişiliğine yön verir ki bu etki kendini satın alma davranışında da göstererek kabul edilen veya edilmeyen satın alma davranışının 'hangisi' olduğunun anlaşılmasını sağlar (Shimp, Sharma, 1987), grup üyesinin yabancı menşeli ürünleri satın alma ve kullanmanın ne derece etik olup olmadığını gösterir. Yapılan araştırmalar, yerli ürün tercih etme ile pozitif yönde (Balabanis, Diamantopoulis, 2004), yabancı ürün tercih etme ile negatif yönde (Klein, Ettenson & Morris, 1998) ilişki olduğunu, etnosentrik eğilimi yüksek tüketicilerin düşük olanlara göre kendi ülkesinin ürünlerine daha yüksek değer atfettiklerini, yabancı ürün satın almanın yanlış olduğuna inandıklarını, yabancı ürün satın almanın ülke ekonomisine olumsuz etki ettiği ve işsizliğe yol açtığına inandıklarını, vatanseverlikle ters düştüğü inancını taşıdıklarını, bu nedenle ülke ve milletini seven bireylerin yerli ürün satın almaları gerektiğini düşündüklerini (Balabanis, Diamantopoulos, 2004; Shimp, Sharma, 1987; Shankarmahesh, 2006), yabancı ürün satın almanın kabul edilmeyen bir siyasi davranış olduğunu (Altındaş, Tokol, 2007) ortaya koymuştur.

Tüketici davranışları yazınında etnosentrizm ile ilgili araştırmaların ortaya koyduğu sonuçların dikkat çekici tarafı; gelişmiş ülke vatandaşlarının kendi ülkelerinde üretilen ürünlerin daha iyi olduğuna olan inançlarından dolayı yerli ürünü tercih ettikleri (Klein, Ettenson &Morris, 1998); bunun aksine gelişmekte olan ülke vatandaşlarının ekonomisi daha gelişmiş ülke menşeli ürünlerin daha iyi olduğuna ve yerel ürünün kalitesinin düşük olduğuna ilişkin yargılarından dolayı yabancı ürün tercih ettikleri (Wang, Chen, 2004) bulgularıdır. Bu araştırma bulgularının tüketicilerin etnosentrik davranışlarında rasyonel kriterleri de dikkate aldıklarını ortaya koyduğunu gösterdiği ifade edilebilir. Dolaysıyla tüketici etnosentrizmi kavramı sosyal bilimlerde stratejik önemini korumakla beraber, ekonomik avantaj yaratması durumuna bağlı olarak davranışa yön verdiği bulgusu ile paradoksal bir kabule sahip olduğu düşünülebilir.

3. VERİ VE YÖNTEM

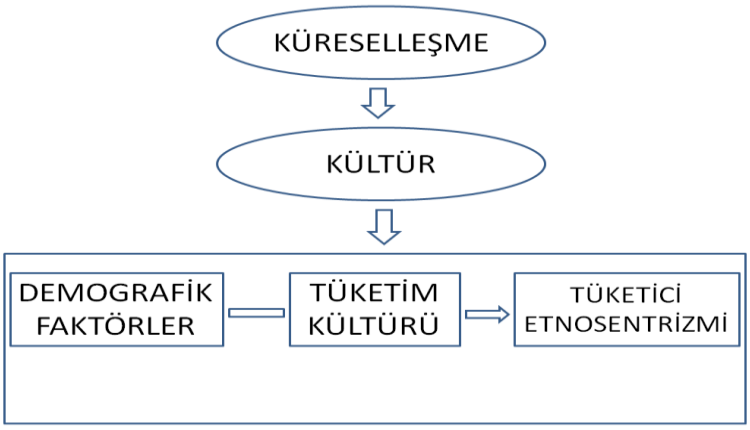
3.1. Araştırmanın Amacı

Küreselleşmenin toplumların tüm yapılarına olduğu gibi kültürlerine de etki ettiği yaygın kabuldür. Bu görüş kabul edildiğinde, bunun tüketim kültürüne de yansıması beklenilir. Literatür taramasına istinaden, küreselleşmenin kültürel etkilerine ilişkin olarak tanımlanan olası üç tez mevcuttur ve mevcut araştırma ile bu tezler, tüketici etnosentrizmi ile sınanmak istenmiştir. Bu bağlamda araştırmanın amacı; Türk tüketicilerinin etnosentrik düzeylerini belirlemek, demografik faktörler itibariyle incelemek ve elde edilen sonuçların küreselleşmenin kültürel etkileri bağlamında öne sürülen olası üç tezin sınanmasına katkı sağlamaktır. Bu yönü ile araştırma tanımlayıcı bir özellik taşımaktadır.

3.2. Araştırma Düzeni

Araştırmada küreselleşmenin kültürel etkilerinden sosyoloji yazınında çalışılan üç tez dikkate alınmıştır. Toplumlardaki kültürel yapı, o toplumda yaşayan bireylerin kültür kodlarını oluşturur ve bu kodlar sosyal ve ekonomik yapılarda davranışlar olarak kendini ifadeler. Araştırmada küreselleşmenin kültürel etkilerini, toplum bireylerinin tüketim davranışlarından etnosentrik eğilimlerini inceleyerek ortaya koymak hedeflenmiş ve araştırma amacı doğrultusunda belirlenen hedeflere ulaştıracak araştırma düzeni Şekil 1'de gösterilmiştir.

Şekil 1: Araştırma Düzeni



Yukarıda açıklanan kavramsal çerçeve ve bilimsel yazına istinaden, test edilecek tezler aşağıda belirtilmiştir.

Tez 1: Homojenlik tezine göre küreselleşme kültür homojenliği yaratmış ve tüm kültürleri 'Batı'lılaşma/Amerakınlılaşma' şeklinde etkilemiştir. Bu tez doğru kabul edilirse, Türk tüketicilerinin etnosentrik eğilim düzeylerinin 'düşük' çıkması beklenir. Bu teze ilişkin sınama, aşağıda gösterildiği şekilde formüle edilmiştir.

Homojenlik Tezi Doğru $\Longrightarrow$ Türk Tüketicisinin Etnosentrik Düzeyi Düşük

Tez 2: Kutuplaşma tezine göre küreselleşme kültür kutuplaşması yaratmış ve tüm toplumlar 'İslam/Doğu Kültürü' ile 'Batı/Amerikan Kültürü' şeklinde iki kupta ayrılmıştır. Bu teze göre Türk tüketicilerinin 'Doğu Kültürü' kategorisinde olması gerekir. Bu tez kabul edilirse, Türk tüketicilerinin etnosentrik eğilim düzeylerinin 'yüksek' çıkması beklenir. Bu teze ilişkin sınama, aşağıda gösterildiği şekilde formüle edilmiştir.

Kutuplaşma Tezi Doğru $\Longrightarrow$ Türk Tüketicisinin Etnosentrik Düzeyi Yüksek

Tez 3: Hibritleşme tezine göre saf bir kültürden bahsedilemez ve küreselleşme ile farklı kültürler farklı düzeylerde birbirlerini etkilemektedirler. Türk tüketicilerinin etnosentrik eğilim düzeylerinin 'orta' çıkması beklenir. Bu teze ilişkin sınama, aşağıda gösterildiği şekilde formüle edilmiştir.

Hibritleşme Tezi Doğru $\Longrightarrow$ Türk Tüketicisinin Etnosentrik Düzeyi Orta

Araştırma amacında belirtildiği üzere, Türk tüketicilerin etnosentrik eğilim düzeylerinin demografik faktörler itibariyle ortaya koyabilmek için aşağıdaki hipotezler oluşturulmuştur:

H_1: Tüketicilerin etnosentrik düzeyleri, cinsiyete göre farklılık gösterir.

H_2: Tüketicilerin etnosentrik düzeyleri, yaşa göre farklılık gösterir.

H_3: Tüketicilerin etnosentrik düzeyleri, eğitime göre farklılık gösterir.

3.3. Örneklem

Araştırmada küreselleşmenin kültürel etkilerine ilişkin sosyoloji yazınında ortaya konan üç tezin tüketim kültürü üzerinden tüketici etnosentrizmi ile sınanması amaçlanmış olduğundan, araştırma birimi Türk tüketicileri olarak tanımlanmıştır. Ana kütlenin çok geniş olması dolayısıyla örnekleme yapılmıştır. Bunun için Ankara ili merkez ilçesinde kolayda örnekleme yöntemine karar verilmiştir.

3.4. Veri Toplama ve Ölçme Araçları

Araştırmada veriler anket yöntemi ile toplanmıştır. Bunun için Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yüksek Lisans öğrencilerinden araştırma metodolojisi eğitimi ve anket uygulaması deneyimine sahip 8 öğrenciye, araştırmacılar tarafından araştırma ve anket ile ilgili detaylı açıklama yapılmıştır. Anket uygulaması tüketim ehliyeti dikkate alınarak 15 yaş üstünde olanlar üzerinde, Ankara ili merkez ilçesinde yapılmıştır. Bunun için coğrafik olarak birbirinden uzak üç adet AVM seçilmiş ve bir hafta içi ve bir hafta sonu, aynı haftada iki gün olarak yüz yüze uygulanmıştır. Saha araştırması sonucu 331 tüketiciden veri toplanmıştır.

Verilerin toplanmasında kullanılan anket iki bölümden oluşmuştur. Birinci bölüm demografik faktörlerden yaş, cinsiyet ve eğitim değişkenlerine ilişkin soruları içermiştir. İkinci bölümde tüketicilerin etnosentrik düzeylerini ölçmeye yönelik 17-birimlik CETSCALE ölçeği yer almıştır. Orijinali 7'li Likert olan ölçek aşırı hassas olduğundan ve önceki deneyimlerden hareketle, Türk tüketicilerin bu hassasiyet farkını ortaya koymakta isteksiz olduklarından, ölçek 5'li Likert olarak düzenlenmiştir. CETSCALE ölçeğinin orjinali İngilizcedir. Ölçek Türkiye'de oldukça sık kullanılmış olduğundan, daha önceki araştırmalarda yapılan (Örs, Yılmaz, Doğan, 2016: 27) Türkçe çevirisinin kullanılması uygun görülmüştür. Araştırmada hipotez analizleri SPSS.23 kullanılarak yapılmıştır.

4. BULGULAR VE TARTIŞMA

Araştırmaya katılan cevaplayıcılara ilişkin tanımlayıcı istatistikler Tablo 1'de gösterilmiştir. Tablo 1'de görüldüğü üzere cevaplayıcıların %51,1'i kadın, %48,9'i erkek tüketicilerden oluşmaktadır. Yaş değişkeni incelendiğinde; cevaplayıcıların % 5,7'si 18 altı, %47,1'i 18-25 yaş arası, %33,5'i 26-44 yaş arası ve %13,5'i 45 yaş üstüdür. Eğitim değişkenine ilişkin dağılım ise cevaplayıcıların %4.8'i İlköğretim, %45,9'u Lise ve %49,3'ü üniversite mezunu şeklindedir. Eğitime ilişkin 'Okumamış' grubuna giren cevaplayıcı çıkmamıştır.

Tablo 1: Katılımcıların Demografik Özellikleri

		F	%
Cinsiyet	Kadın	169	51,1
	Erkek	162	48,9
Yaş	15-17	19	5,7
	18-25	156	47,1
	26-34	56	16,9
	35-44	55	16,6
	45-54	15	4,5
	55-64	11	3,3
	65 üstü	19	5,7
Eğitim Durumu	İlköğretim	16	4,8
	Lise	152	45,9
	Lisans	138	41,7
	Lisansüstü	25	7,6
Toplam		331	100

Katılımcılardan Tüketici Etnosentrizmi ölçeğinde yer alan ifadelere katılma düzeyleri Tablo 2'de sunulmuştur. Buna göre CETSCALE ölçeğindeki 17 ifadeden en düşük olan ifadeler; 1,96 düzey ile "Yabancı ülke ürünlerini satın almak Türklüğe aykırıdır" ve 2,12 düzey ile "Tüm ithal ürünlere engel konmalıdır" ile en yüksek ifadeler; 3,97 düzey ile "Türk yapımı ürünler satın almak, Türkiye çalışanını korur" ve 3,44 düzey ile "Sadece Türkiye'de bulunmayan ürünler ithal edilmelidir" ifadeleridir. Ölçek birimlerine ilişkin düzeyler incelendiğinde, Türk tüketicilerin etnik kimlikten çok ülkenin ekonomik avantajını dikkate alarak tüketim davranışını sergilediği söylenebilir. CETSCALE ölçek ifadelerinin ortalamaları incelendiğinde, en düşük ortalamaya sahip olan ifadelerin ithalat engellemesine ilişkin ifadeler olduğu görülmektedir. Bu bulgu, mevcut araştırmada olduğu gibi Türk tüketicilerin etnosentrik eğilim düzeyini ölçen Çilingir'in (2014: 218) araştırma bulgusuyla benzerlik göstermekte olup, tüketicilerin kavrama rasyonel yaklaştıkları söylenebilir.

Tablo 2: Tüketici Etnosentrizmi Ölçeğine İlişkin Temel İstatistiksel Göstergeler

		Ortalama	Std. Sapma	Çarpıklık	Basıklık
1	Türk halkı her zaman ithal ürünler yerine Türk yapımı ürünler satın almalıdır.	3,2779	1,26542	-,120	-,963
2	Sadece Türkiye'de bulunamayan ürünler ithal edilmelidir.	3,4441	1,33453	-,337	-1,121
3	Türk yapımı ürünler satın almak, Türkiye çalışanını korur	3,9728	1,09095	-1,087	,565
4	Türk yapımı ürünler her şeyden önce gelir.	3,1964	1,30062	-,120	-1,029
5	Yabancı ülke ürünlerini satın almak Türklüğe aykırıdır.	1,9698	1,26455	1,206	,286
6	Yabancı ürünler satın almak doğru değildir, çünkü Türklerin işsiz kalmasına neden olur	2,5529	1,27187	,512	-,720
7	Gerçek bir Türk, her zaman Türk yapımı ürünler satın almalıdır.	2,4350	1,34992	,600	-,805
8	Diğer ülkelerin bizim üzerimizden zengin olmasına müsaade etmek yerine Türkiye'de üretilmiş ürünler satın almalıyız.	3,2024	1,31130	-,184	-1,024
9	Her zaman Türk ürünlerini satın almak en iyidir.	2,9245	1,30164	,116	-1,037
10	Zorunlu haller dışında, diğer ülkelerden mal satın alımı veya ticareti çok az olmalıdır.	3,1450	1,34957	-,117	-1,164
11	Türk işletmelerine zarar verdiği ve işsizliğe neden olduğu için Türkler yabancı ürünleri satın almamalıdır.	2,7251	1,28862	,233	-,988
12	Tüm ithal ürünlere engel konulmalıdır.	2,1269	1,30810	,981	-,201
13	Uzun dönemde maliyetli de olsa, Türk ürünlerini desteklemeyi tercih ederim.	3,1571	1,26471	-,190	-,961
14	Yabancıların pazarlarımıza ürünlerini sokmalarına izin verilmemelidir.	2,2991	1,27848	,738	-,469
15	Türkiye'ye girişinin azaltılması için yabancı ürünler yüksek oranda vergilendirilmelidir.	2,7251	1,33710	,230	-1,100
16	Sadece kendi ülkemizde bulamadığımız ürünleri yabancı ülkelerden satın almalıyız.	3,2326	1,33154	-,294	-1,096
17	Diğer ülkelerde üretilen ürünleri satın alan Türk tüketicileri, vatandaşları olan Türk halkının işsizliğine neden olmakla sorumludurlar.	2,5136	1,32424	,483	-,916

Türk tüketicilerinin etnosentrik eğilim düzeylerini ölçmek için Cetscale ölçeği ile yapılan ölçümde, ölçekteki tüm değişkenlerin çarpıklık ve basıklık değerleri -2 ile +2 aralığında gerçekleşmiştir. Sosyal bilimler alanında yapılan çalışmalarda bir ölçeğin değişkenlerinin normal dağılım göstermesi için ölçeğin çarpıklık ve basıklık değerlerinin -2 ile +2 aralığında gerçekleşme zorunluğu (Garson, 2012: 18) kabulüne istinaden, araştırmada kullanılan ölçeğin değişkenlerinin normal dağıldığı söylenebilir.

Araştırmanın ölçümünün güvenilirliğini test etmeden önce, faktör sayısı bir olacak şekilde kısıtlama yapılarak Keşifsel Faktör Analizi gerçekleştirilmiş, elde edilen faktör yükleri Tablo 3'te sunulmuştur.

Tablo 3. Tüketici Etnosentrizmi Ölçeği Tek Boyutluluk Analizi

İfadeler	Faktör1
İfade 17	,821
İfade 9	,814
İfade 7	,801
İfade 8	,800
İfade 11	,796
İfade 10	,746
İfade 6	,743
İfade 15	,714
İfade 14	,707
İfade 13	,698
İfade 16	,692
İfade 4	,686
İfade 5	,685
İfade 12	,674
İfade 1	,647
İfade 2	,592
İfade 3	,498

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy = ,941 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square = 3665,544 sign= 0,000

Tablo 3'te görüldüğü üzere, ölçekteki 17 ifade ile yapılan ölçüm için hesaplanan Cronbach alfa katsayısı 0,93 olarak gerçekleşmiştir. Ölçeğin Cronbach alfa değeri 0,70'in üzerinde (Nunnally, 1970: 245) olduğundan ve ölçek ifadelerin düzeltilmiş madde toplam puan korelasyon değerlerinin de 0,35'in üzerinde (Bearden, Hadesty, Rose, 2001) bulunduğundan ölçeğin içsel tutarlılığının yüksek olduğu söylenebilir. Ölçeğin değişkenlerin faktör yükleri incelendiğinde, tüm değişkenlerin 0,45'in üzerinde değer aldıkları görülmektedir.

"Tüketicilerin etnosentrizm düzeyleri, cinsiyete göre farklılık gösterir" şeklinde ifade edilen H_1, t-test ile test edilmiştir. Analiz sonuçları Tablo 4'te gösterilmiş olup, hipotez 0,05 anlamlılık düzeyinde ret edilmiş olup, 0,10 anlamlılık düzeyinde kabul edilmiştir. Buna göre erkeklerin etnosentrik tüketim düzeyinin kadınların düzeyinden daha yüksek olduğu söylenebilir. Bu bulgu Kemmelmeler'ın (2010) araştırma bulgusu ile benzerlik, Armağan ve Gürsoy'un (2011) araştırma bulguları ile farklılık göstermektedir.

Tablo 4: Tüketici Etnosentrizm Düzeyleri İle Cinsiyet Faktörlerine İlişkin t-Testi Sonuçları

	Cinsiyet	N	Ortalama	t-değeri	Anlamlılık
Etnosentrizm Düzeyi	Erkek	162	2,9720	1,848	,066
	Kadın	169	2,7849		

"Tüketicilerin etnosentrizm düzeyleri, yaşlarına göre farklılık gösterir" şeklinde ifade edilen H_2'nin sonuçları Tablo 5'te gösterilmiştir. Hipotez 0,05 anlamlılık düzeyinde varyans analizi ile test edilmiştir. Tablodan görüldüğü üzere, tüketici etnosentrik eğilim düzeyleri yaş grupları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Bu bulgu Shankarmahesh'ın (2006) ve Bawa'nın (2004) elde ettikleri bulgulardan farklıdır. Bu farkın temel nedeninin araştırmanın yapıldığı ülkelerin birbirlerinden oldukça farklı olan kültürlerinden kaynaklandığı söylenebilir.

Tablo 5: Tüketici Etnosentrizm Düzeyleri İle Yaş Faktörlerine İlişkin Varyans Analizi Sonuçları

	N	Ortalama	F-değeri	Anlamlılık
15-18	19	2,9659	1,164	,325
19-25	156	2,9683		
26-34	56	2,8183		
35-44	55	2,6952		
45-54	15	2,6902		
55-64	11	2,5401		
65 üstü	19	3,0712		
Toplam	331	2,8765		

"Tüketicilerin etnosentrizm düzeyleri eğitim durumlarına göre farklılık gösterir" şeklinde ifade edilen H_3, varyans analizi ile test edilmiş ve sonuçlar Tablo 6'da gösterilmiştir. Tablodaki sonuçlara bağlı olarak H_3 hipotezi kabul edilmiştir. Buna göre; tüketicilerin etnosentrik düzeyleri, eğitim durumlarına göre farklılık göstermektedir. Bu bulgu Sharma ve arkadaşlarının (1995) yaptığı araştırma bulgusu ile benzerlik göstermektedir. Hipotez testi sonucunda elde edilen eğitim düzeyi farklılığının

hangi gruplar arasında olduğunu görmek için yapılan Post-Hoc testi sonuçları Tablo 7'de gösterilmiştir. Grupların varyansları homojen olmadığı için (Levene testi= 6,428 p=,000), Tamhane ve Dunnett T3 testleri gerçekleştirilmiştir. Yapılan analizin sonuçlarına göre gruplar arası farklılığın, ilköğretim mezunlarının etnosentrik eğilimlerinin lise, üniversite ve lisansüstü mezunlarına göre daha yüksek olmasından kaynaklandığı tespit edilmiştir. Buna göre İlköğretim mezunlarının lise, üniversite ve yüksek lisans mezunlarına kıyasla daha etnosentrik oldukları bulgusu elde edilmiştir. Bununla birlikte Lisansüstü mezunlarının etnosentrik eğilimlerinin diğerlerine kıyasla daha düşük olduğu da görülmektedir. Ortalamalarla birlikte ele alındığında bu bulgular ışığında eğitim düzeyi arttıkça etnosentrik eğilimin azaldığını söylenebilir.

Tablo 6: Tüketici Etnosentrizm Düzeyleri İle Eğitim Faktörlerine İlişkin Varyans Analizi Sonuçları

	N	Ortalama	F-değeri	Anlamlılık
İlköğretim	16	3,7426	9,386	,000
Lise	152	2,9303		
Üniversite	138	2,8291		
Lisansüstü	25	2,2565		
Toplam	331	2,8765		

Tablo 7: Etnosentrizm Düzeyleri Arasındaki Farkın Kaynağını Belirlemek Üzere Uygulanan Post-Hoc Testlerine İlişkin Sonuçlar- Eğitim Faktörü

					%95 Güven Aralığı	
	Eğitim Düzeyi (I)	Eğitim Düzeyi (J)	Ortalama Farkı (I-J)	Anlamlılık	Alt Sınır	Üst Sınır
Tamhane	İlköğretim	Lise	,81231*	,000	,4425	1,1821
		Üniversite	,91358*	,000	,5435	1,2837
		Lisansütü	1,48618*	,000	1,0519	1,9205
	Lise	İlköğretim	-,81231*	,000	-1,1821	-,4425
		Üniversite	,10127	,927	-,1879	,3904
		Lisansüstü	,67387*	,000	,2975	1,0502
	Üniversite	İlköğretim	-,91358*	,000	-1,2837	-,5435
		Lise	-,10127	,927	-,3904	,1879
		Lisansüstü	,57260*	,001	,1960	,9492
	Lisansüstü	İlköğretim	-1,48618*	,000	-1,9205	-1,0519
		Lise	-,67387*	,000	-1,0502	-,2975
		Üniversite	-,57260*	,001	-,9492	-,1960
Dunnett T3	İlköğretim	Lise	,81231*	,000	,4437	1,1809
		Üniversite	,91358*	,000	,5447	1,2824
		Lisansüstü	1,48618*	,000	1,0531	1,9192
	Lise	Lise	-,81231*	,000	-1,1809	-,4437
		Üniversite	,10127	,926	-,1878	,3903
		Lisansüstü	,67387*	,000	,2983	1,0494
	Üniversite	İlköğretim	-,91358*	,000	-1,2824	-,5447
		Lise	-,10127	,926	-,3903	,1878
		Lisansüstü	,57260*	,001	,1968	,9484
	Lisansüstü	İlköğretim	-1,48618*	,000	-1,9192	-1,0531
		Lise	-,67387*	,000	-1,0494	-,2983
		Üniversite	-,57260*	,001	-,9484	-,1968

Araştırma amacı dikkate alınarak, Türk tüketicilerin etnosentrik eğilim düzeyleri 17-birimlik 5'li Likert ölçeği ile ölçülmüş ve ortalama bir skor elde edilmiştir. Buna göre katılımcıların etnosentrik eğilimleri Tablo 8'de görüldüğü üzere, ***'orta'*** düzeyde gerçekleşmiştir ($\bar{X} = 2{,}8765$ ve CETSCORE= 48,90). Bu sonuç, Türkiye'de gerçekleştirilen bazı araştırma bulgularından (Yapraklı, Keser, 2013; Çilingir, 2014) farklılık göstermekle beraber, daha büyük bir oranla ise bazı araştırma bulguları (Turgut, 2010; Asil, Kaya, 2013; Uyar, Dursun, 2015; Arı, Madran, 2011; Armağan, Gürsoy, 2011; Akın, Çiçek, Gürbüz & İnal, 2009; İşler, 2013; vd.) ile benzerlik göstermektedir.

Tablo 8: Türk Tüketicilerin Etosentrik Eğilim Düzeyleri

Skor Aralığı	Sıklık (f)	Yüzde (%)
17-41 (Düşük Etnosentrizm)	120	36,3
42-55 (Orta Etnosentrizm)	99	29,9
56-85 (Yüksek Etnosentrizm)	112	33,8
Toplam	331	100,0

Türk tüketicileri üzerinde önceki araştırmalardan aynı ölçeğin 5'li Likert ile yapılan ölçümlerinden elde edilen etnosentrik eğilim skorları (Çilingir, 2014: 223) Tablo 9'da gösterilmiştir. Buna göre genel itibariyle Türk tüketicilerinin etnosentrik eğilim düzeyinin 'orta' düzeyde olduğu söylenebilir. Bunun yanı sıra pazarlama yazınında önceki araştırmalar ile Amerika, Polonya, Rusya, Çek Cumhuriyeti, Estonya, Macaristan, Yeni Zelanda ve Hindistan ülkelerinin de tüketici etnosentrik eğilim düzeylerinin 'orta' düzeyde (Çilingir, 2014: 223) gerçekleştiği ortaya konmuştur.

Tablo 9: Türk Tüketicilerinin Etnosentrik Eğilim Ortalama Puanı ve Düzeyleri

Araştırma	Cetscale Skoru	Cetscale Düzeyi
Aysuna (2006)	50,8	Orta
Arı (2007)	45,9	Orta
Çakır (2008)	51,9	Orta
Akın ve arkadaşları (2009)	54,5	Orta
Turgut (2010)	48,2	Orta
Armağan ve Gürsoy (2011)	51,4	Orta
Asil ve Kaya (2013)	46,5	Orta
Mevcut Araştırma (2017)	**48,9**	**Orta**

5. SONUÇ

Mevcut araştırma ile küreselleşmenin kültürel etkilerine ilişkin sosyoloji yazınında yer alan üç tez, tüketici etnosentrizmi aracılığıyla sınanmış ve cinsiyet, yaş, eğitim faktörlerine göre tüketicilerin etnosentrik eğilimleri incelenmiştir. Araştırmada kullanılan 17-birimlik CETSCALE ölçeği ile yapılan ölçüm güvenilir bulunmuştur. Araştırma 331 tüketici üzerinde, yüz yüze anket şeklinde yapılmıştır. Araştırma sonuçları aşağıda özetlenmiştir:

Tüketici etnosentrizm düzeyi yaş faktörlerine göre farklılık göstermemekte, ancak cinsiyet ve eğitim faktörüne göre farklılık göstermektedir. Araştırma ile erkeklerin etnosentrik tüketim eğiliminin kadınlara kıyasla daha yüksek olduğu bulunmuştur. Araştırmadaki bir diğer demografik faktör olan eğitim düzeyine göre etnosentrik tüketim eğilim düzeyinde anlamlı farklılık çıkmıştır. Bu farkın İlköğretim ile Lise ve İlköğretim ile Üniversite grupları arasında olduğu elde edilmiştir.

Araştırma amacına bağlı olarak hesaplanan Türk tüketicilerin etnosentrik eğilim düzeyi orta düzeyde gerçekleşmiştir. Literatür taramasında Türk tüketicileri üzerinde aynı ölçek ile yapılan ölçümlerde etnosentrik eğilim düzeyinin ağırlıklı olarak orta düzeyde gerçekleştiğinden, Türk tüketicilerinin genel olarak etnosentrik eğilim düzeyinin '*orta'* düzeyde olduğu söylenebilir. Araştırma bulgusu ve önceki araştırmalar dikkate alınarak, tüketicilerin etnosentrik eğilim düzeylerinin ağırlıklı olarak 'orta' düzeyde gerçekleşmesine dayanarak, küreselleşmenin kültürel etkilerine ilişkin üç olası tez olan homojenleşme, kutuplaşma ve hibritleşme tezlerinden hibritleşme tezini desteklemiştir.

Küreselleşme gerek sosyal, gerek ekonomik ve gerekse kültürel etki gücüne sahip olan, günümüz ve gelecekte yaşamın birçok alanını yapılandırma özelliğinden dolayı etkisi gün geçtikçe artan bir konu olma özelliği taşımaktadır. Bu gerçekle küreselleşme ve yarattığı sonuçlar üzerinde yapılacak araştırmalar, ekonomilerdeki aktörlerin geleceğe ilişkin yol haritalarını oluşturmalarına temel olacağı aşikardır. Bu anlamda araştırma sonuçlarının gerek pazarlama ve tüketici davranışları, gerekse sosyoloji ana bilim dallarına önemli bulgular verdiği söylenebilir. Araştırma bulgusu ile elde edilen küreselleşmenin kültüre olan etkisinin hibrit özellik göstermesi, pazarlama yönetiminin dış pazarlara girerken hem yerel kültür ögeleri ve kabullerini dikkate alan hem de çağın gelişmesi/dönüşmesi ile olagelen küresel kültürü en üst düzeyde örtüştürecek pazarlama karması oluşturmaları gereğini ortaya koymuştur.

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THE EFFECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS ON CYBER-LOAFING BEHAVİORS: A RESEARCH ON HEALTH WORKERS

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- The aim of this study is to determine the effects of organizational justice perception on cyber-loafing behaviors.
Method - Data were collected (233) from health care workers who agreed to participate in the study using the questionnaire method. These 233 health workers are working in Departments of Obstetrics and Gynecology (Cumhuriyet University Health Services Research and Implementation Hospital, Sivas Numune Hospital) and Family Health Centers in the city center of Sivas. The data were analyzed by SPSS 22.0 program with percentile distribution, Pearson correlation and multiple regression analysis.
Findings- In the study was determined the negative effect of the operational justice dimension on insignificant cyber-loafing. Moreover, it has been determined that the dimension of interactionel justice has a positive effect on insignificant cyber-loafing behavior.
Conclusion- Positive or negative perception of organizational justice does not cause an increase or decrease in important cyber-loafing behaviors.

Keywords: Operational justice, interactionel justice organizational justice, cyber-loafing, health workers
JEL Codes: M10, M12, M19

ÖRGÜTSEL ADALETİN SANAL KAYTARMA ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ: SAĞLIK ÇALIŞANLARINA YÖNELİK BİR ARAŞTIRMA

ÖZET

Amaç- Bu çalışmanın amacı, örgütsel adalet algısının sanal kaytarma davranışları üzerine etkilerini belirleyebilmektir.
Yöntem - Araştırmaya anket yöntemiyle katılmayı kabul eden sağlık çalışanlarından veriler toplandı (233). Bu 233 sağlık çalışanı, Sivas şehir merkezindeki Kadın Sağlığı ve Hastalıkları Anabilim Dalı (Sivas Numune Hastanesi Cumhuriyet Üniversitesi Sağlık Hizmetleri Araştırma ve Uygulama Hastanesi) ve Aile Sağlığı Merkezlerinde görev yapmaktadır. Veriler SPSS 22.0 programı ile yüzdelik dağılım, Pearson korelasyon ve çoklu regresyon analizi ile değerlendirilmiştir.
Bulgular- Çalışmada, işlemsel adalet boyutunun önemsiz sanal kaytarma üzerinde negatif etkisi saptanmıştır. Ayrıca etkileşimsel adalet boyutunun önemsiz sanal kaytarma davranışı üzerinde pozitif etkisi olduğu saptanmıştır.
Sonuç- Örgütsel adaleti olumlu veya olumsuz olarak algılama, önemli sanal kaytarma davranışlarında bir artışa veya azalmaya neden olmaz.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İşlemsel adalet, etkileşimsel adalet, örgütsel adalet, sanal kaytarma, sağlık çalışanları.
JEL Kodları: M10, M12, M19

1.GİRİŞ

Günümüzde işyerinde internet kullanımı, iletişim uygulamalarına önemli kolaylıklar getirmektedir. Bu anlamda internet bağlantısı, çalışanların birbirleri arasındaki iletişimi kolaylaştırmakla beraber, iş yükü açısından da gereksiz işlemlerin azaltılmasına veya ortadan kaldırılmasına imkan vermektedir (Yıldız ve ark., 2015). Türkiye'de 2016 yılı verilerine göre, internet kullanan bireylerin oranı %61.2'ye yükselmiştir ve genel internet kullanım sıklığı açısından kullanıcıların %94.9'u düzenli internet kullanıcısıdır. Önceki yıllara göre internet kullanım oranı ve internetin iş ortamındaki kişisel kullanım oranı hızla artmaktadır (TÜİK, 2016).

Kullanımı hızla artan internet ve bilgisayar suistimallere açık bir mecradır (Yıldız ve ark., 2015). Sanal kaytarma iş ortamında bilişim teknolojisi kullanımının suistimal edilmesine bir örnek olup (Ahmadi ve ark., 2011), genel olarak iş amaçlı kullanım için sunulmuş olan bilgisayar ve internet sistemlerinin kişisel amaçlar için kullanılması anlamına gelmektedir (Lim, 2002). Yaşanan teknolojik gelişmeler dikkate alındığında, sanal kaytarma sadece örgütün internet erişim olanakları ile değil, hem örgütsel hem de bireysel internet erişimi sağlayan tüm araçlarla yapılan kaytarma davranışlarını kapsamaktadır (Kaplan ve Öğüt, 2012). Ortam iyi yönetilmediği takdirde, internet çalışanların iş saatleri içerisinde kendi amaçları doğrultusunda kullandığı ve ciddi zamanların harcandığı bir araç haline gelmektedir (Whitty ve Carr, 2006; Wheatherbee, 2010; Kaplan ve Çetinkaya, 2014; Örücü ve Yıldız, 2014). Böylece işletme içerisinde yapılması gereken işler, kişisel amaçlı internet kullanımı nedeniyle yapılmamakta ve iş dışı saatlerde online bağlanma yoluyla tamamlanmaya çalışılmaktadır (Richardson ve Benbunan-Fich, 2011). Bu durum ise, kişinin iş hayatının yanında, aile yaşantısına da olumsuz anlamda etki edebilmektedir (Eivazi, 2011). Sanal kaytarma, şirket kaynaklarının etkin bir şekilde kullanılabilmesini engellemekte, üretkenlik kaybı yaratmakta ve işletmeleri yasal yükümlülükler altına bile sokabilmektedir. Bu nedenle, günümüzde sanal kaytarma dikkat edilmesi gereken önemli bir husus olmuştur (Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara ve Melián-González, 2009; Wheatherbee, 2010).

Çalışanları sanal kaytarmaya sürükleyen süreçlerin başında örgütsel adalet algısı gelmektedir. Örgütsel adalet algısı örgüt içerisindeki kazanımların hangi işlemler (procedures) dâhilinde belirlendiği, hangi ölçütler çerçevesinde dağıtıldığı ve dağıtımda hakkaniyet gösterilip gösterilmediği ile ilgilidir (Yıldız ve ark., 2015). Örgütsel adaleti çalışanlar, işverenleri ile ilişkilerini tanımlamak için kullanmaktadırlar. Bu adalet algılaması bireyin kafasında yer almaktadır. Sosyal ve kişilerarası adaleti açıklayan örgütsel adalet, örgütlerdeki davranışı anlamak için başvurulabilir (Cropanzano ve Greenberg, 1997). Çalışanlar, örgütteki kazanımların adaletsiz bir şekilde dağıtıldığını gördüklerinde bu adaletsizliği etkisizleştirmek için sanal kaytarma yoluna gidebilmektedirler. Bu şekilde işletmelerine verecekleri maliyet kayıpları ile kendi tepkilerini göstermektedirler (Forret ve Love, 2008; Syaebani ve Sobri, 2011). Örgütsel adalet; dağıtım adaleti, işlemsel adalet ve etkileşim adaleti olmak üzere üç boyutta ele alınmaktadır (Greenberg, 1990). Lim araştırmasında (2002) örgütsel adalet boyutları (dağıtım, işlemsel ve etkileşimsel) ile sanal kaytarma arasında negatif ilişkiler saptamıştır. Başka bir ifadeyle örgütsel adaletsizlik sanal kaytarmaya neden olabilmektedir.

Hastanelerin Doğum ve Kadın Hastalıkları ile ilgili birimlerinde çalışan sağlık personeli için bir kadının, bir bebeğin mortalitesi ve morbiditesini önlemek için saniyelerin önemi vardır. Doğum ve Kadın Hastalıkları alanı kadınlar için olduğu kadar sağlık çalışanları içinde risklidir. Zaman kaybına tahammülü olmayan, hata götürmeyen bir alandır. Doğum ve Kadın Hastalıkları ile ilgili alandaki sağlık çalışanları, adli ve idari olarak haklarında en çok dava açılan, en çok soruşturma yiyen, en çok şikayet edilen gruplardan biridir. Bu çalışmada, örgütsel adalet algısının azalmasının, çalışanların sanal kaytarma faaliyetleri üzerine bir etkisi olup olmadığı araştırılmıştır. Özellikle sağlık personelinin işyerinde etkin ve verimli çalışması gerektiği düşünüldüğünde, sanal kaytarmanın yol açtığı önemli verimlilik kayıpları ve bu alanda yapılan araştırmaların sınırlılığı araştırmanın önemini daha da ön plana çıkarmaktadır.

2.YÖNTEM

Bu bölümde araştırmanın yöntemi; amacı, hipotezleri, tipi, evren ve örneklemi, veri toplama araçları, verilerin toplanması ve analizi hakkında ayrıntılı yer verilmiştir.

Bu çalışmanın amacı, sağlık çalışanlarının sanal kaytarma davranışlarının örgütsel adaletten ne derece etkilendiğini belirlemektir.

Araştırmanın Hipotezleri

H1: Örgütsel adalet <u>önemli</u> sanal kaytarma üzerinde negatif yönde bir etkiye sahiptir.
H1a: Dağıtımsal adalet önemli sanal kaytarma üzerinde negatif yönde bir etkiye sahiptir.
H1b: İşlemsel adalet önemli sanal kaytarma üzerinde negatif yönde bir etkiye sahiptir.
H1c: Etkileşimsel adalet önemli sanal kaytarma üzerinde negatif yönde bir etkiye sahiptir.
H2: Örgütsel adalet <u>önemsiz</u> sanal kaytarma üzerinde negatif yönde bir etkiye sahiptir.
H2a: Dağıtımsal adalet önemsiz sanal kaytarma üzerinde negatif yönde bir etkiye sahiptir.
H2b: İşlemsel adalet önemsiz sanal kaytarma üzerinde negatif yönde bir etkiye sahiptir.
H2c: Etkileşimsel adalet önemsiz sanal kaytarma üzerinde negatif yönde bir etkiye sahiptir.

H3: Örgütsel adalet sanal kaytarma üzerinde negatif yönde bir etkiye sahiptir.

Araştırmanın Tipi - Araştırma, tanımlayıcı araştırma türündedir.

Araştırmanın Evren ve Örneklemi - Araştırmanın evrenini 26.11.2015/25.02.2016 tarihlerinde Sivas ili merkezindeki hastanelerin Doğum ve Kadın Hastalıkları ile ilgili birimlerinde çalışan (Cumhuriyet Üniversitesi Sağlık Hizmetleri Araştırma ve Uygulama Hastanesi (30 kişi), Sivas Numune Hastanesi (120 kişi) ve Aile Sağlığı Merkezlerinde (Alibaba, Aydoğan, Çarşıbaşı vb. (450 kişi)) sağlık personeli oluşturmuştur. Araştırmanın örneklemi ise 26.11.2015/25.02.2016 tarihlerinde Sivas ili merkezindeki Doğum ve Kadın Hastalıkları ile ilgili hastanelerin (Cumhuriyet Üniversitesi Sağlık Hizmetleri Araştırma ve Uygulama Hastanesi, Sivas Numune Hastanesi) bölümleri ve Aile Sağlığı Merkezlerinde çalışan, çalışmaya katılmaya kabul eden 233 sağlık çalışanı oluşturmuştur.

Araştırmanın Uygulanması – Verilerin Toplanması - Araştırmanın verileri araştırmacılar tarafından literatür bilgisi doğrultusunda oluşturulan demografik bilgiler ile internet kullanımının değerlendirildiği anket formu, sanal kaytarma ölçeği ve örgütsel adalet algısı ölçeği ile toplanmıştır. Araştırmanın yapılabilmesi için Cumhuriyet Üniversitesi Girişimsel Olmayan Klinik Araştırmalar Etik Kurulu'ndan (No: 2015-10/12) ve ilgili kurumlardan izin alınmıştır. Veriler, araştırmacılar tarafından 26.11.2015/25.02.2016 tarihleri arasında gönüllü olarak çalışmaya katılmayı kabul eden sağlık personeline yüz yüze görüşme tekniği ile anket uygulanarak toplanmıştır.

Sosyo-Demografik Veriler: Bu bölümde yaşı, cinsiyeti, mesleği, eğitim düzeyi vb. 7 soru yer almaktadır. İnternet Kullanımı İle İlgili Değişkenleri İnceleyen Veriler**:** Bu bölümde ise kaç yıldır internet kullandığı, işyerindeki odasında kullandığı internet bağlantısını daha çok hangi kaynaktan sağladığı, kendi internet kullanma becerilerini nasıl değerlendirdiği gibi 11 soru yer almaktadır.

Sanal Kaytarma Ölçeği: Ölçek, Lim (2002) tarafından ve daha sonra Blanchard ve Henle (2008) tarafından geliştirilmiştir. Önemli ve önemsiz sanal kaytarma faaliyetlerinin varlığına ilişkin algıları ölçmektedir. Blanchart ve Henle'nin (2008) çalışmasında, önemsiz sanal kaytarma davranışları (9 madde) ve ciddi sanal kaytarma davranışları (8 madde) olmak üzere 2 faktör ortaya çıktığı görülmüştür. Bu çalışmada Lim'in (2002), Blanchard ve Henle'nin (2008), Özkalp vd. (2012) çalışmalarından yararlanarak Yıldız ve arkadaşlarının (2015) uyarladıkları ve geçerliliğini yaptıkları ölçekten yararlanılmıştır. Sanal kaytarma davranışlarını ölçmek için beşli likert (1=hiçbir zaman, 5=her zaman) tipi 14 sorudan oluşmaktadır. 1-8 numaralı sorular önemli sanal kaytarma faaliyetlerini, 9-14 numaralı sorular ise önemsiz sanal kaytarma faaliyetlerini ifade etmektedir. Ölçeğin Cronbach α değerleri 0,885'dir. Araştırmamızda ise Cronbach alfa güvenilirlik katsayısı sanal kaytarma ölçeği için 0,849 olarak saptanmıştır (<0,70).

Örgütsel Adalet Algısı Ölçeği: Çalışanların örgütsel adalet algılarını ölçmek için Niehoff ve Moorman'ın (1993) tarafından geliştirilmiş olan ölçek (22 madde), Yıldız ve arkadaşları (2015) tarafından uyarlanmış ve geçerliliği yapılmıştır (18 madde). 1-5 numaralı sorular dağıtımsal adalet algısını, 6-9 numaralı sorular işlemsel adalet algısını, 10-18 numaralı sorular ise etkileşimsel adalet algısını ifade etmektedir. Ölçek 5'li likert tipi olup yapısı 1=kesinlikle katılmıyorum, 2=katılmıyorum, 3=ne katılıyorum ne de katılmıyorum, 4=katılıyorum, 5=kesinlikle katılıyorum şeklinde düzenlenmiştir. Ölçeğin Cronbach α değeri 0,926'dır. Araştırmamızda ise Cronbach alfa güvenilirlik katsayısı örgütsel adalet ölçeği için 0,910 olarak saptanmıştır (<0,70).

Verilerin Değerlendirilmesi - Elde edilen veriler SPSS 22.0 programına yüklenerek verilerin değerlendirilmesinde sayı, yüzdelik dağılım, sanal kaytarma ve örgütsel adalet arasındaki ilişkiler için Pearson korelasyon analizi, örgütsel adaletin sanal kaytarma üzerindeki etkisi için çoklu regresyon analizi kullanılmıştır. İstatistiksel anlamlılık düzeyi $p<0.05$ olarak kabul edilmiştir.

3.BULGULAR

Bu bölümde sağlık çalışanlarının sanal kaytarma davranışlarının örgütsel adaletten ne derece etkilendiği ve aralarındaki ilişki SPSS programı ile belirlenmiştir. Bu bölümde elde edilen analizlerin sonuçlar yer almaktadır.

Araştırmaya katılan toplam 233 sağlık çalışanı sosyo-demografik özelliklerine göre dağılımı Tablo 1'de verilmiştir. Buna göre katılımcıların %50.2'sinin 29-38 yaş grubunda olduğu, %80.7'sinin kadın, %39.9'unun lisans mezunu olduğu, %44.6'sının ebelerden oluştuğu, %95.7'sinin pozisyonunun memur olduğu, %36.5'inin pozisyonda çalışma süresinin 11-15 yıl arası olduğu, %43.3'ünün kurumda çalışma süresinin 1-5 yıl arasında olduğu saptanmıştır.

Tablo 1: Sağlık Çalışanlarının Sosyo-Demografik Özelliklerine Göre Dağılımı

	Frekans	Yüzde		Frekans	Yüzde
Yaş			**Meslek**		
19-28			Doktor	33	14.2
29-38	71	30.5	Hemşire	81	34.8
39-48	117	50.2	Ebe	104	44.6
49 ve üzeri	34	14.6	Sağlık memuru	2	0.9
	11	4.7	Laborant	5	2.1
			Sağlık teknisyeni/teknikeri	8	3.4
Cinsiyet			**Pozisyonda Çalışma Süresi**		
Kadın	188	80.7	1-5 yıl arası	36	15.5
Erkek	45	19.3	6-10 yıl arası	83	35.6
			11-15 yıl arası	85	36.5
			16 yıl ve üzeri	29	12.4
Eğitim Durumu			**Kurumda Çalışma süresi**		
Lise	75	32.2	1-5 yıl arası	101	43.3
Önlisans	65	27.9	6-10 yıl arası	100	42.9
Lisans	93	39.9	11-15 yıl arası	23	9.9
			16 yıl ve üzeri	9	3.9
Meslek Pozisyonu					
Memur	223	95.7			
Yönetici	10	4.3			
Toplam	**233**	**100.0**	**Toplam**	**233**	**100.0**

Tablo 2: Sağlık Çalışanlarının İnternet Kullanım Durumlarının Dağılımı (n:233)

İnternet Kullanım Durumları		**n**	**%**
İnternet kullanım süresi	1-5 yıl	42	18.0
	6-10 yıl	109	46.8
	10 yıldan fazla	82	35.2
Daha çok kullandığı internet bağlantı kaynağı	Kurum	98	42.1
	Özel hat	135	57.9
İnternet kullanma becerisi	Başlangıç	11	4.7
	Orta	150	64.4
	İleri	72	30.9
İnternet kullanım sıklığı	Hergün	174	74.7
	Haftada	8	3.4
	Birkaç gün	51	21.9
İnternette geçirilen günlük saat	Bir saatten az	89	38.2
	Bir saatten fazla	144	61.8
İnternete kesintisiz bağlı kalma süresi	Bir saatten az	137	58.8
	Bir saatten fazla	96	41.2
Facebook, twitter gibi sosyal paylaşım sitelerine üyelik	Evet	205	88.0
	Hayır	28	12.0
Sosyal medya üzerinden çeşitli paylaşımlarda bulunma (resim,	Evet	195	83.7

video, mesaj vb.)	Hayır	38	16.3
Herhangi bir e-posta grubuna üye olma	Evet	177	76.0
	Hayır	56	24.0
İnternete bağlanma gerekçesinden uzaklaşarak (bilerek ya da bilmeyerek) internette farklı konularla ilgilenme	Evet	44	18.9
	Hayır	95	40.8
	Bazen	94	40.3
Mesai saatleri içerisinde internet üzerinde işiniz ile ilgisi olmayan bir uğraş içerisinde olmak kabul edilebilir bir durum	Evet	26	11.2
	Hayır	81	34.8
	Kısmen	126	54.1

Tablo 2'de araştırmaya katılan sağlık çalışanlarının 6-10 yıl arasında internet kullandıkları (%46.8), işyerinde odalarında kullandıkları internet kaynağını daha çok özel hatlarından sağladıkları (%57.9), kendi internet kullanım becerilerini orta düzeyde buldukları (%64.4), her gün interneti kullandıkları (%74.7), zamanlarının günde bir saatten fazlasını internette geçirdikleri (%61.8), internete bir saatten az kesintisiz bağlı kaldıkları (%58.8), facebook, twitter gibi sosyal paylaşım sitelerine üye olanların büyük çoğunlukta olduğu (%88), sosyal medya üzerinden çeşitli paylaşımlarda bulundukları (%83.7), herhangi bir e-posta grubuna dahil oldukları (%76), internete bağlanma gerekçelerinden uzaklaşarak internette farklı konularla ilgilenmedikleri (%40.8), (ancak "bazen" olarak belirtenlerin oranı (40.3) da oldukça yüksektir), mesai saatleri içerisinde işle ilgisi olmayan bir uğraş içerisinde olmanın kısmen kabul edilebilir bir durum olduğunu (%54.1) belirttikleri saptanmıştır.

Tablo 3: Sağlık Çalışanlarının Sanal Kaytarma ve Örgütsel Adalet Algısı Düzeyleri ve İlişkisi

		Ort.	Std. S.		Korelasyonlar			
				1	2	3	4	5
1	Önemli sanal kaytarma	2.73	0.61	**(0.741)**				
2	Önemsiz sanal kaytarma	2.59	0.84	.623**	**(0,798)**			
3	Dağıtımsal Adalet	2.53	0.71	-.021	.042	**(0.768)**		
4	İşlemsel Adalet	3.00	0.88	.023	-0.174**	.245**	**(0.866)**	
5	Etkileşimsel Adalet	3.08	0.83	.099	,037	.275**	.582**	**(0.936)**

**p < 0.01, N=233, parantez içindeki değerler α= Cronbach alfa güvenilirlik değerini göstermektedir.

Sağlık çalışanlarının önemli ve önemsiz sanal kaytarma düzeylerinin orta düzeyde olduğu görülmektedir. Bununla birlikte katımcıların önemli sanal kaytarma ($\bar{X}$=2.73) düzeyleri önemsiz sanal kaytarma ($\bar{X}$=2.59) düzeyinden daha yüksek bulunmuştur. Benzer bir şekilde katılımcıların örgütsel adalet boyutlarının da orta düzeyde (etkileşimsel ($\bar{X}$=3.08), işlemsel ($\bar{X}$=3.00) ve dağıtımsal adalet ($\bar{X}$=2.53)) olduğu saptanmıştır. Sanal kaytarma ve örgütsel adalet boyutları arasındaki ilişki incelendiğinde, önemsiz sanal kaytarma ile işlemsel adalet (r= -0,174), arasında negatif ve anlamlı düşük oranda korelasyon bulunmuştur.

Tablo 4: Örgütsel Adaletin Önemli Sanal Kaytarma Üzerine Etkisi

Model I Bağımsız Değişkenler	Standardize Edilmemiş Katsayılar		Standardize edilmiş	t değeri	Anlam Düzeyi	İç İlişki İstatistikleri	
	B	Standart Hata	Beta			Tolerans Değeri	VIF değeri
Sabit	21.004	1.542		13.621	.000		
1.Dağıtımsal Adalet	-.066	.094	-.048	-.698	.486	.913	1.095

2.İşlemsel Adalet	-.064	.112	-.046	-.571	.569	.654	1.530
3.Etkileşimsel Adalet	.090	.053	.139	1.695	.091	.643	1.556
R	.117						
R^2	.014						
Düzeltilmiş R^2	.001						
Tahmini standart hata2	4.88380						
$F_{(3-233)}$	1.056						
Anlam düzeyi	.369						
Durbin-Watson	1.319						

Bağımsız değişkenler olan örgütsel adalet boyutlarının bağımlı değişken olan önemli sanal kaytarma üzerinde etkilerinin çoklu regresyon analizi yardımıyla test edildiği görülmektedir (Tablo 4) VIF değerleri 1.095 ila 1.556 arasında değişmekte ve bu değerler en üst sınır olan 10'dan çok düşüktür. En düşük tolerans değeri 0.643 olup, en alt sınır değer olan 0.10'dan yüksektir. Bu yüzden çoklu bağıntı sorunu ile karşılaşılmamıştır. Ayrıca Durbin-Watson katsayısı 1,319 olduğundan ve bu değer 2'den düşük olduğundan oto korelasyon sorununa rastlanmamıştır. Regresyon analizi bulguları istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı değildir (R^2=0.014; $F_{(3-233)}$ = 1.056; p>0.05).

Bu modelde bağımsız değişken olarak örgütsel adalet boyutlarının önemli sanal kaytarmaya ilişkin varyansın %1'ini açıklamaktadır. Modelin bulguları incelendiğinde örgütsel adalet boyutlarından etkileşimsel adaletin (β = -0.139; p>0.05) önemli sanal kaytarma üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı olmayan bir etkiye sahip olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Dolayısıyla H1c hipotezleri ret edilmiştir. Öte yandan dağıtımsal(β = -0,048; p>0.05) ve işlemsel adaletin (β= -0.046; p> 0.05) önemli sanal kaytarma üzerinde negatif ama anlamlı olmayan bir etkiye sahip olduğu gözlenmiştir. Bu bulgulara göre H1a ve H1b hipotezleri de desteklenmemektedir.

Tablo 5: Örgütsel Adaletin Önemsiz Sanal Kaytarma Üzerine Etkisi

Model II Bağımsız Değişkenler	**Standardize Edilmemiş Katsayılar**		**Standardize edilmiş**	**t değeri**	**Anlam Düzeyi**	**İç İlişki İstatistikleri**	
	B	**Standart Hata**	**Beta**			**Tolerans Değeri**	**VIF değeri**
Sabit	15.999	1.555		10.286	.000		
1.Dağıtımsal Adalet	.089	.095	.062	.930	.353	.913	1.095
2.İşlemsel Adalet	-.432	.113	-.303	-3.833	**.000**	.654	1.530
3.EtkileşimselAdalet	.131	.053	.196	2.457	**.015**	.643	1.556
R	.250						
R^2	.063						
Düzeltilmiş R^2	.050						
Tahmini standart hata2	492634						
$F_{(3-233)}$	5096						
Anlam düzeyi	.002						
Durbin-Watson	1.428						

Bağımsız değişkenler olan örgütsel adalet boyutlarının bağımlı değişken olan önemsiz sanal kaytarma üzerinde etkilerinin çoklu regresyon analizi yardımıyla test edildiği görülmektedir (Tablo5) VIF değerleri 1.095 ila 1.556 arasında değişmekte ve bu değerler en üst sınır olan 10'dan çok düşüktür. En düşük tolerans değeri 0.643 olup, en alt sınır değer olan 0.10'dan yüksektir. Bu yüzden çoklu bağıntı sorunu ile karşılaşılmamıştır. Durbin-Watson katsayısı 1.428 olduğundan ve bu değer 2'den düşük olduğundan otokorelasyon sorununa rastlanmamıştır. Regresyon analizi bulguları istatistiksel açıdan anlamlıdır (R^2=0.063; $F_{(3-233)}$ = 5.096; p<0.05).

Bu modelde bağımsız değişken olarak örgütsel adalet boyutlarının önemsiz sanal kaytarmaya ilişkin varyansın %6'sını açıklamaktadır. Modelin bulguları incelendiğinde örgütsel adalet boyutlarından etkileşimsel adaletin (β= 0.196; p< 0.05) beklenilenin aksine önemsiz sanal kaytarma üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olduğu saptanmıştır. Dolayısıyla H2c hipotezi ret edilmiştir. Diğer taraftan işlemsel adaletin (β= -0.303; p<0.001) önemsiz sanal kaytarma üzerinde negatif ve

anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olduğu saptanmıştır. Dağıtımsal adaletin ise (β = 0.062; p> 0.05) önemsiz sanal kaytarma üzerinde pozitif ama anlamlı olmayan bir etkiye sahip olduğu gözlenmiştir. Dolayısıyla H2b hipotezi kabul edilirken, H2a hipotezi reddedilmektedir.

Tablo 6: Örgütsel Adaletin Sanal Kaytarma Üzerindeki Etkileri

Model III Bağımsız Değişkenler	**Standardize Edilmemiş Katsayılar**		**Standardize edilmiş**	**t değeri**	**Anlam Düzeyi**
	B	**Standart Hata**	**Beta**		
Sabit	36.431	2.729		13.351	.000
Örgütsel Adalet	.020	.051	.026	.394	.694
R	.026				
R^2	.001				
Düzeltilmiş R^2	-.004				
Tahmini standart hata	8.97077				
$F_{(1-233)}$	.155				
Anlam düzeyi	.694				

*p< 0.05. **p< 0.01; Bağımlı Değişken: Sanal Kaytarma

Örgütsel adaletin bağımsız değişken, sanal kaytarmanın bağımlı değişken olduğu Model III basit regresyon analizi ile test edilmiştir (Tablo 6). Basit regresyon analizi bulgularına göre Model III istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı değildir (R^2=.001; $F_{(1-233)}$ = 0.155 p>0.05). Bu modelde bağımsız değişken örgütsel adaletin sanal kaytarmadaki varyansın %0,01'ini açıklamaktadır. Basit regresyon analizi sonuçları incelendiğinde örgütsel adaletin sanal kaytarma üzerinde pozitif ancak anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olmadığı tespit edilmiştir (β = 0.026; p>0.05) Söz konusu bulgular dikkate alındığında H3 hipotezi ret edilmiştir.

4.TARTIŞMA

Bu bölümde araştırma kapsamında elde edilen bulguları ile ilişkili çalışmalar yer almaktadır. Çalışmamız sonuçları doğrultusunda diğer çalışmaların bulgularına ilişkili bir şekilde yer verilmiştir.

Sanal kaytarma kurumlar için son derece zararlı olabilir ve verimlilik kayıplarına neden olabilir. Ancak, sanal kaytarmanın kişisel gelişim fırsatlarına, üretkenlik artışına ve eşsiz öğrenme fırsatlarına vurgu yapılarak faydalı yanlarının da olabileceği belirtilmiştir (Keklik vd., 2015). Kim ve Byrne (2011) sanal kaytarmanın kısmen de olsa öz-kontrol eksikliği ile ilgili olduğunu belirtmiştir. Blanchard ve Henle (2008), sanal kaytarmayı önemli ve önemsiz sanal kaytarma olarak ikiye ayırmıştır. Önemli sanal kaytarmada çalışanlar, kullandıkları sitelerin kendileri için ne kadar tehlikeli olduklarını ve bunun getireceği kanuni yükümlülükleri de bilseler bile kaytarma aktivitelerinde bulunmaya devam etmektedirler (Yıldız ve ark., 2015). Önemsiz sanal kaytarmada e-mail teknolojisinin ve internetin yaygın bir biçimde kullanım alanları sıralanmaktadır. Örneğin, e-mail almak veya göndermek, haber kanallarına girip haber indirmek, spor ve finans sitelerine girmek ve bunları okumak gibi aktivitelerdir (Blanchard ve Henle, 2008). Ancak bu davranışlar örgütün verimliliğini etkileyebileceğinden tamamen tolere edilebilecek iş davranışları değildir (Özkalp ve ark., 2012). Önemsiz sanal kaytarma eylemlerinde bulunan çalışanlar bu kaytarmayı olağan bir durum olarak karşılamakta ve bu kaytarmanın işletme kaynaklarına zarar vermediğini düşündükleri ifade edilmektedir (Örücü ve Yıldız, 2014). Lim ve Chen (2012) araştırmalarında internette sörf yapma aktivitelerinin çalışanların duygularını pozitif olarak etkilediği, çalışanın zihnini canlandırdığı ve böylece çalışanın üretkenliğine katkıda bulunduğunu saptamışlardır. İnce ve Gül (2011) araştırmalarında içsel kontrol odağına sahip olan çalışanların önemsiz sanal kaytarma davranışlarının, iş performansını artırdığı ve bu şekilde çalışanların işten ayrılma niyetlerinin azaldığını saptamışlardır. Çalışmamızda sağlık çalışanlarının sanal kaytarma düzeyleri incelendiğinde katılımcıların önemli sanal kaytarma ($\bar{X}$=2,73) düzeyleri önemsiz sanal kaytarma ($\bar{X}$=2,59) düzeyinden daha yüksek bulunmuştur. Bununla birlikte önemli ve önemsiz sanal kaytarma düzeyleri orta düzeydedir. Ayrıca örgütsel adalet düzeyleri de orta düzeyde olduğu saptanmıştır. Sanal kaytarma ve örgütsel adalet boyutları arasındaki ilişkiler incelendiğinde, sadece önemsiz sanal kaytarma ile işlemsel adalet arasında negatif ve anlamlı düşük oranda ilişki bulunmuştur.

Örgütsel adalet algılamaları ile sanal kaytarma faaliyetleri arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen araştırmalar, ağırlıklı olarak örgütsel adalet ile sanal kaytarma arasında negatif yönlü bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır (Lim, 2002; Ahmadi ve ark, 2011). Yani örgütsel adalet algısı azaldıkça, çalışanların sanal kaytarma faaliyetleri artmaktadır. Bu noktadan hareketle örgütsel adalet algısı ile sanal kaytarma arasında negatif bir ilişki bulunduğu düşünülmektedir. Kaplan ve Öğüt (2012) araştırmalarında dağıtım, işlemsel ve etkileşim adalet ile önemsiz sanal kaytarma arasında negatif ilişki saptamıştır. Yıldız arkadaşları (2015), araştırmalarında örgütsel adalet algısının tüm boyutları ile önemli ve önemsiz sanal kaytarma davranışları arasında ilişki saptayamamışlardır. Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara (2007) çalışmasında işlemsel ve etkileşimsel adalet

ile sanal kaytarma arasında ilişki belirleyemezken, dağıtımsal adalet ile sanal kaytarma arasında pozitif bir ilişki saptamıştır. Çalışmamızda regresyon analizi bulgularına göre genel olarak örgütsel adaletin sanal kaytarma üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi saptanmamıştır. Ayrıca önemli sanal kaytarma değişkenini etkileyen örgütsel adalet alt boyutları bulunamamıştır. Örgütsel adalet boyutlarından etkileşimsel adaletin önemli sanal kaytarma üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı olmayan bir etkiye sahip olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Öte yandan dağıtımsal ve işlemsel adaletin önemli sanal kaytarma üzerinde negatif ama anlamlı olmayan bir etkiye sahip olduğu gözlenmiştir. Bu bulgulara göre örgütsel adalet boyutlarının önemli sanal kaytarma

Örgütsel adalet boyutlarından dağıtım adaleti, bireyin sosyal etkileşim ve değişimden algıladığı adaleti ifade etmektedir. Bireyler kendi girdilerini çıktıları ile karşılaştırırlar ve çıktıların adil olup olmadığını başkalarının oranlarıyla ya da standartlarla karşılaştırırlar (Nowkowski ve Conlon, 2005). Eşitlik teorisi içerisinde yer alan dağıtım adaleti ilkesine göre ilgili açılardan benzer olan bireylere benzer davranılmalı, farklı olan bireylere ise, onlar arasındaki farklar oranında farklı davranılmalıdır. Bu teorinin özü, eşit çabanın eşit sonuç getirmesi gerekliliğidir. Bir yönetici yaş, cinsiyet, din veya ırk gibi subjektif özelliklere dayalı olarak terfi ya da ödülleri dağıtmamalı ve bunun gibi olgulara dayanan sübjektif kararlar yüzünden sistematik olarak insanlara karşı ayrımcılığın olmamasını temin etmelidir (İşcan ve Sayın, 2010). Yapılan bir çalışmada dağıtım adaletinin önemli ve önemsiz sanal kaytarmayı negatif etkilediği belirlenmiştir (Kaplan ve Öğüt 2012). Çalışmamızda dağıtımsal adaletin önemsiz sanal kaytarma üzerinde pozitif ama anlamlı olmayan bir etkiye sahip olduğu gözlenmiştir. Dolayısıyla H2a hipotezi reddedilmiştir.

Örgütsel adalet boyutlarından biri olan işlemsel adalet, örgütlerde fazla veya az ödemelerden kaçınma, kurumda alınan kararlara katılım, sonuçlarla ilgili bilgi verme gibi örgütsel uygulamaların işgörenler arasında eşit yapılması olarak tanımlanabilir (Colquıtt ve Chertkoff, 2002). Kural ve yöntemlerin hakkaniyetine dönük adalet algılaması olan işlemsel adalet kazanımların belirlenmesi sürecinde kullanılmaktadır. İşlemsel adalet; kararlarda tutarlılık, önyargıdan uzaklık, doğru bilgiye dayalı kararlar, yanlış kararları düzeltme yeteneği, geçerli kurallara uyum ve kararlardan etkilenen kişilerin görüşlerinin alınması konularını kapsamaktadır (Kaplan ve Öğüt, 2012). İşlemsel adaleti uygulayan yöneticiler, yönetsel kararlardan etkilenen insanların karar verme sürecine onaylarından ve sürecin tarafsız olarak uygulandığından emin olurlar. Onay, insanların bilgilendirildikleri ve var olan sistemi seçme özgürlüğüne sahip oldukları anlamına gelir (İşcan ve Sayın, 2010). Çalışmamızda işlemsel adaletin önemsiz sanal kaytarma üzerinde negatif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olduğu saptanmıştır. Dolayısıyla H2b hipotezi kabul edilmiştir. Başka bir ifadeyle, işlemsel adalet algılaması olumsuz olduğunda önemsiz sanal kaytarma davranışı artmaktadır. Buna göre kararlara katılım ve bilgi verme olumsuz algılandığında önemsiz sanal kaytarma davranışını arttırdığı söylenebilir.

Örgütsel adaletin üçüncü boyutu olan etkileşimsel adalet ise, kural ve prosedürlerin işleyişi sırasında bireylere yapılan muamelelerin niteliği olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Etkileşimsel adaletin sağlanması için yöneticiler karar verme süreçlerinde işgörenlere karşı önyargılı yaklaşımlardan kaçınmalı, dürüst, açık, saygılı olmalı, süreçler hakkında çalışanlara gerekli açıklamaları samimi bir şekilde yapmalıdırlar (Bies, 1986; Kaplan ve Öğüt, 2012). Diğer bir ifadeyle etkileşimsel adalet yöneticilerin işgörene davranışlarını açıklamaya çalışan bir adalet biçimi olarak açıklanmaktadır (Yavuz, 2010). Çalışmamızda örgütsel adalet boyutlarından etkileşimsel adaletin beklenilenin aksine önemsiz sanal kaytarma üzerinde pozitif ve anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olduğu saptanmıştır. Dolayısıyla H2c hipotezi reddedilmiştir. Başka bir ifadeyle, etkileşimsel adalet algılaması olumlu algılandığında önemsiz sanal kaytarma davranışı artmaktadır. Buna göre bireylere yönelik muamelenin kalitesi olumlu algılandığında önemsiz sanal kaytarma davranışı arttığı söylenebilir.

5. SONUÇ VE ÖNERİLER

Bu araştırmada sağlık çalışanlarının sanal kaytarma davranışlarının örgütsel adaletten ne derece etkilendiği ve aralarındaki ilişki araştırılmıştır.

Araştırma bulgularına göre, örgütsel adalet algılamasının olumlu veya olumsuz olarak algılanması önemli sanal kaytarma davranışlarında artış veya azalışa neden olmamaktadır. Önemli sanal kaytarma davranışlarının azaltılması bir kurum için daha önemli olacağı için, örgütsel adalet algılamasının önemli sanal kaytarmayı etkilememesi iyi bir sonuçtur. Önemsiz sanal kaytarma bulguları incelendiğinde ise, çalışanlar etkileşimsel adaleti olumlu algıladıklarında, bireylere yönelik muamelenin kalitesi arttığından yöneticiden çekinmeden önemsiz sanal kaytarma davranışları göstermektedirler. Ayrıca, işlemsel adalet çalışanlar tarafından adil olarak algılanmadığında ya da kurumda alınan kararlara katılım ve sonuçlarla ilgili bilgi verme gibi örgütsel uygulamaların işgörenler arasında eşit yapılmadığı algılandığında, önemsiz sanal kaytarma davranışlarında artış görülmektedir. Buna göre çalışanlar tarafından önemsiz sanal kaytarma davranışlarını olağan bir durum olarak karşılamakta olduğunu ve bu durum örgüte zarar verici olmadığını, bireysel olarak kendilerinin gelişiminde katkı sağladığını ve iş performansına olumlu etki sağladığını düşünmelerinden kaynaklandığını söyleyebiliriz.

Sonuç olarak çalışanlar işini en iyi şekilde yapıyorsa, işinde bir aksaklığa neden olmuyorsa; örgütün amaçlarını gerçekleştirmede ve çalışanların bireysel gelişimlerinde katkısı olabilecek konularla sınırlı olmak koşuluyla; web kullanım süresinin sınırlı olması koşuluyla; iş molalarında veya işlerini tamamlamaları halinde kalan boş zamanı kullanmaları durumlarında ve sanal kaytarma önemli düzeye geçmediği sürece; çalışanların önemsiz sanal kaytarma davranışlarına

örgütün çok katı olmaması önerilebilir. Bu durum çalışanların motivasyonlarına ve bireysel kariyerlerine olumlu etkisi olabilir. Ayrıca hızla değişen bir dünyada değişiklikleri ve teknolojiyi takip etmemek, iletişim kurmamak veya mesai saatinin bitmesini beklemeden kişisel e-postalara bakmak gibi, önemsiz sanal kaytarma durumları çalışanların körelmesine neden olabilir. Bu durum örgütün gelişmesini de olumsuz etkileyebilir. Bunun yanı sıra örneğin internet üzerinden bankacılık işlemlerini yapmalarına izin vermemek kişinin örgütten izin alıp bankaya gitmesine neden olacaktır. İzin süresiyle kaybedilecek zaman ve zarar düşünüldüğünde bazı önemsiz sanal kaytarma davranışlarına izin vermek örgüte yararı dahi olabilir.

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TS EN 15224 HEALTHCARE SERVICE - THE COMPARISON OF QUALITY MANAGEMENT SYSTEM TO OTHER QUALITY SYSTEMS IN HEALTHCARE

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- The aim of the work is to find out, which quality system application could be appropriate for different kind of health service providers by also introducing the new quality management system ISO 15224 .

Methodology- The study has been done by comparing ISO 15224 Health Service Management System with ISO 9001-2008 quality management system, SKS and JCI accreditation systems by clause by clause. The summary of the findings are given as a table in the article.

Findings- The most important difference between ISO Standards, and SKS and JCI comes up in product realization clause. ISO Standards define realization of a health service offering in general. At the stage of realizing a service offering, by emphasizing the critical points, a progress is made on the basis of ISO standards. Especially clinical risk assessment and patient safety should be ignored.

Conclusion- As a result, for large hospitals intending to expand in global markets, having an accreditation and having that certification internationally should make these institutions more competitive in global health sector. At the other hand, for health institutions intending to compete on a national scale only, preferring ISO 15224 Standard, considering the examples in the literature, would be more appropriate.

Keywords: Quality management systems, ISO 15224:2012, healthcare services, quality assurance, ISO standards
JEL Codes: L15, I10, I19

TS EN 15224 SAĞLIK HİZMETLERİ KALİTE YÖNETİMİ STANDARDININ, SAĞLIK HİZMETLERİNDEKİ DİĞER KALİTE STANDARTLARI İLE KARŞILAŞTIRILMASI

ÖZET

Amaç- Çalışmanın amacı, hangi kalite sisteminin farklı sağlık hizmeti sunucularına uygun olacağını önerirken, yeni kalite yönetim sistemi olan ISO 15224'ın tanıtılmasını da sağlamaktır.

Yöntem- ISO 15224:2012 standardının ISO 9001:2008 kalite yönetim sistemi, SKS- Hastane 5. versiyon ve JCI 5. baskı akreditasyon sistemlerinin karşılaştırılması madde madde tablo olarak yapılmıştır ve özet bulgular makalede sunulmuştur.

Bulgular- ISO standartları ile SKS ve JCI standartlarını ayıran en büyük farklılık ürün gerçekleştirme maddesinde ortaya çıkmaktadır. ISO standartları sağlık hizmeti sunumunun gerçekleştirilmesini genel olarak tanımlamaktadır. Hizmetin sunulması, kritik noktalara yapılan vurgular ISO standartları açısından bir ilerlemedir. Özellikle de klinik risk değerlendirme ve hasta güvenliği göz ardı edilmemelidir.

Sonuç - Uluslararası pazara açılmayı hedef olarak belirleyen büyük hastanelerin akredite olması ve uluslararası alanda onaylanmış olması bu kurumları global sağlık sektöründe daha güçlü kılacaktır. Diğer taraftan bölgesel ya da ulusal ölçekte kalmak isteyen sağlık kuruluşları ISO 15224 standardını tercih etmeleri, literatürdeki örnekler de göz önüne alındığında daha uygun olacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kalite yönetim sistemi, ISO 15224:2012, sağlık hizmetleri, kalite güvence, ISO Standartları
JEL Kodları: L15, I10, I19

1. GİRİŞ

Sağlık kuruluşları, hayati önemi olan yönetimsel ve fonksiyonel birçok değişkeni barındırmaktadır. Bu değişkenler sağlık hizmetinin gerçekleşmesinden doğan hizmet / ürün sunumu farklılıkları ile bir araya gelince çok bilinmeyenli bir denklem ortaya çıkmaktadır. Sağlık kuruluşları, küreselleşmenin getirdiği rekabet ortamında, yönetim sistemlerini ve akreditasyonu, faaliyetlerinin temel bir parçası haline getirmiştir. Küreselleşme dünyada güçlü değişimlere yol açarken, sağlık kuruluşları, yaşam kalitesi algısının artışı ile bu sistemin en önemli parçalarından birisi olmuştur. Sağlık hizmetlerinde kalite sistemlerinin temel hedeflerinden birisi hizmet sunumu sırasında hata oluşmasını engelleyerek hastaların ve çalışanların güvenliğini sağlamaktır (Akyurt,2013). Sağlık kuruluşları yönetim sisteminde kurum kültürü, kalite ve hasta güvenliği üçlüsü birbirlerini tamamlayan unsurlardır. Sistemlerin hasta odaklı olarak geliştirilmesi için, içinde bulundukları kurum kültürü, organizasyon yapısı ve yönetim anlayışının da hasta odaklı olarak oluşturulması gerekmektedir. Bu nedenle yönetim sistemlerinin sağlık kuruluşlarında hasta odaklı olması ve insan hatalarını önleyecek şekilde kurulması önem kazanmıştır (Çakır,2007).

Kalite kelimesi günlük hayatımızda yaygın olarak kullanılmaktadır; yapılan işin kalitesi, yemeğin kalitesi veya kaliteli bir ürün. Genelde kalite kavramı kullanıldığı zaman, ilgili ürünün veya hizmetin iyi olduğu anlamına gelmektedir. Birçok bilim insanı ve kurumlar kendi kalite tanımlarını ortaya koymaktadırlar, örneğin bir hizmetin ya da ürünün var olan gerekliliklere ya da standartlara gösterdiği uyum, bir başka kalite tanımıdır (Domittner,2003).

Kalite kavramı üretim ve hizmet sektörleri için farklı şekillerde ele alınmaktadır. Üretim sektöründe genelde önce ürünler üretilmekte ve müşterinin önemi son kademede artmaktadır. Fakat hizmet sektöründe müşteri ile genelde bir anlaşma yapılıp üretim ve tüketim hemen hemen aynı anda gerçekleşmektedir. Hizmet açısından kalite kavramı ele alındığında hizmet kalitesinde bir denge üçgeni söz konusu olmaktadır. Bu üçgen üç bileşenden oluşmaktadır bunlar, insan, çevre ve süreçlerdir. Bu bileşenlerden herhangi birine ağırlık veya öncelik vermek kaliteyi etkileyecektir. Sağlıkta kalite uzmanı olan ABD'li Donabedian'a göre "Sağlık hizmetlerinde kalite, teknik kişiler ve çevresel etkenlerin bir ürünüdür." Bu yaklaşım İngiltere'deki Ulusal Sağlık Hizmetleri sisteminin düzeltilmesi için de resmen kabul gören bir yaklaşımdır (Yazgan,2009).

Bütün bu gelişmeler sağlık sektöründe kalite yönetim sistemleri ve akreditasyonun, sağlık kuruluşlarının büyüklükleri, fonksiyonları ve ihtiyaçlarına göre şekillendirilmesini gündeme getirmiştir. Bu doğrultuda kalite sistemlerinin popüler olması ya da rekabet açısından ayrıcalıklar yaratması bir yana, uygulanabilirlik açısından değerlendirilerek kullanılması ile ilgili tartışmalar gündemdedir. Bununla beraber kalite sistemlerinin tüm sağlık sunucularında kullanılması dönemi geride bırakılmalıdır.

Çalışmanın temelini oluşturan unsurlardan sağlık hizmeti sunucuların tanımlanması ilk aşamayı oluşturmaktadır. Sağlık sektöründe aktif olarak kullanılan kalite yönetim sistemlerine yer verilirken beraberinde de yeni olan ISO 15224 kalite yönetim sistemi hakkında bilgi verilmiştir. Aynı zamanda yurt dışındaki uygulamalar da incelenmiştir. Sağlık hizmeti sektöründe uygulanan kalite yönetim sistemleri ile ISO 15224 kalite yönetim sistemi madde madde kıyaslanmıştır. Bu kıyaslamaların sonuçları da bulgular ve tartışma kısmında yer almıştır.

2. LİTERATÜR ÇALIŞMASI

Son 30 yılda sağlık hizmeti kuruluşlarının birçoğu kalite iyileştirme aktivitelerini yaygın olarak uygulamaktadır. Kalite, kalite güvence ve kalite yönetimi kavramları sağlık hizmeti sunucuları için önemli başlıklar haline gelmiştir. Sistematik ve sürekli iyileştirme sağlık hizmeti sunucularının kalite uygulamasındaki başarılarına ön ayak olmuştur. Kalite sistemlerinin sağlık alanındaki rolü gittikçe gelişmektedir. İnsanların günümüzde kalite arayışı içinde olmaları dünyadaki sağlık kurumlarını da bu doğrultuda aynı arayışa sürüklemiştir. Kalite süreci bir döngü olarak başlamalı, değerlendirilmeli, geliştirilmeli ve gözlemlenmelidir (Rad,2005)

Yapılmış olan çalışmalarda, araştırmalarda ve raporlarda sağlık hizmeti sunucuları kavramı sıkça yer almaktadır. Türkiye'de bulunan sağlık hizmeti sunucuları Sağlık Bakanlığınca sınıflandırılmıştır. Bu sınıflandırmaya göre (SGK,2013);

Sağlık Kuruluşları

İ - Birinci basamak resmi sağlık kuruluşu

> Sağlık Bakanlığına bağlı birinci basamak sağlık kuruluşları, kamu idareleri bünyesindeki kurum hekimlikleri, 112 acil sağlık hizmeti birimi, üniversitelerin mediko-sosyal birimleri, Türk Silahlı Kuvvetlerinin birinci basamak sağlık üniteleri, belediyelere ait poliklinikler.

ii - Birinci basamak özel sağlık kuruluşu

> İş yeri hekimlikleri, "Ayakta Teşhis ve Tedavi Yapılan Özel Sağlık Kuruluşları Hakkında Yönetmelik" kapsamında açılan özel poliklinikler, "Ağız ve Diş Sağlığı Hizmeti Sunulan Özel Sağlık Kuruluşları Hakkında Yönetmelik" kapsamında açılan ağız ve diş sağlığı hizmeti veren özel sağlık kuruluşları.

iii - Serbest eczaneler

6197 sayılı Eczacılar ve Eczaneler Hakkında Kanun kapsamında serbest faaliyet gösteren ve birinci basamak sağlık kuruluşu olan eczaneler.

Sağlık Kurumları

i - İkinci basamak resmi sağlık kurumu

Eğitim ve araştırma hastanesi olmayan devlet hastaneleri ve dal hastaneleri ile bu hastanelere bağlı semt poliklinikleri, entegre ilçe devlet hastaneleri, Sağlık Bakanlığına bağlı ağız ve diş sağlığı merkezleri, Türk Silahlı Kuvvetlerinin eğitim ve araştırma hastanesi olmayan hastaneleri, belediyelere ait hastaneler ile kamu kurumlarına ait tıp merkezleri ve dal merkezleri, İstanbul Valiliği Darülaceze Müessesesi Müdürlüğü Hastanesi.

ii - İkinci basamak özel sağlık kurumu

"Özel Hastaneler Yönetmeliği" ne göre ruhsat almış hastaneler, "Ayakta Teşhis ve Tedavi Yapılan Özel Sağlık Kuruluşları Hakkında Yönetmelik" kapsamında açılan tıp merkezleri ile "Ayakta Teşhis ve Tedavi Yapılan Özel Sağlık Kuruluşları Hakkında Yönetmelik" in geçici ikinci maddesine göre faaliyetlerine devam eden tıp merkezleri ve dal merkezleri.

iii - Üçüncü basamak resmi sağlık kurumu

Sağlık Bakanlığına bağlı eğitim ve araştırma hastaneleri ve özel dal eğitim ve araştırma hastaneleri ile bu hastanelere bağlı semt poliklinikleri, üniversite hastaneleri ile bu hastanelere bağlı sağlık uygulama ve araştırma merkezleri, enstitüler ve semt poliklinikleri, üniversitelerin diş hekimliği fakülteleri, Türk Silahlı Kuvvetlerine bağlı tıp fakültesi hastanesi ile eğitim ve araştırma hastaneleri.

Sağlık hizmet sunumu bakımından basamaklandırılamayan sağlık kurumları/kuruluşları

- ✓ Diyaliz merkezleri ve Sağlık Bakanlığından ruhsatlı diğer özelleşmiş tedavi merkezleri
- ✓ Türkiye Halk Sağlığı Kurumu Merkez Laboratuvarları (Refik Saydam Hıfzıssıhha Laboratuvarları)
- ✓ Tanı, tetkik ve görüntüleme merkezleri ile laboratuvarlar.
- ✓ Sağlık hizmet sunumu bakımından basamaklandırılamayan diğer sağlık hizmeti sunucuları
- ✓ Optisyenlik müesseseleri
- ✓ Tıbbi cihaz ve malzeme tedarikçileri
- ✓ Kaplıcalar

Kalite yönetim süreci üst yönetim planı, hedef ve stratejileri doğrultusunda belirlenir. Kuruluşlarda hedeflenen amaçlara ulaşabilmek için faaliyetlerin belirli bir sistem dâhilinde düzenlenmesi ve uygulanması gerekmektedir. Kalite yönetiminin uygulanması için gerekli örgüt yapısı, sorumluluklar, prosedürler, süreçler ve kaynaklar önem arz etmektedir. Üst yönetimin oluşturduğu kalite politikasına uygun olarak bir kalite yönetim sistemi kurulmakta ve faaliyete geçirilmektedir. Kalite yönetim sisteminin temel hedefi ortaya çıkan sorunları önlemek yerine sorunların ortaya çıkmadan önce önlenmesi şekilde kurulmasıdır. Kalite yönetim sisteminin ilkeleri etkili ve verimli bir kalite yönetim sistemi kurmak ve standardın şartlarının ötesine geçip başarılı olmak isteyen kuruluşlar için gerekli ilkeleri içermektedir. Bu temel ilkeler; müşteri odaklılık, liderlik, çalışanların katılımı, süreç yaklaşımı, yönetime sistem yaklaşımı, sürekli iyileştirme ve karar vermede gerçekçi yaklaşım olarak sıralanmaktadır (Taşçı ve arkd.,2013).

Ülkemizde sağlık kurumlarında en çok kullanılan kalite yönetim sistemleri; ISO, JCI (Joint Commision International) ve SKS (Sağlıkta Kalite Standartları)'dir. Akredite Hastaneler Derneği'nin verilerine göre Türkiye'deki JCI akreditasyonuna sahip sağlık kuruluşlarının sayısı 2012 yılı itibari ile 42, hastanelerin sayısı 37, klinik laboratuvar sayısı 3, ayakta tedavi hizmeti veren kuruluş sayısı 1 ve nakil hizmeti veren sağlık kuruluşu sayısı 1 olarak gösterilmiştir (JCI,2016). Diğer taraftan Türkiye'de ISO 9001:2008 belgeli yaklaşık 100 hastane (2013 yılı) , ISO 15224:2012 belgeli 1 hastane (2015 yılı) , SKS uygulayan 935 (2015 yılı) hastane bulunmaktadır (Budak,2014).

ISO standartları genel olarak uygulanan 9001 modelinden sıyırıp daha özelleşmeye, her endüstri için kritik noktalara vurgu yapacak şekilde yeni standartlar üzerinde çalışıyor. ISO 9001 standardı her türlü kurum, ürün ve hizmet için uygulanabilir olsa da uygulama esnasında maddelerin doğru yoruma ihtiyacı olduğu için bazı karışıklıklar gündem olabiliyordu. Bu nedenle öncelikle özellikli ürün ve hizmetler için farklı spesifik standartlar geliştirildi. Gıda, laboratuvar hizmetleri, bilgi güvenliği, tıbbi cihaz vb. sektörler örnek olarak gösterilebilir.

Sektörlere yönelik standart çalışmaları ile birlikte CEN/TC 362 Teknik Komitenin (Sağlıkta kalite yönetim sistemi proje komitesi) on yıllık çalışması sonucunda Aralık 2012 yılında DIN EN 15224 (DIN; Standardizasyon için Alman Enstitüsü, EN ;

Avrupa Normu) ortaya çıktı. DIN EN 15224 tek başına kullanılan ve sertifikalandırılan bir norm olarak sağlık sektöründe yerini aldı. Yeni normun çıkışındaki asıl nedeni tüm dünyada kullanılan DIN EN ISO 9001 Kalite Yönetim – Normu'unun sağlık sektörüne transferi sırasında yaşanan sorunlardan kaynaklı idi. (Weinmar ve Neuer,2013).

DIN EN 15224'ün tanıdık gelen kısımları, DIN EN ISO 9001 ile aynı ana başlıkları ve bununla beraber kurumların artık ezberlediği sekiz temel cümleyi de içermesidir. Bunlar; müşteri odaklılık, liderlik, çalışanların eğitimi, süreç yönetimi, sistem odaklı yönetim yaklaşımı, sürekli iyileştirme, ürün gerçekleştirme, ölçme ve analiz. Bu proses yaklaşım felsefesi ile üç farklı proses sağlık sektörü için eklendi. Bu prosesler; Klinik prosesi, Araştırma ve Eğitim şeklindedir. Bu yeni prosesler arasında DIN EN 15224 normun kalbi klinik proses olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Hasta bakımını ön planda tutan tüm sağlık meslek gruplarını ilgilendiren bir süreci kapsamaktadır (Sens,2013). Standardın uygulama alanları, sağlık kurumlarında organizasyon yapısına, büyüklüğüne ve hizmet tipine bakmaksızın uygulanabilir. Uygulama alanını daha fazla açmak gerekirse, birinci basamak sağlık hizmeti sunucusuna, hastane öncesi ve hasta bakımı sürecine, üçüncü basamağa, bakımevlerine, koruyucu sağlık hizmeti veren servislerine, ağız ve diş sağlığı servislerine, psikoterapiye, meslek hastalıkları servislerine ve eczanelere yer verilebilir (TSE,2013).

3. VERİ VE YÖNTEM

Sağlık hizmetleri için hazırlanmış olan EN 15224 standardın, risk yönetimini ve hasta hakları konularını özellikle yönetim sistemine dâhil ederek küresel bir tasarıma sahip olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Bu çalışmada; sunulmakta olan yeni standart ile sağlık alanında uygulamada bulunan ISO 9001:2008 Kalite Yönetim Sistemi, Sağlıkta Kalite Standartları (SKS) - Hastane 5. versiyon ve Joint Commision International (JCI) 5. baskı akreditasyon sistemlerinin karşılaştırılmalarını yapmak ve hastanelerde kalite yönetim sistemi ile ilgili karar vericilere veri kaynağı oluşturulması amaçlanmıştır.

Araştırmada, 2012 yılında yayınlanan EN 15224 Sağlık Hizmetlerinde Kalite Yönetim Sistemi isimli standardın sağlıkta mevcut olarak uygulanan ISO 9001-2008, Sağlıkta Kalite Standartları (SKS) - Hastane 5. versiyon ve Joint Commision International (JCI) 5. baskı çalışmaları yerine veya beraberinde kullanılıp kullanılamayacağı tartışması merkeze konulmuştur.

Bu çalışma, tanımlayıcı tipte bir araştırmadır. Nitel yöntem kullanılmıştır. Kuramsal çerçevenin açıklanması için literatür araştırması yapıldı. ISO EN 15224 Sağlık Hizmetlerinde Kalite Yönetim Sistemi Standardının maddeleri ISO 9001:2008 Joint Commision 5. versiyonu ve Sağlıkta Kalite Standartları - Hastane 5. versiyonu ile madde madde tablo halinde karşılaştırılmış ve açıklanmıştır.

4. BULGULAR VE TARTIŞMA

ISO 15224, ISO 9001, JCI ve SKS Kalite Yönetim Sistemlerinin standart maddelerinin karşılaştırılması madde madde yapılmıştır. Bu karşılaştırma tablosu ile çalışmaya konu olan kalite yönetim sistemleri arasındaki farklılıklar ve benzerlikler daha net bir şekilde gözlemlenebilmektedir. Standartlar birbirleri ile tam olarak örtüşmese de genel olarak sistemlerin planlanması, uygulanması, kontrol edilmesi ve performanslarının ölçülmesi şeklindeki temel PUKÖ döngüsüne hepsi uymaktadır. Standartların genel özelliklerinin karşılaştırılması aşağıda açıklanırken temel olarak 6 ana standart maddesi üzerinden gidilerek yapılmıştır; giriş kısmı, kalite yönetim sisteminin uygulanması, yönetimin sorumluluğu, kaynak yönetimi, ürün gerçekleştirme ve ölçme, analiz ve iyileştirme açısından Bu kapsamda elde edilen özet tablolar aşağıdaki gibidir,

Tablo 1: Standart Maddelerin Özet Karşılaştırmaları-1

ISO 15224	ISO 9001	JCI	SKS
Terimler – Sağlık temelli	Terimler – Genel	Terimler- İlgili sağlık içerikleri altında	Terimler – Giriş kısmı öncesinde sağlık terimleri
Dokümantasyon şartı – KEK, kayıt kontrol	Dokümantasyon şartı – KEK, kayıt kontrol	Aktivitelerin yönetimi (hasta odaklı + org. odaklı)	Dokümanlara yönelik
Kalite hedefleri	Kalite hedefleri	İndikatörler + uluslararası hasta güvenliği hedefleri	İndikatörler
Yönetim gözden geçirme	Yönetim gözden geçirme	Yönlendirme toplantıları	Değerlendirme toplantıları
Klinik risk yönetimi	Risk yönetimi bulunmamakta	Klinik risk yönetimi	Klinik risk yönetimi

Tablo1'de ISO 9001 temelinde var olan maddelerin diğer standartlara gelen karşılıkları tablo halinde sunulmuştur. En çarpıcı noktalar ISO standartları ile SKS ve JCI maddelerinde kalite hedefleri tanımlamalarının farklılıkları aynı zamanda da klinik risk yönetimine verilen önem olarak göze çarpmaktadır.

Tablo 2: Standart Maddelerin Özet Karşılaştırmaları-2

ISO 15224	ISO 9001	JCI	SKS
Hizmet gerçekleş.- klinik risk &hasta güvenliği	Ürün gerçekleş.	Hasta odaklı stand.	Hasta Odaklı Stand.
Satınalma	Satınalma	Her bölüm için atıflar mevcut	ilgili alımlar kontrollü yapılmalı
İç tetkik	İç tetkik	Kontroller yapılmalı	Özdeğerlendirme
Altyapı – çalışma ortamı	Altyapı – çalışma ortamı	Tesis yönetimi ve güvenliği	Tesis yönetimi
Düzeltici ve Önleyici faaliyet	Düzeltici ve önleyici faaliyet	Gelişmenin sağlanması	Uygunsuzluklara yönelik faaliyetler

Tablo 2'yi de tablo 1'in bir devamı olarak tanımlarsak standart maddelerinin ana başlıkları doğrultusunda, ISO standartları genel bir satın alma prosesi tanımlarken SKS ve JCI ise ilgili alanlara bu prosesin sorumluluğunu tanımlanmıştır. Aynı şekilde tesis yönetimi SKS ve JCI de ön planda iken, tesis yönetimi de ISO standartları bir alt yapı ortamı olarak değerlendirmektedir.

Tablo 3: Sistemlerin Genel Özellikleri

ISO 15224	ISO 9001	JCI	SKS
Uluslararası	Uluslararası	Uluslararası	Ulusal Sistem
Sertifikasyon	Sertifikasyon	Akreditasyon	Puanlandırma – öz değerlendirme
Sağlık hizmeti sunucuları	Tüm kuruluşlar (ürün/hizmet)	Hastane	Hastane
Yönetim + hasta güvenliği odaklı	Yönetim Odaklı	Hasta odaklı	Hasta Odaklı
Veri analizi	Veri analizi	Veri analizi + validasyon	İndikatörler tanımlı

Tablo 3'de ise sistemleri genel özellikleri doğrultusunda kıyaslamayı hedef almıştır. Sistemlerin birbirinden temel farklılıklarını göstermektedir**.**

ISO 9001 kalite yönetim sistemine yapılan en büyük eleştirilerden birisi, standardın hastane performansını hastane fonksiyonu ve amaçlarına göre ölçmemesi aksine kalite sistemlerinde uluslararası standartlara göre ölçmesidir. Hastane performansına odaklanmaktan çok yönetimsel prosedürlere odaklandığı lakin bunlarla beraber tüm süreçlerin yazılı ve tanımlı hale gelmesi ile de sorumluluk alanların belirlenmesi önemli bir başlangıçtır. Aynı zamanda süreç akışlarının netlik kazanması, kalitenin artmasına temel desteği sağladığı da ifade edilmiştir. ISO 9001 standardının sağlık sektöründeki kullanım kısıtlılığına ise Krouwer Jan S. Çalışmasında ayrıca dikkati çekmektedir (SB,2013).

Bir hizmet kurumu için iyi belirlenmiş standartlar, hedef kitle memnuniyetinden öte önemli bir yönetim aracıdırlar. Standartlar iyi yöneticiye olan ihtiyacı ortadan kaldırmazlar. Rehber veya yol haritası olma özellikleri nedeniyle iyi yöneticilere zaman kazandırır, daha yüksek hedeflere ulaşmak için bir dinleme ve düşünme basamağı olurlar Yönetimin tercihi olarak akreditasyon sistemleri ve sertifikasyon sistemleri karşı karşıya gelmektedir ya da hiç bir kalite sistemi kullanmamak da bir tercih nedeni olabilir. Daha önce belirtildiği gibi kalite sistemi kullanmanın getirdiği pozitif iyileşmeler özellikle süreçler üzerinde Özkan Tütüncü tarafından araştırılmış ve yazılmıştır (Tütüncü). ISO 15224:2012 kalite yönetim sisteminin kullanım alanları incelendiğinde yoğunlukta Avrupa'da kullanımına web taraması ile ulaşılmıştır. Bu içeriğe göre özel dal merkezleri; göz, ortopedi, patoloji laboratuvarı, diş ve nefroloji, önceden ISO 9001:2008 belgeli kurumlar olup ISO 15224:2012 tercih etmektedir. Bu merkezler dışında yataklı hastane özelliğine sahip ve yatak sayısı 164 ile 659 arasında değişen hastaneler ise hem ISO 15224:2012 standardını hem de yerel akreditasyon standardını uygulamaktadırlar. Yerel akreditasyon standardını uygulayan hastanelerden Avusturya'da bulunan hastaneler yasal zorunluluk nedeni ile akredite olurlarken merkezi Güney Afrika'da bulunan Mediclinic ise JCI tarafından akredite bir hastanedir. Mediclinic'i diğer hastanelerden ayıran en büyük özellik dünyanın birçok ülkesine yayılmış olan zincir bir hastane olmasıdır. Avrupa Birliğinin 'nin Yaşam Boyu Öğrenme başlığı altında yayınladığı bir raporda Avusturya, Macaristan ve Romanya'da uygulanan sağlık yönetim sistemleri analiz 2012 yılı için edilmiştir (EU,2013).

Kalite yönetim sistemleri altında uygulanan standartlar her ne kadar gönüllük esasına dayansa da gerek modern dünyanın getirdiği sorunlar gerek gelişen teknolojiye uyum gerekse de insanların daha bir bilinçlenmesi ile gelen sorumluluk anlayışı altında bazen zorunluluk statüsüne girmiş olabilir. Clinotel dergisinde - Paschen U. tarafından yayınlanan makalede hangi amaç için hangi kalite yönetim sistemi kullanılmalıdır başlığı altında bu konu ele alınmaktadır. Buna göre popüler uygulamalara yönelmekten öte kurumun özelliği, hedefi doğrultusunda bir sistem kurması gerektiği vurgulanmıştır (Pasachen,2013). Ayrıca başka bir yazıda Dr. Nobert Engel tarafından küçük ölçekli sağlık kuruluşları belirli bir kalite yönetim sisteminin diretilmesi kurumun hedeften sapıp daha çok bu sistem için gereksiz bir zaman harcayacağı vurgulanırken. Küçük ölçekli kuruluşlar niteliğine göre sistem kurmaları gerektiği yazılmıştır (Engel,2013). Daha önceki yıllarda ise John Overveit tarafından yayınlanan bir makalede ise özellikle sağlık hizmetleri sektöründe kalite yönetim sisteminin seçiminde kurumun büyüklüğünün ve özelliğinin önemli rol oynadığı vurgulanmıştır (Øvretveit,1997). Başka bir çalışma ise düşük gelirli Arap ülkesi olan Yemen'de kalite yönetim sisteminin kurulmasına ilişkin bir çalışma olarak Abdul Al Serouri ve arkadaşları tarafından yapılmıştır. Bu çalışmaya göre düşük gelirli bir ülkede kurulan yönetim sistemi basit ve anlaşılır standartlara sahip olurken aynı zamanda da iyi bir lider ile de bu sistemi yürütmelidir (Øvretveit,2016). John Overveit tarafından WHO için hazırlanan bir raporun başında hiçbir kalite yönetim stratejisi tek başına kanıtı olmadan bir sağlık kurumu için iyileştirme aracı ya da verimlilik veya finansal getiri göstergesi olarak kullanılamaz şekli ile ifade etmiştir (Øvretveit,2003). Paccioni ve arkadaşlarının 2008 yılında yapmış olduğu çalışmada birinci basamak sağlık kuruluşlarına akreditasyon sistemi özellikle çok fazla bürokratik işlem içerdiğinden önerilmemektedir (Paccioni,2008). Hastane akreditasyonu ve hasta memnuniyeti arasındaki ilişkinin konu aldığı başka bir çalışmada ise sonuç birinci basamak sağlık kuruluşlarında hastane akreditasyonu ile hasta memnuniyeti arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır (Sack ve arkd.,2011). Serkan Türkeli tarafından yapılan bir çalışma ilgili yılda Türkiye'deki akredite hastaneler üzerinde yapılmış olup akreditasyonun bir farklılaşma olarak ilişkilendirilmemesi gerektiği, akredite olmuş sağlık kuruluşlarının fonksiyonel açıdan eş biçimli olacakları açıklanmıştır. Ek olarak farklılaşmanın süreçler ve kabiliyetler ile sağlanacağı fark edilmeli bundan dolayı da her kuruluşun kendine özgü yönetim sistemini oluşturması gerektiği vurgulanmıştır (Serkan,2015).

5. SONUÇ

Avrupa'da akreditasyona sahip hastaneler ya JCI tarafından akredite edilmiş ya da ulusal kuruluşlar tarafından akredite edilmiştir. Burada dikkat edilmesi gereken nokta; hastanenin bir JCI akreditasyonu mevcut ise ISO 15224:2012 sertifikasını almak çok cazip gelmemektedir. Hastane zaten ilgili kritik süreçlerini JCI akreditasyonu ile sistematik bir hale getirmiştir. Fakat Mediclinic gibi uluslararası zincir bir hastane olup ilgili bölgede küçük bir klinik ile var oluyor ise sadece o zaman ISO 15224:2012 tarafından belgelenebilmektedir. İkinci bir akreditasyon tanımı yaptığımız ulusal akreditasyonlara sahip sağlık hizmeti sunucuları ise sadece bu ulusal akreditasyonlara bağlı kalmayıp aynı zamanda sağlık turizmi açısından bilinir bir kalite sistemi doğrultusunda sertifikalandırılma ihtiyacı da hissetmektedir. Zincir bir sağlık hizmeti sunucusunun mali profili ile yerel sunucuların mali profilleri daha farklı olacağından akreditasyon sistemi yerine sertifikasyon sistemini tercih etmesi doğaldır.

Sonuç olarak, sağlık hizmeti sunucularının kurumsal hedefi aslında kalite yönetim sistemi tercihinde önemli rol oynamaktadır. Büyük (yatak sayısı> 100) ve uluslararası pazara açılmayı bir hedef olarak belirleyen hastanelerin akredite olması ve uluslararası alanda onaylanmış olması bu kurumları global sağlık sektöründe daha güçlü kılacaktır. Bu tip hastanelerin karşılaşacağı risklerin daha kritik ve yoğun olacağı göz önüne alındığında, sağlık hizmeti süreçlerine odaklanmış olan akreditasyon sistemi olan JCI bir tercih olarak öne çıkmaktadır. Ülkemizde öncelikle kamu kurumlarında ve özel hastanelerde de kullanılan SKS'nin de JCI süreçlerine 5. versiyonu ile artık çok benzerlikler gösterdiği gözlemlenmiştir. JCI sisteminin uygulanmasındaki titizlik ve bununla beraber uygulanan denetim aşamaları eğer SKS ve sonrasında da Sağlıkta Akreditasyon Standartları- SAS uygulamasına yansıması beklenmektedir.

Diğer taraftan bölgesel ya da ulusal ölçekte kalmak isteyen ve aynı zamanda yatak kapasitesi olarak da küçük hastane (yatak sayısı < 100) olarak tanımlanabilen sağlık kuruluşları ISO 15224:2012 standardını tercih etmeleri literatürdeki örneklerde göz önüne alındığında daha uygun olacaktır. Ayrıca hasta güvenliği ve çalışan güvenliği süreçlerini de en optimum şekilde yürütmek açısından da bu standardın kullanılması efektif olacaktır. Ülkemizde ayaktan tedavi veren tıp merkezi gibi sağlık kuruluşlarının da sayılan nedenlerle ISO 15224:2012 standardını kullanması efektif olacaktır.

Süreçler açısından da ele alındığında ISO standardı sağlık hizmetleri süreçleri açısından akreditasyon standartlarına göre daha zayıf kaldığı için sistematiğe, tanımlanmaya, güvenilirliğe sahip olma ihtiyacı olan klinikler, eczaneler, muayeneler ve de tıp merkezleri gibi alanlar için daha uygun olabilmektedir.

Tüm bu bilgiler altında popüler olması ya da rekabet açısından ayrıcalıklar yaratması bir yana uygulanabilirlik açısından değerlendirilmeden mevcut kalite yönetim sistemlerinin tüm sağlık sunucularında kullanılması dönemi geride bırakılmalıdır. Kalite yönetim sistemi kurulurken, kurumsal hedefler, misyonlar ve vizyonlar çok önemlidir. Kurumun ne beklediği ve karşı tarafa ne vermek istediği birincil konulardır. Sağlık hizmeti sunucunun kendisini tanıması ve kapasitesinin farkında olması önemlidir. Kendine uygun olmayacak bir sistem kurulumu var olan fırsatları bir tehditte dönüştürebilir diğer yandan uygun olan bir kalite yönetim sistemi kurulumu ise tehditleri fırsata dönüştürebilir.

Bu sonuçlar doğrultusunda ülkemizdeki sağlık hizmeti sunucuları düşünüldüğünde; Küçük hastanelerin, tıp merkezlerinin, ayaktan tedavi hizmeti veren diğer sağlık kuruluşlarının ve basamaklandırılamayan diyaliz merkezi, eczane vb gibi sağlık kurumlarının ISO 9001:2008, JCI akreditasyonu ve SKS yerine, koşullarına uygun ve daha etkin bir sistem olan ISO 15224:2012 kalite yönetim sistemi kullanması önerilmektedir. Diğer taraftan büyük bir hastane olup global arenada yer almayı tercih etmeden sistematikleşmeyi hedefleyen kurumlar ise SKS akreditasyon sistemi ile klinik süreçlerin detaylarına ve ISO 15224:2012 kalite yönetim standardı ile de yönetsel süreçlere hakim olabilirler. Bunun yanı sıra büyük bir hastane olup global arenada da yer almayı hedef olarak tanımlıyor ise uluslararası alanda kabul görmüş JCI akreditasyonu ile kritik klinik süreçleri ve ISO 15224:2012 kalite yönetim standardı ile sağlık hizmetine yönelik yönetsel süreçleri yönetmesinin daha uygun olacağı tavsiye edilmektedir.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS IN MARKET SEGMENTATION: CAPPADOCIA EXAMPLE•

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- The main aim of this study is to reveal whether a different market segmentation is necessary for domestic and foreign tourists visiting a destination with different socio-cultural factors, and various motivations. In order to reach this aim, a field work was carried out on British, German and Turkish tourists visiting Cappadocia destination.

Methodology- Face-to-face survey method was used in the research. In the questionnaire there are demographic features and socio-cultural factors which cause the preference of Cappadocia destination and expressions to measure motivational elements. The survey was conducted on 398 people who were identified by convenience sampling.

Findings- Research findings reveal that socio-cultural factors affecting British, German and Turkish tourists visits to Cappadocia are different from each other. Therefore, it appears that the British, German, and Turkish tourists differs in terms of the influence of family members, friends, specimens, and cultural reasons. Similar differences are seen on motivational factors affecting to choose Cappadocia. While domestic tourists express the reason of coming to this destination as "because it is fashion." British tourists state that they prefer this destination "because it is multi-cultural region." Germens enounce that they choose this destination "because of its local dishes".

Conclusion- As a result of the research, it has been revealed that tourists visiting Cappadocia destination with motivations and different socio-cultural factors can create different market segments in terms of tourism firms. The study was concluded with suggestions to academicians and practitioners.

Keywords: Market segmentation, motivation, culture, Cappadocia destination.

JEL Codes: L80, M31

PAZAR BÖLÜMLENDİRMESİNDE SOSYO-KÜLTÜREL FAKTÖRLERİN ÖNEMİ: KAPADOKYA ÖRNEĞİ

ÖZET

Amaç- Bu araştırmanın temel amacı, farklı sosyo-kültürel etkenlerle ve farklı motivasyonlarla bir turizm destinasyonunu ziyaret eden yerli ve yabancı turistler için farklı bir pazar bölümlendirmesine ihtiyaç olup olmadığını ortaya koymaktır. Bu amaca ulaşmak için Kapadokya destinasyonunu ziyaret eden İngiliz, Alman ve Türk turistler üzerinde bir saha çalışması gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Yöntem- Araştırmada yüz yüze anket yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Anket formunda demografik özellikleri ve Kapadokya destinasyonunun tercih edilmesine neden olan sosyo-kültürel faktörler ile motivasyonel unsurları ölçmeye yönelik ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Uygulama, kolayda örnekleme yöntemiyle belirlenen 398 kişi üzerinde gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Bulgular- Araştırma bulguları, İngiliz, Alman ve Türk turistlerin Kapadokya'yı ziyaret etmelerinde etkili olan sosyo-kültürel faktörlerin birbirinden farklı olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Buna göre, İngiliz, Alman ve Türk turistlerin aile bireylerinin, arkadaşların, örnek alınan ve özenilen kişilerin ve kültürel nedenlerin etkisi bakımından farklılaştığı görülmektedir. Benzer farklılıklar Kapadokya'yı tercih etmede etkili olan motivasyonel faktörlerde de görülmektedir. Yerli turistler bu destinasyona en çok "moda olduğu için" geldiklerini ifade ederken, İngilizler en çok "çok kültürlü bölge" olduğu için tercih ettiğini ifade etmiştir. Almanlar ise, en çok "yerel mutfak" dolayısıyla bu destinasyonu tercih ettiklerini belirtmiştir.

• Bu araştırma Balıkesir Üniversitesi Bilimsel Araştırma Projeleri Birimi tarafından desteklenmiştir. Bu araştırma Global İşletme Araştırmaları Kongresi'nde (24-25 Mayıs 2017) Bildiri olarak sunulmuştur.

Sonuç- Araştırma sonucunda, farklı sosyo-kültürel faktörlerin etkisiyle ve değişik motivasyonlarla Kapadokya destinasyonunu ziyaret eden turistlerin, turizm işletmeleri açısından farklı pazar bölümleri oluşturabileceği ortaya çıkmıştır. Çalışma, akademisyenlere ve uygulayıcılara önerilerde bulunularak tamamlanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Pazar bölümlendirmesi, Motivasyon, Kültür, Kapadokya destinasyonu.
JEL Kodları: L8, M31

1. GİRİŞ

İnsanlar, yaşamlarını sürdürebilmeleri için hem biyolojik olarak hem de çevresel faktörlerin etkisiyle birçok ürüne ihtiyaç duyar. Ancak, kişilerin ihtiyaçlarının teminindeki istekleri ve davranış biçimleri farklılık gösterebilmektedir. Bölgesel pazarlardan ulusal pazarlara, ulusal pazarlardan uluslararası pazarlara doğru gidildikçe farklı özelliklere sahip tüketicilerin sayısında bir artışın olması beklenen bir durumdur. İşletmelerin farklı özelliklere sahip ve farklı tüketim alışkanlığı olan tüketiciler için pazar bölümlendirmesine gitmesi, bu tüketicileri işletmeye çekebilmek için gereklidir. Pazar bölümlendirme, tüm sektörlerde kullanılabilen faydalı bir strateji olmakla birlikte, müşterileri birbirinden son derece farklı olabilen turizm sektörü için daha büyük bir önem arz etmektedir.

Farklı turizm ürünlerinin varlığı bunlara yönelecek mevcut potansiyel talebin ayrı ayrı belirlenmesini yani pazarın bölümlendirilmesini gerektirir. Bölümleme, en az maliyetle, en yüksek verim ve kâr koşulları içinde tüketicileri seçmek ve onlara ürünlerini kabul ettirip, onları tatmin etmek demektir. Pazar bölümlendirme, bir pazarın aynı özellikleri taşıyan alt gruplara ayrılması işlemidir. Burada amaç, pazarı oluşturan turistlerden, istek ve ihtiyaçları, satın alma davranışları ve turizm eğilimleri benzer olan turist gruplarını bir araya getirmektir. Hedef turist grubunun belirli özellikleri ne kadar iyi biliniyorsa yürütülecek reklam, tanıtım ve satış geliştirme işlemleri o ölçüde etkili olur (Hayta, 2008, s.34-35). Doğru tespit edilen turist profili sayesinde destinasyonu ziyaret eden turistlerin homojen gruplara ayrılarak pazar bölümlendirmesinin gerçekleştirilmesi ve belirlenen her bir pazar bölümüne ilişkin istek ve beklentilere uygun turistik ürünün sunulması mümkün olabilecektir. Pazarlama açısından önemli bir kavram olması ve destinasyonlarda gerçekleştirilen pazarlama faaliyetlerine önemli katkılar sağlamasına rağmen ülkemizde destinasyon bazında turist profili belirleme ve pazar bölümlendirme çalışmaları yeterli değildir (Çokişler ve Türker, 2015, s.33-34).

Etkili bir pazar bölümlendirmesinin yapılabilmesi için genel kabul görmüş kriterler bulunmaktadır. Bu kriterlerden bazıları; pazarın ölçülebilir, ulaşılabilir, belirli bir büyüklükte ve anlamlı olması gerekliliğidir (Yükselen, 2012, s.192-193). Ölçümü kolay olmasından dolayı, demografik ölçütler (cinsiyet, gelir, yaş ve eğitim gibi) sıklıkla kullanılan pazar bölümlendirme özellikleridir. Ancak, Tüketicilerin genel ve gözlemlenebilen değişkenlere göre bölümlendirilmesi temelde bazı sorunları da beraberinde getirmektedir. Örneğin, artan ve giderek birbirine yaklaşan tüketici gelirlerine dayanarak tüketicilerin benzer harcama eğilimlerinde olacağını belirtmek çok doğru sonuçlar üretmekten uzak olabilir. Bu noktada, motivasyon gibi gözlemlenemeyen değişkenlere göre pazar bölümlendirmesi ön plana çıkmakta ve bu motivasyonların gerisinde yatan kültür etkeni büyük farklılıklar doğurabilmektedir (Nacar ve Uray, 2014, s.45).

Tüketici davranışlarındaki farklılıkların temel nedenleri arasında yer alan sosyo-kültürel faktörler ve motivasyon unsuru, tüketicilerin ürün tercihi yaparken farklı ürünler tercih etmesine ya da aynı ürünü farklı bir özelliğinden dolayı tercih etmesine neden olabilecektir. Turistik ürünlerin ya da destinasyonların tercih edilmesinde de beklenti bu yönde olacaktır (Iso-Ahola ve Allen, 1982; Lee, 2000; Uysal ve Li, 2008). Bu noktada, herhangi bir destinasyonun tercihinde etkili olan sosyo-kültürel ve motivasyonel faktörlerin neler olduğunun incelenmesi ve bu faktörlerin farklı pazar bölümleri oluşturmak için yeterli olup olmadığının belirlenmesi sektörel açıdan önemlidir. Bu bağlamda, bu çalışmanın temel amacı farklı sosyo-kültürel etkenler ve farklı motivasyonlarla bir turizm destinasyonunu ziyaret eden yerli ve yabancı turistler için farklı bir pazar bölümlendirmesine ihtiyaç olup olmadığını belirlemektir. Ayrıca, bu çalışma ile yerli ve yabancı turistlerin destinasyon seçimini yaparken sosyo-kültürel ve motivasyonel faktörlerin ne derecede etkisinde kaldığını ortaya koymak da hedeflenmiştir. Belirlenen bu amaçlara ulaşmak için Kapadokya destinasyonunu ziyaret eden İngiliz, Alman ve Türk turistler üzerinde bir uygulama gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Çalışmada öncelikle ilgili literatüre yönelik inceleme sunulmuş ve araştırma hipotezleri ortaya konmuştur. Ardından, yöntem bölümünde araştırmanın amacı, evreni ve örneklem hakkında bilgi verilmiş ve anket formunun tasarımı anlatılmıştır. Bulgular bölümünde, katılımcıların demografik profili hakkında bilgi verilmiş ve araştırma hipotezlerinin test bulguları sunulmuştur. Sonuç ve öneriler bölümünde ise, bulgulara yönelik değerlendirmelere yer verilmiş; akademisyen ve uygulayıcılara önerilerde bulunularak çalışma tamamlanmıştır.

2. LİTERATÜR ARAŞTIRMASI

Turistler destinasyon seçimini yaparken, ekonomik, sosyo-kültürel, demografik özellikler gibi pek çok faktörün etkisinde kalırlar. Bu genel faktörler dışında, destinasyona özgü bazı çekici faktörlerin de gerek yerli, gerekse yabancı turistlerin satın alma davranışı üzerinde etkisi vardır (Demir, 2010, s.1042; Nakip, Varinli ve Gülmez, 2012, s.43-54; Gnoth, 1997, s.288). Bu

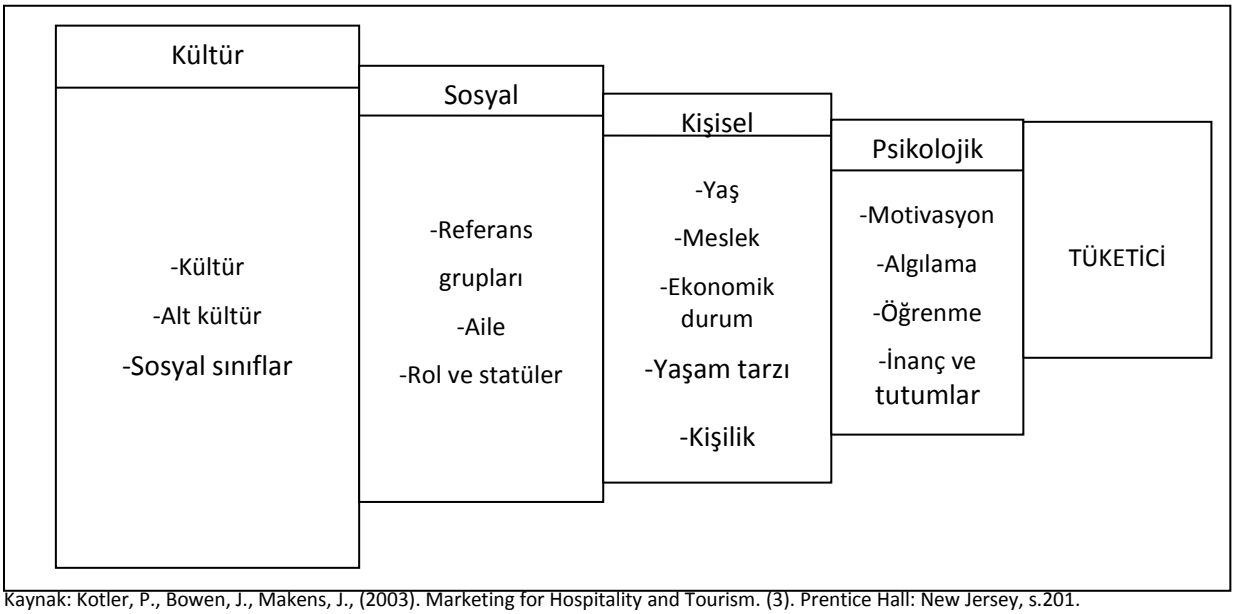
noktada motivasyonel unsurlar ön plana çıkmaktadır. Bu bölümde, çalışmanın amacına yönelik olarak sosyo-kültürel faktörler ile motivasyon unsuruna ilişkin yapılan alan yazın çalışmalarına yer verilmiştir.

2.1.Sosyo-Kültürel Faktörler

Sektör ayrımı yapmaksızın, tüketicilerin satın alma davranışı üzerinde birçok faktörün etkisi olduğu bilinmektedir. Ülkelerin gelişmişlik düzeylerine göre farklılık olsa da, tüketicilerin satın alma davranışı üzerinde etkili olan faktörlerin başında ürünün fiyatının geldiği söylenebilir. Ancak, her zaman ve her üründe bu ifadeyi kullanmak doğru değildir. Çünkü bazı durumlarda ya da bazı ürünlerin satın alınmasında ürünün özellikleri, tüketicinin içinde bulunduğu sosyal yapı, ürüne olan ilgi, eğitim düzeyi ve kültür gibi faktörler fiyatın önüne geçebilmektedir. Yani, tüketiciler ürünün fiyatı dışında birçok faktörden etkilenebilmektedir. Tüketici davranışlarını etkileyen faktörler Şekil 1'de gösterilmiştir.

Tüketicilerin satın alma davranışları üzerinde etkisi olan önemli faktörlerden biri kültürdür. Bu faktör, alt kültür ve sosyal sınıf gibi tüketicinin satın alma davranışını etkileyen alt katmanlardan oluşur (Kotler ve Keller, 2006, s.174). Alt kültür, nüfus sayısındaki artışla birlikte kültürde bölgesel, dini, ırki ve benzeri alt katmanlar ve bu katmanlarda sayı artışını ortaya çıkarır. Sosyal sınıf ise aynı toplumsal saygınlığa sahip, birbirleriyle çok sıkı ilişkileri olan ve davranışsal beklentileri benzer olan kişilerin oluşturduğu bir sosyal yapı olarak ifade edilebilir (Tek, 1997, s. 198-199; Odabaşı ve Barış, 2002, s. 296).

Şekil 1: Tüketici Davranışlarını Etkileyen Faktörler



Kaynak: Kotler, P., Bowen, J., Makens, J., (2003). Marketing for Hospitality and Tourism. (3). Prentice Hall: New Jersey, s.201.

Dış pazarı oluşturan turistlerin satın alma davranışlarının değişkenliği, iç pazarı oluşturan turistlere göre çok daha fazla ve karmaşık olabilmektedir. Dolayısıyla kişilerin içinde bulunduğu sosyo-kültürel durumları, ürünlerden beklentilerini farklılaştırmış, birbirinden farklı ve karmaşık yapılı davranışların ortaya çıkmasına neden olmuştur (Tayfun ve Yıldırım, 2010, s.43-46). Bu doğrultuda Akat (2003), ülkelerin kültürleri arasındaki farklılıkların, pazarlamadaki politikaları ve stratejileri çok açık bir şekilde etkilediğini, bu nedenle her ülkenin gelenek, görenek, tutum, alışkanlık, sanat, müzik gibi özelliklerinin küresel bazda incelenmesi gerektiğini vurgulamaktadır (Akat, 2003, s.5). Penaloza ve Gilly (1999) bu konuda yapmış oldukları bir çalışmada, tüketicilerin tutum, davranış, tüketim şekilleri ve ihtiyaçlarını karşılamak için ürün seçimleri konusunda diğer faktörlere göre kültürel faktörlerin ana belirleyici olduğunu ortaya koymuşlardır.

Literatürde tatil kararlarının alınmasına ve destinasyon seçiminin yapılmasına yönelik birçok çalışma bulunmaktadır. Ayrıca, az sayıda da olsa aile üyelerinin karar verme sürecindeki etkisinin ülkeler arasında farklılık gösterip göstermediğine yönelik araştırmalara da rastlanmaktadır. Bu konuda yapılan bir çalışmada, aile üyelerinin karar verme sürecindeki etkisinin ülkelere göre farklılık gösterdiği tespit edilmiştir (Green, Verhage ve Cunningham, 1981, s.72). Wang ve arkadaşları (2004) tatil kararlarının alınmasının eşler tarafından ortak verilen bir karar olduğunu, ancak anne ve babalar karar sürecinde hala baskın olsalar da son yıllarda çocukların da bu süreçte etkilerinin olduğunu ifade etmektedir. Çakıcı ve İyitoğlu'nun (2012) yapmış oldukları bir çalışmada, aile tatil kararının dinamik bir yapıya sahip olduğu, aile yapısının tatil kararlarında etkilerinin zamana ve ülkelere göre değişim gösterdiğini ortaya koymuşlardır.

Tüketicinin sosyalleşme sürecinde çeşitli kişi ya da gruplarla olan etkileşimleri, onların tüketim davranışlarının şekillenmesinde önemli bir rol oynamaktadır (Moschis ve Churchill, 1978, s.599-609). Bu noktada, referans gruplarının

tüketim davranışına etkisi ön plana çıkmaktadır. Referans grupları, normatif ve karşılaştırmalı referans grupları olmak üzere iki alt grupta ele alınmaktadır (Funk, Alexandris ve McDonald, 2008). Bunlardan normatif referans grupları, anne/baba, iş/okul, öğretmenler gibi doğrudan etkileşimde bulunulan ve gereksinim duyulan her türlü bilgi ve becerilerin elde edildiği kişiler olarak değerlendirilmektedir. Karşılaştırmalı referans grupları ise kişisel ya da sosyal olarak daha uzak ve bilinilirliği yüksek, adeta ilham kaynağı olan ve başarı standartlarına ulaşılmak istenen kişilerden oluşmaktadır. Bunlara örnek olarak, ünlü sanatçılar, başarılı sporcular gösterilebilir (Bristol ve Mangleburg, 2005; Haroon ve Ul-Haq, 2015; Makgosa ve Mohube, 2007; Martin ve Bush, 2000; Subramanian ve Subramanian, 1995). Run, Butt ve Nee (2010) gerçekleştirdikleri bir çalışmada 19-25 yaş aralığındaki kişilerin satın alma niyetlerinde ve davranışlarında ilham kaynağı olarak gördükleri ünlüler ile anne/babalarının etkisini tespit etmiştir. Eskiler, Küçükibiş ve Soyer'in (2016) çalışmalarında, ünlü sporcuları rol model alma, marka duyarlılığı ve satın alma niyeti arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Bunların yanında, Türkiye'de Ayvalık, Çeşme ve Bodrum gibi deniz-kum-güneş destinasyonlarının tercih edilmesinde, popüler kişilerin etkisi bilinen bir gerçektir. Benzer şekilde, Kapadokya destinasyonunun popüler hale gelmesinde, o bölgede çekilen televizyon dizilerinin ve sinema filmlerinin etkisi yadsınamaz.

Yukarıda anlatılan aile ve referans grupları gibi sosyal faktörler ile kültürel faktörlerin tüketici davranışları üzerindeki etkilerini belirlemeye yönelik çalışmalardan ve farklı ülkelerden herhangi bir destinasyonu ziyaret için gelen turistlerin farklı sosyo-kültürel özelliklere sahip olacağı varsayımından hareketle bu araştırma özelinde aşağıdaki hipotez geliştirilmiştir.

H1: Turistlerin destinasyon seçiminde sosyo-kültürel faktörlerin etkisi ülkeye göre farklılaşmaktadır.

2.2.Turizmde Farklı Motivasyonlar

Genel bir ifadeyle motivasyon kavramı, insanları yerinden kaldırarak harekete geçiren, onların bir şeyler yapmalarını sağlayan sebepler olarak tanımlanabilir. Tüm davranışların temelinde bir ya da birden fazla motivasyon unsuru bulunmaktadır (Koç, 2015, s.243). Bu doğrultuda, tüketicinin turist olarak bir ülkeyi, bir bölgeyi ya da bir destinasyonu seçmesinin arkasında da çeşitli motivasyonel unsurların bulunduğu söylenebilir. Örneğin bir destinasyon, tarihi çekicilik, yemek kültürü, manzara, macera, heyecan, farklı kültürlerle tanışmak, mimari özellikler gibi unsurların biri ya da birkaçından dolayı tercih edebileceği gibi, insanların çoğunun gittiği bir yer olduğu için (moda olduğu için) de tercih edilebilir. Tüm bu unsurlar motivasyon kavramıyla ilişkilidir.

Farklı motivasyonel unsurların, bir turistin destinasyon seçimine olan etkisine yönelik az sayıdaki çalışmada, bu etkinin varlığı tespit edilmiştir. Bir çalışmada, seyahat deneyiminin algılanan değerinin belirleyicisi olan öncüller motivasyon, ilgilenim ve bilgi olarak ifade edilirken; sonuçların ise memnuniyet ve başkalarına tavsiye etme ya da yeniden satın alma şeklinde gerçekleşen gelecekteki niyet olduğu belirtilmiştir (Prebensen, Woo ve Uysal, 2014). Pizam ve arkadaşlarına göre (2002), turistlerin turistik ürün ve destinasyon seçimlerinin temelinde önemli bir motivasyon aracı olan heyecan arayışı bulunmaktadır (Koç, 2015, s.251). Benzer çalışmalarda, turist motivasyonunun bir destinasyonun algılanan değerini (Dumand ve Mattila 2005; Çelik Uğuz, Özbek ve Günalan, 2016) ve seyahat memnuniyetini (Yoon ve Uysal, 2005) etkilediği ortaya konmuştur.

Pazarlama literatürünün önde gelen isimlerinden Kotler (1997), pazar bölümlendirmenin coğrafik, demografik, psikografik ve davranışsal değişkenlere göre uygulanabileceğini ifade etmiştir. Kozak (2010, s.105) ise Kotler'in (1997) belirlemiş olduğu pazar bölümlendirme kriterlerine ilave olarak, turizm açısından, motivasyon, bilgi arama kaynağı, turizme katılım amacı gibi pazar bölümlendirme ölçütlerinin de mümkün olduğunu belirtmiştir (Çokişler ve Türker, 2015, s. 36-37). Clark'a göre (1990), tüketicilerin kültürleri, tüketici davranışlarına yön veren en önemli faktör olmakla birlikte, diğer faktörleri de şekillendiren önemli bir unsurdur. Bunlardan biri de motivasyon unsurudur.

Yukarıda özetlenen araştırma sonuçlarından ve farklı ülkelerden herhangi bir destinasyonu ziyaret için gelen turistlerin farklı motivasyonel unsurların etkisiyle hareket edebileceği varsayımından hareketle aşağıdaki hipotezin test edilmesine gereksinim duyulmuştur.

H2: Turistlerin destinasyon seçiminde motivasyonel unsurların etkisi ülkeye göre farklılaşmaktadır.

3.YÖNTEM

3.1.Araştırmanın Amacı, Evreni ve Örneklemi

Bu araştırmanın amacı, farklı sosyo-kültürel etkenlerle ve farklı motivasyonlarla bir turizm destinasyonunu ziyaret eden yerli ve yabancı turistler için farklı bir pazar bölümlendirmesine ihtiyaç olup olmadığını ortaya koymaktır. Farklı kültürlerden turistlerin ziyaret ettiği bilinen Kapadokya destinasyonu araştırmanın uygulama aşaması için uygun görülmüştür. Uygulama, bu destinasyonu ziyaret eden İngiliz, Alman ve Türk turistler arasından kolayda örnekleme yöntemiyle belirlenen 398 turist üzerinde 1 Temmuz-31 Ekim 2016 tarihleri arasında yüz yüze anket yöntemiyle gerçekleştirilmiştir.

3.2.Anket Formunun Tasarımı

Araştırmanın saha uygulaması için, üç bölümden oluşan bir anket formu hazırlanmıştır. Anket formunun ilk bölümünde, cevaplayıcıların demografik yapısını belirlemeye yönelik sorular yer almaktadır. İkinci bölümde, Kapadokya destinasyonunun tercih edilmesine neden olan sosyo-kültürel faktörleri; üçüncü bölümde ise bu tercihte etkili olan motivasyonel unsurları belirlemeye yönelik ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Sosyo-kültürel faktörler ve motivasyonel unsurlar 5'li Likert ölçeği ile hazırlanmış ifadelerden oluşmaktadır (1- Kesinlikle katılmıyorum; 2- Katılmıyorum; 3- Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum; 4- Katılıyorum; 5- Kesinlikle katılıyorum). Araştırmanın Sosyo-kültürel faktörlere yönelik ifadeleri Uğur ve Karaarslan (2016) tarafından yapılan çalışmadan alınmıştır. Motivasyonel unsurlara yönelik ifadeler ise Öter ve Özdoğan (2005) tarafından yapılan çalışmadan alınmış ve bu araştırmaya uygun hale getirilerek kullanılmıştır.

Araştırmanın anket formu Türkçe olarak hazırlanmış, İngilizce ve Almanca dilerine çevrilerek yabancı turistlerin cevaplayabileceği formlar oluşturulmuştur. Üç farklı dilde hazırlanan anket formları, Türk, Alman ve İngiliz turistlere uygulanmıştır.

4.ARAŞTIRMANIN BULGULARI

Bu bölümde araştırma verilerinin analizi sonucunda ortaya çıkan bulgulara yer verilmiştir. Verilerin analizinde frekans dağılımları kullanılmıştır. Araştırma hipotezleri, tek yönlü varyans analizi (ANOVA) ile test edilmiştir. Analizler SPSS 16.0 paket programı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir.

4.1.Katılımcıların Demografik Özellikleri

Tablo 1 incelendiğinde, araştırmaya katılan turistlerin büyük bir çoğunluğunun 35 yaş ve üzerinde olduğu (n=282; %70,9); 294 kişinin (%73,9) üniversite ve üzeri eğitim düzeyine sahip olduğu; %51,5'inin (n=205) erkek katılımcılardan oluştuğu ve %56'sının (n=223) evli olduğu görülmektedir. Bunların yanı sıra, cevaplayıcıların büyük bir bölümünün 2001 TL (Euro / Pound) ve üzeri (%77,9; n=310) aylık gelir düzeyine sahip olduğu da Tablo 1'de görülmektedir. Cevaplayıcıların hangi ülkelerden geldiğini ortaya koyan frekans dağılımları incelendiğinde, üç kategorinin katılımcı dağılımının birbirine oldukça yakın olduğu görülmektedir.

Tablo 1'de görülen soruların dışında, cevaplayıcılara Kapadokya ziyaretlerine ilişkin iki soru daha yöneltilmiştir. Buna göre, cevaplayıcıların "Kapadokya'ya kaç kişi ile birlikte geldiniz?" sorusuna verdikleri yanıtlar incelendiğinde ortalama değerin 4,5 kişi olduğu görülmüştür. Bu soruya cevaplayıcıların %70,9'u 2 ila 7 kişi arasında bir değer ifade etmiştir. Diğer taraftan "Kapadokya'da kaç gece konaklayacaksınız?" sorusuna verilen cevapların ortalaması 5,45 gün olarak hesaplanmıştır. Cevaplayıcıların %38,7'si (n=154) 5 günden az konaklayacağını ifade ederken; geriye kalan %61,3'lük kesim (n=244) 5 gün ya da daha fazla konaklayacağını belirtmiştir.

Tablo 1: Cevaplayıcıların Demografik Özellikleri

YAŞ			**EĞİTİM**		
	n	%		n	%
15-24	34	8,5	Lise	73	18,3
25-34	82	20,6	Üniversite	197	49,5
35-44	114	28,6	Master	82	20,6
45-54	108	27,2	Doktora	15	3,8
55 ve Üstü	60	15,1	Diğer	31	7,8
Toplam	398	100	Toplam	398	100
CİNSİYET			**MEDENİ DURUM**		
Kadın	193	48,5	Evli	223	56
Erkek	205	51,5	Bekâr	175	44
Toplam	398	100	Toplam	398	100
GELİR			**TURİSTİN UYRUĞU**		
2000 TL (Euro / Pound) ve Altı	88	22,1	İngiltere	137	34,4
2001-3000 TL (Euro / Pound)	164	41,2	Almanya	132	33,2
3001 TL (Euro / Pound) ve Üstü	146	36,7	Türkiye	129	32,4
Toplam	398	100	Toplam	398	100

4.2.Hipotezlerin Testi

Tablo 2'de cevaplayıcıların Kapadokya'yı tercih etmelerine neden olan sosyo-kültürel faktörlerin etkisinin geldikleri ülkeye göre farklılık gösterip göstermediğini ortaya koymaya yönelik olarak yapılan Tek Yönlü Varyans Analizi (ANOVA) sonuçları görülmektedir. Buna göre, hem İngiltere hem de Almanya'dan Kapadokya'ya gelen yabancı turistlerin aile bireylerinin tavsiyelerini yerli turistlere göre daha fazla önemsedikleri görülmektedir. Arkadaş tavsiyelerine verilen önem ise İngiliz turistlerde diğerlerine göre daha yüksektir. Değer verilen kişilerin tavsiyelerine verilen önem üç ayrı grupta istatistiksel olarak farklılaşmamaktadır. Örnek alınan ve özenilen kişilerin tavsiyelerinin etkisi ise Türk ve Alman turistlerde İngiliz turistlere göre daha yüksektir. Kültürel nedenlerin etkisi İngiliz turistlerde diğerlerine göre oldukça yüksek bulunmuştur. Bu bulgulardan hareketle, "değer verilen kişilerin tavsiyesi" dışında kalan dört sosyo-kültürel faktör açısından H1 hipotezinin desteklendiği söylenebilir.

Araştırma bulguları, yerli turistlerin Kapadokya'yı ziyaretine en çok etki eden faktörlerin değer verilen kişilerin, örnek alınan ve özenilen kişilerin ve arkadaşların tavsiyeleri olduğunu gösterirken; İngiliz turistlerin ziyaretine en çok etki eden sosyo-kültürel faktörler sırasıyla kültürel nedenler, aile ve arkadaş tavsiyeleri olarak tespit edilmiştir. Alman turistlerin tercihlerini en çok etkileyen sosyo-kültürel faktörler ise sırasıyla aile, örnek alınan ve özenilen kişiler ve değer verilen kişilerin tavsiyeleridir.

Tablo 2'deki bulgularda görüldüğü gibi, aile, arkadaş ve örnek alınan ve özenilen kişilerin tavsiyesi ile kültürel nedenler Türk, Alman ve İngiliz turistlerde istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir biçimde değişmektedir. Ancak bu farklılıkların hangi ülkeden gelen turistler arasında gerçekleştiğini daha derinlemesine inceleyebilmek için ikili karşılaştırmalar yapılmasında yarar görülmüştür.

Tablo 2: Cevaplayıcıların Kapadokya'yı Tercih Etmelerine Neden Olan Sosyo-Kültürel Faktörlerin Etkisinin Geldikleri Ülkeye Göre Değişip Değişmediğini Ortaya Koymaya Yönelik ANOVA Sonuçları

Tercih Nedenleri	Ülkeler	n	Ortalama	Standart Sapma	F	p
Aile Bireylerinin Tavsiyesi	İngiltere	137	3,92	0,900	21,877	0,001
	Almanya	132	3,90	0,846		
	Türkiye	129	3,25	1,053		
	Toplam	398	3,70	0,984		
Arkadaşların Tavsiyesi	İngiltere	137	3,67	0,940	4,645	0,010
	Almanya	132	3,36	1,057		
	Türkiye	129	3,33	1,056		
	Toplam	398	3,46	1,027		
Değer Verilen Kişilerin Tavsiyesi	İngiltere	137	3,58	0,945	0,215	0,807
	Almanya	132	3,57	0,967		
	Türkiye	129	3,50	1,039		
	Toplam	398	3,55	0,982		
Örnek Alınan ve Özenilen Kişilerin Tavsiyesi	İngiltere	137	3,26	1,015	6,222	0,002
	Almanya	132	3,67	1,008		
	Türkiye	129	3,50	0,911		
	Toplam	398	3,47	0,993		
Kültürel Nedenler	İngiltere	137	4,17	0,743	43,755	0,001
	Almanya	132	3,31	1,027		
	Türkiye	129	3,19	1,021		
	Toplam	398	3,57	1,033		

Scheffe tekniğiyle Post-Hoc testleri gerçekleştirilerek yapılan ikili karşılaştırmaların test sonuçları ve aritmetik ortalamaları değerlendirildiğinde, Kapadokya destinasyonunun tercihinde aile bireylerinin etkisinin İngiliz ve Alman turistlerde farklı olmadığı (sırasıyla 3,92 ve 3,90; p=0,987); ancak Türk turistlerle (3,25) hem İngilizlerin (3,92, p=0,001) hem de Almanların (3,90, p=0,001) anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı bulunmuştur. Arkadaşların tavsiyesi ikili karşılaştırmalarla incelendiğinde, İngilizlerle (3,67) hem Almanların (3,36, p=0,041) hem de Türklerin (3,33, p=0,026) farklılaştığı; ancak Almanlarla Türklerin farklılaşmadığı (p=0,984) görülmüştür. Örnek alınan ve özenilen kişilerin tavsiyesi ikili karşılaştırmalarla değerlendirildiğinde,

İngilizlerle (3,26) Almanlar arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmuş (3,67, p=0,002), ancak Türklerle (3,50) İngilizler (p=0,120) ve Türklerle Almanlar (p=0,374) arasında farklılık ortaya çıkmamıştır. Araştırma kapsamındaki turistlerin Kapadokya'yı tercih etmelerinde kültürel nedenlerin etkisi incelendiğinde, İngilizlerle (4,17) Almanların (3,31, p=0,001) ve İngilizlerle Türklerin (3,19, p=0,001) anlamlı bir biçimde birbirinden farklılaştığı; Türklerle Almanlar arasında ise kültürel nedenlerin etkisi bakımından bir fark olmadığı (p=0,562) tespit edilmiştir. Bu bulgular, Kapadokya destinasyonunu ziyaret eden turistler arasında sosyo-kültürel açıdan bir pazar bölümlendirmesi yapma fikrinin değerlendirilebileceğini ortaya koymaktadır.

Tablo 3'te cevaplayıcıların Kapadokya'yı tercih etmelerine neden olan motivasyonel unsurların geldikleri ülkeye göre farklılık gösterip göstermediğini ortaya koymaya yönelik olarak yapılan Tek Yönlü Varyans Analizi (ANOVA) sonuçları görülmektedir. Aritmetik ortalamalar incelendiğinde, İngiliz turistlerin Kapadokya'yı tercih etmesinde etkili olan motivasyonel unsurlar arasında en çok "görülecek eşsiz yerler", "tarihi mimari" , "müzeler ve kültürel çekicilikler" "çok kültürlü bölge" ve "kültürü farklı bölge" unsurlarının öne çıktığı görülmüştür. Alman turistleri en çok motive eden unsurlar, sırasıyla "yerel mutfak", "hareketli ortam", "festivaller ve aktiviteler", "görülecek eşsiz yerler" ve "moda olduğu için gidilen yer" olarak tespit edilmiştir. Türk turistleri daha yüksek düzeyde motive eden unsurlar ise, "moda olduğu için gidilen yer", "festivaller ve aktiviteler", "görülecek eşsiz yerler", "hareketli ortam" ve "müzeler ve kültürel çekicilikler" şeklinde sıralanmaktadır.

Tablo 3: Cevaplayıcıların Kapadokya'yı Tercih Etmelerine Neden Olan Motivasyonel Unsurların Etkisinin Geldikleri Ülkeye Göre Değişip Değişmediğini Ortaya Koymaya Yönelik ANOVA Sonuçları

Tercih Nedenleri	Ülkeler	n	Ortalama	Standart Sapma	F	p
Görülecek eşsiz yerler	İngiltere	137	4,48	0,502	42,901	0,001
	Almanya	132	3,63	0,906		
	Türkiye	129	3,88	0,872		
	Toplam	398	4,01	0,856		
Tarihi mimari	İngiltere	137	4,39	0,49	78,967	0,001
	Almanya	132	3,35	1,026		
	Türkiye	129	3,19	0,953		
	Toplam	398	3,66	1,006		
Müzeler ve kültürel çekicilikler	İngiltere	137	4,38	0,502	75,956	0,001
	Almanya	132	3,10	1,025		
	Türkiye	129	3,68	0,952		
	Toplam	398	3,73	1,002		
Festivaller ve aktiviteler	İngiltere	137	3,15	0,923	27,642	0,001
	Almanya	132	3,64	0,943		
	Türkiye	129	3,96	0,804		
	Toplam	398	3,58	0,951		
Gelenek ve görenekler	İngiltere	137	3,85	0,794	13,485	0,001
	Almanya	132	3,27	1,049		
	Türkiye	129	3,44	0,943		
	Toplam	398	3,53	0,962		
Yerel mutfak	İngiltere	137	3,10	0,949	20,648	0,001
	Almanya	132	3,78	0,944		
	Türkiye	129	3,67	0,903		
	Toplam	398	3,51	0,978		
Misafirperver yerel halk	İngiltere	137	2,81	0,989	15,178	0,001
	Almanya	132	3,48	1,101		
	Türkiye	129	3,28	0,968		
	Toplam	398	3,18	1,057		
Hareketli ortam	İngiltere	137	3,03	1,084	25,224	0,001
	Almanya	132	3,71	0,977		
	Türkiye	129	3,83	0,92		
	Toplam	398	3,52	1,057		
Dil çeşitliliği	İngiltere	137	3,22	1,062	0,457	0,634
	Almanya	132	3,32	1,006		
	Türkiye	129	3,20	1,135		
	Toplam	398	3,25	1,067		
Kültürü farklı bölge	İngiltere	137	4,17	0,743	48,468	0,001

	Almanya	132	3,27	0,964		
	Türkiye	129	3,26	0,904		
	Toplam	398	3,57	0,972		
Çok kültürlü bölge	İngiltere	137	4,32	0,706	65,659	0,001
	Almanya	132	3,12	0,957		
	Türkiye	129	3,55	0,935		
	Toplam	398	3,67	1,003		
Moda olduğu için gidilen yer	İngiltere	137	2,72	0,983	62,456	0,001
	Almanya	132	3,51	1,015		
	Türkiye	129	4,00	0,81		
	Toplam	398	3,4	1,078		

Tablo 3'teki bulgular Kapadokya'yı ziyaret eden İngiliz, Alman ve Türk turistlerin bu tercihlerine etki eden motivasyonel unsurların "dil çeşitliliği" dışında kalan tüm unsurlarda farklılaştığını göstermektedir. Dolayısıyla H2 hipotezi bu unsur dışında desteklenmiştir. Bu farklılıkların derinlemesine incelenebilmesi için Scheffe tekniğiyle Post-Hoc testleri gerçekleştirilerek ikili karşılaştırmalar yapılmıştır.

Post-Hoc testi sonuçları değerlendirildiğinde, "görülecek eşsiz yerler", "müzeler ve kültürel çekicilikler", "festivaller ve aktiviteler", "çok kültürlü bölge" ve "moda olduğu için gidilen yer" unsurlarının ülkeler arasındaki tüm ikili karşılaştırmalarda anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Yani bu unsurlar açısından İngiliz, Alman ve yerli turistler için farklı pazar bölümlendirmesi yapmak uygun görünmektedir. Diğer taraftan, "tarihi mimari", "gelenek ve görenekler", "yerel mutfak", "misafirperver yerel halk", "hareketli ortam" ve "kültürü farklı bölge" motivasyon boyutları İngiliz ve Alman turistlerle İngiliz ve Türk turistler arasında farklılaşırken; Alman ve Türk turistlerde bu boyutlarda anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır. Bu bulgular, Alman ve Türk turistlerin bu motivasyon unsurları açısından benzerlik gösterdiği, İngiliz turistlerin ise Alman ve Türk turistlerden farklılaştığı şeklinde yorumlanabilir. Bu unsurlar açısından bakıldığında, İngiliz turistler ayrı bir pazar bölümü olarak değerlendirilebilir.

5.SONUÇ VE ÖNERİLER

Kapadokya destinasyonu özelinde gerçekleştirilen bu araştırmanın temel amacı, farklı sosyo-kültürel etkenlerle ve farklı motivasyonlarla bir turizm destinasyonunu ziyaret eden yerli ve yabancı turistler için farklı bir pazar bölümlendirmesine ihtiyaç olup olmadığını ortaya koymaktır. Bu amaca ulaşmak için İngiliz, Alman ve Türk turistlerden oluşan bir kitlenin Kapadokya destinasyonunu tercih etmesinde çeşitli sosyo-kültürel faktörler ve motivasyonel unsurlardan hangi düzeyde etkilendiği ölçülmeye çalışılmıştır. Araştırma sonuçları, genel olarak turistlerin Kapadokya'yı tercih etmede etkilendiği sosyo-kültürel faktörlerin ve motivasyonel unsurların ülkelere göre farklılaştığını ortaya koymaktadır. Bu nedenle araştırma kapsamında kurgulanan iki hipotez desteklenmiştir.

Destinasyon tercihinde sosyo-kültürel faktörlerin etkisinin ülkelere göre değişip değişmediğini ortaya koymaya yönelik olarak tasarlanan H1 hipotezi aile bireylerinin tavsiyesi, arkadaşların tavsiyesi, örnek alınan ve özenilen kişilerin tavsiyesi ve kültürel nedenler alt başlıklarında desteklenmiştir. Aile bireylerinin etkisi Türk turistlerde İngiliz ve Alman turistlere göre oldukça düşük düzeyde gerçekleşmiştir. Arkadaşların tavsiyesi ise, İngiliz turistlerde yüksek bir düzeyde etkili olurken, Alman ve Türk turistlerde nispeten düşük bir etkiye sahiptir. Örnek alınan ve özenilen kişilerin tavsiyesi Alman turistlerde yüksek düzeyde etkili olurken, İngiliz turistlerde göreceli olarak düşük çıkmıştır. Kültürel nedenler incelendiğinde ise, İngilizlerin bu unsurdan oldukça yüksek düzeyde etkilendiği, Alman ve Türk turistlerde bu etkinin nispeten düşük kaldığı görülmüştür. Değer verilen kişilerin etkisi, söz konusu üç grup açısından istatistikî olarak farklılaşmamıştır.

Araştırma özelinde sosyo-kültürel etkenlerin destinasyon tercihindeki etkisi ülke bazında değerlendirildiğinde, İngiliz turistlerin ailelerinden, arkadaşlarından ve kültürel etkenlerden yüksek düzeyde etkilendiği görülmektedir. Alman turistler ise, aileleri ile örnek alınan ve özenilen kişilerden yüksek düzeyde etkilenmektedir. Türk turistlerin sosyo-kültürel faktörlerden İngiliz ve Alman turistler kadar etkilenmediği söylenebilir. Bu sonuçlardan hareketle, Kapadokya destinasyonundaki kamu yöneticilerine, yerel yönetimlere ve işletmecilere farklı ülkelerden gelen turistlerin Kapadokya tercihlerinde hangi sosyo-kültürel faktörlerden etkilendiklerini incelemeleri ve eğer bu turistlerin oluşturduğu pazar yeterli büyüklükteyse, sosyo-kültürel etkenlere göre bir bölümlendirmeye gitmeleri önerisinde bulunulabilir. Bu bağlamda, örneğin İngiliz turistler için tanıtımlarda Kapadokya'nın kültürel dokusuna vurgu yapılması onları etkileyebilecekken, Alman turistleri çekmek için Almanya'nın sevilen sanatçılarının tanıtımlarda kullanılması faydalı olabilir.

Destinasyon tercihinde motivasyonel unsurların etkisinin ülkelere göre değişip değişmediğini ortaya koymaya yönelik olarak tasarlanan H2 hipotezi, "görülecek eşsiz yerler", "tarihi mimari", "müzeler ve kültürel çekicilikler", "festivaller ve aktiviteler", "gelenek ve görenekler", "yerel mutfak", "misafirperver yerel halk", "hareketli ortam", "kültürü farklı bölge", "çok kültürlü bölge" ve "moda olduğu için gidilen yer" alt unsurlarında desteklenirken, "dil çeşitliliği" alt unsurunda desteklenmemiştir.

Özellikle "görülecek eşsiz yerler", "müzeler ve kültürel çekicilikler", "festivaller ve aktiviteler", "çok kültürlü bölge" ve "moda olduğu için gidilen yer" alt unsurlarının motivasyonel etkisi İngiliz, Alman ve Türk turistlerde tamamıyla farklılaşmaktadır.

İngiliz turistlerin Kapadokya'yı tercih etmesinde etkili olan motivasyonel unsurlar arasında en çok "görülecek eşsiz yerler", "tarihi mimari" , "müzeler ve kültürel çekicilikler" "çok kültürlü bölge" ve "kültürü farklı bölge" unsurlarının öne çıktığı görülmüştür. Bu noktada, sosyo-kültürel etkenlerde de değinildiği gibi, İngilizlerin bu destinasyonu tercihinde kültürel etkenlerin etkisi ciddi düzeyde yüksektir. Dolayısıyla, İngiliz turistleri ayrı bir pazar olarak ele alıp, onları kültürel unsurlarla destinasyona çekmeye çalışmak faydalı sonuçlar verebilecektir. Alman turistleri en çok motive eden unsurlar, sırasıyla "yerel mutfak", "hareketli ortam", "festivaller ve aktiviteler", "görülecek eşsiz yerler" ve "moda olduğu için gidilen yer" olarak tespit edilmiştir. Bu sonuçlar, Alman turistlerin İngilizlerden farklı motivasyonlarla Kapadokya'yı tercih ettiğini göstermektedir. Bu doğrultuda, Alman turistleri de farklı bir pazar olarak ele almak ve derinlemesine incelemek faydalı olacaktır. Türk turistleri daha yüksek düzeyde motive eden unsurlar ise, "moda olduğu için gidilen yer", "festivaller ve aktiviteler", "görülecek eşsiz yerler", "hareketli ortam" ve "müzeler ve kültürel çekicilikler" şeklinde sıralanmaktadır. Bu sıralama Alman turistlerle ciddi bir benzerlik göstermektedir. Bu nedenle, Alman ve Türk turistleri aynı Pazar bölümünde ele alma düşüncesi değerlendirilebilir. Diğer taraftan, Türk turistlerin bir destinasyonu moda olduğu için tercih ettiği çoğu zaman gözlemlenen bir olgudur. Örneğin, Bursa iline bağlı Cumalıkızık köyü, bölgede çekilen bir televizyon dizisinden sonra popüler hale gelmiştir. Dizi 2005 yılında sona ermesine rağmen, halen çok sayıda yerli turist bu köyü ziyaret etmeye devam etmektedir. Bu doğrultuda, Kapadokya bölgesinin popülaritesini korumaya devam etmesi, Türk turistlerin bu bölgeyi tercih etmesinde etkili olabilecektir.

Yukarıda ifade edilen sonuçlar ve sonuçlara yönelik yapılan pazar bölümlendirme önerileri, pazarın yeterli büyüklükte olup olmadığı belirlenerek dikkate alınmalıdır. Zira bir turist kitlesinin bir destinasyonu tercih etmede diğerlerinden farklı sosyo-kültürel faktörlere ve motivasyonel unsurlara sahip olması, doğrudan o kitlenin ayrı bir pazar bölümü oluşturacağı anlamına gelmez. Bunu söyleyebilmek için, bu turist kitlesinin destinasyon için önemli bir büyüklüğe sahip olması gerekmektedir.

Bu araştırma, Kapadokya destinasyonunu ziyaret eden İngiliz, Alman ve Türk turistler üzerinde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu bağlamda, araştırma bulguları sadece bu kitle ve destinasyona yönelik sonuçlar ortaya koymaktadır. Dolayısıyla, araştırma sonuçlarının genellenmesi doğru değildir. Bu konuda araştırma yapacak akademisyenlere, sosyo-kültürel faktörlerin ve motivasyonel unsurların destinasyon tercihi üzerindeki etkisini farklı bir destinasyonda incelemeleri önerisinde bulunulabilir. Ayrıca, destinasyon tercihinde etkili olabilecek ilgilenim faktörü de bu tarz bir araştırmada incelenebilecek bir değişkendir.

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THE ROLE OF MINDFULNESS IN UNETHICAL PURCHASING NEGOTIATION

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- Negotiation occurs all the time in purchasing practices of businesses, and is inevitable for purchasing professionals when encountering purchasing conflict. Ethical negotiation is considered the vital requirement in maintaining long-term and close buyer-supplier relationships. This study aims to explore the relationship between mindfulness and unethical negotiation.
Methodology- This study will take purchasing professionals in Taiwan as research subjects to investigate the relationship between mindfulness and unethical negotiation.
Findings- Research findings reveal that there is a significant negative relationship between mindfulness and unethical negotiation. Purchasing professionals with different mindfulness are expected to exhibit different purchasing negotiation behaviors.
Conclusion- Mindfulness refers to self-awareness of one's present experience including his/her own thoughts and what is happening in the environment. While the process of negotiation contains a series of judgment and decision-making, mindfulness may possibly influence purchasing professionals' unethical negotiation.

Keywords: Mindfulness, unethical negotiation, purchasing professionals, Taiwan.
JEL Codes: M10, M12, M14

1. INTRODUCTION

Purchasing professionals play a key role in keeping long-term relationships with suppliers and achieving the company's strategic objectives (Bell, Oppenheimer & Bastien, 2002). They often extend the boundary between internal functions and external suppliers by coordinating the flow of goods and services in business. Based on Knight, Tu, and Preston's (2014) study, negotiation skills have been ranked the top three skills of purchasing professionals; therefore, negotiation plays an important role in maintaining buyer-supplier relationship (Sharland, 2001). Most purchasing professionals spend a considerable portion of time either negotiating with suppliers for things that are important to their purchasing duty or resolving disputes among others in the workplace.

Negotiation occurs all the time in purchasing practices of businesses, and is inevitable for purchasing professionals when encountering purchasing conflict. It is the process of reviewing, planning, and analyzing used by two or more parties to reach acceptable agreements or compromises. A negotiation situation usually encounters a conflict of interest (Lewicki, 1983). Accordingly, when a purchasing negotiation conflict happens, tension may occur between purchasing professionals' duty to both the employer and supplier. Each purchasing professional may possibly perceived questionable negotiation in different ways, and leads to different decision makings and outcomes. Ethical negotiation in purchasing are considered to be one of the essential requirements in maintaining close buyer-supplier relationships (Reitz, Wall & Love, 1998). Most suppliers no doubt view ethics of their buyers as an important foundation to build relationships characterized by trust (Bell et al., 2002; Robertson & Rymon, 2001). Therefore, understanding the acceptable and appropriate negotiation tactics of purchasing professionals is helpful for those who want to build close buyer-supplier relationships. An amount of empirical studies have examined ethical issues in purchasing negotiation practices; but, there is still lack of research focusing on analyzing the effect of purchasing professionals' mindfulness on unethical purchasing negotiation.

Mindfulness refers to self-awareness of one's present experience including his/her own thoughts and what is happening in the environment (Brown & Ryan, 2003). It is "a state of being attentive to and aware of what is taking place in the present"

(Brown & Ryan, 2003, p.822), and also the concept of being present with open or receptive awareness and attention, which is likely to assist one's judgment and decision-making. Mindful individuals are more likely to recognize ethical challenges or to appreciate conflicts of interest (Ruedy & Schweitzer, 2010). As how people perceive is related to what they do, individuals' mindfulness plays an essential role in how their ethics actions are shaped. Purchasing professionals with different mindfulness are expected to exhibit different purchasing negotiation behaviors. While the process of negotiation contains a series of judgment and decision-making (Brach, 2008), mindfulness may possibly influence purchasing professionals' unethical negotiation. Although several studies investigated unethical purchasing negotiation, none of them analyzed the relationship between mindfulness and unethical purchasing negotiation. To fill the research gap, the purpose of this study is to explore the effect of purchasing professionals' mindfulness on unethical purchasing negotiation.

The remainder of the paper proceeds as follows. The next section reviews the literature and proposes research hypothesis. The third section illustrates the research methodology, and the fourth section shows the research findings. The final section concludes with suggestions.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Unethical Purchasing Negotiation

Negotiation is "a process of potentially opportunistic interaction by which two or more parties, with some apparent conflict, seeks to do better through jointly decided action than they could otherwise" (Lax & Sebenius, 1986, p. 11). It is a process to reach an agreement and get what you want from others by using back and forth communications when two sides have some shared and opposed interests (Fisher, Ury & Patton, 1991). Conflicts of interests often occur between two or more individuals or parties, and each side will find ways to solve the conflicts. Most people expect a give and take process that each side will modify their opening position to reach a compromise (Lewicki, Saunders, & Barry, 2006). Ideally, negotiating parties or individuals interact to each other to attain mutual beneficial agreement; however in many cases, people who encounter challenges to achieve goals for each side may possibly use unethical tactics to their own good. Purchasing professionals, often act as negotiators and coordinators between suppliers and the company, are likely to use questionable negotiation practices to achieve desired outcomes. It is sometimes difficult for purchasing professionals to balance and achieve mutual benefits.

In general, negotiation is usually a mix of competition and cooperation (Ogilvie & Kidder, 2008; Rubin, 2002) which includes both integrative and distributive features. The interdependence between these two poles creates a dilemma for the negotiator in his decision making process (Rubin, 2002). Dilemmas arise because the tactical requirements of distributive bargaining are opposite to those of integrative bargaining. Managing the dilemmas between these two features presents a central challenge to negotiators. These dilemmas consist in fixing the objectives, deciding on the level of cooperation, honesty and trust but also on the ways and means and toughness (Grzeskowiak & Al-Khatib, 2009).

Although ethical negotiation exists when negotiators are willing to find a fair solution with honesty by exchanging information in a moral and social acceptable manner without abusing their power, Robinson, Lewicki, & Donahue (2000) argue that negotiators might attempt to find opportunistic advantages in negotiation. To achieve desired outcomes, several negotiators are likely to use questionable practices during negotiation process (Pruit, 2002). Reitz et al. (1998) concluded ten questionable negotiation tactics, including lies, puffery, deception, weakening the opponent, strengthening one's own position, nondisclosure, information exploitation, change of mind, distraction, and maximization. Lewicki and Robinson (1998) proposed five common unethical negotiation: (1) traditional competitive bargaining; (2) attacking negotiating opponent's network; (3) making false promise to negotiating partner; (4) misrepresentation of information; and (5) inappropriate information gathering about negotiating partner's business position. These five types of unethical negotiation have been widely analyzed in the research of negotiation ethics (e.g., Al-Khatib, Malshe & Abdulkader, 2008; Banai, Stefanidis, Shetach, & Özbek, 2014; Ma, 2010; Rivers, 2009; Volkema, 2004; Volkema & Fleury, 2002; Westbrook, Arendall & Padelford, 2011).

For example, purchasing professionals may engage in competitive bargaining such as exaggerate their demands, hide their bottom line from the suppliers, or remain tentative about their negotiation timeline. They may even use more questionable tactics such as making false promises and pretending that the company has intention to perform some action without actually having the intention to follow through. Furthermore, purchasing professionals may also misrepresent the information. They may distort their acceptable settlement points so that they can convince the suppliers to provide them with more concessions. Some purchasing professionals may also choose to attack the other company's network by seducing members of the opponent company to join in or provide secret information. They may also involve in inappropriate information gathering tactic such as paying bribes to collect the floor price of the merchandise. Therefore, this study adopts Lewicki and Robinson's (1998) perspective to investigate purchasing professionals' ethically questionable purchasing negotiation.

Potential predictors of unethical negotiation behavior are usually categorized into individual (or demographic) factors, and cultural factors in numbers of studies (Al-Khatib et al., 2008; Banai et al., 2014; Sobral & Islam, 2013; Volkema, 2004). In addition to individual and cultural factors, business ethics research has suggested that organizational factors are important predictors of an individual's ethical decision-making (O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2005; Olekalns, Horan, & Smith, 2014; Reb, Narayanan, & Ho, 2013). However, none of these studies focused on the effect of mindfulness on unethical purchasing negotiation. This study therefore attempts to investigate the relationship between mindfulness and unethical purchasing negotiation.

2.2 Mindfulness

Mindfulness has been discussed in diverse perspectives though numbers of studies have noted about the complexity of defining mindfulness (e.g., Chiesa, 2013; Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000; Mikulas, 2011). The concept of mindfulness was derived from the ancient Buddhist tradition which represented a quality of consciousness called "bare attention" (Brown, Ryan, & Creswell, 2007). From the perspectives of psychology, mindfulness is the process of drawing novel distinctions including open to novelty, being sensitive to content and perspective, creating new categories, changing mindsets, challenging assumptions, breaking set, getting involved, and taking responsibility (Langer, 1989; Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000). Moreover, mindfulness can be considered the awareness that emerges through paying attention on purpose, in the present moment, and non-judgmentally to the unfolding of experience moment by moment. (Kabat-Zinn, 2003), or can also be regarded as the behavior of the mind which actively maximize the breadth and clarity of awareness (Mikulas, 2011). Based on Brown and Ryan (2003), mindfulness is "a state of being attentive to and aware of what is taking place in the present" (Brown & Ryan, 2003, p.822). They argue that this "present-centered attention-awareness" concept is fundamental to defining mindfulness (Brown & Ryne, 2003, p.824).

Regarding the essentials of mindfulness, studies have suggested a variety of elements about mindfulness. For example, Bishop et al. (2004) suggest that mindfulness is considered a particular focus of attention characterized by two distinct features: (1) self-regulation of attention to the immediate present moment, and (2) the adoption of an orientation marked by curiosity, openness, and acceptance. Shapiro et al. (2006) indicate a three-component model of mindfulness including attention, attitude and intention to explain how mindfulness practice affects positive change. Cardaciotto et al. (2008) suggest two key components of mindfulness: present-moment awareness and acceptance. Moreover, Baer, Smith, and Allen (2004) suggest four elements of mindfulness which includes observing, describing, acting with awareness, and accepting without judgment. Baer et al. (2006) and Baer (2007) then propose a five-factor structure of mindfulness characterized by nonreactivity, observing, acting with awareness, describing, and nonjudging. Because of the various definitions of mindfulness, Chiesa (2013) suggests researchers may refer to the specific aspect or process of mindfulness using in their research. Although numbers of above studies have proposed various elements of mindfulness, the "present-centered attention-awareness" suggested by Brown and Ryan (2003) was often used; accordingly, the study will refer to present-center attention-awareness mindfulness as defined by Brown and Ryan (2003).

Being mindful is often critical not only at work but also in decision-makings. Langer and Moldoveanu (2000) indicate that the consequences of mindfulness include (1) greater sensitivities to the environment, (2) more openness to new information, (3) the creation of new categories for structuring perception, and (4) enhanced awareness of multiple perspectives in problem solving. (Langer & Moldoveanu, 2000, p.2). Studies also found that participants in mindful conditions were better able to use the objects creativity when the need for a novel use of the object arose (Langer & Piper, 1987). The increases in mindfulness are positively related to creativity (Langer, Heffernan, & Kiester, 1988), self-regulated behavior and positive emotional states (Brown & Ryan, 2003), willingness to tolerate uncomfortable emotions and sensations (Levitt et al., 2004), job performance (Dane & Brummel, 2014), and culturally sensitive and reflective (Tuleja, 2014). Supervisors' trait mindfulness is also found positively related to employee well-being and performance such as in-role performance and organizational citizenship behaviors (Reb, Narayanan, & Chaturvedi, 2014). Moreover, individuals in high mindfulness are more likely to behave ethically, value upholding ethical standards, use a principled approach to ethical decision-making, and cheat less (Ruedy & Schweitzer, 2010). When applying to the workplace, mindfulness is found positively associated with employee well-being performance (Reb et al.,2014) and performance (Dane & Brummel, 2014).

For example, Ruedy and Schweitzer (2010) studied the effect of mindfulness on ethical decision making, and found individual mindfulness will benefit his/her ethical standard upholding. Reb et al. (2013) found that employee mindfulness is positively related to employee well-being and performance, and therefore suggest the critical role of mindfulness at the workplace. They also found organizational constraint positively related to employee absent-mindedness and negatively related to employee awareness, task routineness was found positively related to employee absent-mindedness, and the supervisor support positively predicted employee awareness. As a result, they propose that employee mindfulness can be enhanced through supervisor support and organizational factors. In addition, Dane and Brummel (2014) found workplace mindfulness is positively related to job performance and negatively related to turnover intention.

Based on above discussions, mindfulness is the concept of being present with open or receptive awareness and attention,

which is likely to benefit one's judgment and decision-making. As the process of negotiation contains a series of judgment and decision-making, mindfulness may possibly influence purchasing professionals' unethical negotiation.

2.3 Mindfulness and Unethical Purchasing Negotiation

Mindfulness promotes self-awareness of one's environment (Rudey & Schweitzer, 2010); therefore, increasing mindful awareness can deepen and broaden social understanding. Benefits of being mindful to the present may also extend to complex social interactions. Mindful negotiators are likely to be self-aware and often attached to the emotions of others. On the other hand, mindless negotiators may possibly encounter misunderstanding and misperceptions in negotiation occasions. As a consequence, the role of mindfulness is essential that may possibly impact on negotiation success.

Numbers of studies suggest that mindfulness may improve negotiation performance (e.g., Brach, 2008; Kiken & Shook, 2011; Kopelman, Avi-Yonah, & Varghese, 2012; Reb & Narayanan, 2014; Riskin, 2009; Ruedy & Schweitzer, 2010). For instance, Brach (2008) focuses on interest-based negotiation and proposes that negotiators may enhance negotiator effectiveness by examining four thematic parallels: purpose, presence, acceptance, and connectedness. By incorporating these four facets, negotiators can also make their negotiating experiences more satisfying. Kiken and Shook (2011) suggests mindfulness can increase positive judgment and reduces negativity bias. They also found that people in mindfulness condition reveal higher level of optimism. Kopelman et al. (2012) argue that mindfully handling emotions in negotiation will result in better negotiation performance.

In addition, Riskin (2009) discusses mindful awareness from the viewpoint of law profession. He argues that mindfulness can assist individuals think clearly and to recall ethical values, rules, or standards, and therefore bring about the ethical conduct of lawyers, negotiators, and mediators. Ruedy & Schweitzer (2010) examine the relationship between mindfulness and ethical decision-making, and found that mindfulness may promote ethical intention. Individuals with higher mindfulness are more likely to reveal higher ethical standards. Reb and Narayanan (2014) conduct four laboratory experiments to examine the effect of mindful attention on distributive negotiation. They found mindful negotiators are more likely to focus their minds on the task instead of getting distracted. Mindful negotiators are also more satisfied with the negotiation outcome and process.

Accordingly, mindfulness may disengage individuals from thoughts, habits or improper behavior, and foster self-endorsed behavioral regulation. It helps recognize the situation and avoid biases in negotiation process so that desired negotiation outcome may be achieved. While mindfulness could encourage a greater awareness of one's environment and self-serving cognitions (Brown & Ryan,2003) and self-awareness may enhance conscious of ethical considerations (Ruedy & Schweitzer, 2009), this study proposes the following hypothesis: There is a negative relationship between mindfulness and unethical purchasing negotiation.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Data Collection

Data were collected through a questionnaire survey of a thousand of purchasing professionals across a broad spectrum of industries in Taiwan. These purchasing professionals were contacted by researchers via e-mail and telephone to solicit their cooperation. A packet containing a cover letter with the promise of protecting the confidentiality of responses, a questionnaire, and a pre-addressed return envelope were mailed to each of the sampled purchasing professionals. After the questionnaires were delivered, a follow-up to the purchasing professionals was conducted by e-mail and telephone to remind them of the importance of their responses and thank them for their assistance. A total of 631 respondents returned the questionnaires. Like any other ethics research, this study has the potential to suffer from responses that state what is socially desirable, not what is practiced. The fact that the survey was conducted voluntarily and anonymously may have minimized this problem to some extent.

3.2 Measurement

This study used the Self-reported Inappropriate Negotiation Strategies Scale (SINS Scale) and the Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MASS) to investigate respectively purchasing professionals' unethical purchasing negotiation and mindfulness. The SINS was originally introduced by Lewicki and his colleagues (Lewicki & Robinson, 1998; Robinson et al., 2000) to measure an individual's perception of unethical negotiation tactics. The instrument consists of 16 items in five factors representing five unethical tactics in negotiation contexts: (1) traditional competitive bargaining; (2) attacking negotiating opponent's network; (3) making false promises to negotiating partner; (4) misrepresentation of information; and (5) inappropriate information gathering about negotiating partners' business position. Respondents are asked to consider these items in the context of a situation that they are negotiating for something very crucial to their business and themselves. They rate the degree of appropriateness they perceived in each item on a seven-point Likert scale format, with 1 indicates not appropriate at all while 7 indicates very appropriate. Except for four items in the scale for information

misrepresentation, all other four scales have three items respectively. This instrument has been used and confirmed its validity in a number of studies.

To measure the mindfulness of purchasing professionals, this study used the Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS) developed by Brown and Ryan (2003). This measurement particularly emphasizes on the perspective of present-centered mindfulness, and is so far the most widely used questionnaire in mindfulness studies (Chiesa, 2013). The MASS was used to measure individual differences in the frequency of mindful states over time (Brown & Ryan, 2003). This scale has 15-item questionnaire scored on a 6-point Likert scale from 1 (almost always) to 6 (almost never) for participants to rate how often they experience these states.

4. RESEARCH RESULTS

The measurement items of determinant factors were submitted to factor analysis. The result of factor analysis confirms the construct validity of this study. According to the reliability coefficients, the smallest value of Cronbach's alpha for this study is 0.7972, which implies that the sampling results are reliable. Table 1 shows the perceptions of unethical negotiation tactics of respondents.

Table 1: A Summary of Perceptions of Unethical Negotiation Tactics of Respondents

	Score
Inappropriate information gathering	3.18
Information misrepresentation	2.36
Competitive bargaining	4.05
Attacking opponent network	2.97
Making false promises	2.69

To explore the relationship between mindfulness and unethical purchasing negotiation, the regression analysis was used in the study. The results reveal that proposed research hypothesis is supported. There is a significant negative relationship between mindfulness and unethical purchasing negotiation (β =-0.21).

Being mindful is often critical not only at work but also in decision-makings. Mindfulness promotes self-awareness of one's environment; therefore, increasing mindful awareness can deepen and broaden social understanding. Benefits of being mindful to the present may also extend to complex social interactions. Mindfulness can assist individuals think clearly and to recall ethical values, rules, or standards, and therefore bring about the ethical conduct of lawyers, negotiators, and mediators. Mindfulness may promote ethical intention. Individuals with higher mindfulness are more likely to reveal higher ethical standards. Mindful negotiators are more likely to focus their minds on the task instead of getting distracted.

Mindfulness could encourage a greater awareness of one's environment and self-serving cognitions, and self-awareness may enhance conscious of ethical considerations. Mindful negotiators are likely to be self-aware and often attached to the emotions of others. On the other hand, mindless negotiators may possibly encounter misunderstanding and misperceptions in negotiation occasions. As a consequence, the role of mindfulness is essential that may possibly impact on negotiation success. Mindful negotiators are also more satisfied with the negotiation outcome and process. Accordingly, mindfulness may disengage individuals from thoughts, habits or improper behavior, and foster self-endorsed behavioral regulation. It helps recognize the situation and avoid biases in negotiation process so that desired negotiation outcome may be achieved.

5. CONCLUSION

This study has explored the relationship between mindfulness and unethical negotiation for purchasing professionals in Taiwan. The research findings revealed that there is a significant negative relationship between mindfulness and unethical purchasing negotiation. This study can provide a thorough analysis of mindfulness and unethical negotiation of purchasing professionals by analyzing the influences of mindfulness on unethical purchasing negotiation. This study is expected to contribute to make up for the lack of research on analyzing mindfulness and unethical negotiation of purchasing professionals, and expand the research scopes of both mindfulness and negotiation ethics.

Furthermore, while most previous studies focused on purchasing ethics in the Western society, the current study can make significant contributions towards the ethics literature by providing valuable empirical insight into mindfulness and unethical negotiation in the context of purchasing in Taiwan – a non-Western environment. The study is expected to have profound implications for Taiwanese businesses as it can provide a basis for understanding their purchasing professionals'

perceptions of unethical negotiation tactics in purchasing situations. This study might help businesses to establish guidelines to help purchasing professionals to act ethically when facing dilemmas and to prevent them from resorting to unethical negotiation practices.

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